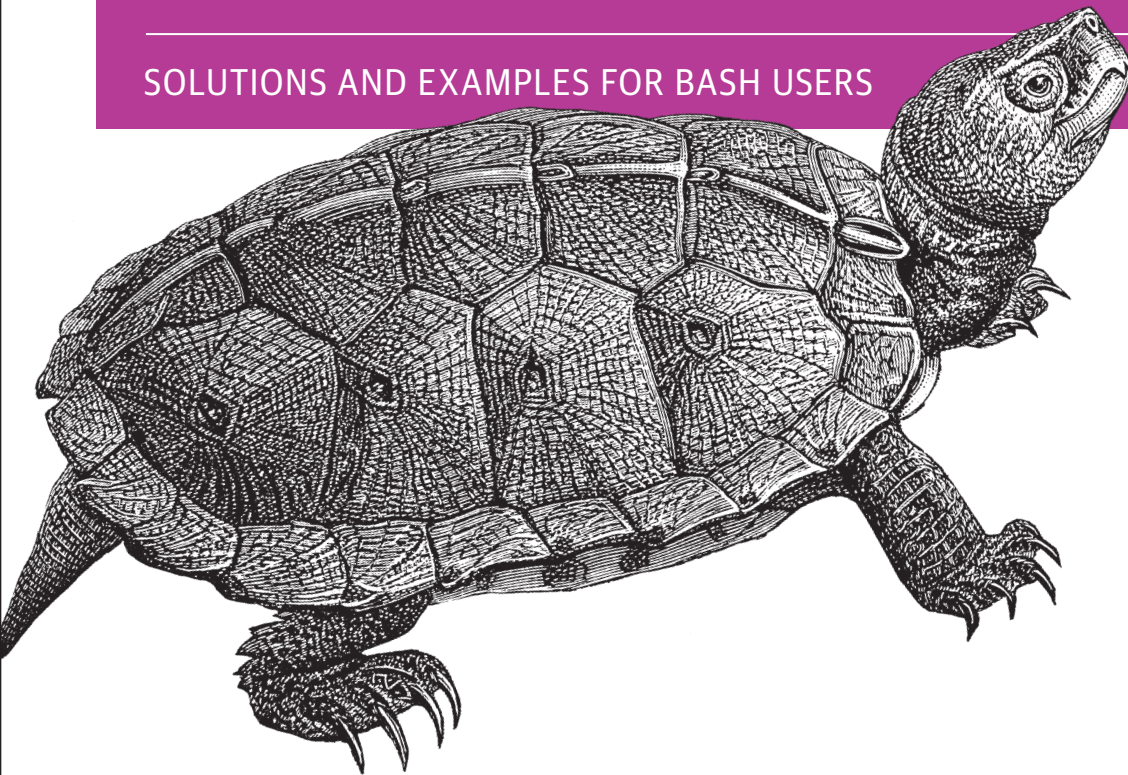


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bash Cookbook

SOLUTIONS AND EXAMPLES FOR BASH USERS



Carl Albing & JP Vossen

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bash Cookbook

For system administrators, programmers, and end users, there are occasions when a simple shell command or carefully crafted shell script can save you time and effort, or facilitate consistency and repeatability for a variety of common tasks. This cookbook provides more than 300 practical recipes for using *bash*, the popular Unix shell that enables you to harness and customize the power of any Unix or Linux system.

Ideal for new and experienced users alike—including proficient Windows users and sysadmins—this updated second edition helps you solve a wide range of problems. You'll learn ways to handle input/output, file manipulation, program execution, administrative tasks, and many other challenges. Each recipe includes one or more scripting examples and a discussion of why the solution works.

“There is a wealth of hints and tips found here. Readers will discover new and useful tricks that will not only reveal the shell's power, but help them get things done.”

—Chet Ramey

GNU Bash and Readline maintainer

You'll find recipes for problems including:

- Standard output and input, and executing commands
- Shell variables, shell logic, and arithmetic
- Intermediate shell tools and advanced scripting
- Searching for files with *find*, *locate*, and *slocate*
- Working with dates and times
- Creating shell scripts for various end-user tasks
- Working with tasks that require parsing
- Writing secure shell scripts
- Configuring and customizing *bash*

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SECOND EDITION

bash Cookbook

Solutions and Examples for bash Users

Carl Albing and JP Vossen

Beijing • Boston • Farnham • Sebastopol • Tokyo

O'REILLY[®]

bash Cookbook

by Carl Albing and JP Vossen

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Preface

Every modern operating system has at least one shell, and some have many. Some shells are command line-oriented, such as the shell discussed in this book. Others are graphical, like Windows Explorer or the Macintosh Finder. Some users will interact with the shell only long enough to launch their favorite application, and then never emerge from that until they log off. But most users spend a significant amount of time using the shell. The more you know about your shell, the faster and more productive you can be.

Whether you are a system administrator, a programmer, or an end user, there are certainly occasions where a simple (or perhaps not so simple) shell script can save you time and effort, or facilitate consistency and repeatability for some important task. Even using an alias to change or shorten the name of a command you use often can have a significant effect. We'll cover this and much more.

As with any general programming language, there is more than one way to do a given task in the shell. In some cases, there is only one *best* way, but in most cases there are at least two or three equally effective and efficient ways to write a solution. Which way you choose depends on your personal style, creativity, and familiarity with different commands and techniques. This is as true for us as authors as it is for you as the reader. In most cases we will choose a single method and implement it. In a few cases we may choose a particular method and explain why we think it's the best. We may also occasionally show more than one equivalent solution so you can choose the one that best fits your needs and environment.

There is also sometimes a choice between a clever way to write some code, and a readable way. We will choose the readable way every time because experience has taught us that no matter how transparent you think your clever code is now, 6 or 18 months and 10 projects from now, you will be scratching your head asking yourself what you were thinking. Trust us: write clear code, and document it—you'll thank yourself (and us) later.

Who Should Read This Book

This book is for anyone who uses a Unix or Linux system, as well as system administrators who may use several systems on any given day. With it, you will be able to create scripts that allow you to accomplish more, in less time, more easily, consistently, and repeatably than ever before.

Anyone? Yes. New users will appreciate the sections on automating repetitive tasks, making simple substitutions, and customizing their environment to be more friendly and perhaps behave in more familiar ways. Power users and administrators will find new and different solutions to common tasks and challenges. Advanced users will have a collection of techniques they can use at a moment's notice to put out the latest fire, without having to remember every little detail of syntax.

Ideal readers include:

- New Unix or Linux users who don't know much about the shell, but want to do more than point and click
- Experienced Unix or Linux users and system administrators looking for quick answers to shell scripting questions
- Programmers who work in a Unix or Linux (or even Windows) environment and want to be more productive
- New Unix or Linux sysadmins, or those coming from a Windows environment who need to come up to speed quickly
- Experienced Windows users and sysadmins who want a more powerful scripting environment

This book will only briefly cover basic and intermediate shell scripting—see *Learning the bash Shell, 3rd Edition*, by Cameron Newham (O'Reilly) and *Classic Shell Scripting* by Nelson H. F. Beebe and Arnold Robbins (O'Reilly) for more in-depth coverage. Instead, our goal is to provide solutions to common problems, with a strong focus on the “how to” rather than the theory. We hope this book will save you time when figuring out solutions or trying to remember syntax. In fact, that's why we wrote this book: it's what we wanted, one we could read through to get ideas, then refer to for practical working examples when needed. That way we wouldn't have to remember the subtle differences between the shell, Perl, C, and so forth.

This book assumes you have access to a Unix or Linux system (or see Recipes 1.14 through 1.18, or Recipe 15.4) and are familiar with logging in, typing basic commands, and using a text editor. You do not have to be *root* to use the vast majority of the recipes, though there are a few, particularly dealing with installing *bash*, where *root* access will be needed.

About This Book

This book covers *bash*, the GNU Bourne Again Shell, which is a member of the family of shells that includes the original Bourne shell, *sh*, the Korn shell, *ksh*, and the public domain Korn shell, *pksh*. While these and other shells such as *dash* and *zsh* are not specifically covered, odds are that most of the scripts will work pretty well with them.

You should be able to read this book cover to cover, and also just pick it up and read anything that catches your eye. But perhaps most importantly, we hope that when you have a question about how to do something or you need a hint, you will be able to easily find the right answer—or something close enough—and save time and effort.

A great part of the Unix philosophy is to build simple tools that do one thing well, then combine them as needed. This combination of tools is often accomplished via a shell script because these commands, called *pipelines*, can be long or difficult to remember and type. Where appropriate, we'll cover the use of many of these tools in the context of the shell script as the glue that holds the pieces together to achieve the goal.

The first edition of this book was written using OpenOffice.org Writer running on whatever Linux or Windows machine happened to be handy, and kept in Subversion (see [Appendix D](#)). The nature of the Open Document Format facilitated many critical aspects of writing this book, including cross-references and extracting code (see [Recipe 13.18](#)). That source was later converted to DocBook for production.

For the second edition, we've switched to AsciiDoc and Git on O'Reilly's Atlas system, which worked very well. We're grateful to O'Reilly's production and tools departments for their help.

GNU Software

bash and many of the other tools we discuss in this book are part of the [GNU Project](#). GNU (pronounced guh-noo, like canoe) is a recursive acronym for “GNU's Not Unix,” and the project dates back to 1984. Its goal is to develop a free (as in freedom) Unix-like operating system.

Without getting into too much detail, what is commonly referred to as *Linux* is, in fact, a kernel with various supporting software as a core. The GNU tools are wrapped around it and it has a vast array of other software that may be included, depending on your distribution. However, the Linux kernel itself is not GNU software.

The GNU Project argues that Linux should in fact be called “GNU/Linux,” and it has a good point, so some distributions (notably Debian) do this. Therefore, GNU's goal has arguably been achieved, though the result is not exclusively GNU.

The GNU Project has contributed a vast amount of superior software, notably including *bash*. There are GNU versions of practically every tool we discuss in this book, and while the GNU tools are more rich in terms of features and (usually) friendliness, they are also sometimes a little different. We discuss this in [Recipe 15.3](#), though the commercial Unix vendors in the 1980s and 1990s are also largely to blame for these differences.

Enough (several books this size worth) has already been said about all of these aspects of GNU, Unix, and Linux, but we felt that this brief note was appropriate. See <http://www.gnu.org> for much more on the topic.

A Note About Code Examples

When we show an executable piece of shell scripting in this book, we typically show it in an offset area like this:

```
$ ls
a.out  cong.txt  def.conf  file.txt  more.txt  zebra.list
$
```

The first character is often a dollar sign (\$) to indicate that this command has been typed at the *bash* shell prompt. (Remember that you can change the prompt, as described in [Recipe 16.2](#), so your prompt may look very different.) The prompt is printed by the shell; you type the remainder of the line. Similarly, the last line in such an example is often a prompt (the \$ again), to show that the command has ended execution and control has returned to the shell.

The pound or hash sign (#) is a little trickier. In many Unix or Linux files, including *bash* shell scripts, a leading # denotes a comment, and we have used it that way in some of our code examples. But as the trailing symbol in a *bash* command prompt (instead of \$), # means you are logged in as *root*. We only have one example that is running anything as *root*, so that shouldn't be confusing, but it's important to understand.

When you see an example without the prompt string, we are showing the contents of a shell script. For several large examples we will number the lines of the script, though the numbers are not part of the script.

We may also occasionally show an example as a session log or a series of commands. In some cases, we may cat one or more files so you can see the script and/or datafiles we'll be using in the example or in the results of our operation, like this:

```
$ cat data_file
static header line1
static header line2
1 foo
2 bar
3 baz
```


Many of the longer scripts and functions are available to download as well. See “Using Code Examples” on page xix for details. We have chosen to use `!/usr/bin/env bash` for these examples, where applicable, as that is more portable than the `!/bin/bash` you will see on Linux or a Mac. See [Recipe 15.1](#) for more details.

Also, you may notice something like the following in many code examples:

```
# cookbook filename: snippet_name
```

That means that the code you are reading is available for download in our [GitHub repository](#). You’ll find the code in something like `./chXX/snippet_name`, where `chXX` is the chapter and `snippet_name` is the name of the file.

Useless Use of `cat`

Certain Unix users take a positively giddy delight in pointing out inefficiencies in other people’s code. Most of the time this is constructive criticism gently given and gratefully received.

Probably the most common case is the so-called “useless use of `cat` award” bestowed when someone does something like `cat file | grep foo` instead of simply `grep foo file`. In this case, `cat` is unnecessary and incurs some system overhead since it runs in a subprocess. Another common case would be `cat file | tr '[A-Z]' '[a-z]'` instead of `tr '[A-Z]' '[a-z]' < file`. Sometimes using `cat` can even cause your script to fail (see [Recipe 19.8](#)).

But...(you knew that was coming, didn’t you?) sometimes unnecessarily using `cat` actually does serve a purpose. It might be a placeholder to demonstrate a fragment of a pipeline, with other commands later replacing it (perhaps even `cat -n`). Or it might be that placing the file near the left side of the code draws the eye to it more clearly than if it were hidden behind a `<` on the far-right side of the page.

While we applaud efficiency and agree it is a goal to strive for, it isn’t as critical as it once was. We are *not* advocating carelessness and code bloat, we’re just saying that processors aren’t getting any slower anytime soon. So if you like `cat`, use it.

A Note About Perl

We made a conscious decision to avoid using Perl in our solutions as much as possible, though there are still a few cases where it makes sense. Perl is already covered elsewhere in far greater depth and breadth than we could ever manage here. And Perl solutions are generally much larger, with significantly more overhead, than ours. There is also a fine line between shell scripting and Perl scripting, and this is a book about shell scripting.

Shell scripting is basically glue for sticking Unix programs together, whereas Perl incorporates much of the functionality of the external Unix programs into the lan-

guage itself. This makes it more efficient and in some ways more portable, at the expense of being different and making it harder to efficiently run any external programs you still need.

The choice of which tool to use often has more to do with familiarity than with any other reason. The bottom line is always getting the work done; the choice of tools is secondary. We'll show you many ways to do things using *bash* and related tools. When you need to get your work done, you get to choose what tools you use.

More Resources

- *Perl Cookbook, 2nd Edition*, by Nathan Torkington and Tom Christiansen (O'Reilly)
- *Programming Perl, 4th Edition*, by Larry Wall et al. (O'Reilly)
- *Perl Best Practices*, by Damian Conway (O'Reilly)
- *Mastering Regular Expressions, 3rd Edition*, Jeffrey E. F. Friedl (O'Reilly)
- *Learning the bash Shell, 3rd Edition*, by Cameron Newham (O'Reilly)
- *Classic Shell Scripting*, Nelson H. F. Beebe and Arnold Robbins (O'Reilly)

Conventions Used in This Book

The following typographical conventions are used in this book:

Plain text

Indicates menu titles, menu options, menu buttons, and keyboard accelerators (such as Alt and Ctrl).

Italic

Indicates new terms, URLs, email addresses, filenames, file extensions, pathnames, directories, and Unix utilities.

Constant width

Indicates commands, options, switches, variables, attributes, keys, functions, types, classes, namespaces, methods, modules, properties, parameters, values, objects, events, event handlers, XML tags, HTML tags, macros, the contents of files, and the output from commands.

Constant width bold

Shows commands or other text that should be typed literally by the user.

Constant width italic

Shows text that should be replaced with user-supplied values.



This icon signifies a general note.



This icon signifies a tip or suggestion.



This icon indicates a warning or caution.

Using Code Examples


Supplemental material (code examples, exercises, etc.) is available for download at <https://github.com/vossenjp/bashcookbook-examples>.

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You can find information about this book, code samples, errata, links, *bash* documentation, and more at the authors' site, <http://www.bashcookbook.com>.

Please drop by for a visit to learn, contribute, or chat. The authors would love to hear from you about what you like and don't like about the book, what *bash* wonders you may have found, or lessons you have learned. To comment or ask technical questions about this book, send email to bookquestions@oreilly.com.

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Reviewers

Many thanks to our reviewers! They all provided valuable feedback, suggestions, and in some cases alternate solutions, pointed out issues we had overlooked, and in general greatly improved the book. Any errors or omissions in this text are ours and not theirs. An excellent example of their wisdom is the correct observation, “That sentence doesn’t know whether it’s coming or going!”

First edition: Yves Eynard, Chet Ramey, William Shotts, Ryan Waldron, and Michael Wang.

Second edition: Chet Ramey, Robert Day, and Arnold Robbins.

O’Reilly

Thanks to the entire team at O’Reilly, without whom this book would not exist for many reasons, and if it did the content wouldn’t be or look nearly as good!

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From the Authors

Carl

The writing of a book is never a solitary effort, though it has its moments. Thanks to JP for working on this project with me through both editions over many years. Our complementary talents and time schedules have made this a better book than I could have managed alone. Thanks also to JP for his great sysadmin efforts to provide us with some infrastructure. Thanks to Mike for listening to our proposals for a *bash*

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My work on this book is dedicated to my parents, Hank and Betty, who have given me every good thing they had to offer—life itself, Christian faith, love, an excellent education, a sense of belonging, and all those good and healthy things one hopes to pass on to one's own children. I can never thank them enough.

JP

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This book is dedicated to Dad, who'd get a kick out of it. He always told me there are only two decisions that matter: what you do and who you marry. I've managed to get two for two, so I guess I'm doing pretty well. So this is also dedicated to Karen, for her incredible support, patience, and understanding during this longer than expected process and without whom even computers wouldn't be as fun. Finally, thanks to Kate and Sam, who contributed greatly to my aforementioned life management issues.

Beginning bash

What's a shell, and why should you care about it?

Any recent computer operating system (by *recent*, we mean since about 1970) has some sort of user interface—some way of specifying commands for the operating system to execute. But in lots of operating systems, that command interface was really built in and there was only one way to talk to the computer. Furthermore, an operating system's command interface would let you execute commands, but that was about all. After all, what else was there to do?

The Unix operating system popularized the notion of separating the *shell* (the part of the system that lets you type commands) from everything else: the input/output system, the scheduler, memory management, and all of the other things the operating system takes care of for you (and that most users don't want to care about). The shell was just one more program; it was a program whose job was executing other programs on behalf of users.

But that was the beginning of a revolution. The shell was just another program that ran on Unix; if you didn't like the standard one, you could create your own. So by the end of Unix's first decade, there were at least two competing shells: the Bourne shell, *sh* (which was a descendant of the original Thompson shell), plus the C shell, *csh*. By the end of Unix's second decade, there were a few more alternatives: the Korn shell, *ksh*, and the first versions of the *bash* shell. By the end of Unix's third decade, there were probably a dozen different shells.

You probably don't sit around saying, "Should I use *csh* or *bash* or *ksh* today?" You're probably happy with the standard shell that came with your Linux (or BSD or macOS or Solaris or HP/UX) system. But disentangling the shell from the operating system itself made it much easier for software developers (such as Brian Fox, the creator of *bash*, and Chet Ramey, the current developer and maintainer) to write better shells—

you could create a new shell without modifying the operating system itself. It was much easier to get a new shell accepted, since you didn't have to talk some operating system vendor into building the shell into their system; all you had to do was package the shell so that it could be installed just like any other program.

Still, you might be thinking that sounds like a lot of fuss for something that just takes commands and executes them. And you would be right—a *shell that just let you type commands wouldn't be very interesting*. However, two factors drove the evolution of the Unix shell: user convenience and programming. And the result is a modern shell that does much more than just accept commands.

Modern shells are very convenient. For example, they remember commands that you've typed, and let you reuse those commands. Modern shells also let you edit those commands, so they don't have to be the same each time. And modern shells let you define your own command abbreviations, shortcuts, and other features. For an experienced user, typing commands (e.g., with shorthand, shortcuts, and command completion) is a lot more efficient and effective than dragging things around in a fancy windowed interface.

But beyond simple convenience, shells are programmable. There are many sequences of commands that you type again and again. Whenever you do anything a second time, you should ask, "Can't I write a program to do this for me?" You can. A shell is also a programming language that's specially designed to work with your computer system's commands. So, if you want to generate a thousand MP3 files from WAV files, you can write a shell program (or *shell script*). If you want to compress all of your system's logfiles, you can write a shell script to do it. Whenever you find yourself doing a task repeatedly, you should try to automate it by writing a shell script. There are more powerful scripting languages, like Perl, Python, and Ruby, but the Unix shell (whatever flavor of shell you're using) is a great place to start. After all, you already know how to type commands; why make things more complex?

1.1 Why bash?

Why is this book about *bash*, and not some other shell? Because *bash* is everywhere. It may not be the newest, and it's arguably not the fanciest or the most powerful (though if not, it comes close), nor is it the only shell that's distributed as open source software—but it is ubiquitous.

The reason has to do with history. The first shells were fairly good programming tools, but not very convenient for users. The C shell added a lot of user conveniences (like the ability to repeat a command you'd just typed), but as a programming language it was quirky. The Korn shell, which came along next (in the early '80s), added a lot of user conveniences, improved the programming language, and looked like it was on the path to widespread adoption. But *ksh* wasn't open source software at first;

it was a proprietary software product, and was therefore difficult to ship with a free operating system like Linux. (The Korn shell's license was changed in 2000, and again in 2005.)

In the late 1980s, the Unix community decided standardization was a good thing, and the POSIX working groups (organized by the IEEE) were formed. POSIX standardized the Unix libraries and utilities, including the shell. The standard shell was primarily based on the 1988 version of the Korn shell, with some C shell features and a bit of invention to fill in the gaps. *bash* was begun as part of the GNU Project's effort to produce a complete POSIX system, which naturally needed a POSIX shell.

bash provided the programming features that shell programmers needed, plus the conveniences that command-line users liked. It was originally conceived as an alternative to the Korn shell, but as the free software movement became more important, and as Linux became more popular, *bash* quickly overshadowed *ksh*.

As a result, *bash* is the default user shell on every Linux distribution we know about (there are a few hundred Linux distros, so there are probably a few with some oddball default shell), as well as macOS (and the earlier OS X versions). It's also available for just about every other Unix operating system, including BSD Unix and Solaris. In the rare cases where *bash* doesn't ship with the operating system, it's easy to install. It's even available for Windows, via Cygwin and also the new Linux Subsystem (Ubuntu). *bash* is both a powerful programming language and a good user interface, and you won't find yourself sacrificing keyboard shortcuts to get elaborate programming features.

You can't possibly go wrong by learning *bash*. The most common default shells are the old Bourne shell and *bash*, which is mostly Bourne shell-compatible. One of these shells is certainly present on any modern, major Unix or Unix-like operating system. And as noted, if *bash* isn't present you can always install it. But there are other shells. In the spirit of free software, the authors and maintainers of all of these shells share ideas. If you read the *bash* change logs, you'll see many places where a feature was introduced or tweaked to match behavior on another shell. But most people won't care. They'll use whatever is already there and be happy with it. So if you are interested, by all means investigate other shells. There are many good alternatives, and you may find one you like better—though it probably won't be as ubiquitous as *bash*.

1.2 The *bash* Shell

bash is a shell: a command interpreter. The main purpose of *bash* (or of any shell) is to allow you to interact with the computer's operating system so that you can accomplish whatever you need to do. Usually that involves launching programs, so the shell takes the commands you type, determines from that input what programs need to be run, and launches them for you. You will also encounter tasks that involve a sequence

of actions to perform that are recurring, or very complicated, or both. Shell programming, usually referred to as *shell scripting*, allows you to automate these tasks for ease of use, reliability, and reproducibility.

In case you're new to *bash*, we'll start with some basics. If you've used Unix or Linux at all, you probably aren't new to *bash*—but you may not have known you were using it. *bash* is really just a language for executing commands—so the commands you've been typing all along (e.g., *ls*, *cd*, *grep*, *cat*) are, in a sense, *bash* commands. Some of these commands are built into *bash* itself; others are separate programs. For now, it doesn't make a difference which are which.

We'll end this chapter with a few recipes for getting *bash*. Most systems come with *bash* preinstalled, but a few don't. Even if your system comes with *bash*, it's always a good idea to know how to get and install it—new versions, with new features, are released from time to time.

If you're already running *bash*, and are somewhat familiar with it, you may want to go straight to [Chapter 2](#). You are not likely to read this book in order, and if you dip into the middle, you should find some recipes that demonstrate what *bash* is really capable of. But first, the basics.

1.3 Decoding the Prompt

Problem

You'd like to know what all the punctuation on your screen means.

Solution

All command-line shells have some kind of prompt to alert you that the shell is ready to accept your input. What the prompt looks like depends on many factors including your operating system type and version, shell type and version, distribution, and how someone else may have configured it. In the Bourne family of shells, a trailing `$` in the prompt generally means you are logged in as a regular user, while a trailing `#` means you are *root*. The *root* account is the administrator of the system, equivalent to the *System* account on Windows (which is even more powerful than the *Administrator* account). *root* is all-powerful and can do anything on a typical Unix or Linux system.

Default prompts also often display the path to the directory that you are currently in; however, they usually abbreviate it, so a `~` means you are in your home directory. Some default prompts may also display your username and the name of the machine you are logged into. If that seems silly now, it won't when you're logged into five machines at once, possibly under different usernames.

Here is a typical Linux prompt for a user named *jp* on a machine called *adams*, sitting in the home directory. The trailing *\$* indicates this is a regular user, not *root*:

```
jp@adams:~$
```

Here's the prompt after changing to the */tmp* directory. Notice how *~*, which really meant */home/jp*, has changed to */tmp*:

```
jp@adams:/tmp$
```

Discussion

The shell's prompt is the thing you will see most often when you work at the command line, and there are many ways to customize it more to your liking. But for now, it's enough to know how to interpret it. Of course, your default prompt may be different, but you should be able to figure out enough to get by for now.

There are some Unix or Linux systems where the power of *root* may be shared, using commands like *su* and *sudo*. Or *root* may not even be all-powerful, if the system is running some kind of mandatory access control (MAC) system such as the NSA's SELinux.

See Also

- [Recipe 1.4, "Showing Where You Are"](#)
- [Recipe 14.19, "Using sudo More Securely"](#)
- [Recipe 16.2, "Customizing Your Prompt"](#)
- [Recipe 17.15, "Using sudo on a Group of Commands"](#)

1.4 Showing Where You Are

Problem

You are not sure what directory you are in, and the default prompt is not helpful.

Solution

Use the *pwd* builtin command, or set a more useful prompt (as described in [Recipe 16.2](#)). For example:

```
bash-4.3$ pwd
/tmp
```

```
bash-4.3$ export PS1='[\u@\h \w]$ '
[jp@solaris8 /tmp]$
```

Discussion

pwd stands for *print working directory* and takes two options. `-L` displays your logical path and is the default. `-P` displays your physical location, which may differ from your logical path if you have followed a symbolic link. Similarly, the *cd* command also provides `-P` and `-L` switches:

```
bash-4.3$ pwd
/tmp/dir2
```

```
bash-4.3$ pwd -L
/tmp/dir2
```

```
bash-4.3$ pwd -P
/tmp/dir1
```

See Also

- [Recipe 16.2, “Customizing Your Prompt”](#)

1.5 Finding and Running Commands

Problem

You need to find and run a particular command under *bash*.

Solution

Try the *type*, *which*, *apropos*, *locate*, *slocate*, *find*, and *ls* commands.

Discussion

bash keeps a list of directories in which it should look for commands in an environment variable called `PATH`. The *bash* builtin *type* command searches your environment (including aliases, keywords, functions, builtins, directories in `$PATH`, and the command hash table) for executable commands matching its arguments and displays the type and location of any matches. It has several options, notably the `-a` flag, which causes it to print all matches instead of stopping at the first one. The *which* command is similar but only searches your `$PATH` (and *csh* aliases). It may vary from system to system (it's usually a *csh* shell script on BSD, but a binary on Linux), and usually has a `-a` flag like *type*. Use these commands when you know the name of a command and need to know exactly where it's located, or to see if it's on this computer. For example:

```
$ type which
which is hashed (/usr/bin/which)
```

```
$ type ls
ls is aliased to `ls -F -h`
```

```
$ type -a ls
ls is aliased to `ls -F -h`
ls is /bin/ls
```

```
$ which which
/usr/bin/which
```

Almost all commands come with some form of help on how to use them. Usually there is online documentation called *manpages*, where “man” is short for manual. These are accessed using the *man* command, so `man ls` will give you documentation about the *ls* command. Many programs also have a built-in help facility, accessed by providing a “help me” argument such as `-h` or `--help`. Some programs, especially on other operating systems, will give you help if you don’t give them arguments. Some Unix commands will also do that, but a great many of them will not. This is due to the way that Unix commands fit together into something called *pipelines*, which we’ll cover later. But what if you don’t know or can’t remember the name of the command you need? *apropos* searches manpage names and descriptions for regular expressions supplied as arguments. This is incredibly useful when you don’t remember the name of the command you need. This is the same as `man -k`:

```
$ apropos music
cms (4) - Creative Music System device driver
```

```
$ man -k music
cms (4) - Creative Music System device driver
```

locate and *slocate* consult database files about the system (usually compiled and updated by a job run from the scheduler system *cron*) to find files or commands almost instantly. The location of the actual database files, what is indexed therein, and how often it is checked may vary from system to system. Consult your system’s manpages for details. *slocate* (secure locate) stores permission information (in addition to filenames and paths) so that it will not list programs to which the user does not have access. On most Linux systems, *locate* is a symbolic link to *slocate*; other systems may have separate programs, or may not have *slocate* at all. Here’s an example:

```
$ locate apropos
/usr/bin/apropos
/usr/share/man/de/man1/apropos.1.gz
/usr/share/man/es/man1/apropos.1.gz
/usr/share/man/it/man1/apropos.1.gz
/usr/share/man/ja/man1/apropos.1.gz
/usr/share/man/man1/apropos.1.gz
```

For details on the *find* command, see [Chapter 9](#).

Last but not least, try using *ls*. Remember, if the command you wish to run is in your current directory, you must prefix it with a *./* since the current working directory is usually not in your *\$PATH* for security reasons (see Recipes 14.3 and 14.10).

See Also

- `help type`
- `man which`
- `man apropos`
- `man locate`
- `man slocate`
- `man find`
- `man ls`
- [Chapter 9](#)
- [Recipe 4.1, “Running Any Executable”](#)
- [Recipe 14.3, “Setting a Secure \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 14.10, “Adding the Current Directory to the \\$PATH”](#)

1.6 Getting Information About Files

Problem

You need more information about a file, such as what it is, who owns it, if it’s executable, how many hard links it has, or when it was last accessed or changed.

Solution

Use the *ls*, *stat*, *file*, or *find* commands:

```
$ touch /tmp/sample_file

$ ls /tmp/sample_file
/tmp/sample_file

$ ls -l /tmp/sample_file
-rw-r--r-- 1 jp          0 Dec 18 15:03 /tmp/sample_file

$ stat /tmp/sample_file
File: "/tmp/sample_file"
Size: 0          Blocks: 0          IO Block: 4096   Regular File
Device: 303h/771d Inode: 2310201   Links: 1
```



```
Access: (0644/-rw-r--r--) Uid: ( 501/      jp)  Gid: ( 501/      jp)
Access: Sun Dec 18 15:03:35 2005
Modify: Sun Dec 18 15:03:35 2005
Change: Sun Dec 18 15:03:42 2005
```

```
$ file /tmp/sample_file
/tmp/sample_file: empty
```

```
$ file -b /tmp/sample_file
empty
```

```
$ echo '#!/bin/bash -' > /tmp/sample_file
```

```
$ file /tmp/sample_file
/tmp/sample_file: Bourne-Again shell script text executable
```

```
$ file -b /tmp/sample_file
Bourne-Again shell script text executable
```

For much more on the *find* command, see [Chapter 9](#).

Discussion

The command `ls` shows only filenames, while `-l` provides more details about each file. `ls` has many options; consult the manpage on your system for the ones it supports. Useful options include:

- a
Do not hide files starting with `.` (dot).
- A
Like `-a`, but skips the two common directories `.` (dot) and `..` (dot dot), since they are present in virtually every directory.
- F
Show the type of file with one of several trailing type designators.
A slash (`/`) indicates that the file is a directory, an asterisk (`*`) means the file is executable, an at sign (`@`) indicates a symbolic link, an equals sign (`=`) is a socket, and a pipe or vertical bar (`|`) is a FIFO (first in, first out) buffer.
- l
Use the long listing format.
- L
Show information about the linked file, rather than the symbolic link itself.
- Q
Quote names (GNU extension, not supported on all systems).

- r Reverse the sort order.
- R Recurse through subdirectories.
- S Sort by file size.
- 1 Use the short format, but with only one file per line.

stat, *file*, and *find* all have many options that control the output format; see the man-pages on your system for supported options. For example, these options produce output that is similar to `ls -l`:

```
$ ls -l /tmp/sample_file
-rw-r--r--  1 jp          jp          14 Dec 18 15:04 /tmp/sample_file

$ stat -c'%A %h %U %G %s %y %n' /tmp/sample_file
-rw-r--r--  1 jp jp 14 Sun Dec 18 15:04:12 2005 /tmp/sample_file

$ find /tmp/ -name sample_file -printf '%m %n %u %g %t %p'
644 1 jp jp Sun Dec 18 15:04:12 2005 /tmp/sample_file
```

Not all operating systems and versions have all of these tools. For example, Solaris does not include *stat* by default.

It is also worth pointing out that directories are nothing more than files that the operating system knows to treat specially, so the commands shown here will work just fine on directories, though sometimes you may need to modify a command to get the behavior you want. For example, use `ls -d` to list information about the directory itself, rather than just `ls` (which lists the *contents* of the directory).

See Also

- `man ls`
- `man stat`
- `man file`
- `man find`
- [Chapter 9](#)

1.7 Showing All Hidden (Dot) Files in the Current Directory

Problem

You want to see only hidden (dot) files in a directory to edit a file you've forgotten the name of or remove obsolete files. `ls -a` shows all files, including normally hidden ones, but that is often too noisy, and `ls -a .*` does more than you think it will, or more than you want.

Solution

Use `ls -d` along with whatever other criteria you have. For example:

```
ls -d .*
ls -d .b*
ls -d .[!..]*
ls -d .*/
```

Since every normal directory contains a `.` and `..`, you don't need to see those. You can use `ls -A` to list all the files in a directory except those two. For other commands where you list files with a wildcard (i.e., pattern), you can construct your wildcard in such a way that `.` and `..` don't match:

```
$ grep -l 'PATH' ~/.[!..]*
/home/jjp/.bash_history
/home/jjp/.bash_profile
$
```

Discussion

Due to the way the shell handles file wildcards, the sequence `.*` does not behave as you might expect or desire. The way *filename expansion* or *globbing* works is that any string containing the characters `*`, `?`, or `[` is treated as a *pattern*, and replaced by an alphabetically sorted list of filenames matching the pattern. `*` matches any string, including the null string, while `?` matches any single character. Characters enclosed in `[]` specify a list or range of characters, any of which will match. There are also various extended pattern-matching operators that we're not going to cover here (see “[Pattern-Matching Characters](#)” on page 610 and “[extglob Extended Pattern-Matching Operators](#)” on page 611 in [Appendix A](#)). So, `*.txt` means any file ending in `.txt`, while `*txt` means any file ending in `txt` (no dot). `f?o` would match `foo` or `fao` but not `fooo`. Given that, you might think that `.*` would match any file beginning with a dot.

The problem is that `.*` matches both the `.` and `..` directories (present in every directory), which are then both displayed along with any other filenames beginning with a dot. When `ls` is given a directory name it doesn't just list that directory name, but also the contents of that directory. Instead of getting just the dot files in the current direc-

tory, then, you get those files plus all the files and directories in the current directory (`.`), all the files and directories in the parent directory (`..`), and the names and contents of any subdirectories in the current directory that start with a dot. This can be very confusing, to say the least, and is usually more than you want.

You can experiment with the same `ls` command with `-d` and without, then try `echo .*`. The `echo` command simply shows you what the shell expands your `.*` into, which would become the arguments to the `ls` command.

Try `echo .[!..]*` also. `[!..]*` is a filename expansion pattern where `[]` denotes a list of characters to match, but the leading `!` negates the list. So here we are looking for a dot, followed by any character that is *not* a dot, followed by any number of any characters. You may also use `^` to negate a character class, but `!` is specified in the POSIX standard and thus is more portable.

There is one other special case in the `ls` command that helps out here. If the `-d` option is specified and if the filename pattern ends with a slash, then only *directories* that match that pattern, rather than all filenames that match, are displayed by the `ls` command. For example:

```
$ ls -d .v*
.vim .viminfo .vimrc
$ ls -d .v*/
.vim/
$
```

The first command shows the three filenames that begin with `.v` without listing (because of the `-d` option) the contents of any that might be a directory. The second command in this example uses a trailing slash on the pattern (`.v*/`) so the `ls` command only shows directories that match the pattern; in this case that is just the directory named `.vim` and no other.



If you see double slashes on the output of the `ls -d .v*/` command, like this:

```
$ ls -d .v*/
.vim//
$
```

that's likely because you may actually be running an alias for `ls` that includes the `-F` flag. Use a backslash in front of the command name to avoid any alias:

```
$ \ls -d .v*/
.vim/
$
```

Some combinations are just difficult to match. `[!..]*` will miss a file named `..foo`. You could add something like `.*??*` to match anything starting with a dot that is also

at least three characters long, but `ls -d .[!..]* .??*` will then display anything that matches both patterns twice. Or you can use `.??*` alone, but that will miss files like `.a`:

```
$ touch ..foo .a .normal_dot_file normal_file

$ ls -a
. .. ..foo .a .normal_dot_file normal_file

$ ls -d .??*
..foo .normal_dot_file

$ ls -d .[!..]*
.a .normal_dot_file

$ ls -d .[!..]* .??* | sort -u
..foo
.a
.normal_dot_file
```

Which you use depends on your needs and environment; there is no good one-size-fits-all solution.



You can use `echo *` as an emergency substitute for `ls` if the `ls` command is corrupt or not available for some reason. This works because `*` is expanded by the shell to everything in the current directory, which results in a list similar to what you'd get with `ls`.

See Also

- `man ls`
- Question 18 in the [GNU Core Utilities FAQ](#)
- Section 2.11 in the [Unix FAQs](#)
- “Pattern-Matching Characters” on page 610 in [Appendix A](#)
- “extglob Extended Pattern-Matching Operators” on page 611 in [Appendix A](#)

1.8 Using Shell Quoting

Problem

You need a rule of thumb for using command-line quoting.

Solution

Enclose a string in single quotes unless it contains elements that you want the shell to interpolate.

Discussion

Unquoted text and even text enclosed in double quotes is subject to shell expansion and substitution. Consider:

```
$ echo A coffee is $5?!  
A coffee is ?!
```

```
$ echo "A coffee is $5?!"  
-bash: !": event not found
```

```
$ echo 'A coffee is $5?!'  
A coffee is $5?!
```

In the first example, `$5` is treated as a variable to expand, but since it doesn't exist it is set to null. In the second example, the same is true, but we never even get there because `!` is treated as a history substitution, which fails in this case because it doesn't match anything in the history. The third example works as expected.

To mix some shell expansions with some literal strings you may use the shell escape character `\` or change your quoting. The exclamation point is a special case because the preceding backslash escape character is not removed. You can work around that by using single quotes or a trailing space, as shown here:

```
$ echo 'A coffee is $5 for' "$USER" '?!'  
A coffee is $5 for jp ?!
```

```
$ echo "A coffee is \$5 for $USER?!"  
A coffee is $5 for jp?!
```

```
$ echo "A coffee is \$5 for $USER?! "  
A coffee is $5 for jp?!
```

Also, you can't embed a single quote inside single quotes, even if using a backslash, since nothing (not even the backslash) is interpolated inside single quotes. But you can work around that by using double quotes with escapes, or by escaping a single quote *outside* of surrounding single quotes.

```
# We'll get a continuation prompt since we now have unbalanced quotes  
$ echo '$USER won't pay $5 for coffee.'  
> ^C
```

```
# WRONG  
$ echo "$USER won't pay $5 for coffee."  
jp won't pay for coffee.
```

```
# Works
$ echo "$USER won't pay \ $5 for coffee."
jp won't pay $5 for coffee.

# Also works
$ echo 'I won\'\'t pay $5 for coffee.'
I won't pay $5 for coffee.
```

See Also

- [Chapter 5](#) for more about shell variables and the \$VAR syntax
- [Chapter 18](#) for more about ! and the history commands

1.9 Using or Replacing Builtins and External Commands

Problem

You want to replace a builtin command with your own function or external command, and you need to know exactly what your script is executing (e.g., `/bin/echo` or the builtin `echo`). Or you've created a new command and it may be conflicting with an existing external or builtin command.

Solution

Use the `type` and `which` commands to see if a given command exists and whether it is built in or external:

```
$ type cd
cd is a shell builtin
```

```
$ type awk
awk is /usr/bin/awk
```

```
$ which cd
/usr/bin/which: no cd in (/bin:/sbin:/usr/bin:/usr/sbin:/usr/local/bin:/usr/ \
local/sbin:/usr/bin/X11:/usr/X11R6/bin:/root/bin)
```

```
$ which awk
/usr/bin/awk
```

Discussion

A builtin command is just that; it is built into the shell itself, while an external command is an external file launched by the shell. The external file may be a binary, or it may be a shell script itself, and it is important to understand the difference for a couple of reasons. First, when you are using a given version of a particular shell, builtins

will always be available but external programs may or may not be installed on a particular system. Second, if you give one of your own programs the same name as a builtin, you will be very confused about the results since the builtin will always take precedence (see [Recipe 19.4](#)). It is possible to use the *enable* command to turn builtin commands off and on, though we strongly recommend against doing so unless you are absolutely sure you understand what you are doing. `enable -a` will list all builtins and their enabled or disabled status.

One problem with builtin commands is that you generally can't use a `-h` or `--help` option to get usage reminders, and if a manpage exists it's often just a pointer to the large *bash* manpage. That's where the *help* command, which is itself a builtin, comes in handy. *help* displays help about shell builtins:

```
help: help [-dms] [pattern ...]
      Display information about builtin commands.

      Displays brief summaries of builtin commands.  If PATTERN is
      specified, gives detailed help on all commands matching PATTERN,
      otherwise the list of help topics is printed.

      Options:
      -d      output short description for each topic
      -m      display usage in pseudo-manpage format
      -s      output only a short usage synopsis for each topic matching
      PATTERN

      Arguments:
      PATTERN  Pattern specifying a help topic

      Exit Status:
      Returns success unless PATTERN is not found or an invalid option is given.
```

When you need to redefine a builtin you use the *builtin* command to avoid loops. For example, we can define a shell function (see [Recipe 10.4](#)) to change how the *cd* command works:

```
cd () {
    builtin cd "$@"
    echo "$OLDPWD --> $PWD"
}
```

To force the use of an external command instead of any function or builtin that would otherwise have precedence, use `enable -n`, which turns off shell builtins, or *command*, which ignores shell functions. For example, to use the *test* found in `$PATH` instead of the shell builtin version, type `enable -n test` and then run `test`. Or, use `command ls` to use the native *ls* command rather than any *ls* function you may have created.

See Also

- `man which`
- `help help`
- `help builtin`
- `help command`
- `help enable`
- `help type`
- [Recipe 10.4, “Defining Functions”](#)
- [Recipe 19.4, “Naming Your Script “test””](#)
- [“Builtin Shell Variables” on page 591 in Appendix A](#)

1.10 Determining if You Are Running Interactively

Problem

You have some code you want to run only if you are (or are not) running interactively.

Solution

Use the case statement in [Example 1-1](#).

Example 1-1. ch01/interactive

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: interactive

case "$-" in
  *i*) # Code for interactive shell here
    ;;
  *) # Code for noninteractive shell here
    ;;
esac
```

Discussion

`$-` is a string listing of all the current shell option flags. It will contain `i` if the shell is interactive.

You may also see code like the following (this will work, but the solution in [Example 1-1](#) is the preferred method):

```
if [ -n "$PS1" ]; then
    echo This shell is interactive
else
    echo This shell is not interactive
fi
```

See Also

- help case
- help set
- [Recipe 6.14, “Branching Many Ways”](#), for more explanation of the case statement

1.11 Setting bash as Your Default Shell

Problem

You’re using a BSD system, Solaris, or some other Unix variant for which *bash* isn’t the default shell. You’re tired of starting *bash* explicitly all the time, and want to make *bash* your default shell.

Solution

First, make sure *bash* is installed. Try typing `bash --version` at a command line. If you get a version, it’s installed:

```
$ bash --version
GNU bash, version 3.00.16(1)-release (i386-pc-solaris2.10)
Copyright (C) 2004 Free Software Foundation, Inc.
$
```

If you don’t see a version number, you may be missing a directory from your path. `chsh -l` or `cat /etc/shells` may give you a list of valid shells on some systems. Otherwise, ask your system administrator where *bash* is, or if it can be installed.

`chsh -l` provides a list of valid shells on Linux, but opens an editor and allows you to change settings on BSD. `-l` is not a valid option to `chsh` on macOS, but just running `chsh` will open an editor to allow you to change settings, and `chpass -s shell` will change your shell.

If *bash* is installed, use the `chsh -s` command to change your default shell: for example, `chsh -s /bin/bash`. If for any reason that fails, try `chsh`, `passwd -e`, `passwd -l`, `chpass`, or `usermod -s /usr/bin/bash`. If you still can't change your shell ask your system administrator, who may need to edit the `/etc/passwd` file. On most systems, `/etc/passwd` will have lines of the form:

```
cam:pK1Z9BCJbzCrBNrkjRUdUiTtF0h/:501:100:Cameron Newham:/home/cam:/bin/bash
cc:kfDKDjfkEJJKySfgJFWErrElpe/:502:100:Cheshire Cat:/home/cc:/bin/bash
```

As *root*, you can just edit the last field of the lines in the password file to the full pathname of whatever shell you choose. If your system has a `vipw` command, you should use it to ensure password file consistency.



Some systems will refuse to allow a login shell that is not listed in `/etc/shells`. If *bash* is not listed in that file, you will have to have your system administrator add it.

Discussion

Some operating systems, notably the BSD Unices, typically place *bash* in the `/usr` partition. You may want to think twice about changing *root*'s shell on such systems. If the system runs into trouble while booting, and you have to work on it before `/usr` is mounted, you've got a real problem: there isn't a shell for *root* to use. Therefore, it's best to leave the default shell for *root* unchanged. However, there's no reason not to make *bash* the default shell for regular user accounts. And it goes without saying that it's bad practice to use the *root* account unless it's absolutely necessary. Use your regular (user) account whenever possible. With commands like `sudo`, you should very rarely need a *root* shell.

If all else fails, you can probably replace your existing login shell with *bash* using `exec`, but this is not for the faint of heart. See "A7) How can I make bash my login shell?" in the [bash FAQ](#).

See Also

- `man chsh`
- `man passwd`
- `man chpass`
- `/etc/shells`
- "A7) How can I make bash my login shell?" from <ftp://ftp.cwru.edu/pub/bash/FAQ>

- [Recipe 1.12, “Keeping bash Updated”](#)
- [Recipe 14.13, “Setting Permissions”](#)
- [Recipe 14.19, “Using sudo More Securely”](#)

1.12 Keeping bash Updated

Problem

This isn't really a normal recipe, and it probably goes without saying, but it is a topic no one can afford to ignore and we wanted to say it anyway. You need to keep both *bash* and your entire system up-to-date with security patches.

Solution

Keeping your entire system up-to-date is out of the scope of this book; consult your system administrator and documentation.

How you keep *bash* up-to-date depends on how you got it in the first place. In the ideal case, it's part of the system in general and updated when the system is updated. That may not be the case if you are using a very old system that is no longer supported, in which case you need to update the entire thing. If you are using your package system and the originating repository is still actively maintained, you should get updates from there—for example, from Extra Packages for Enterprise Linux (EPEL) or an Ubuntu Personal Package Archive (PPA).

If you installed from source, it will be up to you to update your source and rebuild as appropriate.

Discussion

We all know why we need to stay up-to-date, but we'll cite one well-known reason anyway: CVE-2014-6271, better known as the shellshock vulnerability.

See Also

- <https://fedoraproject.org/wiki/EPEL>
- <https://launchpad.net/ubuntu/+ppas>
- [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Shellshock_\(software_bug\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Shellshock_(software_bug))
- [Recipe 1.13, “Getting bash for Linux”](#)
- [Recipe 1.14, “Getting bash for xBSD”](#)

- [Recipe 1.15, “Getting bash for macOS”](#)
- [Recipe 1.16, “Getting bash for Unix”](#)
- [Recipe 1.17, “Getting bash for Windows”](#)

1.13 Getting bash for Linux

Problem

You want to get *bash* for your Linux system, or you want to make sure you have the latest version.

Solution

bash is included in virtually all modern Linux distributions. To make sure you have the latest version available for your distribution, use the distribution’s built-in packaging tools. You must be *root* or have *sudo* or the *root* password to upgrade or install applications.

Some Linux distributions (notably the Debian family) use the *Debian Almquist shell*, or *dash*, as */bin/sh* because it is smaller and thus runs a bit faster than *bash*. That switchover caused a lot of confusion when scripts assumed that */bin/sh* was really *bash*, as scripts using *bash* features with `#!/bin/sh` would fail. See [Recipe 15.3](#) for more details.

For Debian and Debian-derived systems such as Ubuntu and Linux Mint, use one of the various graphical user interface (GUI) tools or a command-line tool such as *apt-get*, *aptitude*, or *apt* to make sure it is installed and current:

```
apt-get update && apt-get install bash bash-completion bash-doc
```

For Red Hat distributions, including Fedora, Community OS (CentOS), and Red Hat Enterprise Linux (RHEL), use the GUI Add/Remove Applications tool. For a command line only, use:

```
yum update bash
```

For SUSE, use either the GUI or terminal version of YaST. You may also use the command-line *rpm* tool.

Discussion

It’s impossible to cover every Linux distribution and difficult even to cover the major ones, as they are all evolving rapidly. Fortunately, much of that evolution is in the area

of ease of use, so it should not be very difficult to figure out how to install software on your distribution of choice.

When using LiveCDs, software updates and installations will most likely fail due to the read-only media. Versions of such distributions that have been installed to a hard disk should be updatable.

If you are wondering what version of *bash* is available in a given Linux distribution, search for the distro on Distrowatch.com and consult the package table. For example, <https://distrowatch.com/table.php?distribution=mint> shows what you see in [Table 1-1](#).

Table 1-1. *Bash versions in Linux Mint*

Package	18 sarah	17.3 rosa	16 petra	15 olivia	14 nadia	13 maya	12 lisa	11 katya	10 julia	...
<i>bash</i> (4.4)	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.1	...

See Also

- http://wiki.linuxquestions.org/wiki/Installing_Software
- Debian: <http://www.debian.org/doc/>
- *dash*: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Almquist_shell and <https://wiki.ubuntu.com/DashAsBinSh>
- <http://www.debianuniverse.com/readonline/chapter/06>
- Fedora: <https://fedoraproject.org/wiki/Yum>
- Red Hat Enterprise Linux: <http://red.ht/2uWkEs0>
- SuSE: <https://www.suse.com/documentation/>
- OpenSuSE: <https://doc.opensuse.org/>
- [Recipe 1.11, “Setting bash as Your Default Shell”](#)
- [Recipe 1.12, “Keeping bash Updated”](#)

1.14 Getting bash for xBSD

Problem

You want to get *bash* for your FreeBSD, NetBSD, or OpenBSD system, or you want to make sure you have the latest version.

Solution

According to Chet Ramey's [bash page](#):

Bash-4.3 is included as part of the FreeBSD ports collection, the OpenBSD packages collection, and the NetBSD packages collection.

To see if *bash* is installed, check the */etc/shells* file. To install or update *bash*, use the *pkg_add* command. If you are an experienced BSD user, you may prefer using the ports collection, but we will not cover that here.

If you are wondering what version of *bash* is available in a given BSD distribution, search for the distro on [DistroWatch.com](#) and consult the package table. For example:

- <https://distrowatch.com/table.php?distribution=freebsd>
- <https://distrowatch.com/table.php?distribution=netbsd>
- <https://distrowatch.com/table.php?distribution=openbsd>
- <https://distrowatch.com/table.php?distribution=trueos>

For FreeBSD, use the command:

```
pkg_add -vr bash
```

For NetBSD, browse to [Application Software for NetBSD](#) and locate the latest *bash* package for your version and architecture, then use a command such as:

```
pkg_add -vu ftp://ftp.netbsd.org/pub/NetBSD/packages/pkgsrc-2005Q3/NetBSD-2.0/ \
i386/ALL/bash-3.0p116nb3.tgz
```

For OpenBSD, you use the *pkg_add -vr* command. You may have to adjust the FTP path for your version and architecture. Also, there may be a statically compiled version. For example:

```
pkg_add -vr ftp://ftp.openbsd.org/pub/OpenBSD/3.8/packages/i386/bash-3.0.16p1.tgz
```

Discussion

FreeBSD and OpenBSD place *bash* in */usr/local/bin/bash* while NetBSD uses */usr/pkg/bin/bash*.

See Also

- [Recipe 1.11, “Setting bash as Your Default Shell”](#)
- [Recipe 1.12, “Keeping bash Updated”](#)
- [Recipe 15.4, “Testing Scripts Using Virtual Machines”](#)

1.15 Getting bash for macOS

Problem

You want to get *bash* for your Mac, or you want to make sure you have the latest version.

Solution

According to Chet Ramey's [bash page](#):

Current versions of Mac OS X [now called macOS] (dating from Jaguar/Mac OS X 10.2) ship with bash-3.2 as /bin/sh. There are also precompiled OS X packages of bash-4.3 available from many web sites, though the source packages are usually more up-to-date. Bash for Darwin (the base for MacOS X) is available from MacPorts, Homebrew, or Fink.

Discussion

It is also possible to build a more recent version of *bash* from source, but this is recommended only for experienced users (see [Appendix E](#)).

See Also

- <https://tiswww.case.edu/php/chet/bash/bashtop.html#Distributions>
- <http://trac.macports.org/browser/trunk/dports/shells/bash>
- <http://brew.sh/>
- <http://pdb.finkproject.org/pdb/package.php/bash>
- [Recipe 1.12, “Keeping bash Updated”](#)
- [Appendix E](#)

1.16 Getting bash for Unix

Problem

You want to get *bash* for your Unix system, or you want to make sure you have the latest version.

Solution

If it's not already installed or in your operating system's program repository, check Chet Ramey's *bash* page for binary downloads, or build it from source (see [Appendix E](#)).

Discussion

According to Chet Ramey's *bash* page:

The OpenPKG project makes source RPMs of bash-4.3 available for a variety of Unix and Linux systems as a core part of the current release.

Solaris 2.x, Solaris 7/8/9/10/11 users can get a precompiled version of bash-4.3 from the Unixpackages site (subscription) or from OpenCSW. Oracle ships bash-3.2 as a supported part of Solaris 10 and bash-4.1 as part of Solaris 11. The version of Solaris/Illumos distributed as OpenIndiana includes bash-4.3 as of September 2016.

AIX users can get precompiled versions of bash-4.3 and older releases for various versions of AIX from Groupe Bull, and sources and binaries of bash-4.3 for various AIX releases from perzl.org. IBM makes bash-4.2 and bash-4.3 available for AIX 5L, AIX 6.1, and AIX 7.1 as part of the AIX toolbox for GNU/Linux applications. They use RPM format; you can get RPM for AIX from there, too.

HP-UX users can get bash-4.3 binaries and source code from the Software Porting and Archive Center for HP-UX.

See Also

- <https://tiswww.case.edu/php/chet/bash/bashtop.html#Distributions>
- <http://www.openpkg.org/>
 - <http://download.openpkg.org/packages/current/source/CORE/>
 - <http://www.openpkg.org/download/>
- Solaris
 - <http://www.unixpackages.com/>
 - <http://www.opencsw.org/packages/bash/>
 - <http://www.oracle.com/technetwork/server-storage/solaris10/overview/index.html>
 - <http://www.oracle.com/solaris/solaris11/index.html>
 - <http://www.openindiana.org/>
- AIX
 - <http://www.bullfreeware.com/>, and sources and binaries of bash-4.3 for various AIX releases from:

- <http://www.perzl.org/aix/index.php?n=Main.Bash>
- <http://www-03.ibm.com/systems/power/software/aix/linux/>
- HP-UX
 - <http://hpux.connect.org.uk/hppd/hpux/Shells/>
- [Recipe 1.11, “Setting bash as Your Default Shell”](#)
- [Recipe 1.12, “Keeping bash Updated”](#)
- [Appendix E](#)

1.17 Getting bash for Windows

Problem

You want to get *bash* for your Windows system, or you want to make sure you have the latest version.

Solution

Use Cygwin or Ubuntu on Windows, or a virtual machine. Or, don't use *bash*.

Download Cygwin and run it. Follow the prompts and choose the packages to install, including *bash*, which is located in the shells category and is selected by default. Once Cygwin is installed, you will have to configure it. See the [User's Guide](#) for details.

For Ubuntu on Windows you need a version of Windows 10 from summer 2016 or newer; then follow the install instructions, detailed in the Discussion.

To use a virtual machine, see [Recipe 15.4](#).

Finally, though we hate to say it, maybe the right solution is to use native tools like PowerShell.

Discussion

Cygwin

Cygwin is a Linux-like environment for Windows that provides a Linux look and feel.

From the [Cygwin site](#):

Cygwin is:

- a large collection of GNU and Open Source tools which provide functionality similar to a Linux distribution on Windows.
- a DLL (cygwin1.dll) which provides substantial POSIX API functionality.

Cygwin is not:

- a way to run native Linux apps on Windows. You must rebuild your application *from source* if you want it to run on Windows.
- a way to magically make native Windows apps aware of UNIX® functionality like signals, ptys, etc. Again, you need to build your apps *from source* if you want to take advantage of Cygwin functionality.

The Cygwin DLL currently works with all recent, commercially released x86 32 bit and 64 bit versions of Windows, starting with Windows Vista.



The previous Cygwin version 2.5.2 was the last version supporting Windows XP and Server 2003.

Cygwin is a true Unix-like environment running on top of Windows. It is an excellent tool, but sometimes it might be overkill. For Windows native binaries of the GNU Text utils (not including *bash*), see <http://unxutils.sourceforge.net/>.

Ubuntu on Windows

Running Ubuntu on Windows is very interesting, but aside from the fact that it includes *bash* it is out of scope for this book, so we won't cover it in detail. See the references listed in the See Also section for details.

Briefly:

- Turn on Developer Mode (see <http://bit.ly/2h21MSZ>).
 - Search for “Windows Features.”
 - Choose “Turn Windows features on or off,” and enable “Windows Subsystem for Linux.”
 - This probably requires a reboot!!! *Seriously!?!*
- Open the Command Prompt and type in **bash**.
 - Download the Windows Subsystem for Linux from the Windows store.

Using PowerShell or other native tools

PowerShell is Microsoft's answer to the power and flexibility of scriptable command-line tools and the replacement for the *command.com* and *cmd.exe* batch files. Other than the fact that it is the Windows native answer to shell scripting, it is out of scope for this book, so we won't cover it.

Though they pale in comparison to any of the Unix/Linux tools, the old shell script languages were more powerful than many people knew. They may be appropriate for very simple tasks where any of the other solutions discussed here are overkill. See <http://www.jpsoft.com/windows/winshell.html> for details.

For powerful character-based and GUI command-line shells with a more consistent interface but a DOS/Windows flavor, see <http://jpsoft.com>. None of the authors are affiliated with this company, but one is a long-time satisfied user.

See Also

- <http://www.cygwin.com>
- <http://unxutils.sourceforge.net>
- Ubuntu on Windows:
 - [Windows Subsystem for Linux documentation](#)
 - “Microsoft and Canonical Partner to Bring Ubuntu to Windows 10” by Steven Vaughan-Nichols
 - “Ubuntu on Windows—The Ubuntu Userspace for Windows Developers” by Dustin Kirkland
 - “Developers Can Run Bash Shell and User-Mode Ubuntu Linux Binaries on Windows 10” by Scott Hanselman
 - “Announcing Windows 10 Insider Preview Build 14316” by Gabe Aul
 - “alwsl Project Lets You Install Arch Linux in the Windows Subsystem for Linux” by Marius Nestor
 - “How to Install and Use the Linux Bash Shell on Windows 10” by Chris Hoffman
- <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/PowerShell>
- <http://jpsoft.com>
- <http://www.jpsoft.com/windows/winshell.html>
- Recipe 1.12, “Keeping bash Updated”
- Recipe 1.18, “Getting bash Without Getting bash”

- [Recipe 15.4, “Testing Scripts Using Virtual Machines”](#)

1.18 Getting bash Without Getting bash

Problem

You want to try out a shell or a shell script on a system you don't have the time or the resources to build or buy.

Or, you feel like reading a Zen-like recipe just about now.

Solution

Get an almost free shell account from <http://polarhome.com>, which has a tiny, symbolic one-time fee, or [another vendor](#).

Since almost every Linux and BSD distribution has a LiveCD or LiveDVD image, which can also almost certainly be used as a LiveUSB, you can download and boot those to experiment. That's also a good idea if you are thinking about switching, so you can verify that all your hardware is supported and works. The tricky part may be getting your system's BIOS or UEFI to boot from the CD/DVD or USB. It used to be tricky to “burn” an ISO to a USB stick, but there are now many tools and detailed instructions on the web for your distro of choice.

Alternatively, you can use a virtualization solution; see [Recipe 15.4](#).

Discussion

Polarhome provides many free services and almost free shell accounts. According to the [website](#):

polarhome.com is a non commercial, educational effort for popularization of shell enabled operating systems and Internet services, offering shell accounts, development environment, mail and other online services on all available systems (currently on different flavours of Linux, MacOS X, OpenVMS, Solaris, OpenIndiana, AIX, QNX, IRIX, HP-UX, Tru64, SCO OpenServer, UnixWare, FreeBSD, OpenBSD, NetBSD, DragonFly/BSD, MirBSD, Ultrix, Minix, GNU Hurd, Syllable and OPENSTEP).

See Also

- List of free shell accounts: <http://shells.red-pill.eu>
- <http://www.polarhome.com>
- [Recipe 15.4, “Testing Scripts Using Virtual Machines”](#)

1.19 Learning More About `bash` Documentation

Problem

You'd like to read more about `bash` but don't know where to start.

Solution

Well, you're reading this book, which is a great place to start! The other O'Reilly books about `bash` and shell scripting are *Learning the `bash` Shell, 3rd Edition*, by Cameron Newham and *Classic Shell Scripting* by Nelson H. F. Beebe and Arnold Robbins.

Unfortunately, not all of the official `bash` documentation and support files are easily accessible online. The Bash Reference Manual is available on the [GNU Project website](#), but much of the other material is harder to find or access. Our [companion website](#) has done all the work for you and provides the official `bash` reference documentation and other useful material online so it's easy to refer to. Check it out, and refer others to it as needed.

Official documentation

The official `bash` FAQ is at <ftp://ftp.cwru.edu/pub/bash/FAQ>. See especially “H2) What kind of `bash` documentation is there?” The official reference guide is also strongly recommended; see below for details.

Chet Ramey's [bash page](#) contains a ton of very useful information. Chet (the current `bash` maintainer) also maintains the following:

README

A file describing `bash`

NEWS

A file tersely listing the notable changes between the current and previous versions

CHANGES

A complete `bash` change history

INSTALL

Installation instructions

NOTES

Platform-specific configuration and operation notes

COMPAT

A list of compatibility issues between *bash3* and *bash1*

The latest *bash* source code and documentation are always available at <http://ftp.gnu.org/gnu/bash/>.

We highly recommend downloading both the source and the documentation even if you are using prepackaged binaries (see [Appendix B](#) for an index of the included examples and source code). Here is a brief list of the documentation included in the source tarball's *./doc* directory (for example, for <http://ftp.gnu.org/gnu/bash/bash-4.4.tar.gz>, *bash-4.4/doc*):

FAQ

A set of frequently asked questions about *bash* with answers

INTRO

A short introduction to *bash*

article.ms

An article Chet wrote about *bash* for *The Linux Journal*

bash.1

The *bash* manpage

bashbug.1

The *bashbug* manpage

builtins.1

A manpage that documents the builtins extracted from *bash.1*

bashref.texi

The Bash Reference Manual

bashref.info

The Bash Reference Manual processed by *makeinfo*

rbash.1

The restricted *bash* shell manpage

readline.3

The *readline* manpage

The *.ps* files are PostScript versions of the files listed here. The *.html* files are HTML versions of the manpage and reference manual. The *.0* files are formatted manual pages. The *.txt* versions are ASCII—the output of `groff -Tascii`.

In the document tarball (for example, <http://ftp.gnu.org/gnu/bash/bash-doc-4.4.tar.gz>), you will find formatted versions of:

bash-doc-4.4:

bash.0

The *bash* manpage (also *.pdf*, *.ps*, *.html*)

bashbug.0

The *bashbug* manpage

bashref

The GNU Bash Reference Manual (also *.pdf*, *.ps*, *.html*, *.dvi*)

builtins.0

The *builtins* manpage

rbash.0

The restricted *bash* shell manpage

Other documentation

- Mendel Cooper’s “Advanced Bash-Scripting Guide”
- “Writing Shell Scripts”
- Mike G’s “BASH Programming – Introduction HOW-TO”
- Machtelt Garrels’s “Bash Guide for Beginners”
- Giles Orr’s “Bash Prompt HOWTO”
- Very old, but still useful: “UNIX shell differences and how to change your shell”
- Apple’s “Shell Scripting Primer”

See Also

- [Appendix B](#)
- *Learning the bash Shell*, 3rd Edition, by Cameron Newham (O’Reilly)
- *Classic Shell Scripting* by Nelson H. F. Beebe and Arnold Robbins (O’Reilly)
- The *Bash Reference Manual*
- <http://www.bashcookbook.com/>
- <ftp://ftp.cwru.edu/pub/bash/FAQ>
- <https://www.case.edu/php/chet/bash/bashtop.html>
- <http://ftp.gnu.org/gnu/bash/>

Standard Output

No software is worth anything if there is no output of some sort, but I/O has long been one of the nastier areas of computing. If you're ancient, you remember the days when most of the work involved in running a program was setting up the program's input and output. Some of the problems have gone away; for example, you no longer need to get operators to mount tapes on a tape drive (at least, not on any laptop or desktop system that we've seen!). But many of the difficulties are still with us.

One problem is that there are many different types of output. Writing something on the screen is different from writing something in a file—at least, it sure seems different. Writing something in a file also seems different from writing it on a tape, or in flash memory, or on some other kind of device. And what if you want the output from one program to go directly into another program? Should software developers be tasked with writing code to handle all sorts of output devices, even ones that haven't been invented yet? That's certainly inconvenient. Should users have to know how to connect the programs they want to run to different kinds of devices? That's not a very good idea, either.

One of the most important ideas behind the Unix operating system was that everything looked like a file (an ordered sequence of bytes). The operating system was responsible for this magic. It didn't matter whether you were writing to a file on the disk, the terminal, a tape drive, a memory stick, or something else; your program only needed to know how to write to a file, and the operating system would take it from there. That approach greatly simplified the problem.

The next question was simply, "Which file?" How does a program know whether to write to the file that represents a terminal window, a file on the disk, or some other kind of file? Simple: that's something that can be left to the shell.

When you run a program, you still have to connect it to output files and input files (which we'll explore in the next chapter). That task doesn't go away, but the shell makes it trivially easy. A command as simple as:

```
dosomething < inputfile > outputfile
```

reads its input from *inputfile* and sends its output to *outputfile*. If you omit the *> outputfile*, the output goes to your terminal window. If you omit the *< inputfile*, the program takes its input from the keyboard. The program literally doesn't know where its output is going, or where its input is coming from. You can send the output anywhere you want (including to another program) by using *bash*'s redirection facilities.

But that's just the start. In this chapter, we'll look at ways to generate output, and the shell's methods for sending that output to different places.

2.1 Writing Output to the Terminal/Window

Problem

You want some simple output from your shell commands.

Solution

Use the *echo* builtin command. All the parameters on the command line are printed to the screen. For example:

```
echo Please wait.
```

produces:

```
Please wait.
```

as we see in this simple session where we typed the command at the *bash* prompt (the *\$* character):

```
$ echo Please wait.  
Please wait.  
$
```

Discussion

The *echo* command is one of the simplest of all *bash* commands. It prints the arguments of the command line to the screen. But there are a few points to keep in mind. First, the shell is parsing the arguments on the *echo* command line (like it does for every other command line). This means that it does all its substitutions, wildcard matching, and other things before handing the arguments off to *echo*. Second, since

they are parsed as arguments, the spacing between arguments is ignored. For example:

```
$ echo this was very widely spaced
this was very widely spaced
$
```

Normally the fact that the shell is very forgiving about whitespace between arguments is a helpful feature. Here, with *echo*, it's a bit disconcerting (see [Recipe 2.2](#) for tips on preserving whitespace in output and [Recipe 13.15](#) for tips on trimming it from your data).

See Also

- `help echo`
- `help printf`
- [Recipe 2.2, “Writing Output but Preserving Spacing”](#)
- [Recipe 2.3, “Writing Output with More Formatting Control”](#)
- [Recipe 13.15, “Trimming Whitespace”](#)
- [Recipe 15.6, “Using echo Portably”](#)
- [Recipe 19.1, “Forgetting to Set Execute Permissions”](#)
- “`echo` Options and Escape Sequences” on page 603 in [Appendix A](#)
- “`printf`” on page 604 in [Appendix A](#)

2.2 Writing Output but Preserving Spacing

Problem

You want the output to preserve your spacing.

Solution

Enclose the string in quotes. The previous example, but with quotes added, will preserve our spacing:

```
$ echo "this was very widely spaced"
this was very widely spaced
$
```

or:

```
$ echo 'this was very widely spaced'
this was very widely spaced
$
```

Discussion

Since the words are enclosed in quotes, they form a single argument to the *echo* command. That argument is a string, and the shell doesn't need to interfere with the contents of the string. In fact, by using single quotes (' ') you explicitly tell the shell not to interfere with the string at all. If you use double quotes (" "), some shell substitutions do take place (variable, arithmetic, and tilde expansions and command substitutions), but since we have none in this example, the shell has nothing to change. When in doubt, use the single quotes.

See Also

- `help echo`
- `help printf`
- [Chapter 5](#) for more information about substitution
- [Recipe 2.3, “Writing Output with More Formatting Control”](#)
- [Recipe 15.6, “Using echo Portably”](#)
- [Recipe 19.11, “Seeing Odd Behavior from printf”](#)
- [“echo Options and Escape Sequences” on page 603 in Appendix A](#)

2.3 Writing Output with More Formatting Control

Problem

You want more control over the formatting and placement of output.

Solution

Use the *printf* builtin command.

For example:

```
$ printf '%s = %d\n' Lines $LINES
Lines = 24
$
```

or:

```
$ printf '%-10.10s = %4.2f\n' 'Gigahertz' 1.92735
Gigahertz = 1.93
$
```

Discussion

The `printf` builtin command behaves like the C language library call, where the first argument is the format control string and the successive arguments are formatted according to the format specifications (%).

The numbers between the % and the format type (s or f in our example) provide additional formatting details. For the floating-point type (f), the first number (4 in the 4.2 specifier) is the width of the entire field. The second number (2) is how many digits should be printed to the right of the decimal point. Note that it rounds the answer.

For a string, the first number is the maximum field width, and the second is the number of bytes to be printed. The string will be truncated (if longer than *max*) or blank padded (if less than *min*) as needed. When the *max* and *min* specifiers are the same, then the string is guaranteed to be that length. The negative sign on the specifier means to left-align the string (within its field width). Without the minus sign, the string would right-justify, thus:

```
$ printf '%10.10s = %4.2f\n' 'Gigahertz' 1.92735
      Gigahertz = 1.93
$
```

The string argument can either be quoted or unquoted. Use quotes if you need to preserve embedded spacing (there were no spaces needed in our one-word strings), or if you need to escape the special meaning of any special characters in the string (again, our example had none). It's a good idea to be in the habit of quoting any string that you pass to `printf`, so that you don't forget the quotes when you need them.

See Also

- `help printf`
- <http://pubs.opengroup.org/onlinepubs/9699919799/utilities/printf.html>
- *Learning the bash Shell*, 3rd Edition, by Cameron Newham (O'Reilly), page 171, or any C reference on its `printf` function
- Recipe 15.6, “Using echo Portably”
- Recipe 19.11, “Seeing Odd Behavior from `printf`”
- “`printf`” on page 604 in Appendix A

2.4 Writing Output Without the Newline

Problem

You want to produce some output without the default newline that *echo* provides.

Solution

Using *printf* it's easy—just leave off the ending `\n` in your format string:

```
$ printf "%s %s" next prompt
next prompt$
```

With *echo*, use the `-n` option:

```
$ echo -n prompt
prompt$
```

Discussion

Since there was no newline at the end of the *printf* format string (the first argument), the prompt character (\$) appears right where the *printf* left off. This feature is much more useful in shell scripts where you may want to do partial output across several statements before completing the line, or where you want to display a prompt to the user before reading input.

With the *echo* command (see [Recipe 15.6](#)), there are two ways to eliminate the newline. First, the `-n` option suppresses the trailing newline. The *echo* command also has several escape sequences with special meanings similar to those in C language strings (e.g., `\n` for newline). To use these escape sequences, you must invoke *echo* with the `-e` option. One of *echo*'s escape sequences is `\c`, which doesn't print a character, but rather inhibits printing the ending newline. Thus, here's a third solution:

```
$ echo -e 'hi\c'
hi$
```

Because of the powerful and flexible formatting that *printf* provides, and because it is a builtin with very little overhead to invoke (unlike in other shells or older versions of *bash*, where *printf* was a standalone executable), we will use *printf* for many of our examples throughout the book.

See Also

- `help echo`
- `help printf`

- <http://pubs.opengroup.org/onlinepubs/9699919799/utilities/printf.html>
- Chapter 3, particularly Recipe 3.5, “Getting User Input”
- Recipe 2.3, “Writing Output with More Formatting Control”
- Recipe 15.6, “Using echo Portably”
- Recipe 19.11, “Seeing Odd Behavior from printf”
- “echo Options and Escape Sequences” on page 603 in Appendix A
- “printf” on page 604 in Appendix A

2.5 Saving Output from a Command

Problem

You want to keep the output from a command by putting it in a file.

Solution

Use the `>` symbol to tell the shell to redirect the output into a file. For example:

```
$ echo fill it up
fill it up
$ echo fill it up > file.txt
$
```

Just to be sure, let’s look at what is inside *file.txt* to see if it captured our output:

```
$ cat file.txt
fill it up
$
```

Discussion

The first line of the first part of the example shows an *echo* command with three arguments that are printed out. The second line uses the `>` to capture that output into a file named *file.txt*, which is why no output appears after that *echo* command.

The second part of the example uses *cat* to display the contents of the file. We can see that the file contains what *echo* would have otherwise sent as output.

The *cat* command gets its name from the longer word *concatenation*. The *cat* command concatenates the output from the files listed on its command line, so if you enter `cat file1 filetwo anotherfile morefiles` the contents of those files will be sent, one after another, to the terminal window. If a large file has been split in half,

you can also use `cat` to glue it back together (i.e., concatenate the two halves) by capturing the output into a third file:

```
cat first.half second.half > whole.file
```

So our simple command, `cat file.txt`, is really just the trivial case of concatenating only one file, with the result sent to the screen. That is to say, while `cat` is capable of more, its primary use in this example is to dump the contents of a file to the screen.

See Also

- `man cat`
- [Recipe 17.23, “Numbering Lines”](#)

2.6 Saving Output to Other Files

Problem

You want to save the output with a redirect to elsewhere in the filesystem, not in the current directory.

Solution

Use more of a pathname when you redirect the output:

```
echo some more data > /tmp/echo.out
```

or:

```
echo some more data > ../../over.here
```

Discussion

The filename that appears after the redirection character (the `>`) is actually a pathname. If it begins with no other qualifiers, the file will be placed in the current directory.

If that filename begins with a slash (`/`) then it is an *absolute* pathname, and output will be placed where it specifies in the filesystem hierarchy (i.e., *tree*), beginning at the root (provided all the intermediary directories exist and have permissions that allow you to traverse them). We used `/tmp` since it is a well-known, universally available scratch directory on virtually all Unix systems. The shell, in this example, will create the file named `echo.out` in the `/tmp` directory.

Our second example, placing the output into `../../over.here`, uses a *relative* pathname, and the `..` is the specially named directory inside every directory that refers to the

parent directory. So, each reference to `..` moves up a level in the filesystem tree (toward the root, not what we usually mean by “up” in a tree). The point here is that we can redirect our output, if we want, into a file that is far away from where we are running the command.

See Also

- *Learning the bash Shell*, 3rd Edition, by Cameron Newham (O’Reilly), pages 7–10, for an introduction to files, directories, and the dot notation (i.e., `.` and `..`)

2.7 Saving Output from the `ls` Command

Problem

You tried to save output from the `ls` command with a redirect, but when you look at the resulting file, the format is not what you expected.

Solution

Use the `-C` option on `ls` when you redirect the output.

Here’s the `ls` command showing the contents of a directory:

```
$ ls
a.out cong.txt def.conf file.txt more.txt zebra.list
$
```

But when we save the output with the `>` to redirect it to a file, and then show the file contents, we get one file per line, like this:

```
$ ls > /tmp/save.out
$ cat /tmp/save.out
a.out
cong.txt
def.conf
file.txt
more.txt
zebra.list
$
```

This time we’ll use the `-C` option:

```
$ ls -C > /tmp/save.out
$ cat /tmp/save.out
a.out cong.txt def.conf file.txt more.txt zebra.list
$
```

Alternatively, if we use the `-1` option on `ls` when we don't redirect, we get output like this:

```
$ ls -1
a.out
Cong.txt
def.conf
file.txt
more.txt
zebra.list
$
```

The original attempt at redirection matches this output.

Discussion

Just when you thought that you understood redirection and you tried it on a simple `ls` command, it didn't quite work right. What's going on here?

The shell's redirection is meant to be transparent to all programs, so programs don't need special code to make their output redirectable. The shell takes care of it when you use the `>` to send the output elsewhere. But it turns out that code can be added to a program to figure out when its output is a terminal (see `man isatty`). Then, the program can behave differently in those two cases—and that's what `ls` is doing.

The authors of `ls` figured that if your output is going to the screen, then you probably want columnar output (the `-C` option), as screen real estate is limited. But they assumed if you're redirecting it to a file, then you'll want one file per line (the `-1` option) since there are more interesting things you can do (i.e., other processing) that is easier if each filename is on a line by itself.

See Also

- `man ls`
- `man isatty`
- [Recipe 2.6, “Saving Output to Other Files”](#)

2.8 Sending Output and Error Messages to Different Files

Problem

You are expecting output from a program, but you don't want it to get littered with error messages. You'd like to save your error messages, but it's harder to find them mixed among the expected output.

Solution

Redirect output and error messages to different files:

```
myprogram 1> messages.out 2> message.err
```

or more commonly:

```
myprogram > messages.out 2> message.err
```

Discussion

This example shows two different output files created by the shell. The first, *messages.out*, will get all the output from the hypothetical *myprogram* redirected into it. Any error messages from *myprogram* will be redirected into *message.err*.

In the constructs `1>` and `2>` the number is the file *descriptor*. 1 is standard output (STDOUT) and 2 is standard error (STDERR). Numbering starts at 0, for standard input (STDIN). When no number is specified, STDOUT is assumed. For more information on file descriptors and the difference between STDOUT and STDERR, see [Recipe 2.19](#).

See Also

- [Recipe 2.6, “Saving Output to Other Files”](#)
- [Recipe 2.13, “Throwing Output Away”](#)
- [Recipe 2.19, “Saving Output When Redirect Doesn’t Seem to Work”](#)

2.9 Sending Output and Error Messages to the Same File

Problem

Using redirection, you can redirect output or error messages to separate files, but how do you capture all the output and error messages to a single file?

Solution

Use the shell syntax to redirect standard error messages to the same place as standard output.

Preferred:

```
both >& outfile
```

or:

```
both &> outfile
```

or older and slightly more verbose (but also more portable):

```
both > outfile 2>&1
```

where `both` is just our (imaginary) program that is going to generate output to both `STDERR` and `STDOUT`.

Discussion

`&>` and `>&` are shortcuts that simply send both `STDOUT` and `STDERR` to the same place—exactly what we want to do.

In the third example, the `1` appears to be used as the target of the redirection, but the `>&` says to interpret the `1` as a file descriptor instead of a filename. In fact, the `2>&1` is a single entity—no spaces allowed—indicating that standard error (`2`) will be redirected (`>`) to a file descriptor (`&`) that follows (`1`). The `2>&` all has to appear together without spaces; otherwise the `2` would look just like another argument, and the `&` actually means something completely different when it appears by itself. (It has to do with running the command in the background.)

It may help to think of all redirection operators as taking a leading number (e.g., `2>`), but that the default number for `>` is `1`, the standard output file descriptor.

You could also do the redirection in the other order, though it is slightly less readable, and redirect standard output to the same place to which you have already redirected standard error (in fact you must do it this way if you are using a pipe; see [Recipe 2.15](#)):

```
both 2> outfile 1>&2
```

The `1` indicates standard output and the `2` standard error. We could have written just `>&2` for that last redirection, since `1` is the default for `>`, but we find it more readable to write the number explicitly when redirecting file descriptors.



Note the order of the contents of the output file. Sometimes the error messages may appear sooner in the file than they do on the screen. That has to do with the unbuffered nature of standard error, and the effect becomes more pronounced when writing to a file instead of the screen.

See Also

- [Recipe 2.6, “Saving Output to Other Files”](#)
- [Recipe 2.13, “Throwing Output Away”](#)

2.10 Appending Rather than Clobbering Output

Problem

Each time you redirect your output, it creates that output file anew. What if you want to redirect output a second (or third, or...) time, and don't want to clobber the previous output?

Solution

The double greater-than sign (`>>`) is a *bash* redirector that means *append the output*:

```
$ ls > /tmp/ls.out
$ cd ../elsewhere
$ ls >> /tmp/ls.out
$ cd ../anotherdir
$ ls >> /tmp/ls.out
$
```

Discussion

The first line includes a redirect that truncates the file if it exists and starts with a clean (empty) file, filling it with the output from the *ls* command.

The second and third invocations of *ls* use the double greater-than sign (`>>`) to indicate appending to, rather than replacing the contents of, the output file.

If you want to have error messages (i.e., `STDERR`) included in the redirection, specify that redirection after redirecting `STDERR`, like this:

```
ls >> /tmp/ls.out 2>&1
```

As of *bash* version 4 you can combine both of those redirections in one:

```
ls &>> /tmp/ls.out
```

which will redirect both `STDERR` and `STDOUT` and append them to the specified file. Just remember that the ampersand must come first and no spacing is allowed between the three characters.

See Also

- [Recipe 2.6, “Saving Output to Other Files”](#)
- [Recipe 2.13, “Throwing Output Away”](#)

2.11 Using Just the Beginning or End of a File

Problem

You need to display or use just the beginning or end of a file.

Solution

Use the *head* or *tail* command. By default, *head* will output the first 10 lines and *tail* will output the last 10 lines of the given file. If more than one file is given, the appropriate lines from each of them are output. Use the *-number* switch (e.g., -5) to change the number of lines. *tail* also has the *-f* and *-F* switches, which follow the end of the file as it is written to, and it has an interesting *+* switch that we cover in [Recipe 2.12](#).

Discussion

head and *tail*, along with *cat*, *grep*, *sort*, *cut*, and *uniq*, are some of the most commonly used Unix text processing tools out there. If you aren't already familiar with them, you'll soon wonder how you ever got along without them.

See Also

- [Recipe 2.12, “Skipping a Header in a File”](#)
- [Recipe 7.1, “Sifting Through Files for a String”](#)
- [Recipe 8.1, “Sorting Your Output”](#)
- [Recipe 8.4, “Cutting Out Parts of Your Output”](#)
- [Recipe 8.5, “Removing Duplicate Lines”](#)
- [Recipe 17.23, “Numbering Lines”](#)

2.12 Skipping a Header in a File

Problem

You have a file with one or more header lines and you need to process just the data, and skip the header.

Solution

Use the *tail* command with a special argument. For example, to skip the first line of a file:

```
$ tail -n +2 lines
Line 2
Line 3
Line 4
Line 5
$
```

Discussion

An argument to *tail*, of the format `-n number` (or just `-number`), will specify a line offset relative to the end of the file. So, `tail -n 10 file` shows the last 10 lines of *file*, which also happens to be the default if you don't specify anything. Specifying a number starting with a plus sign (+) indicates an offset relative to the top of the file. Thus, `tail -n +1 file` gives you the entire file, `tail -n +2` skips the first line, and so on.

See Also

- `man tail`
- [Recipe 13.12, “Setting Up a Database with MySQL”](#)

2.13 Throwing Output Away

Problem

Sometimes you don't want to save the output into a file; in fact, sometimes you don't even want to see it at all.

Solution

Redirect the output to `/dev/null` as shown in these examples:

```
find / -name myfile -print 2> /dev/null
```

or:

```
noisy > /dev/null 2>&1
```

Discussion

You could redirect the unwanted output into a file, then remove the file when you're done. But there is an easier way. Unix and Linux systems have a special device that isn't real hardware at all, just a *bit bucket* where we can dump unwanted data. It's

called `/dev/null` and is perfect for these situations. Any data written there is simply thrown away, so it takes up no disk space. Redirection makes it easy.

In the first example, only the output going to standard error is thrown away. In the second example, both standard output and standard error are discarded.

In rare cases, you may find yourself in a situation where `/dev` is on a read-only filesystem (for example, certain information security appliances), in which case you are stuck with the first suggestion of writing to a file and then removing it.

See Also

- [Recipe 2.6, “Saving Output to Other Files”](#)

2.14 Saving or Grouping Output from Several Commands

Problem

You want to capture the output with a redirect, but you’re typing several commands on one line:

```
pwd; ls; cd ../elsewhere; pwd; ls > /tmp/all.out
```

The final redirect applies only to the last command, the last `ls` on that line. All the other output appears on the screen (i.e., does not get redirected).

Solution

Use braces (`{ }`) to group these commands together; then redirection applies to the output from all commands in the group. For example:

```
{ pwd; ls; cd ../elsewhere; pwd; ls; } > /tmp/all.out
```



There are two very subtle catches here. The braces are actually *reserved words*, so they must be surrounded by whitespace. Also, the trailing semicolon is required before the closing brace.

Alternatively, you could use parentheses, `()`, to tell `bash` to run the commands in a subshell, then redirect the output of the entire subshell’s execution. For example:

```
(pwd; ls; cd ../elsewhere; pwd; ls) > /tmp/all.out
```


Discussion

While these two solutions look very similar, there are two important differences. The first difference is syntactic, the second semantic. Syntactically, the braces need to have whitespace around them, and the last command inside the list must terminate with a semicolon. That's not required when you use parentheses. The bigger difference, though, is semantic—what these constructs mean. The braces are just a way to group several commands together, more like a shorthand for our redirecting, so that we don't have to redirect each command separately. Commands enclosed in parentheses, however, run in another instance of the shell, a child of the current shell called a *subshell*.

The subshell is almost identical to the current shell's environment—i.e., variables, including `$PATH`, are all the same, but traps are handled differently (for more on traps, see [Recipe 10.6](#)). Now here is the big difference in using the subshell approach: because a subshell is used to execute the `cd` commands, when the subshell exits, your main shell remains where it started. That is, its current directory hasn't moved, and its variables haven't changed.

With the braces used for grouping, you end up in the new directory (*./elsewhere* in our example). Any other changes that you make (variable assignments, for example) will be made to your current shell instance. While both approaches result in the same output, they leave you in very different places.

One interesting thing you can do with braces is form more concise branching blocks ([Recipe 6.2](#)). You can shorten this:

```
if [ $result = 1 ]; then
    echo "Result is 1; excellent."
    exit 0
else
    echo "Uh-oh, ummm, RUN AWAY! "
    exit 120
fi
```

into this:

```
[ $result = 1 ] \
  && { echo "Result is 1; excellent." ; exit 0; } \
  || { echo "Uh-oh, ummm, RUN AWAY! " ; exit 120; }
```

How you write it depends on your style and what you think is readable, but we recommend the first form because it is clearer to a wider audience.

See Also

- [Recipe 6.2, “Branching on Conditions”](#)
- [Recipe 10.6, “Trapping Interrupts”](#)
- [Recipe 15.11, “Getting Input from Another Machine”](#)
- [Recipe 19.5, “Expecting to Change Exported Variables”](#)
- [Recipe 19.8, “Forgetting that Pipelines Make Subshells”](#)
- [“Builtin Shell Variables” on page 591 in Appendix A](#) to learn about `$BASH_SUBSHELL`

2.15 Connecting Two Programs by Using Output as Input

Problem

You want to take the output from one program and use it as the input of another program.

Solution

You could redirect the output from the first program into a temporary file, then use that file as input to the second program. For example:

```
$ cat one.file another.file > /tmp/cat.out
$ sort < /tmp/cat.out
...
$ rm /tmp/cat.out
$
```

Or you could do all of that in one step, sending the output directly to the next program, by using the pipe symbol (`|`) to connect them. For example:

```
cat one.file another.file | sort
```

You can also link a sequence of several commands together by using multiple pipes:

```
cat my* | tr 'a-z' 'A-Z' | sort | uniq | awk -f transform.awk | wc
```

Discussion

Using the pipe symbol means we don't have to invent a temporary filename, remember it, and remember to delete it.

Programs like *sort* can take input from standard input (redirected via the `<` symbol), but they can also take input as a filename. So, you can do this:

```
sort /tmp/cat.out
```

rather than redirecting the input into *sort*:

```
sort < /tmp/cat.out
```

That behavior (of using a filename if supplied, and if not, of using standard input) is a typical Unix/Linux characteristic, and a useful model to follow so that commands can be connected one to another via the pipe mechanism. Such programs are called *filters*, and if you write your programs and shell scripts that way, they will be more useful to you and to those with whom you share your work.

Feel free to be amazed at the powerful simplicity of the pipe mechanism. You can even think of the pipe as a rudimentary parallel processing mechanism. You have two commands (programs) running in parallel, sharing data—the output of one as the input to the next. They don't have to run sequentially (where the first runs to completion before the second one starts); the second one can get started as soon as data is available from the first.

Be aware, however, that commands run this way (i.e., connected by pipes) are run in separate processes. While such a subtlety can often be ignored, there are a few times when the implications of this are important. We'll discuss that in [Recipe 19.8](#).

Also consider a command such as `svn -v log | less`. If *less* exits before Subversion has finished sending data, you'll get an error like `svn: Write error: Broken pipe`. While it isn't pretty, it also isn't harmful. It happens all the time when you pipe a voluminous amount of data into a program like *less*—you often want to quit once you've found what you're looking for, even if there is more data coming down the pipe.

See Also

- [Recipe 3.1, “Getting Input from a File”](#)
- [Recipe 19.8, “Forgetting that Pipelines Make Subshells”](#)

2.16 Saving a Copy of Output Even While Using It as Input

Problem

You want to debug a long sequence of piped I/O, such as:

```
cat my* | tr 'a-z' 'A-Z' | uniq | awk -f transform.awk | wc
```

How can you see what is happening between *uniq* and *awk* without disrupting the pipe?

Solution

The solution to these problems is to use what plumbers call a T-joint in the pipes. For *bash*, that means using the *tee* command to split the output into two identical streams, one that is written to a file and the other that is written to standard output, so as to continue the sending of data along the pipes.

For this example where we'd like to debug a long string of pipes, we insert the *tee* command between *uniq* and *awk*:

```
... uniq | tee /tmp/x.x | awk -f transform.awk ...
```

Discussion

The *tee* command writes the output to the filename(s) specified as its parameter and also writes that same output to standard out. In our example, it sends a copy to */tmp/x.x* and also sends the same data to *awk*, the command to which the output of *tee* is connected via the pipe symbol.

Don't worry about what each different piece of the command line is doing in these examples; we just want to illustrate how *tee* can be used in any sequence of commands.

Let's back up just a bit and start with a simpler command line. Suppose you'd just like to save the output from a long-running command for later reference, while at the same time seeing it on the screen. After all, a command like:

```
find / -name '*.c' -print | less
```

could find a lot of C source files, so the output will likely scroll off the window. Using *more* or *less* will let you look at the output in manageable pieces, but once completed they don't let you go back and look at that output without rerunning the command. Sure, you could run the command and save it to a file:

```
find / -name '*.c' -print > /tmp/all.my.sources
```

but then you have to wait for it to complete before you can see the contents of the file. (OK, we know about *tail -f*, but that's just getting off-topic here.) The *tee* command can be used instead of the simple redirection of standard output:

```
find / -name '*.c' -print | tee /tmp/all.my.sources
```

In this example, since the output of *tee* isn't redirected anywhere, it will print to the screen. But the copy that is diverted into a file will also be there for later use (e.g., *cat /tmp/all.my.sources*).

Notice, too, that in these examples we did not redirect standard error at all. This means that any errors, like you might expect from *find*, will be printed to the screen but won't show up in the *tee* file. We could add a `2>&1` to the *find* command:

```
find / -name '*.c' -print 2>&1 | tee /tmp/all.my.sources
```

to include the error output in the *tee* file. It won't be neatly separated, but it will be captured.

See Also

- `man tee`
- [Recipe 18.5, “Reusing Arguments”](#)
- [Recipe 19.13, “Debugging Scripts”](#)

2.17 Connecting Two Programs by Using Output as Arguments

Problem

What if one of the programs to which you would like to connect with a pipe doesn't work that way? For example, you can remove files with the *rm* command, specifying the files to be removed as parameters to the command:

```
rm my.java your.c their.*
```

But *rm* doesn't read from standard input, so you *can't* do something like:

```
find . -name '*.c' | rm
```

Since *rm* only takes its filenames as arguments or parameters on the command line, how can we get the output of a previously run command (e.g., *echo* or *ls*) onto the command line?

Solution

Use the command substitution feature of *bash*:

```
rm $(find . -name '*.class')
```

You can also use the *xarg* command; see the discussion in [Recipe 15.13](#).

Discussion

The `$()` encloses a command that is run in a subshell. The output from that command is substituted in place of the `$()` phrase. Newlines cause the output to become

several parameters on the command line, which is often useful but may sometimes be surprising.

The earlier shell syntax was to use backquotes (``) instead of `$()` for enclosing the sub-command. The `$()` syntax is preferred over the older `` syntax because it is easier to nest and arguably easier to read. However, you may see `` more often than `$()`, especially in older scripts or from those who grew up with the original Bourne or C shells.

In our example, the output from *find*—typically a list of names—will become the arguments to the *rm* command.



Be very careful when doing something like this because *rm* is very unforgiving. If your *find* command finds more than you expect, *rm* will remove it with no recourse. This is not Windows; you cannot recover deleted files from the recycle bin. You can mitigate the danger with `rm -i`, which will prompt you to verify each deletion. That's OK on a small number of files, but interminable on a large set.

One way to use such a mechanism in *bash* with greater safety is to run that inner command first by itself. When you can see that you are getting the results that you want, only then do you use it in the command with `$()`.

For example:

```
$ find . -name '*.class'
First.class
Other.class
$ rm $(find . -name '*.class')
$
```

We'll see in an upcoming recipe how this can be made even more foolproof by using `!!` instead of retyping the *find* command (see [Recipe 18.2](#)).

See Also

- [Recipe 9.8, “Finding Files by Size”](#)
- [Recipe 18.2, “Repeating the Last Command”](#)
- [Recipe 15.13, “Working Around “Argument list too long” Errors”](#)

2.18 Using Multiple Redirects on One Line

Problem

You want to redirect output to several different places.

Solution

Use redirection with file numbers to open all the files that you want to use. For example:

```
divert 3> file.three 4> file.four 5> file.five 6> else.where
```

where *divert* might be a shell script with various commands whose output you want to send to different places. For example, you might write *divert* to contain lines like this: `echo option $OPTSTR >&5`. That is, your *divert* shell script could direct its output to various different descriptors, which the invoking program can send to different destinations.

Similarly, if *divert* was a C program executable, you could actually write to descriptors 3, 4, 5, and 6 without any need for `open()` calls.

Discussion

In [Recipe 2.8](#) we explained that each file descriptor is indicated by a number, starting at zero: standard input is 0, standard output is 1, and standard error is 2. If no number is given, 1 is assumed. That means that you could redirect standard output with the slightly more verbose `1>` (rather than a simple `>`) followed by a filename, but there's no need; the shorthand `>` is fine. It also means that you can have the shell open up any number of arbitrary file descriptors and have them set to write various files so that the program that the shell then invokes from the command line can use these opened file descriptors without further ado.

While we don't recommend this technique because it's fragile and more complicated than it needs to be, it is intriguing.

See Also

- [Recipe 2.6, "Saving Output to Other Files"](#)
- [Recipe 2.8, "Sending Output and Error Messages to Different Files"](#)
- [Recipe 2.13, "Throwing Output Away"](#)

2.19 Saving Output When Redirect Doesn't Seem to Work

Problem

You tried using `>` but some (or all) of the output still appears on the screen.

For example, the compiler was producing these error messages:

```
$ gcc bad.c
bad.c: In function `main':
bad.c:3: error: `bad' undeclared (first use in this function)
bad.c:3: error: (Each undeclared identifier is reported only once
bad.c:3: error: for each function it appears in.)
bad.c:3: error: parse error before "c"
$
```

You wanted to capture those messages, so you tried redirecting the output:

```
$ gcc bad.c > save.it
bad.c: In function `main':
bad.c:3: error: `bad' undeclared (first use in this function)
bad.c:3: error: (Each undeclared identifier is reported only once
bad.c:3: error: for each function it appears in.)
bad.c:3: error: parse error before "c"
$
```

However, it doesn't seem to have redirected anything. In fact, when you examine the file into which you were directing the output, that file is empty (zero bytes long):

```
$ ls -l save.it
-rw-r--r-- 1 albing users 0 2005-11-13 15:30 save.it
$ cat save.it
$
```

Solution

Redirect the error output, as follows:

```
gcc bad.c 2> save.it
```

The contents of *save.it* are now the error messages that you saw before.

Discussion

So what's going on here? Every process in Unix and Linux typically starts out with three open file descriptors: one for input called *standard input* (STDIN), one for output called *standard output* (STDOUT), and one for error messages called *standard error* (STDERR). It is really up to the programmer who writes any particular program to stick to these conventions and write error messages to standard error and to the normally expected output to standard out, so there is no guarantee that every error message that you ever get will go to standard error. But most of the long-established

utilities are well behaved this way. That is why these compiler messages are not being diverted with a simple `>` redirect; it only redirects standard output, not standard error.

As mentioned in the previous recipe, each file descriptor is indicated by a number, starting at zero. Standard input is `0`, output is `1`, and error is `2`. That means that you could redirect standard output with the slightly more verbose: `1>` (rather than a simple `>`) followed by a filename, but there's no need. The shorthand `>` is fine. To redirect standard error, use `2>`.

One important difference between standard output and standard error is that standard output is *buffered* but standard error is *unbuffered*; that is, every character is written individually, and they aren't collected together and written as a bunch. This means that you see the error messages right away and that there is less chance of them being dropped when a fault occurs, but the cost is one of efficiency. It's not that standard output is unreliable, but in error situations (e.g., when a program dies unexpectedly), the buffered output may not have made it to the screen before the program stops executing. That's why standard error is unbuffered: to be sure the message gets written. By contrast, with standard output, only when the buffer is full (or when the file is closed) does the output actually get written. It's more efficient for the more frequently used output, but efficiency isn't as important when an error is being reported.

What if you want to see the output as you are saving it? The `tee` command we discussed in [Recipe 2.16](#) seems just the thing:

```
gcc bad.c 2>&1 | tee save.it
```

This will take standard error and redirect it to standard out, piping them both into `tee`. The `tee` command will write its input to both the file (`save.it`) and `tee`'s standard out, which will go to your screen since it isn't otherwise redirected.

This is a special case of redirecting because normally the order of the redirections is important. Compare these two commands:

```
somecmd >my.file 2>&1
somecmd 2>&1 >my.file
```

In the first case, standard output is redirected to a file (`my.file`), and then standard error is redirected to the same place as standard out. All output will appear in `my.file`.

But that is not the case with the second command. In the second command, standard error is redirected to standard output (which at that point is connected to the screen), after which standard output is redirected to `my.file`. Thus, only standard output messages will be put in the file, and errors will still show on the screen.

However, this ordering had to be subverted for pipes—you can't put the second redirect after the pipe symbol, because after the pipe comes the next command. So, *bash* makes an exception when you write:

```
somecmd 2>&1 | othercmd
```

and recognizes that standard output is being piped. It therefore assumes that you want to include standard error in the piping when you write `2>&1` even though its normal ordering wouldn't work that way.

The other result of this, and of pipe syntax in general, is that it gives us no way to pipe just standard error and not standard output into another command—unless we first swap the file descriptors (see the next recipe).



As of the 4.x versions of *bash*, there is a shortcut syntax for redirecting both standard output and standard error into a pipe. To redirect both output streams from *somecmd* into *othercmd*, as shown previously, we can now use `|&` to write:

```
somecmd |& othercmd
```

See Also

- [Recipe 2.17, “Connecting Two Programs by Using Output as Arguments”](#)
- [Recipe 2.20, “Swapping STDERR and STDOUT”](#)

2.20 Swapping STDERR and STDOUT

Problem

You need to swap `STDERR` and `STDOUT` so you can send `STDOUT` to a logfile, but then send `STDERR` to the screen and to a file using the *tee* command. But pipes only work with `STDOUT`.

Solution

Swap `STDERR` and `STDOUT` before the pipe redirection using a third file descriptor:

```
./myscript 3>&1 1>stdout.logfile 2>&3- | tee -a stderr.logfile
```

Discussion

Whenever you redirect file descriptors, you are duplicating the open descriptor to another descriptor. This gives you a way to swap descriptors, much like how any program swaps two values—by means of a third, temporary holder. Copy A into C, copy

B into A, copy C into B, and then you have swapped the values of A and B. For file descriptors, it looks like this:

```
./myscript 3>&1 1>&2 2>&3
```

Read the syntax `3>&1` as “give file descriptor 3 the same value as output file descriptor 1.” What happens here is that it duplicates file descriptor 1 (i.e., `STDOUT`) into file descriptor 3, our temporary holding place. Then it duplicates file descriptor 2 (i.e., `STDERR`) into `STDOUT`, and finally duplicates file descriptor 3 into `STDERR`. The net effect is that the `STDERR` and `STDOUT` file descriptors have swapped places.

So far, so good. Now we just change this slightly. Once we’ve copied `STDOUT` (into file descriptor 3), we are free to redirect `STDOUT` into the logfile we want to have capture the output of our script or other program. Then we can copy the file descriptor from its temporary holding place (file descriptor 3) into `STDERR`. Adding the pipe will now work because the pipe connects to the (original) `STDOUT`. That gets us to the solution shown earlier:

```
./myscript 3>&1 1>stdout.logfile 2>&3- | tee -a stderr.logfile
```

Note the trailing `-` on the `2>&3-` term. We do that so that we close file descriptor 3 when we are done with it. That way our program doesn’t have an extra open file descriptor. We are tidying up after ourselves.

We’re also using the `-a` option to `tee` to append instead of replace.

See Also

- *Linux Server Hacks*, by Rob Flickenger (O’Reilly), Hack #5, “n>&m: Swap `STDOUT` and `STDERR`”
- [Recipe 2.19, “Saving Output When Redirect Doesn’t Seem to Work”](#)
- [Recipe 10.1, ““Daemon-izing” Your Script”](#)

2.21 Keeping Files Safe from Accidental Overwriting

Problem

You don’t want to delete the contents of a file by mistake. It can be too easy to mistype a filename and find that you’ve redirected output into a file that you meant to save.

Solution

Tell the shell to be more careful, as follows:

```
set -o noclobber
```

If you decide you don't want to be so careful after all, then turn the option off:

```
set +o noclobber
```

Discussion

The `noclobber` option tells *bash* not to overwrite any existing files when you redirect output. If the file to which you redirect output doesn't (yet) exist, everything works as normal, with *bash* creating the file as it opens it for output. If the file already exists, however, you will get an error message.

Here it is in action. We begin by turning the option off, just so that your shell is in a known state, regardless of how your particular system may be configured:

```
$ set +o noclobber           ❶  
$ echo something > my.file   ❷  
$ echo some more > my.file  
$ set -o noclobber          ❸  
$ echo something > my.file  
bash: my.file: cannot overwrite existing file  
$ echo some more >> my.file  ❹  
$
```

- ❶ The first time we redirect output to *my.file* the shell will create it for us.
- ❷ The second time we redirect, *bash* overwrites the file (it truncates the file to 0 bytes and starts writing from there).
- ❸ Then we set the `noclobber` option and we get an error message when we try to write to that file.
- ❹ As we show in the last part of this example, we can append to the file (using `>>`) just fine.



Beware! The `noclobber` option only refers to the shell's clobbering of a file when redirecting output. It will *not* stop other file manipulating actions of other programs from clobbering files (see [Recipe 14.13](#)):

```
$ echo useless data > some.file
$ echo important data > other.file
$ set -o noclobber
$ cp some.file other.file
$
```

Notice that no error occurs; the file is copied over the top of an existing file. That copy is done via the `cp` command. The shell doesn't get involved.

If you're a good and careful typist this may not seem like an important option, but we will look at other recipes where filenames are generated with regular expressions or passed as variables. Those filenames could be used as the filename for output redirection. In such cases, having `noclobber` set may be an important safety feature for preventing unwanted side effects (whether goofs or malicious actions).

See Also

- A good Linux reference on the `chmod` command and file permissions, such as:
 - http://www.linuxforums.org/security/file_permissions.html
 - http://www.comptechdoc.org/os/linux/usersguide/linux_ugfiles.html
 - http://www.faqs.org/docs/linux_intro/sect_03_04.html
 - <http://www.perfect.com/articles/chmod.shtml>
- [Recipe 2.22](#), “Clobbering a File on Purpose”
- [Recipe 14.13](#), “Setting Permissions”

2.22 Clobbering a File on Purpose

Problem

You like to have `noclobber` set, but every once in a while you do want to clobber a file when you redirect output. Can you override `bash`'s good intentions, just once?

Solution

Use `>|` to redirect your output. Even if `noclobber` is set, `bash` ignores its setting and overwrites the file.

Consider this example:

```
$ echo something > my.file
$ set -o noclobber
$ echo some more >| my.file      ❶
$ cat my.file
some more
$ echo once again > my.file     ❷
bash: my.file: cannot overwrite existing file
$
```

- ❶ Notice that no error message occurs on the second *echo*.
- ❷ But on the third *echo*, when we are no longer using the vertical bar but just the plain `>` character by itself, the shell warns us and does not clobber the existing file.

Discussion

Using `noclobber` does not take the place of file permissions. If you don't have write permission in the directory, you won't be able to create the file, whether or not you use the `>|` construct. Similarly, you must have write permission on the file itself to overwrite that existing file, whether or not you use the `>|`.

So why the vertical bar? According to Chet, “POSIX specifies the `>|` syntax, which it picked up from *ksh88*. I'm not sure why Korn chose it. *csh* does use `>!`.” To help you remember it, you can think of it as for emphasis. Its use in English (with the imperative mood) fits that sense of “do it anyway!” when telling *bash* to overwrite the file if need be. The *vi* and *ex* editors use the `!` with that same meaning in their write (`:w!` *filename*) command. Without a `!`, the editor will complain if you try to overwrite an existing file. With it, you are telling the editor to “do it!”

See Also

- [Recipe 2.21, “Keeping Files Safe from Accidental Overwriting”](#)
- [Recipe 14.13, “Setting Permissions”](#)

Standard Input

Whether it is data for a program to crunch, or simple commands to direct the behavior of a script, input is as fundamental as output. The first part of any program is the beginning of the “input/output” yin and yang of computing.

3.1 Getting Input from a File

Problem

You want your shell commands to read data from a file.

Solution

Use input redirection, indicated by the `<` character, to read data from a file:

```
wc < my.file
```

Discussion

Just as the `>` sends output to a file, so the `<` takes input from a file. The choice and shape of the characters were meant to give a visual clue as to what was going on with redirection. Can you see it? (Think “arrowhead.”)

Many shell commands will take one or more filenames as arguments, but when no filename is given will read from standard input. Those commands can be invoked as either *command filename* or *command < filename* with the same result. That’s the case here with *wc*, but also with *cat* and others.

It may look like a simple feature, and be familiar if you’ve used the DOS command line before, but it is a significant feature of shell scripting (which the DOS command

line borrowed) and was radical in both its power and its simplicity when first introduced.

See Also

- [Recipe 2.6, “Saving Output to Other Files”](#)

3.2 Keeping Your Data with Your Script

Problem

You need input to your script, but don't want a separate file.

Solution

Use a *here-document* with the `<<` characters, redirecting the text from the command line rather than from a file. When put into a shell script, the script file then contains the data along with the script.

Here's an example of a shell script in a file we call *ext*:

```
$ cat ext
#
# here is a "here" document
#
grep $1 <<EOF
mike x.123
joe x.234
sue x.555
pete x.818
sara x.822
bill x.919
EOF
$
```

It can be used as a shell script for simple phone number lookups:

```
$ ext bill
bill x.919
$
```

or:

```
$ ext 555
sue x.555
$
```


Discussion

The *grep* command looks for occurrences of the first argument in the files that are named, or if no files are named it looks to standard input.

A typical use of *grep* is something like this:

```
grep somestring file.txt
```

or:

```
grep myvar *.c
```

In our *ext* script we've parameterized the *grep* by making the string that we're searching for be the parameter of our shell script (`$1`). Whereas we often think of *grep* as searching for a fixed string through various different files, here we are going to vary what we search for, but search through the same data every time.

We could have put our phone numbers in a file, say *phonenumbers.txt*, and then used that filename on the line that invokes the *grep* command:

```
grep $1 phonenumbers.txt
```

However, that requires two separate files (our script and our datafile) and raises the question of where to put them and how to keep them together.

So, rather than supplying one or more filenames to search through, we set up a here-document and tell the shell to redirect standard input to come from that (temporary) document.

The `<<` syntax says that we want to create such a temporary input source, and the EOF is just an arbitrary string (you can choose what you like) to act as the terminator of the temporary input. It is not part of the input, but acts as the marker to show where it ends. The regular shell script (if any) resumes after the marker.

We also might add `-i` to the *grep* command to make our search case-insensitive. Thus, using `grep -i $1 <<EOF` would allow us to search for “Bill” as well as “bill”.

See Also

- `man grep`
- [Recipe 3.3, “Preventing Weird Behavior in a Here-Document”](#)
- [Recipe 3.4, “Indenting Here-Documents”](#)

3.3 Preventing Weird Behavior in a Here-Document

Problem

Your here-document is behaving weirdly. You wanted to maintain a simple list of donors using the method described previously for phone numbers, so you created a file called *donors* that looked like this:

```
$ cat donors
#
# simple lookup of our generous donors
#
grep $1 <<EOF
# name amt
pete $100
joe $200
sam $ 25
bill $ 9
EOF
$
```

But when you tried running it you got weird output:

```
$ ./donors bill
pete bill00
bill $ 9
$ ./donors pete
pete pete00
$
```

Solution

Turn off the shell scripting features inside the here-document by escaping any or all of the characters in the ending marker:

```
grep $1 <<'EOF'
pete $100
joe $200
sam $ 25
bill $ 9
EOF
```

Discussion

It's a very subtle difference, but the `<<EOF` can be replaced with `<<\EOF`, or `<<'EOF'`, or even `<<E\OF`—they all work. It's not the most elegant syntax, but it's enough to tell *bash* that you want to treat the “here” data differently.

Normally (i.e., unless you use this escaping syntax), says the *bash* manpage, “...all lines of the here-document are subjected to parameter expansion, command substitution, and arithmetic expansion.”

So what’s happening in our original *donors* script is that the amounts are being interpreted as shell variables. For example, `$100` is being seen as the shell variable `$1` followed by two zeros. That’s what gives us `pete00` when we search for “pete” and `bill00` when we search for “bill”.

When we escape some or all of the characters of the EOF, *bash* knows not to do the expansions, and the behavior is the expected behavior:

```
$ ./donors pete
pete $100
```

Of course, you may *want* the shell expansion on your data—it can be useful in the correct circumstances—but that isn’t what we want here. We’ve found it to be a useful practice to always escape the marker, as in `<<'EOF'` or `<<\EOF`, to avoid unexpected results, unless you know that you really want the expansion to be done on your data.



Trailing whitespace (even just a single blank space) on your closing EOF marker will cause it not to be recognized as the closing marker. *bash* will swallow up the rest of your script, treating it as input too and looking for that EOF. Be sure there are no extra characters (especially spaces or tabs) after the EOF.

See Also

- [Recipe 3.2, “Keeping Your Data with Your Script”](#)
- [Recipe 3.4, “Indenting Here-Documents”](#)

3.4 Indenting Here-Documents

Problem

The here-document is great, but it’s messing up your shell script’s formatting. You want to be able to indent for readability.

Solution

Use `<<-`, and then you can use tab characters (only!) at the beginning of lines to indent this portion of your shell script:

```

$ cat myscript.sh
...
    grep $1 <<-'EOF'
        lots of data
        can go here
        it's indented with tabs
        to match the script's indenting
        but the leading tabs are
        discarded when read
        EOF
    ls
...
$

```

Discussion

The hyphen (-) just after the << is enough to tell *bash* to ignore the leading tab characters. This is for *tab characters only* and not arbitrary whitespace. Note that this is especially important with the EOF or any other marker designation. If you have spaces there, it will not recognize the EOF as your ending marker, and the “here” data will continue through to the end of the file (swallowing the rest of your script). Therefore, you may want to always left-justify the EOF (or other marker) just to be safe, and let the formatting go on this one line.



Just as trailing whitespace of any kind on your closing EOF delimiter prevents it from being recognized as the closing delimiter (see the warning in [Recipe 3.3](#)), so too will using a leading character other than just the tab character. If your script indents with spaces or a combination of spaces and tabs, don't use that technique on here-documents. Either use just tabs, or keep it all flush left. Also, watch out for text editors that automatically replace tabs with spaces.

See Also

- [Recipe 3.2, “Keeping Your Data with Your Script”](#)
- [Recipe 3.3, “Preventing Weird Behavior in a Here-Document”](#)

3.5 Getting User Input

Problem

You need to get input from the user.

Solution

Use the `read` statement:

```
read
```

or:

```
read -p "answer me this " ANSWER
```

or:

```
read -t 3 -p "answer quickly: " ANSWER
```

or:

```
read PRE MID POST
```

Discussion

In its simplest form, a `read` statement with no arguments will read user input and place it into the shell variable `REPLY`.

If you want *bash* to print a prompt string before reading the input, use the `-p` option. The next word following the `-p` will be the prompt, but quoting allows you to supply multiple words for a prompt. Remember to end the prompt with punctuation and/or a space, as the cursor will wait for input right at the end of the prompt string.

The `-t` option sets a timeout. The `read` statement will return after the specified number of seconds regardless of whether the user has responded. Our example uses both the `-t` and `-p` options together, but you can use the `-t` option on its own. As of *bash* version 4 you can even specify fractional numbers of seconds, like `.25` or `3.5` for the timeout value. The exit status (`$?`) will be greater than 128 if the read timed out.

If you supply multiple variable names in the `read` statement, then `read` parses the input into words, assigning them in order. If the user enters fewer words, the extra variables will be set to null. If the user enters more words than there are variables in the `read` statement, then all of the extra words will be part of the last variable in the list.

See Also

- `help read` for more options to the *read* builtin
- [Recipe 3.8, “Prompting for a Password”](#)
- [Recipe 6.11, “Looping with a read”](#)
- [Recipe 13.6, “Parsing Text with a read Statement”](#)

- [Recipe 14.12, “Validating Input”](#)

3.6 Getting Yes or No Input

Problem

You need to get a simple yes or no input from the user, and you want to be as user-friendly as possible. In particular, you do not want to be case-sensitive, and you want to provide a useful default if the user presses the Enter key.

Solution

If the actions to take are simple, use the self-contained function in [Example 3-1](#).

Example 3-1. ch03/func_choose

```
# cookbook filename: func_choose

# Let the user make a choice about something and execute code based on
# the answer
# Called like: choose <default (y or n)> <prompt> <yes action> <no action>
# e.g. choose "y" |
#      "Do you want to play a game?" |
#      /usr/games/GlobalThermonuclearWar |
#      'printf "%b" "See you later Professor Falkin.\n"' >&2
# Returns: nothing
function choose {

    local default="$1"
    local prompt="$2"
    local choice_yes="$3"
    local choice_no="$4"
    local answer

    read -p "$prompt" answer
    [ -z "$answer" ] && answer="$default"

    case "$answer" in
        [yY1] ) eval "$choice_yes"
                # error check
                ;;
        [nN0] ) eval "$choice_no"
                # error check
                ;;
        *      ) printf "%b" "Unexpected answer '$answer'!" >&2 ;;
    esac
} # end of function choose
```

If the actions are complicated, use the function in [Example 3-2](#) and handle the results in your main code.

Example 3-2. ch03/func_choice.1

```
# cookbook filename: func_choice.1

# Let the user make a choice about something and return a standardized
# answer. How the default is handled and what happens next is up to
# the if/then after the choice in main.
# Called like: choice <prompt>
# e.g. choice "Do you want to play a game?"
# Returns: global variable CHOICE
function choice {

    CHOICE=''
    local prompt="$*"
    local answer

    read -p "$prompt" answer
    case "$answer" in
        [yY1] ) CHOICE='y';;
        [nN0] ) CHOICE='n';;
        *      ) CHOICE="$answer";;
    esac
} # end of function choice
```



If we returned “0” for no and “1” for yes, that would lend itself to interesting uses in `if choice .. ; then` expressions. We will leave that as an exercise for the reader.

The code in [Example 3-3](#) calls the `choice` function to prompt for and verify a package date. Assuming `$THISPACKAGE` is set, the function displays the date and asks for verification. If the user types `y`, `Y`, or presses Enter, then that date is accepted. If the user enters a new date, the function loops and verifies it (for a different treatment of this problem, see [Recipe 11.7](#)).

Example 3-3. ch03/func_choice.2

```
# cookbook filename: func_choice.2
CHOICE=''
until [ "$CHOICE" = "y" ]; do
    printf "%b" "This package's date is $THISPACKAGE\n" >&2
    choice "Is that correct? [Y/,<New date>]: "
    if [ -z "$CHOICE" ]; then
        CHOICE='y'
    elif [ "$CHOICE" != "y" ]; then
```

```

        printf "%b" "Overriding $THISPACKAGE with $CHOICE\n"
        THISPACKAGE=$CHOICE
    fi
done

# Build the package here

```

Next we'll show different ways to handle some yes or no questions. Carefully read the prompts and look at the defaults. In both cases the user can simply hit the Enter key, and the script will then take the default the programmer intended:

```

    # If the user types anything except a case-insensitive 'n', they will
    # see the error log
    choice "Do you want to look at the error logfile? [y/n]: "
    if [ "$CHOICE" != "n" ]; then
        less error.log
    fi

    # If the user types anything except a case-insensitive 'y', they will
    # not see the message log
    choice "Do you want to look at the message logfile? [y/N]: "
    if [ "$CHOICE" = "y" ]; then
        less message.log
    fi

```

Finally, the function in [Example 3-4](#) asks for input that might not exist.

Example 3-4. ch03/func_choice.3

```

# cookbook filename: func_choice.3

choice "Enter your favorite color, if you have one: "
if [ -n "$CHOICE" ]; then
    printf "%b" "You chose: $CHOICE\n"
else
    printf "%b" "You do not have a favorite color.\n"
fi

```

Discussion

Asking the user to make a decision is often necessary in scripting. For getting arbitrary input, see [Recipe 3.5](#). For choosing an option from a list, see [Recipe 3.7](#).

If the possible choices and the code to handle them are fairly straightforward, the first self-contained function is easier to use, but it's not always flexible enough. The second function is flexible at the expense of having to do more in the main code.

Note that we've sent the user prompts to `STDERR` so that the main script output on `STDOUT` may be redirected without the prompts cluttering it up.

See Also

- Recipe 3.5, “Getting User Input”
- Recipe 3.7, “Selecting from a List of Options”
- Recipe 11.7, “Figuring Out Date and Time Arithmetic”

3.7 Selecting from a List of Options

Problem

You need to provide the user with a list of options to choose from and you don't want to make them type any more than necessary.

Solution

Use *bash*'s builtin `select` construct to generate a menu, then have the user choose by typing the number of the selection (see [Example 3-5](#)).

Example 3-5. ch03/select_dir

```
# cookbook filename: select_dir
```

```
directorylist="Finished $(for i in /*;do [ -d "$i" ] && echo $i; done)"
```

```
PS3='Directory to process? ' # Set a useful select prompt
until [ "$directory" == "Finished" ]; do
```

```
    printf "%b" "\a\n\nSelect a directory to process:\n" >&2
    select directory in $directorylist; do
```

```
        # User types a number which is stored in $REPLY, but select
        # returns the value of the entry
```

```
        if [ "$directory" == "Finished" ]; then
            echo "Finished processing directories."
            break
```

```
        elif [ -n "$directory" ]; then
            echo "You chose number $REPLY, processing $directory..."
            # Do something here
            break
```

```
        else
            echo "Invalid selection!"
```

```
        fi # end of handle user's selection
```

```
    done # end of select a directory
```

```
done # end of until dir == finished
```

Discussion

The `select` statement makes it trivial to present a numbered list to the user on `STDERR`, from which they may make a choice. Don't forget to provide an "exit" or "finished" choice, though `Ctrl-D` will end the `select` and empty input will print the menu again.

The number the user typed is returned in `$REPLY`, and the value of that entry is returned in the variable you specified in the `select` construct.

See Also

- `help select`
- `help read`
- [Recipe 3.6, "Getting Yes or No Input"](#)

3.8 Prompting for a Password

Problem

You need to prompt the user for a password, but you don't want it echoed on the screen.

Solution

Use the `read` command to read the user's input, but with a special option to turn off echoing:

```
read -s -p "password: " PASSWD
printf "%b" "\n"
```

Discussion

The `-s` option tells the `read` command not to echo the characters typed (`s` is for silent) and the `-p` option says that the next argument is the prompt to be displayed prior to reading input.

The line of input that is read from the user is put into the variable named `$PASSWD`.

We follow the `read` with a `printf` to print out a newline. The `printf` is necessary because `read -s` turns off the echoing of characters. With echoing disabled, when the user presses the Enter key no newline is echoed and any subsequent output would appear on the same line as the prompt. Printing the newline gets us to the next line, as you would expect. It may even be handy for you to write the code all on one line to avoid

intervening logic (putting it on one line also prevents mistakes should you cut and paste this line elsewhere):

```
read -s -p "password: " PASSWD ; printf "%b" "\n"
```

Be aware that if you read a password into an environment variable it is in memory in plain text, and thus may be accessed via a core dump or */proc/core* (if your OS provides */proc/*). It is also in the process environment, which may be accessible by other processes. You may be better off using certificates with SSH, if possible. In any case, it is wise to assume that *root* and possibly other users on the machine may gain access to the password, so you should handle the situation accordingly.



Some older scripts may use `stty -echo` to disable the screen echo while a password is being entered. The problem with that is if the user breaks the script, echo will still be off. Experienced users will know to type `stty sane` to fix it, but it's very confusing. If you still need to use this method, set a trap to turn echo back on when the script terminates. See [Recipe 10.6](#).

See Also

- `help read`
- [Recipe 10.6, “Trapping Interrupts”](#)
- [Recipe 14.14, “Leaking Passwords into the Process List”](#)
- [Recipe 14.20, “Using Passwords in Scripts”](#)
- [Recipe 14.21, “Using SSH Without a Password”](#)
- [Recipe 19.9, “Making Your Terminal Sane Again”](#)

Executing Commands

The main purpose of *bash* (or of any shell) is to allow you to interact with the computer's operating system so that you can accomplish whatever you need to do. Usually that involves launching programs, so the shell takes the commands you type, determines from that input what programs need to be run, and launches them for you.

Let's take a look at the basic mechanism for launching jobs and explore some of the features *bash* offers for launching programs in the foreground or the background, sequentially or in parallel, indicating whether they succeeded, and more.

4.1 Running Any Executable

Problem

You need to run a command on a Linux or Unix system.

Solution

Use *bash* and type the name of the command at the prompt:

```
$ someprog
```

Discussion

This seems rather simple, and in a way it is, but a lot goes on behind the scenes that you never see. What's important to understand about *bash* is that its basic operation is to load and execute programs. All the rest is just window dressing to get ready to run programs. Sure, there are shell variables and control statements for looping and

if/then/else branching, and there are ways to control input and output, but they are all icing on the cake of program execution.

So where does it get the program to run?

bash uses a shell variable called `$PATH` to locate your executable. The `$PATH` variable is a list of directories. The directories are separated by colons (:). *bash* searches in each of those directories for a file with the name that you specified. The order of the directories is important—*bash* looks at the order in which the directories are listed in the variable, and takes the first executable found:

```
$ echo $PATH
/bin:/usr/bin:/usr/local/bin:.
```

In the `$PATH` variable shown here, four directories are included. The last directory in the list is just a single dot (called the *dot directory*, or just *dot*), which represents the current directory on a Linux or Unix filesystem—wherever you are, that's the directory to which dot refers. For example, when you copy a file from someplace to dot (i.e., `cp /other/place/file .`), you are copying the file into the current directory. Listing the dot directory in your path tells *bash* to look for commands not just in those other directories, but also in the current directory (.).

Many people feel that putting dot in the `$PATH` is too great a security risk—someone could trick you and get you to run their own malicious version of a command (say, *ls*) in place of one that you were expecting. If dot were listed first, then someone else's version of *ls* would supersede the normal *ls* command, and you might unwittingly run that command. Don't believe us? Try this:

```
$ bash
$ cd
$ touch ls
$ chmod 755 ls
$ PATH=".:$PATH"
$ ls
$
```

Suddenly, the *ls* appears not to work in your home directory. You get no output. When you *cd* to some other location (e.g., `cd /tmp`), then *ls* will work, but not in your home directory. Why? Because in that directory there is an empty file called *ls* that is run (and does nothing—it's empty) instead of the normal *ls* command located at `/bin/ls`. Since we started this example by running a new copy of *bash*, you can exit from this mess by exiting this subshell—but you might want to remove the bogus *ls* command first:

```
$ cd
$ rm ls
```

```
$ exit
$
```

Can you see the potential danger of wandering into a strange directory with your `$PATH` set to search the dot directory before anywhere else?

If you put dot as the last directory in your `$PATH` variable, at least you won't be tricked that easily. Of course, if you leave it off altogether it is arguably even safer, and you can still run commands in your local directory by typing a leading dot and slash character, as in:

```
./myscript
```

The choice is yours.



Never allow dot or writable directories in *root*'s `$PATH`. For more on this topic, see [Recipe 14.9](#) and [Recipe 14.10](#).

Don't forget to set execute permissions on the file before you invoke your script:

```
chmod +x myscript
```

You only need to set the permissions once. Thereafter, you can invoke the script as a command.

A common practice among some *bash* users is to create a personal *bin* directory, analogous to the system directories `/bin` and `/usr/bin` where executables are kept. In your personal *bin* (if you create it in your home directory, its path is `~/bin`) you can put copies of your favorite shell scripts and other customized or private commands. Then add that directory to your `$PATH`, even to the front (`PATH=~/bin:$PATH`). That way, you can still have your own customized favorites without the security risk of running commands from strangers.

See Also

- [Chapter 16](#) for more on customizing your environment
- [Recipe 1.5](#), “Finding and Running Commands”
- [Recipe 14.9](#), “Finding World-Writable Directories in Your `$PATH`”
- [Recipe 14.10](#), “Adding the Current Directory to the `$PATH`”
- [Recipe 16.11](#), “Keeping a Private Stash of Utilities by Adding `~/bin`”
- [Recipe 19.1](#), “Forgetting to Set Execute Permissions”

4.2 Running Several Commands in Sequence

Problem

You need to run several commands, but some take a while and you don't want to wait for each one to finish before issuing the next command.

Solution

There are three solutions to this problem, although the first is rather trivial: just keep typing. A Linux or Unix system is advanced enough to be able to let you type while it works on your previous commands, so you can simply keep typing one command after another.

Another rather simple solution is to type those commands into a file and then tell *bash* to execute the commands in the file—i.e., a simple shell script. For example, assume that we want to run three commands, *long*, *medium*, and *short*, each of whose execution time is reflected in its name. We need to run them in that order, but don't want to wait around for the *long* script to finish before typing the other commands. We could use a shell script (a.k.a. *batch file*). Here's a primitive way to do that:

```
$ cat > simple.script
long
medium
short
^D # Ctrl-D, not visible
$ bash ./simple.script
```

The third, and arguably best, solution is to run each command in sequence. If you want to run each program regardless of whether the preceding ones fail, separate them with semicolons:

```
long ; medium ; short
```

If you only want to run the next program if the preceding program worked, and all the programs correctly set exit codes, separate them with double ampersands:

```
long && medium && short
```

Discussion

The *cat* example was just a very primitive way to enter text into a file: we redirected the output from the command into the file named *simple.script* (for more on redirecting output, see [Chapter 2](#)). Better you should use a real editor, but such things are harder to show in examples like this. From now on, when we want to show a script, we'll either just show the text as disembodied text not on a command line, or start the example with a command like `cat filename` to dump the contents of the file to the

screen (rather than redirecting output from our typing into the file), and thus display it in the example.

The main point of this simple solution is to demonstrate that more than one command can be put on the *bash* command line. In the first case the second command isn't run until the first command exits, the third doesn't execute until the second exits, and so on, for as many commands as you have on the line. In the second case the second command isn't run unless the first command succeeds, the third doesn't execute unless the second succeeds, and so on, for as many commands as you have on the line.

See Also

- [Chapter 2](#) on redirecting output

4.3 Running Several Commands All at Once

Problem

You need to run three commands, but they are independent of each other and don't need to wait for the previous ones to complete.

Solution

You can run a command in the background by putting an ampersand (&) at the end of the command line. Thus, you could fire off all three commands in rapid succession as follows:

```
$ long &  
[1] 4592  
$ medium &  
[2] 4593  
$ short  
$
```

Or better yet, you can do it all on one command line:

```
$ long & medium & short  
[1] 4592  
[2] 4593  
$
```

Discussion

When we run a command “in the background” (there really is no such place in Linux), all that really means is that we disconnect keyboard input from the command

and the shell doesn't wait for the command to complete before it gives another prompt and accepts more command input. Output from the command (unless we take explicit action to change this behavior) will still come to the screen, so in this example all three commands will be interspersing output to the screen.

The odd bits of numerical output are the job number in square brackets, followed by the process ID of the command that we just started in the background. In our example, job 1 (process 4592) is the *long* command, and job 2 (process 4593) is *medium*.

We didn't put *short* into the background since we didn't put an ampersand at the end of the line, so *bash* will wait for it to complete before giving us the shell prompt (the \$).

The job number or process ID can be used to provide limited control over a job. For example, we could kill the *long* job with `kill %1` (since its job number was 1), or we could specify the process number (i.e., `kill 4592`) with the same deadly results.

You can also use the job number to reconnect to a background job. For instance, we could connect the *long* job back to the foreground with `fg %1`. If you only have one job running in the background, you don't even need the job number; just use `fg` by itself.



If you run a command and then realize it will take longer to complete than you thought, you can pause it using Ctrl-Z, which will return you to a prompt. You can then type `bg` to unpause the job and continue running it in the background. This is basically adding a trailing `&` after the fact.

4.4 Telling Whether a Command Succeeded or Not

Problem

You need to know whether the command you ran succeeded.

Solution

The shell variable `$?` is set with a nonzero value if the command fails—provided that the programmer who wrote that command or shell script followed the established convention:

```
$ somecommand
# it works...
$ echo $?
0
$ badcommand
# it fails...
```

```
$ echo $?  
1  
$
```

Discussion

The *exit status* of a command is kept in the shell variable referenced with `?`. Its value can range from 0 to 255. When you write a shell script, it's a good idea to have your script exit with zero if all is well and a nonzero value if you encounter an error condition. We recommend using only 0 to 127 because the shell uses $128+N$ to denote *killed by signal N*. Also, if you use a number greater than 255 or less than 0, the numbers will wrap around. You return an exit status with the `exit` statement (e.g., `exit 1` or `exit 0`). But be aware that you only get one shot at reading a command's exit status:

```
$ badcommand  
# it fails...  
$ echo $?  
1  
$ echo $?  
0  
$
```

Why does the second `echo` give us 0 as a result? It's actually reporting on the status of the immediately preceding `echo` command. The first time we typed `echo ?` it returned a 1, which was the return value of `badcommand`. But the `echo` command itself succeeds, and therefore the new, most recent status is success (i.e., a 0 value). Because you only get one chance to check the exit status, many shell scripts will immediately assign the status to another shell variable, as in:

```
$ badcommand  
# it fails...  
$ STAT=$?  
$ echo $STAT  
1  
$ echo $STAT  
1  
$
```

We can keep the value around in the variable `STAT` and check its value later on.

Although we're showing this in command-line examples, the real use of variables like `?` comes in writing scripts. You can usually see whether a command worked or not if you are watching it run on your screen. But in a script, the commands may be running unattended.

One of the great features of *bash* is that the scripting language is identical to commands as you type them at a prompt in a terminal window. This makes it much easier to check out syntax and logic as you write your scripts.

The exit status is more often used in scripts, and often in `if` statements, to take different actions depending on the success or failure of a command. Here's a simple example for now, but we will revisit this topic in future recipes:

```
somecommand
...
if (( $? )) ; then echo failed ; else echo OK; fi
```

`(())` evaluates an arithmetic expression; see Recipes [6.1](#) and [6.2](#).

We also do not recommend using negative numbers. The shell will accept them without an error, but it won't do what you expect:

```
$ bash -c 'exit -2' ; echo $?
254
```

```
$ bash -c 'exit -200' ; echo $?
56
```

See Also

- [Recipe 4.5, “Running a Command Only if Another Command Succeeded”](#)
- [Recipe 4.8, “Displaying Error Messages When Failures Occur”](#)
- [Recipe 6.1, “Doing Arithmetic in Your Shell Script”](#)
- [Recipe 6.2, “Branching on Conditions”](#)

4.5 Running a Command Only if Another Command Succeeded

Problem

You need to run some commands, but you only want to run certain commands if certain other ones succeed. For example, you'd like to change directories (using the `cd` command) into a temporary directory and remove all the files. However, you don't want to remove any files if the `cd` fails (e.g., if permissions don't allow you into the directory, or if you spell the directory name wrong).

Solution

You can use the exit status (`$?`) of the `cd` command in combination with an `if` statement to do the `rm` only if the `cd` was successful:

```
cd mytmp
if (( $? == 0 )); then rm * ; fi
```



A better way to write this is the following, but we think it's more clear to show and explain as we did:

```
if cd mytmp; then rm * ; fi
```

Discussion

Obviously, you wouldn't need to do this if you were typing the commands by hand. You would see any error messages from the `cd` command, and thus you wouldn't type the `rm` command. But scripting is another matter, and this test is very well worth doing in a script like our example to make sure that you don't accidentally erase all the files in the directory where you are running it.

Let's say you ran that script from the wrong directory, one that didn't have a subdirectory named `mytmp`. The `cd` would fail, so the current directory would remain unchanged. Without the `if` check (for the `cd` having failed) the script would just continue on to the next statement. Running the `rm *` would remove all the files in your current directory. Ouch. The `if` is worth it.

So how does `$?` get its value? It is the exit code of the command (see [Recipe 4.4](#)). C language programmers will recognize this as the value of the argument supplied to the `exit()` function; e.g., `exit(4)`; would return a 4. For the shell, an exit code of zero is considered success and a nonzero value means failure.

If you're writing `bash` scripts, you'll want to be sure to explicitly set return values, so that `$?` is set properly from your script. If you don't, the value set will be the value of the last command run, which you may not want as your result.

See Also

- [Recipe 4.4, "Telling Whether a Command Succeeded or Not"](#)
- [Recipe 4.6, "Using Fewer `if` Statements"](#)

4.6 Using Fewer `if` Statements

Problem

As a conscientious programmer, you took to heart what we described in the previous recipe. You applied the concept to your latest shell script, but now you find that the shell script is unreadable, with all those `if` statements checking the return code of every command. Isn't there an alternative?

Solution

Use the double-ampersand operator in *bash* to provide conditional execution:

```
cd mytmp && rm *
```

Discussion

Separating two commands by the double ampersands tells *bash* to run the first command and then to run the second command only if the first command succeeds (i.e., its exit status is 0). This is very much like using an `if` statement to check the exit status of the first command in order to protect the running of the second command:

```
cd mytmp
if (( $? == 0 )); then rm * ; fi
```

The double-ampersand syntax is meant to be reminiscent of the logical AND operator in the C language. If you know your logic (and your C) then you'll recall that if you are evaluating the logical expression `A AND B`, the entire expression can only be true if both (sub)expression A and (sub)expression B evaluate to true. If either one is false, the whole expression is false. The C language makes use of this fact, and when you code an expression like `if (A && B) { ... }`, it will evaluate expression A first. If it is false, it won't even bother to evaluate B since the overall outcome (false) has already been determined (by A being false).

So what does this have to do with *bash*? Well, if the exit status of the first command (the one to the left of the `&&`) is nonzero (i.e., failed), then it won't bother to evaluate the second expression—it won't run the other command at all.

If you want to be thorough about your error checking, but don't want `if` statements all over the place, you can have *bash* exit any time it encounters a failure (i.e., a non-zero exit status) from every command in your script (except in `while` loops and `if` statements where it is already capturing and using the exit status) by setting the `-e` flag:

```
set -e
cd mytmp
rm *
```

Setting the `-e` flag will cause the shell to exit when a command fails. If the `cd` in this example fails, the script will exit and never even try to execute the `rm *` command. We don't recommend doing this on an interactive shell, however, because when the shell exits it will make your shell window go away.

See Also

- [Recipe 4.8, “Displaying Error Messages When Failures Occur”](#) for an explanation of the `||` syntax, which is similar in some ways to but also quite different from the `&&` construct

4.7 Running Long Jobs Unattended

Problem

You ran a job in the background, then exited the shell and went for coffee. When you came back to check, the job was no longer running and it hadn't completed. In fact, your job hadn't progressed very far at all. It seems to have quit as soon as you exited the shell.

Solution

If you want to run a job in the background and expect to exit the shell before the job completes, then you need to *nohup* the job:

```
$ nohup long &
nohup: appending output to `nohup.out'
$
```

Discussion

When you put a job in the background (via the `&`, as described in [Recipe 4.3](#)), it is still a child process of the *bash* shell. When you exit an instance of the shell, *bash* sends a *hangup* (hup) signal to all of its child processes. That's why your job didn't run for very long. As soon as you exited *bash*, it killed your background job. (Hey, you were leaving; how was it supposed to know?)

The *nohup* command simply sets up the child process to ignore hangup signals. You can still kill the job with the *kill* command, because *kill* sends a SIGTERM signal, not a SIGHUP signal. But with *nohup*, *bash* won't inadvertently kill your job when you exit.

The message that *nohup* gives about appending your output is just *nohup* trying to be helpful. Since you are likely to exit the shell after issuing a *nohup* command, your output destination will likely go away—i.e., the *bash* session in your terminal will no longer be active, so the job won't be able to write to STDOUT. More importantly, writing to a nonexistent destination would cause a failure. So *nohup* redirects the output for you, appending it (not overwriting, but adding at the end) to a file named *nohup.out* in the current directory. You can explicitly redirect the output elsewhere on

the command line, and *nohup* is smart enough to detect that this has happened and not use *nohup.out* for your output.

See Also

- [Chapter 2](#) for various recipes on redirecting output, since you probably want to do that for a background job
- [Recipe 4.3, “Running Several Commands All at Once”](#)
- [Recipe 10.1, ““Daemon-izing” Your Script”](#) for more on running your script unattended
- [Recipe 17.4, “Recovering Disconnected Sessions Using screen”](#)

4.8 Displaying Error Messages When Failures Occur

Problem

You need your shell script to be verbose about failures. You want to see error messages when commands don’t work, but `if` statements tend to distract from the visual flow of statements.

Solution

A common idiom among some shell programmers is to use the `||` with commands to spit out debug or error messages. Here’s an example:

```
cmd || printf "%b" "cmd failed. You're on your own\n"
```

Discussion

Similar to how the `&&` in [Recipe 4.6](#) tells *bash* not to bother to evaluate the second expression if the first one is false, the `||` tells the shell not to bother to evaluate the second expression if the first one is true (i.e., succeeds). As with `&&`, the `||` syntax harkens back to logic and the C language, where the outcome is determined (as true) if the first expression in `A OR B` evaluates to true—so there’s no need to evaluate the second expression. In *bash*, if the first expression returns 0 (i.e., succeeds) then it just continues on. Only if the first expression returns a nonzero value (i.e., if the exit value of the command indicates failure) must it evaluate the second part, and thus run the other command.

Warning—don’t be fooled by this:

```
cmd || printf "%b" "FAILED.\n" ; exit 1
```


The *exit* will be executed in either case! The OR is only between the first two commands. If we want to have the *exit* happen only on error, we need to group it with the *printf* so that both are considered as a unit. The desired syntax would be:

```
cmd || { printf "%b" "FAILED.\n" ; exit 1 ; }
```

Note that the semicolon after the last command and just before the } is required, and that the closing brace must be separated by whitespace from the surrounding text. See [Recipe 2.14](#) for a discussion.

See Also

- [Recipe 2.14, “Saving or Grouping Output from Several Commands”](#)
- [Recipe 4.6, “Using Fewer if Statements”](#) for an explanation of && syntax

4.9 Running Commands from a Variable

Problem

You want to run different commands in your script depending on circumstances. How can you vary which commands run?

Solution

There are many solutions to this problem—it’s what scripting is all about. In coming chapters we’ll discuss various programming constructs that can be used to solve this problem, such as *if/then/else*, case statements, and more. But here’s a slightly different approach that reveals something about *bash*. We can use the contents of a variable (more on those in [Chapter 5](#)) not just for parameters, but also for the command itself:

```
FN=/tmp/x.x  
PROG=echo  
$PROG $FN  
PROG=cat  
$PROG $FN
```

Discussion

We can assign the program name to a variable (here we use *\$PROG*), and then when we refer to that variable in the place where a command name would be expected, *bash* uses the value of that variable (*\$PROG*) as the command to run. It parses the command line, substitutes the values of its variables, and takes the result of all the substitutions and treats that as the command line, as if it had been typed that way verbatim.



Be careful about the variable names you use. Some programs, such as InfoZip, use environment variables such as \$ZIP and \$UNZIP to pass settings to the program itself, so if you do something like `ZIP=/usr/bin/zip` you can spend days pulling your hair out wondering why it works fine from the command line, but not in your script. Trust us. We learned this one the hard way. Also, RTFM.

See Also

- [Chapter 11](#)
- [Recipe 14.3, “Setting a Secure \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 16.21, “Creating Self-Contained, Portable rc Files”](#)
- [Recipe 16.22, “Getting Started with a Custom Configuration”](#)
- [Appendix C](#) for a description of all the various substitutions that are performed on a command line; you’ll want to read a few more chapters before tackling that subject

4.10 Running All Scripts in a Directory

Problem

You want to run a series of scripts, but the list keeps changing; you’re always adding new scripts, but you don’t want to continuously modify a master list.

Solution

Put the scripts you want to run in a directory, and let *bash* run everything that it finds. Instead of keeping a master list, simply use the contents of that directory as your master list. Here’s a script that will run everything it finds in a particular directory:

```
for SCRIPT in /path/to/scripts/dir/*
do
    if [ -f "$SCRIPT" -a -x "$SCRIPT" ]
    then
        $SCRIPT
    fi
done
```

Discussion

We discuss the `for` loop and the `if` statement in greater detail in [Chapter 6](#), but this gives you a taste. The variable `$SCRIPT` will take on successive values for each file that

matches the wildcard pattern `*`, which matches everything in the named directory (except invisible dot files, whose names begin with a period). If it is a file (the `-f` test) and has execute permissions set (the `-x` test), the shell will then try to run that script.

In this simple example, we have provided no way to specify any arguments to the scripts as they are executed. This simple script may work well for your personal needs, but wouldn't be considered robust; some might consider it downright dangerous. But we hope it gives you an idea of what lies ahead: some programming language-style scripting capabilities.

See Also

- [Chapter 6](#) for more about for loops and `if` statements

Basic Scripting: Shell Variables

bash shell programming is a lot like any kind of programming, and that includes having variables—containers that hold strings and numbers, which can be changed, compared, and passed around. *bash* variables have some very special operators that can be used when you refer to a variable. *bash* also has some important built-in variables, ones that provide important information about the other variables in your script. This chapter takes a look at *bash* variables and some special mechanisms for referencing variables, and shows how they can be put to use in your scripts.

Variables in a *bash* script are often written as all-uppercase names, though that is not required—just a common practice. You don't need to declare them; just use them where you want them. They are basically all of type string, though some *bash* operations can treat their contents as a number. They look like this in use:

```
# trivial script using shell variables
# (but at least it is commented!)
MYVAR="something"
echo $MYVAR
# similar but with no quotes
MY_2ND=anotherone
echo $MY_2ND
# quotes are needed here:
MYOTHER="more stuff to echo"
echo $MYOTHER
```

There are two significant aspects of *bash* variable syntax that may not be intuitively obvious. First, in the assignment, the *name=value* syntax is straightforward enough, but there cannot be any spaces around the equals sign.

Let's consider for a moment why this is the case. Remember that the main purpose of the shell is to launch programs—you name the program on the command line and that is the program that gets launched. Any words of text that follow that name on the

command line are passed along as arguments to the program. For example, when you type:

```
ls filename
```

the word `ls` is the name of the command, and *filename* is the first and only argument in this example.

Why is that relevant? Well, consider what a variable assignment would look like if you allowed spaces around the equals sign, like this:

```
MYVAR = something
```

Can you see that the shell would have a hard time distinguishing between the name of a command to invoke (like in the *ls* example) and the assignment of a variable? This would be especially true for commands that can use `=` symbols as one or more of their arguments (e.g., *test*). So to keep it simple, the shell doesn't allow spaces around the equals sign in an assignment. The flip side of this is also worth noting—don't use an equals sign in a filename, especially not one for a shell script (it is possible, just not recommended).

The second aspect of shell variable syntax worth noting is the use of the dollar sign (\$) when referring to a variable. You don't use the dollar sign on the variable name to assign it a value, but you do use the dollar sign to get the value of the variable. (The exception to this is using variables inside a `$()` expression.) In compiler jargon, this difference in syntax for assigning and retrieving the value is the difference between the *L-value* and the *R-value* of the variable (for *Left* and *Right* side of an assignment operator).

Once again, the reason for this is simple disambiguation. Consider the following:

```
MYVAR=something
echo MYVAR is now MYVAR
```

As this example tries to point out, how would one distinguish between the literal string `MYVAR` and the value of the `$MYVAR` variable? Use quotes, you say? If you were to require quoting around literal strings, then everything would get a lot messier—you would have to quote every non-variable name, which includes commands! Who wants to type:

```
"ls" "-l" "/usr/bin/xmms"
```

(Yes, for those of you who thought about trying it, it does work.) So rather than have to put quotes around everything, the onus is put on the variable reference by using the *R-value* syntax. Put a dollar sign on a variable name when you want to get at the value associated with that variable name:

```
MYVAR=something
echo MYVAR is now $MYVAR
```

Just remember that since everything in *bash* is a string, we need the dollar sign to indicate a variable reference. We may also want to add braces around the variable name, for reasons we describe in [Recipe 5.4](#).

5.1 Documenting Your Script

Problem

Before we say one more word about shell scripts or variables, we have to say something about documenting your scripts. After all, you need to be able to understand your script even when several months have passed since you wrote it.

Solution

Document your script with comments. The `#` character denotes the beginning of a comment. All the characters after it on that line are ignored by the shell:

```
#  
# This is a comment.  
#  
# Use comments frequently.  
# Comments are your friends.
```

Discussion

Some people have described shell syntax, regular expressions, and other parts of shell scripting as *write-only* syntax, implying that it is nearly impossible to understand the intricacies of many shell scripts.

One of your best defenses against letting your shell scripts fall into this trap is the liberal use of comments (another is the use of meaningful variable names). It helps to put a comment before strange syntax or terse expressions:

```
# replace the semicolon with a space  
NEWPATH=${PATH;/ }  
#  
# switch the text on either side of a semicolon  
sed -e 's/^\(.*\);\(.*\)$/\/2;\1/' < $FILE
```

Comments can even be typed in at the command prompt with an interactive shell. This feature can be turned off, but it is on by default. There may be a few occasions when it is useful to make interactive comments.

See Also

- [Table 5-1](#)
- “shopt Options” on page 597 in [Appendix A](#) to learn how to turn interactive comments on or off

5.2 Embedding Documentation in Shell Scripts

Problem

You want a simple way to provide formatted end-user documentation (e.g., manpages or HTML pages) for your script. You want to keep both code and documentation markup in the same file to simplify updates, distribution, and revision control.

Solution

Embed documentation in the script using the “do nothing” builtin (a colon) and a here-document, as illustrated in [Example 5-1](#).

Example 5-1. ch05/embedded_documentation

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: embedded_documentation

echo 'Shell script code goes here'

# Use a : NOOP and here document to embed documentation,
: <<'END_OF_DOCS'
```

Embedded documentation such as Perl's Plain Old Documentation (POD), or even plain text here.

Any accurate documentation is better than none at all.

Sample documentation in Perl's Plain Old Documentation (POD) format adapted from CODE/ch07/Ch07.001_Best_Ex7.1 and 7.2 in the Perl Best Practices example tarball "PBP_code.tar.gz".

```
=head1 NAME
```

```
MY~PROGRAM--One-line description here
```

```
=head1 SYNOPSIS
```

```
MY~PROGRAM [OPTIONS] <file>
```



```
=head1 OPTIONS
```

```
-h = This usage.  
-v = Be verbose.  
-V = Show version, copyright, and license information.
```

```
=head1 DESCRIPTION
```

```
A full description of the application and its features.  
May include numerous subsections (i.e., =head2, =head3, etc.)
```

```
[...]
```

```
=head1 LICENSE AND COPYRIGHT
```

```
=cut
```

```
END_OF_DOCS
```

Then, to extract and use that POD documentation, try these commands:

```
# To read on-screen, automatically paginated  
$ perldoc myscript  
  
# Just the "usage" sections  
$ pod2usage myscript  
  
# Create an HTML version  
$ pod2html myscript > myscript.html  
  
# Create a manpage  
$ pod2man myscript > myscript.1
```

Discussion

Any plain-text documentation or markup can be used this way, either interspersed throughout the code, or better yet, collected at the end of the script. Since computer systems that have *bash* will probably also have Perl, its Plain Old Documentation (POD) format may be a good choice. Perl usually comes with *pod2** programs to convert POD to HTML, LaTeX, manpage, text, and usage files.

Damian Conway's *Perl Best Practices* (O'Reilly) has some excellent library module and application documentation templates that could be easily translated into any documentation format, including plain text. See *CODE/ch07/Ch07.001_Best_Ex7.1* and 7.2 in that book's [examples tarball](#).

If you keep all of your embedded documentation at the very bottom of the script, you could also add an `exit 0` right before the documentation begins. That will simply exit

the script rather than forcing the shell to parse each line looking for the end of the here-document, so it will be a little faster. You need to be careful not to override a previous exit code from a command that failed, though, so consider using `set -e`. And do not use this trick if you intersperse code and embedded documentation in the body of the script.

See Also

- `set -e` in [Recipe 4.6, “Using Fewer if Statements”](#)
- http://examples.oreilly.com/perlbp/PBP_code.tar.gz

5.3 Promoting Script Readability

Problem

You’d like to make your script as readable as possible for ease of understanding and future maintenance.

Solution

Follow these best practices:

- Document your script as noted in [Recipe 5.1](#) and [Recipe 5.2](#).
- Indent and use vertical whitespace wisely.
- Use meaningful variable names.
- Use functions ([Recipe 10.4](#)), and give them meaningful names.
- Break lines at meaningful places at less than 76 characters or so.
- Put the most meaningful bits to the left.

Discussion

Document your intent, not the trivial details of the code. If you follow the rest of the points, the code should be pretty clear. Write reminders, provide sample data layouts or headers, and make a note of all the details that are in your head now, as you write the code. Document the code itself too if it is subtle or obscure.

We recommend indenting using four spaces per level, with no tabs and especially no mixed tabs and spaces. There are many reasons for this, though it often is a matter of personal preference or company standards. Four spaces is always four spaces, no matter how your editor (excepting proportional fonts) or printer is set. It’s big enough to

be easily visible as you glance across the script but small enough that you can have several levels of indenting without running the lines off the right side of your screen or printed page. We also suggest indenting continued lines with two additional spaces, or as needed, to make the code the most clear.

Use vertical whitespace, with separators if you like them, to create blocks of similar code. Of course, you'll do that with functions as well.

Use meaningful names for variables and functions, and spell them out. The only time `$i` or `$x` is *ever* acceptable is in a for loop. You may think that short, cryptic names are saving you time and typing now, but we guarantee that you will lose that time 10- or 100-fold somewhere down the line when you have to fix or modify your script.

Break long lines at around 76 characters. Yes, we know that most screens (or rather, terminal programs) can handle a lot more than that, but 80-character paper and screens are still the default, and it never hurts to have some whitespace to the right of the code. Constantly having to scroll to the right or having lines wrap awkwardly on the screen or printout is annoying and distracting. Don't cause it.

Unfortunately, there are sometimes exceptions to the long line rule. When creating lines to pass elsewhere, perhaps via Secure Shell (SSH), and in certain other cases, breaking up the line can cause many more code headaches than it solves. But in most cases, it makes sense.

Try to put the most meaningful bits to the left when you break a line—we read shell code left-to-right, so the unusual fact of a continued line will stand out more. It's also easier to scan down the left edge of the code for continued lines, should you need to find them. Which is more clear?

```
# Good
[ -n "$results" ] \
  && echo "Got a good result in $results" \
  || echo 'Got an empty result, something is wrong'

# Also good
[ -n "$results" ] && echo "Got a good result in $results" \
  || echo 'Got an empty result, something is wrong'

# OK, but not ideal
[ -n "$results" ] && echo "Got a good result in $results" \
  || echo 'Got an empty result, something is wrong'

# Bad
[ -n "$results" ] && echo "Got a good result in $results" || \
echo 'Got an empty result, something is wrong'

# Bad (trailing \s are optional here, but recommended for clarity)
[ -n "$results" ] && \
```

```
echo "Got a good result in $results" || \  
echo 'Got an empty result, something is wrong'
```

See Also

- [Recipe 5.1, “Documenting Your Script”](#)
- [Recipe 5.2, “Embedding Documentation in Shell Scripts”](#)
- [Recipe 10.4, “Defining Functions”](#)

5.4 Separating Variable Names from Surrounding Text

Problem

You need to print a variable along with other text. You are using the dollar sign in referring to the variable, but how do you distinguish the end of the variable name from other text that follows? For example, say you wanted to use a shell variable as part of a filename, as in:

```
for FN in 1 2 3 4 5  
do  
    somescript /tmp/rep$FNport.txt  
done
```

How will the shell read that? It will think that the variable name starts with the \$ and ends with the punctuation. In other words, it will think that \$FNport is the variable name, not the intended \$FN.

Solution

Use the full syntax for a variable reference, which includes not just the dollar sign, but also braces around the variable name:

```
somescript /tmp/rep${FN}port.txt
```

Discussion

Because shell variables can contain only alphanumeric characters and the underscore, there are many instances where you won't need to use the braces. Any whitespace or punctuation (except the underscore) provides enough of a clue to where the variable name ends. But when in doubt, use the braces. In fact, some people would argue that always using the braces is a good habit so you never have to worry about when they are needed or not, and provides a consistent look throughout your scripts. Others find that to be too much typing of characters that are optional but awkward to reach,

and think they can make the code look very busy or noisy. Ultimately, it's a matter of personal preference.

See Also

- [Recipe 1.8, “Using Shell Quoting”](#)

5.5 Exporting Variables

Problem

You defined a variable in one script, but when you called another script it didn't know about the variable.

Solution

Export variables that you want to pass on to other scripts:

```
export MYVAR
export NAME=value
```

Discussion

Sometimes it's a good thing that one script doesn't know about the other script's variables. If you called a shell script from within a `for` loop in the first script, you wouldn't want the second script messing up the iterations of your `for` loop (which it probably can't do anyway since it's almost certainly running in a subshell, but work with us here).

But sometimes you do want the information passed along. In those cases, you can export the variable so that its value is passed along to any other program that the script invokes.

If you want to see a list of all the exported variables, just type the command `env` (or use the builtin `export -p`) for a list of each variable and its value. All of these are available for your script when it runs. Many will have already been set up by the `bash` startup scripts (see [Chapter 16](#) for more on configuring and customizing `bash`).

You can make the `export` part of any variable assignment, though that won't work in old versions of the shell. You can also have the `export` statement just name the variable that will be exported. Though the `export` statement can be put anywhere prior to where you need the value to be exported, script writers often group these statements together, like variable declarations, at the top of a script.

Once exported, you can assign repeatedly to the variable without exporting it each time. So, sometimes you'll see statements like:

```
export FNAME
export SIZE
export MAX
...
MAX=2048
SIZE=64
FNAME=/tmp/scratch
```

and at other times you'll see:

```
export FNAME=/tmp/scratch
export SIZE=64
export MAX=2048
...
FNAME=/tmp/scratch2
...
FNAME=/tmp/stillexported
```

One word of caution: the exported variables are, in effect, *call by value*. Changing the value of the exported variable in the called script does not change that variable's value back in the calling script.

This begs the question, "How would you pass back a changed value from the called script?" Answer: you can't.

You can only design your scripts so that they don't need to do this. What mechanisms have people used to cope with this limitation?

One approach might be to have the called script echo its changed value as output from the script, letting you read the output with the resulting changed value. For example, suppose one script exports a variable `$VAL` and then calls another script that modifies `$VAL`. To get the new value of `$VAL` in the original script, you have to write the changed value to standard output, capture it, and assign it to the variable, as in:

```
VAL=$(anotherscript)
```

(See [Recipe 10.5](#) for an explanation of the `$()` syntax.) You could even change multiple values and echo them each in turn to standard output. The calling program could then use a shell *read* to capture each line of output one at a time into the appropriate variables. This requires that the called script write no other output to standard output (at least not before or among the variables), however, and sets up a very strong inter-dependency between the scripts (not good from a maintenance standpoint).

See Also

- `help export`
- [Chapter 16](#) for more information on configuring and customizing *bash*
- [Recipe 5.6, “Seeing All Variable Values”](#)
- [Recipe 10.5, “Using Functions: Parameters and Return Values”](#)
- [Recipe 19.5, “Expecting to Change Exported Variables”](#)

5.6 Seeing All Variable Values

Problem

How can you see which variables have been exported and what values they have? Do you have to *echo* each one by hand? How can you tell if they are exported?

Solution

Use the *set* command to see the values of all variables and function definitions in the current shell.

Use the *env* (or `export -p`) command to see only those variables that have been exported and would be available to a subshell.

In *bash* version 4 or newer, you can also use the `declare -p` command.

Discussion

The *set* command, with no other arguments, produces (on standard output) a list of all the shell variables currently defined along with their values, in a *name=value* format. The *env* command is similar. If you run either, you will find a rather long list of variables, many of which you might not recognize. Those variables have been created for you, as part of the shell’s startup process.

The list produced by *env* is a subset of the list produced by *set*, since not all variables are exported.

If there are particular variables or values that are of interest, and you don’t want the entire list, just pipe it into a *grep* command. For example:

```
set | grep MY
```

will show only those variables whose name or value has the two-character sequence `MY` somewhere in it.

The output from the newer `declare -p` command shows the variable names and values as if they were being declared and initialized. Here is a snippet of output:

```
$ declare -p
...
declare -i MYCOUNT="5"
declare -x MYENV="10.5.1.2"
declare -r MYFIXED="unchangeable"
declare -a MYRA=([0]="5" [1]="10" [2]="15")
...
$
```

The output is in the form of `declare` statements that could be used as source code in a shell script to recreate these variables and their values. The various arguments (`-i`, `-x`, `-r`, `-a`) indicate that the variable is an integer, has been exported, is read-only, or is an array, respectively.

See Also

- `help set`
- `help export`
- `help declare`
- `man env`
- [Chapter 16](#) for more on configuring and customizing `bash`
- [Appendix A](#) for reference lists for all of the built-in shell variables

5.7 Using Parameters in a Shell Script

Problem

You want users to be able to invoke your script with a parameter. You could require that users set a shell variable, but that seems clunky. You also need to pass data to another script. You could agree on environment variables, but that ties the two scripts together too closely.

Solution

Use command-line parameters. Any words on the command line that follow the name of a shell script are available to the script as numbered variables. Suppose we have the following script, *simplest.sh*:

```
# simple shell script
echo $1
```

The script will echo the first parameter supplied on the command line when it is invoked. Here it is in action:

```
$ cat simplest.sh
# simple shell script
echo ${1}
$ ./simplest.sh you see what I mean
you
$ ./simplest.sh one more time
one
$
```

Discussion

The other parameters are available as `${2}`, `${3}`, `${4}`, `${5}`, and so on. You don't need the braces for the single-digit numbers, except to separate the variable name from the surrounding text. Typical scripts have only a handful of parameters, but when you get to `${10}` you need to use the braces because the shell will interpret `$10` as `${1}` followed immediately by the literal string `0`, as we see here:

```
$ cat tricky.sh
echo $1 $10 ${10}
$ ./tricky.sh I II III IV V VI VII VIII IX X XI
I I0 X
$
```

The tenth argument has the value X, but if you write `$10` in your script, the shell will give you `$1`, the first parameter, followed immediately by a zero, the literal character that you put next to the `$1` in your echo statement.

See Also

- [Recipe 5.4, “Separating Variable Names from Surrounding Text”](#)

5.8 Looping Over Arguments Passed to a Script

Problem

You want to take some set of actions for a given list of arguments. You could write your shell script to perform those actions for one argument and use `$1` to reference the parameter. But what if you'd like to do this for a whole bunch of files? You would like to be able to invoke your script like this:

```
./actall *.txt
```

knowing that the shell will pattern match and build a list of filenames that match the `*.txt` pattern (any filename ending with `.txt`).

Solution

Use the shell special variable `$*` to refer to all of your arguments, and use that in a for loop as in [Example 5-2](#).

Example 5-2. ch05/chmod_all.1

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: chmod_all.1
#
# change permissions on a bunch of files
#
for FN in $*
do
    echo changing $FN
    chmod 0750 $FN
done
```

Discussion

The variable `$FN` is our choice; we could have used any shell variable name we wanted there. The `$*` refers to all the arguments supplied on the command line. For example, if the user types:

```
./actall abc.txt another.txt allmynotes.txt
```

the script will be invoked with `$1` equal to `abc.txt`, `$2` equal to `another.txt`, and `$3` equal to `allmynotes.txt`, but `$*` will be equal to the entire list. In other words, after the shell has substituted the list for `$*` in the for statement, it will be as if the script had read:

```
for FN in abc.txt another.txt allmynotes.txt
do
    echo changing $FN
```

```
chmod 0750 $FN
done
```

The `for` loop will take the first value from the list, assign it to the variable `$FN`, and proceed through the list of statements between the `do` and the `done`. It will then repeat that loop for each of the other values.

But you're not finished yet! This script works fine when filenames have no spaces in them, but sometimes you encounter filenames with spaces. Read the next two recipes to see how this script can be improved.

See Also

- `help` for
- [Recipe 5.9, "Handling Parameters with Spaces"](#)
- [Recipe 5.10, "Handling Lists of Parameters with Spaces"](#)
- [Recipe 6.12, "Looping with a Count"](#)

5.9 Handling Parameters with Spaces

Problem

You wrote a script that took a filename as a parameter and it seemed to work, but then one time your script failed. The filename, it turns out, had an embedded space.

Solution

You'll need to be careful to quote any shell parameters that might contain filenames. When referring to a variable, put the variable reference inside double quotes.

Discussion

Thanks a lot, Apple! Trying to be user-friendly, the designers popularized the concept of space characters as valid characters in filenames, so users could name their files with names like *My Report* and *Our Dept Data* instead of the ugly and unreadable *MyReport* and *Our_Dept_Data*. (How could anyone possibly understand what those old-fashioned names meant?) Well, that makes life tough for the shell, where the space is the fundamental separator between words, so filenames were always kept to a single word. Not so anymore.

So how do we handle this?

Where a shell script once had simply `ls -l $1`, it is better to write `ls -l "$1"`, with quotes around the parameter. Otherwise, if the parameter has an embedded space, it

will be parsed into separate words, and only part of the name will be in `$1`. Let's show you how this *doesn't* work:

```
$ cat simple.sh
# simple shell script
ls -l ${1}
$
$ ./simple.sh Oh the Waste
ls: Oh: No such file or directory
$
```

If we don't put quotes around the filename when we invoke the script, *bash* sees three arguments and substitutes the first argument (Oh) for `$1`. The *ls* command runs with Oh as its only argument and can't find that file.

So now let's put quotes around the filename when we invoke the script:

```
$ ./simple.sh "Oh the Waste"
ls: Oh: No such file or directory
ls: the: No such file or directory
ls: Waste: No such file or directory
$
```

Still not good. *bash* has taken the three-word filename and substituted it for `$1` on the *ls* command line in our script. So far so good. Since we don't have quotes around the variable reference in our script, however, *ls* sees each word as a separate argument, (i.e., as separate filenames). Again, it can't find any of them.

Let's try a script that quotes the variable reference:

```
$ cat quoted.sh
# note the quotes
ls -l "${1}"
$
$ ./quoted.sh "Oh the Waste"
-rw-r--r-- 1 smith users 28470 2007-01-11 19:22 Oh the Waste
$
```

When we quoted the reference `"${1}"` it was treated as a single word (a single filename), and the *ls* then had only one argument—the filename—and it could complete its task.

See Also

- [Chapter 19](#) for common goofs
- [Recipe 1.8, “Using Shell Quoting”](#) for tips on shell quoting
- [Appendix C](#) for more information on command-line processing

5.10 Handling Lists of Parameters with Spaces

Problem

OK, you have quotes around your variable as the previous recipe recommended. But you're still getting errors. It's just like the script from [Recipe 5.8](#), but it fails when a file has a space in its name:

```
for FN in $*
do
    chmod 0750 "$FN"
done
```

Solution

It has to do with the `$*` in the script, used in the `for` loop. For this case we need to use a different but related shell variable, `$@`. When it is quoted, the resulting list has quotes around each argument separately. The shell script should be written as shown in [Example 5-3](#).

Example 5-3. ch05/chmod_all.2

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: chmod_all.2
#
# change permissions on a bunch of files
# with better quoting in case of filenames with spaces
#
for FN in "$@"
do
    chmod 0750 "$FN"
done
```

Discussion

The parameter `$*` expands to the list of arguments supplied to the shell script. If you invoke your script like this:

```
myscript these are args
```

then `$*` refers to the three arguments `these are args`. And when it's used in a `for` loop, such as:

```
for FN in $*
```

the first time through the loop `$FN` is assigned the first word (`these`), the second time the second word (`are`), etc.

If the arguments are filenames and they are put on the command line by pattern matching, as when you invoke the script this way:

```
myscript *.mp3
```

then the shell will match all the files in the current directory whose names end with the four characters `.mp3`, and they will be passed to the script. So consider an example where there are three MP3 files whose names are:

```
vocals.mp3
cool music.mp3
tophit.mp3
```

The second song title has a space in the filename between `cool` and `music`. When you invoke the script with:

```
myscript *.mp3
```

you'll get, in effect:

```
myscript vocals.mp3 cool music.mp3 tophit.mp3
```

If your script contains the line:

```
for FN in $*
```

that will expand to:

```
for FN in vocals.mp3 cool music.mp3 tophit.mp3
```

which has four words in its list, not three. The second song title has a space as the fifth character (`cool music.mp3`), and the space causes the shell to see that as two separate words (`cool` and `music.mp3`), so `$FN` will be `cool` on the second iteration through the `for` loop. On the third iteration `$FN` will have the value `music.mp3`, but that is not the name of your file either, so you'll get file-not-found error messages.

It might seem logical to try quoting the `$*`, but this:

```
for FN in "$*"
```

will expand to:

```
for FN in "vocals.mp3 cool music.mp3 tophit.mp3"
```

and you will end up with a single value for `$FN` equal to the entire list. You'll get an error message like this:

```
chmod: cannot access 'vocals.mp3 cool music.mp3 tophit.mp3': No such file or
directory
```

Instead, you need to use the shell variable `@` and quote it. Left unquoted, `$*` and `&` give you the same thing. But when quoted, *bash* treats them differently. A reference to `$*` inside of quotes gives the entire list inside one set of quotes, as we just saw. But a

reference to `$@` inside of quotes returns not one string but a list of quoted strings, one for each argument.

In our example using the MP3 filenames, this:

```
for FN in "$@"
```

will expand to:

```
for FN in "vocals.mp3" "cool music.mp3" "tophit.mp3"
```

You can see that the second filename is now quoted, so that its space will be kept as part of its name and not considered a separator between two words.

The second time through this loop, `$FN` will be assigned the value `cool music.mp3`, which has an embedded space. So, be careful how you refer to `$FN`—you’ll probably want to put it in quotes too, so that the space in the filename is kept as part of that string and not used as a separator. That is, you’ll want to use `"$FN"`, as in:

```
chmod 0750 "$FN"
```

Shouldn’t you always use `"$@"` in your `for` loop? Well, it’s a lot harder to type, so for quick-and-dirty scripts, when you know your filenames don’t have spaces, it’s probably OK to keep using the old-fashioned `$*` syntax. For more robust scripting though, we recommend `"$@"` as the safer way to go. We’ll probably use them interchangeably throughout this book, because even though we know better, old habits die hard—and some of us never use spaces in our filenames! (Famous last words.)

See Also

- [Recipe 5.8, “Looping Over Arguments Passed to a Script”](#)
- [Recipe 5.9, “Handling Parameters with Spaces”](#)
- [Recipe 5.12, “Consuming Arguments”](#)
- [Recipe 6.12, “Looping with a Count”](#)

5.11 Counting Arguments

Problem

You need to know how many parameters the script was invoked with.

Solution

Use the shell builtin variable `${}`. [Example 5-4](#) shows some scripting to enforce an exact count of three arguments.

Example 5-4. ch05/check_arg_count

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: check_arg_count
#
# Check for the correct # of arguments:
# Use this syntax or use: if [ $# -lt 3 ]
if (( $# < 3 ))
then
    printf "%b" "Error. Not enough arguments.\n" >&2
    printf "%b" "usage: myscript file1 op file2\n" >&2
    exit 1
elif (( $# > 3 ))
then
    printf "%b" "Error. Too many arguments.\n" >&2
    printf "%b" "usage: myscript file1 op file2\n" >&2
    exit 2
else
    printf "%b" "Argument count correct. Proceeding...\n"
fi
```

And here is what it looks like when we run it, once with too many arguments and once with the correct number of arguments:

```
$ ./myscript myfile is copied into yourfile
Error. Too many arguments.
usage: myscript file1 op file2

$ ./myscript myfile copy yourfile
Argument count correct. Proceeding...
```

Discussion

After the opening comments (always a helpful thing to have in a script), we have the `if` test to see whether the number of arguments supplied (found in `$#`) is greater than three. If so, we print an error message, remind the user of the correct usage, and exit.

The output from the error messages is redirected to standard error. This is in keeping with the intent of standard error as the channel for all error messages.

The script also has a different return value depending on the error that was detected. While not that significant here, it is useful for any script that might be invoked by

other scripts, so that there is a programmatic way not only to detect failure (a non-zero exit value), but to distinguish between error types.

One word of caution: don't confuse `${#}` with `${#VAR}` or even `${VAR#alt}` just because they all use the hash character (`#`) inside of braces. The first gives the number of arguments, whereas the second gives the length of the value in the variable `VAR` and the third does a certain kind of substitution.

See Also

- [Recipe 4.4, “Telling Whether a Command Succeeded or Not”](#)
- [Recipe 5.1, “Documenting Your Script”](#)
- [Recipe 5.12, “Consuming Arguments”](#)
- [Recipe 5.18, “Changing Pieces of a String”](#)
- [Recipe 6.12, “Looping with a Count”](#)

5.12 Consuming Arguments

Problem

For any serious shell script, you are likely to have two kinds of arguments—options that modify the behavior of the script and the real arguments you want to work with. You need a way to get rid of the option arguments after you've processed them.

For example, you have this script:

```
for FN in "$@"
do
    echo changing $FN
    chmod 0750 "$FN"
done
```

It's simple enough—it echoes the filename that it is working on, then it changes that file's permissions. But you want it to work quietly sometimes, not echoing the filename. How can you add an option to turn off this verbose behavior while preserving the for loop?

Solution

Use `shift` to remove an argument after you've handled it, as illustrated in [Example 5-5](#).

Example 5-5. ch05/use_up_option

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: use_up_option
#
# use and consume an option
#
# parse the optional argument
VERBOSE=0
if [[ $1 = -v ]]
then
    VERBOSE=1
    shift
fi
#
# the real work is here
#
for FN in "$@"
do
    if (( VERBOSE == 1 ))
    then
        echo changing $FN
    fi
    chmod 0750 "$FN"
done
```

Discussion

We add a flag variable, `$VERBOSE`, to tell us whether or not to echo the filename as we work. But once the shell script has seen the `-v` and set the flag, we don't want the `-v` in the argument list any more. The `shift` statement tells `bash` to shift its arguments down one position, getting rid of the first argument (`$1`) as `$2` becomes `$1`, `$3` becomes `$2`, and so on.

That way, when the `for` loop runs, the list of parameters (in `$@`) no longer contains the `-v` but starts with the next parameter.

This approach of parsing arguments is all right for handling a single option, but if you want more than one option, you need a bit more logic. By convention, options to a shell script should not be dependent on position; e.g., `myscript -a -p` should be the same as `myscript -p -a`. Moreover, a robust script should be able to handle repeated options and either ignore them or report an error. For more robust parsing, see the recipe on `bash`'s `getopts` builtin ([Recipe 13.1](#)).

See Also

- `help shift`
- Recipe 5.8, “Looping Over Arguments Passed to a Script”
- Recipe 5.11, “Counting Arguments”
- Recipe 5.12, “Consuming Arguments”
- Recipe 6.15, “Parsing Command-Line Arguments”
- Recipe 13.1, “Parsing Arguments for Your Shell Script”
- Recipe 13.2, “Parsing Arguments with Your Own Error Messages”

5.13 Getting Default Values

Problem

You have a shell script that takes arguments supplied on the command line. You'd like to provide default values so that the most common values can be used without the user needing to type them every time.

Solution

Use the `${:-}` syntax when referring to the parameter, and use it to supply a default value:

```
FILEDIR=${1:-/tmp}
```

Discussion

There are a series of special operators available when referencing a shell variable. The `:-` operator says that if the specified parameter (here, `$1`) is not set or is null, whatever follows (`/tmp` in our example) should be used as the value. Otherwise, it will use the value that is already set. It can be used on any shell variable, not just the positional parameters (`$1`, `$2`, `$3`, etc.), but they are probably the most common use.

Of course, you could do this the long way by constructing an `if` statement and checking to see if the variable is null or unset (we leave that as an exercise to the reader), but this sort of thing is so common in shell scripts that this syntax has been welcomed as a convenient shorthand.

See Also

- The *bash* manpage on parameter substitution
- *Learning the bash Shell*, 3rd Edition, by Cameron Newham (O’Reilly), pages 91–92
- *Classic Shell Scripting* by Nelson H. F. Beebe and Arnold Robbins (O’Reilly), pages 113–114
- [Recipe 5.14, “Setting Default Values”](#)
- [Table 5-1](#)

5.14 Setting Default Values

Problem

Your script relies on certain environment variables, either widely used ones (e.g., \$USER) or ones specific to your own business. If you want to build a robust shell script, you should make sure that these variables each have a reasonable value. So how do you guarantee a reasonable default value?

Solution

Use the assignment operator in the shell variable reference the first time you refer to it to assign a value to the variable if it doesn’t already have one, as in:

```
cd ${HOME:=/tmp}
```

Discussion

The reference to \$HOME in the example will return the current value of \$HOME unless it is empty or not set at all. In those cases (empty or not set), it will return the value /tmp, which will also be assigned to \$HOME so that further references to \$HOME will have this new value.

We can see this in action here:

```
$ echo ${HOME:=/tmp}
/home/uid002
$ unset HOME # generally not wise to do
$ echo ${HOME:=/tmp}
/tmp
$ echo $HOME
/tmp
$ cd ; pwd
```

```
/tmp  
$
```

Once we unset the variable, it no longer had any value. When we then used the `:=` operator as part of our reference to it, the new value (`/tmp`) was substituted. The subsequent references to `$HOME` returned its new value.

One important exception to keep in mind about the assignment operator: this mechanism will not work with positional parameter arguments (e.g., `$1` or `$*`). For those cases, use `:-` in expressions like `${1:-default}`, which will return the value without trying to do the assignment.

As an aside, it might help you to remember some of these crazy symbols if you think of the visual difference between `${VAR:=value}` and `${VAR:-value}`. The `:=` will do an assignment as well as returning the value to the right of the operator. The `:-` will do half of that—it returns the value but doesn't do the assignment—so its symbol is only half of an equals sign (i.e., one horizontal bar, not two). If this doesn't help, forget that we mentioned it.

See Also

- [Recipe 5.13, “Getting Default Values”](#)
- [Table 5-1](#)

5.15 Using null as a Valid Default Value

Problem

You need to set a default value, but you want to allow an empty string as a valid value. You only want to substitute the default in the case where the value is unset.

The `${:=}` operator has two cases where the new value will be used: first, when the value of the shell variable has previously not been set (or has been explicitly unset); and second, where the value has been set but is empty, as in `HOME=""` or `HOME=$OTHER` (where `$OTHER` has no value).

Solution

The shell can distinguish between these two cases, and omitting the colon (`:`) indicates that you want to make the substitution only if the value is unset. If you write only `${HOME=/tmp}` without the colon, the assignment will take place only in the case where the variable is not set (never set or explicitly unset).

Discussion

Let's play with the `$HOME` variable again, but this time without the colon in the operator:

```
$ echo ${HOME=/tmp} # no substitution needed
/home/uid002
$ HOME=""          # generally not wise
$ echo ${HOME=/tmp} # will NOT substitute

$ unset HOME      # generally not wise
$ echo ${HOME=/tmp} # will substitute
/tmp
$ echo $HOME
/tmp
$
```

In the case where we simply made the `$HOME` variable an empty string, the `=` operator didn't do the substitution since `$HOME` did have a value, albeit null. But when we unset the variable, the substitution occurred. If you want to allow for empty strings, use just the `=` with no colon. Most times, though, the `:=` is used because you can do little with an empty value, deliberate or not.

See Also

- [Recipe 5.13, “Getting Default Values”](#)
- [Recipe 5.14, “Setting Default Values”](#)
- [Table 5-1](#)

5.16 Using More than Just a Constant String for Default

Problem

You need something more than just a constant string as the default value for a variable.

Solution

You can use quite a bit more on the righthand side of these shell variable references. For example:

```
cd ${BASE:="$(pwd)"}
```

Discussion

As the example shows, the value that will be substituted doesn't have to be just a string constant. Rather, it can be the result of a more complex shell expression, including running commands in a subshell (as in the example). In our example, if `$BASE` is not set, the shell will run the `pwd` builtin command (to get the current directory) and use the string that it returns as the value.

So what can you do on the righthand side of this (and the other similar) operators? The *bash* manpage says that what we put to the right of the operator “is subject to tilde expansion, parameter expansion, command substitution, and arithmetic expansion.”

Here is what that means:

- *Parameter expansion* means that we could use other shell variables in this expression, as in `${BASE:=${HOME}}`.
- *Tilde expansion* means that we can use an expression like `~bob`, and it will expand that to refer to the home directory of the user *bob*. Use `${BASE:=~uid17}` to set the default value to the home directory for user *uid17*, but don't put quotes around this string, as that will defeat the tilde expansion.
- *Command substitution* is what we used in the example; it will run the commands and take their output as the value for the variable. Commands are enclosed in the single parentheses syntax, `$(cmds)`.
- *Arithmetic expansion* means that we can do integer arithmetic, using the `$(())` syntax in this expression. Here's an example:

```
echo ${BASE:=/home/uid$( (ID+1))}
```

See Also

- [Table 5-1](#)
- [Recipe 2.15, “Connecting Two Programs by Using Output as Input”](#)
- [Recipe 5.13, “Getting Default Values”](#)
- [Recipe 6.1, “Doing Arithmetic in Your Shell Script”](#)

5.17 Giving an Error Message for Unset Parameters

Problem

Those shorthands for giving a default value are cool, but sometimes you need to force the users to give you a value; otherwise, you don't want to proceed. Perhaps if they left off a parameter, they don't really understand how to invoke your script. You want to leave nothing to guesswork. Is there anything shorter than lots of `if` statements to check each of your several parameters?

Solution

Use the `${:?}` syntax when referring to the parameters, as in [Example 5-6](#). `bash` will print an error message and then exit if a parameter is unset or null.

Example 5-6. ch05/check_unset_parms

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: check_unset_parms
#
USAGE="usage: myscript scratchdir sourcefile conversion"
FILEDIR=${1:? "Error. You must supply a scratch directory."}
FILESRC=${2:? "Error. You must supply a source file."}
CVTTYPE=${3:? "Error. ${USAGE}"}

```

Here's what happens when we run that script with insufficient arguments:

```
$ ./myscript /tmp /dev/null
./myscript: line 7: 3: Error. usage: myscript scratchdir sourcefile conversion
$
```

Discussion

The check is made to see if each parameter is set (or null); if not, `bash` will print an error message and exit.

The third variable uses another shell variable in its message. You can even run another command inside it:

```
CVTTYPE=${3:? "Error. $USAGE. $(rm $SCRATCHFILE)"}

```

If parameter three is not set, then the error message will contain the phrase "Error." along with the value of the variable named `$USAGE` and then any output from the command that removes the file named by the variable `$SCRATCHFILE`. OK, so we're getting carried away. You can make your shell scripts awfully compact, and we do

mean *awfully*. It is better to waste some whitespace and a few bytes to make the logic ever so much more readable, as in:

```
if [ -z "$3" ]
then
    echo "Error. $USAGE"
    rm $SCRATCHFILE
fi
```

One other consideration: the error message produced by the `${:?}` feature comes out with the shell script filename and line number. For example, the script fragment in [Example 5-6](#) produces:

```
$ ./check_unset_parms
./check_unset_parms: line 5: 1: Error. You must supply a scratch directory.

$ ./check_unset_parms somedir
/tmp/check_unset_parms: line 6: 2: Error. You must supply a source file.

$ ./check_unset_parms somedir somefile
./check_unset_parms: line 7: 3: Error. usage: myscript scratchdir sourcefile \
conversion
```

Because you have no control over this part of the message, and since it looks like an error in the shell script itself, combined with the issue of readability, this technique is not so popular in commercial-grade shell scripts. (It is handy for debugging, though.)

If you'd rather have this behavior for all variables without having to change each one of them, use the `set -u` command to “treat unset variables as an error when substituting”:

```
$ echo "$foo"           ❶
$ set -u                ❷
$ echo "$foo"
bash: foo: unbound variable  ❸
$ echo $? # exit code
1
$ set +u                ❹
$ echo "$foo"           ❺
$ echo $? # exit code
0
$
```

- ❶ At first we have the normal behavior.
- ❷ Then we turn on *nounset* (`-u`).
- ❸ Now we see an error message and a failure exit code.

- ④ We turn *nounset* (-u) off again...
- ⑤ And return to the usual behavior.

See Also

- [Recipe 5.13, “Getting Default Values”](#)
- [Recipe 5.14, “Setting Default Values”](#)
- [Recipe 5.16, “Using More than Just a Constant String for Default”](#)

5.18 Changing Pieces of a String

Problem

You want to rename a number of files. The filenames are almost right, but they have the wrong suffix.

Solution

Use a *bash* parameter expansion feature that will remove text that matches a pattern, as illustrated in [Example 5-7](#).

Example 5-7. ch05/suffixer

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: suffixer
#
# rename files that end in .bad to be .bash

for FN in *.bad
do
    mv "${FN}" "${FN%bad}bash"
done
```

Discussion

The *for* loop will iterate over a list of filenames in the current directory that all end in *.bad*. The variable *\$FN* will take the value of each name, one at a time. Inside the loop, the *mv* command will rename the file (*move* it from the old name to the new name). We need to put quotes around each filename in case the filename contains embedded spaces.

The crux of this operation is the reference to `$FN` that includes an automatic deletion of the trailing bad characters. The `{ }` delimits the reference so that the bash adjacent to it is just appended right onto the end of the string.

Here it is broken down into a few more steps:

```
NOBAD="${FN%bad}"
NEWNAME="${NOBAD}bash"
mv "${FN}" "${NEWNAME}"
```

This way you can see the individual steps of stripping off the unwanted suffix, creating the new name, and then renaming the files. Putting it all on one line isn't so bad though, once you get used to the special operators.

Since we are not just removing a substring from the variable but are replacing the `bad` with `bash`, we might have used the substitution operator for variable references, the slash (`/`). Similar to editor commands (e.g., those found in *vi* and *sed*) that use the slash to delimit substitutions, we could have written:

```
# Not anchored, don't do this
mv "${FN}" "${FN/bad/bash}"
```

(Unlike with the editor commands, you don't use a final slash—the righthand brace serves that function.)

However, one reason that we didn't do it this way is because the substitution isn't anchored, and can be made anywhere in the variable. If, for example, we had a file named *subaddon.bad* the substitution would leave us with *subashdon.bad*, which is not what we want. If we used a double slash in place of the first slash, it would substitute every occurrence within the variable. That would result in *subashdon.bash*, which isn't what we want either. This is better:

```
# Add the "." to "anchor" the pattern; this is better, but not foolproof
mv "${FN}" "${FN/.bad/.bash}"
```

The `${FN%bad}bash` we used in our solution is already anchored—it will only remove the text from the end of the string, which in this case is exactly what we want.

There are several operators that do various sorts of manipulation on the string values of variables when referenced. [Table 5-1](#) summarizes them.

Table 5-1. String manipulation operators

Inside <code>{ ... }</code>	Action taken
<code>name:number:number</code>	Return a substring of <code>name</code> starting at <code>number</code> with length <code>number</code>
<code>#name</code>	Return length of string
<code>name#pattern</code>	Remove (shortest) front-anchored pattern
<code>name##pattern</code>	Remove (longest) front-anchored pattern
<code>name%pattern</code>	Remove (shortest) rear-anchored pattern
<code>name%%pattern</code>	Remove (longest) rear-anchored pattern
<code>name/pattern/string</code>	Replace first occurrence
<code>name//pattern/string</code>	Replace all occurrences

Try them all. They are very handy.

See Also

- `man rename`
- [Recipe 12.5, “Comparing Two Documents”](#)
- [Recipe 13.10, “Taking It One Character at a Time”](#) for more with substrings
- [Recipe 13.15, “Trimming Whitespace”](#)
- [Recipe 5.19, “Getting the Absolute Value of a Number”](#)

5.19 Getting the Absolute Value of a Number

Problem

You have a numeric value in a variable, but it may be negative, zero, or positive. You would like to get its magnitude—that is, its absolute value—but `bash` doesn’t seem to have an absolute value function.

Solution

Use string manipulation:

```
 ${MYVAR#- }
```

Discussion

This is simple string manipulation. The `#` searches from the front of the string, looking for, in this case, the minus sign (`-`). If found, it will remove it. If no minus is

found, it simply results in the original value. Either way, that leaves the value without a leading minus, which gives us its magnitude; i.e., its absolute value.

You could use `if/then/else` logic as a mathematically oriented approach:

```
# why bother?
if (( MYVAR < 0 ))
then
    let MYVAR=MYVAR*-1
fi
```

but as the comment says, why bother? The string manipulation technique is short and sweet. You may want to comment it for readability, though:

```
MYVAR=${MYVAR#-}      # ABS(MYVAR)
```

See Also

- [Recipe 5.18, “Changing Pieces of a String”](#)
- [Table 5-1](#)

5.20 Using `bash` for `basename`

Problem

The `basename` command does what you want, but can you get the same result without calling an external executable? Is `bash` string manipulation able to do that?

Solution

Yes, `bash` can strip the directory path from a shell variable string and leave just the last part of the path (the filename). Where you may want to write:

```
FILE=$(basename $FULLPATHTOFILE)
```

instead you need only write:

```
FILE=${FULLPATHTOFILE##*/}
```

Discussion

The big difference between the first and second examples is the braces. The first example, using parentheses, will launch a subshell to run the executable `basename` with the argument that is the value of `$FULLPATHTOFILE` (the old way of doing this was ``). The second example uses curly braces, which is just part of the syntax for evaluating a shell variable—no subshell, no executable file. It looks for, and removes from the front of the string (because of the `#`), the longest match (because of the

double `##`) of the pattern described by the asterisk and the slash (`*/`). The asterisk matches any number of characters and the slash is just a literal slash. In the string `/usr/local/bin/mycmd`, that pattern will match (and thus remove) the `/usr/local/bin/` part of the string, leaving `mycmd` as the value to be assigned into the variable `$FILE`.



The `basename` command will ignore a trailing slash in the path, so `$(basename /usr/local/bin/)` returns `bin` whereas our `bash` version would return an empty string (since the largest pattern to end in a slash is the whole string). To be compatible, we should remove any trailing slash first before the other substitutions.

The real `basename` command can also take a suffix to be removed as a second argument. In `bash` we can do that, too, but would need to do it in a separate step. So, a more complete replacement for:

```
FILE=$(basename $MYIMAGEFILE .jpg)
would be:
FILE=${MYIMAGEFILE%/} # remove a trailing slash
FILE=${FILE##*/}      # remove all chars up to last /
FILE=${FILE%.jpg}     # remove .jpg suffix if present
```

See Also

- `man basename`
- [Recipe 5.18, “Changing Pieces of a String”](#)
- [Recipe 5.21, “Using bash for dirname”](#)
- [Table 5-1](#)

5.21 Using bash for dirname

Problem

The `dirname` command does what you want, but like `basename`, it causes a separate executable to be launched and run in a subshell. Can you use string manipulations instead?

Solution

Yes. Use a string manipulation operator to remove the filename—the last part of a path in a string—leaving as much of the directory path to that filename as was in the string:

```
DIR=${MYPATHTOFILE%/*}
```

Discussion

If the variable holds `/usr/local/bin/mycmd`, we want the result of this manipulation to give us just `/usr/local/bin` and drop the last part (the filename). Since each piece of the path is separated by a slash, we just remove from the *righthand* side (because of the `%`) the *shortest* string (because there is only one `%`, not two) that matches the pattern “a slash followed by any number of characters” (`/*`).



This example is for illustrating the string manipulations on shell variables. It does not provide a complete, compatible replacement for the `dirname` command, especially around the edge cases of any path that ends with a slash.

See Also

- `man dirname` for other options and subtle differences
- [Recipe 5.18, “Changing Pieces of a String”](#)
- [Recipe 5.20, “Using bash for basename”](#)
- [Table 5-1](#)

5.22 Using Alternate Values for Comma Separated Values

Problem

You want to make a list of values separated by commas, but you don’t want a leading or trailing comma.

Solution

If you write `LIST="${LIST},${NEWVAL}"` inside a loop to build up the list, then the first time (when `LIST` is null) you’ll end up with a leading comma. You could special-case the initialization of `LIST` so that it gets the first element before entering the loop, but if that’s not practical, or to avoid duplicate code (for getting a new value), you can instead use the `${:+}` syntax in *bash*:

```
LIST="${LIST}${LIST:+,}${NEWVAL}"
```

If `${LIST}` is null or unset, then both expressions of `$LIST` are replaced with nothing. That means that the first time through the loop `LIST` will be assigned `NEWVAL`’s value

and nothing more. When `LIST` is not null, the second expression (`${LIST:+,}`) is replaced with a comma, separating the previous value from the new value.

Here is an example code segment for reading and constructing a CSV list:

```
#
# read names one at a time
# and build a comma-separated list
#
while read NEWVAL
do
    LIST="${LIST}${LIST:+,}${NEWVAL}"
done
echo $LIST
```

See Also

- [Recipe 5.18, “Changing Pieces of a String”](#)
- [Table 5-1](#)

5.23 Using Array Variables

Problem

You’ve seen plenty of scripts so far with variables, but can *bash* deal with an array of variables?

Solution

Yes. *bash* has an array syntax for single-dimension arrays.

Discussion

Arrays are easy to initialize if you know the values as you write the script. The format is simple:

```
MYRA=(first second third home)
```

Each element of the array is a separate word in the list enclosed in parentheses. Then you can refer to each this way:

```
echo runners on ${MYRA[0]} and ${MYRA[2]}
```

This output is the result:

```
runners on first and third
```


If you write only `$MYRA`, you will get only the first element, just as if you had written `${MYRA[0]}`.

See Also

- *Learning the bash Shell*, 3rd Edition, by Cameron Newham (O'Reilly), pages 157–161, for more information about arrays
- [Recipe 7.15, “Counting String Values with bash”](#) for another type of array in *bash*, associative arrays
- [Recipe 13.4, “Parsing Output into an Array”](#)

5.24 Converting Between Upper- and Lowercase

Problem

Your digital camera left you with a pile of files all named in uppercase, like *IMG0001.JPG*. You want the names in lowercase, but don't want to have to retype each name.

Solution

As of *bash* 4.0 there are a few operators to do case conversion when referencing a variable name. If `$FN` is the variable in which you put a filename (i.e., string) that you want converted to lowercase, then `${FN,,}` will return that string in all lowercase. Similarly, `${FN^^}` will return the string in all uppercase. There is even the `${FN~}` operator to swap case, changing all lower- to upper- and all upper- to lowercase characters (but why would you want to do that?).

Here is a `for` loop that will rename all the *.JPG* files to lowercase names:

```
for FN in *.JPG
do
    mv "$FN" "${FN,,}"
done
```

or as a one-liner:

```
for FN in *.JPG; do mv "$FN" "${FN,,}"; done
```

There is another approach, also available in version 4 of *bash* or newer: you can declare your variable to be a type that is always lowercase. Any text assigned to it will be converted to lowercase. Using that approach our `for` loop to rename files just does a simple assignment rather than requiring a string substitution operator:

```

declare -l lcfm    # contents will be converted to lowercase
for FN in *.JPG
do
    lcfm="$FN"
    mv "$FN" "$lcfm"
done

```

There are similar declarations for variables that change the case of all letters or only the first letter. Here's a simple demonstration program to show how they work:

```

declare -u UP      # all UPPERCASE
declare -l dn      # all lowercase
declare -c Ca      # only the first Uppercase

while read TXT
do
    UP="{TXT}"
    dn="{TXT}"
    Ca="{TXT}"

    echo $TXT $UP $dn $Ca
done

```

In the case of the variable declared with `-c`, only the first letter is capitalized even if there are multiple words in the string. Try running it and see how it works.

See Also

- `man rename`
- [Recipe 5.25, “Converting to Camel Case”](#)

5.25 Converting to Camel Case

Problem

You want each word to begin with a capital letter, not just the first letter of the string.

Solution

Use a combination of an array and case conversion substitution:

```

while read TXT
do
    RA=( $TXT )      # must be ($ not $(
    echo ${RA[@]^}
done

```

Discussion

The parentheses around `$TXT` cause it to be treated as array initialization. Whitespace separating the words in the text delineates the array elements. The `[@]` notation references all the elements of the array at once (individually), and the `^` operator converts the first character (of each element) to uppercase.

See Also

- [Recipe 5.24, “Converting Between Upper- and Lowercase”](#)

Shell Logic and Arithmetic

One of the big improvements in modern versions of *bash* compared with the original Bourne shell is in the area of arithmetic. Early versions of the shell had no built-in arithmetic; it had to be done by invoking a separate executable, even just to add 1 to a variable. In a way it's a tribute to how useful and powerful the shell was (and is) that it could be used for so many tasks despite that awful mechanism for arithmetic. After a while, though, it became clear that simple, straightforward syntax was needed for the simple counting useful for automating repetitive tasks. The lack of such capability in the original Bourne shell contributed to the success of the C shell (*cs*) when it introduced C-like syntax for shell programming, including numeric variables. Well, that was then and this is now. If you haven't looked at shell arithmetic in *bash* for a while, you're in for a big surprise.

Beyond arithmetic, there are the control structures familiar to any programmer. There is an `if/then/else` construct for decision making, as well as `while` loops and `for` loops, though you will see some *bash* peculiarities to all of these. There is a case statement made quite powerful by its string pattern matching, and an odd construct called `select`. After discussing these features, we will end the chapter by using them to build two simple command-line calculators.

6.1 Doing Arithmetic in Your Shell Script

Problem

You need to do some simple arithmetic in your shell script.

Solution

Use `$(())` or `let` for integer arithmetic expressions. For example:

```
COUNT=$((COUNT + 5 + MAX * 2))  
let COUNT+='5+MAX*2'
```

Discussion

As long as you keep to integer arithmetic, you can use all the standard (i.e., C-like) operators inside of `$(())` for arithmetic expressions. There is one additional operator, too: you can use `**` for raising to a power, as in `MAX=$((2**8))`, which yields 256.

Spaces are not needed, nor are they prohibited around operators and arguments (though `**` must be together) within a `$(())` expression. But you must not have spaces around the equals sign, as with any *bash* variable assignment. Also, be sure to quote `let` expressions since the `let` statement is a *bash* builtin and its arguments will undergo word expansion.



Do not put spaces around the equals sign of an assignment! If you write:

```
COUNT = $((COUNT+5)) # not what you think!
```

then *bash* will try to run a program named `COUNT` with its first argument an equals sign and its second argument the number you get by adding 5 to the value of `$COUNT`. Remember: no spaces around the assignment equals sign!

Another oddity to these expressions is that the `$` that we normally put in front of a shell variable to say we want its value (as in `$COUNT` or `$MAX`) is not needed inside the double parentheses. For example, we can write:

```
$( (COUNT + 5 + MAX * 2) )
```

without including the dollar sign on the shell variables—in effect, the outer `$` applies to the entire expression. We do need the dollar sign, though, if we are using a positional parameter (e.g., `$2`), to distinguish it from a numeric constant (e.g., `2`). Here's an example:

```
COUNT=$((COUNT + $2 + OFFSET))
```

There is a similar mechanism for integer arithmetic with shell variables using the *bash* builtin `let` statement. It uses the same arithmetic operators as the `$(())` construct:

```
let COUNT=COUNT+5
```

When using `let` there are some fancy assignment operators we can use, such as these (which will accomplish the same thing as the previous line):

```
let COUNT+=5
```

(These should look familiar to programmers of C/C++ and Java.) This example adds five to the previous value of `COUNT` without our having to repeat the variable name.

Table 6-1 shows a list of those special assignment operators.

Table 6-1. Explanation of assignment operators in bash

Operator	Operation with assignment	Use	Meaning
=	Simple assignment	a=b	a=b
=	Multiplication	a=b	a=(a*b)
/=	Division	a/=b	a=(a/b)
%=	Remainder	a%=b	a=(a%b)
+=	Addition	a+=b	a=(a+b)
-=	Subtraction	a-=b	a=(a-b)
<<=	Bit-shift left	a<<=b	a=(a<<b)
>>=	Bit-shift right	a>>=b	a=(a>>b)
&=	Bitwise “and”	a&=b	a=(a&b)
^=	Bitwise “exclusive or”	a^=b	a=(a^b)
\	=	Bitwise “or”	a =b

These assignment operators are also available with `$(())` provided they occur inside the double parentheses. The outermost assignment is still just plain old shell variable assignment.

The assignments can also be cascaded, through the use of the comma operator:

```
echo $( ( X+=5 , Y*=3 ) )
```

which will do both assignments and then echo the result of the second expression (since the comma operator returns the value of its second operand). If you don't want to echo the result, the more common usage would be with the `let` statement:

```
let X+=5 Y*=3
```

The comma operator is not needed here, as each word of a `let` statement is its own arithmetic expression.

One other important difference between the `let` statement and the `$(())` syntax is how they handle whitespace (i.e., the space character). The `let` statement either requires quotes or that there be no spaces around not only the assignment operator

(the equals sign), but any of the other operators as well; it must all be packed together into a single word. These both work:

```
let i=2+2
let "i = 2 + 2"
```

The `$(())` syntax, however, can be much more generous, allowing all sorts of white-space within the parentheses. For that reason, it is less prone to errors and makes the code much more readable, and is, therefore our preferred way of doing *bash* integer arithmetic. However, an exception can be made for the occasional `+=` assignment or `+` operator, or when we get nostalgic for the early days of BASIC programming (which had a LET statement).



Remember that this is integer arithmetic, not floating point. Don't expect much out of an expression like `2/3`, which in integer arithmetic evaluates to `0` (zero). The division is integer division, which will truncate any fractional result.

See Also

- `help let`
- The *bash* manpage

6.2 Branching on Conditions

Problem

You want to check if you have the right number of arguments and take actions accordingly. You need a branching construct.

Solution

The `if` statement in *bash* is similar in appearance to that in other programming languages:

```
if [ $# -lt 3 ]
then
    printf "%b" "Error. Not enough arguments.\n"
    printf "%b" "usage: myscript file1 op file2\n"
    exit 1
fi
```

or alternatively:


```

if (( $# < 3 ))
then
    printf "%b" "Error. Not enough arguments.\n"
    printf "%b" "usage: myscript file1 op file2\n"
    exit 1
fi

```

Here's a full-blown `if` with an `elif` (*bash*-talk for `else-if`) and an `else` clause:

```

if (( $# < 3 ))
then
    printf "%b" "Error. Not enough arguments.\n"
    printf "%b" "usage: myscript file1 op file2\n"
    exit 1
elif (( $# > 3 ))
then
    printf "%b" "Error. Too many arguments.\n"
    printf "%b" "usage: myscript file1 op file2\n"
    exit 2
else
    printf "%b" "Argument count correct. Proceeding...\n"
fi

```

You can even do things like this:

```

[ $result = 1 ] \
  && { echo "Result is 1; excellent." ; exit 0; } \
  || { echo "Uh-oh, ummm, RUN AWAY! " ; exit 120; }

```

(For a discussion of this last example, see [Recipe 2.14](#).)

Discussion

We have two things we need to discuss: the basic structure of the `if` statement and how it is that we have different syntax (parentheses or brackets, operators or options) for the `if` expression. The first may help explain the second. The general form for an `if` statement, from the manpage for *bash*, is:

```

if list; then list; [ elif list; then list; ] ... [ else list; ] fi

```

The `[` and `]` are used to delineate optional parts of the statement (e.g., some `if` statements have no `else` clause). So let's look for a moment at the `if` without any optional elements.

The simplest form for an `if` statement would be:

```

if list; then list; fi

```



In *bash*, the semicolon serves the same purpose as a newline—it ends a statement. We could have crammed the examples in the Solution section onto fewer lines by using semicolons, but it is more readable to use newlines.

The *then list* seems to make sense—it’s the statement or statements that will execute provided that the *if* condition is true (or so we would surmise from other programming languages). But what’s with the *if list*? Wouldn’t you expect it to be *if expression*?

You might, except that this is a shell—a command processor. Its primary operation is to execute commands. So, the *list* after the *if* is a place where you can put a list of commands. What, you ask, will be used to determine the branching—the alternate paths of the *then* or the *else*? It will be determined by the return value of the last command in the list. (The return value, you might remember, is also available as the value of the `$?` variable.)

Let’s take a somewhat strange example to make this point:

```
$ cat trythis.sh
if ls; pwd; cd $1;
then
    echo success
else
    echo failed
fi
pwd

$ bash ./trythis.sh /tmp
...
$ bash ./trythis.sh /nonexistent
...
$
```

In this strange script, the shell will execute three commands (an *ls*, a *pwd*, and a *cd*) before doing any branching. The argument to the *cd* in this example is the first argument supplied on the shell script invocation. If there is no argument supplied, it will just execute *cd*, which returns you to your home directory.

So what happens? Try it yourself and find out. The result showing “success” or “failed” will depend on whether or not the *cd* command succeeds. In our example, the *cd* is the last command in the *if* list of commands. If the *cd* fails, the *else* clause is taken, but if it succeeds, the *then* clause is taken.

Properly written commands and builtins return a value of `0` (zero) when they encounter no errors in their execution. If they detect a problem (e.g., bad parameters,

I/O errors, file not found), they will return some nonzero value (often a different value for each different kind of error they detect).

This is why it is important for both shell script writers and C (and other language) programmers to be sure to return sensible values upon exiting from their scripts and programs. Someone's `if` statement may be depending on it!

OK, so how do we get from this strange `if` construct to something that looks like a real `if` statement—the kind that you are used to seeing in programs? What's going on with the examples that began this recipe? After all, they don't look like lists of statements.

Let's try this on for size:

```
if test $# -lt 3
then
    echo try again.
fi
```

Do you see something that looks like, if not an entire list, then at least a single shell command—the builtin command `test`, which will take its arguments and compare their values? The `test` command will return a `0` if true or a `1` otherwise. To see this yourself, try the `test` command on a line by itself, and then `echo $?` to see its return value.

The first example we gave that began `if [$# -lt 3]` looks a lot like the `test` statement. That's because the `[` is actually just a different name for the same command. (When invoked with the name `[` it also requires a trailing `]` as the last parameter, for readability and aesthetic reasons.) So that explains the first syntax—the expression in the `if` statement is actually a list of only one command, a `test` command.



In the early days of Unix, `test` was its own separate executable and `[` was just a link to the same executable. They still exist as executables, but `bash` implements them as a builtin command.

Now what about the `if (($# < 3))` expression in our list of examples in the Solution section? The double parentheses are one of several types of *compound commands*. This kind is useful for `if` statements because it performs an arithmetic evaluation of the expression between the double parentheses. This is a more recent `bash` improvement, added for just such an occasion as its use in `if` statements.

The important distinctions to make with the two kinds of syntax that can be used with the `if` statement are the ways to express the tests, and the kinds of things for which they test. The double parentheses are strictly for arithmetic expressions. The square brackets can also test for file characteristics, but the syntax is much less

streamlined for arithmetic expressions. This is particularly true if you need to group larger expressions with parentheses (which need to be quoted or escaped when using square brackets).

See Also

- `help if`
- `help test`
- `man test`
- [Recipe 2.14, “Saving or Grouping Output from Several Commands”](#)
- [Recipe 4.4, “Telling Whether a Command Succeeded or Not”](#)
- [Recipe 6.3, “Testing for File Characteristics”](#)
- [Recipe 6.5, “Testing for String Characteristics”](#)
- [Recipe 15.11, “Getting Input from Another Machine”](#)

6.3 Testing for File Characteristics

Problem

You want to make your script robust by checking to see if your input file is there before reading from it; you would also like to see if your output file has write permissions before writing to it and you would like to see if there is a directory there before you attempt to `cd` into it. How do you do all that in *bash* scripts?

Solution

Use the various file characteristic tests in the `test` command as part of your `if` statements. Your specific problems might be solved with scripting that looks something like [Example 6-1](#).

Example 6-1. ch06/checkfile

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: checkfile
#
DIRPLACE=/tmp
INFILE=/home/yucca/amazing.data
OUTFILE=/home/yucca/more.results

if [ -d "$DIRPLACE" ]
then
    cd $DIRPLACE
```

```

if [ -e "$INFILE" ]
then
  if [ -w "$OUTFILE" ]
  then
    doscience < "$INFILE" >> "$OUTFILE"
  else
    echo "cannot write to $OUTFILE"
  fi
else
  echo "cannot read from $INFILE"
fi
else
  echo "cannot cd into $DIRPLACE"
fi

```

Discussion

We put all the references to the various filenames in quotes in case they have any embedded spaces in the pathnames. There are none in this example, but if you change the script you might use other pathnames.

We tested and executed the `cd` before we tested the other two conditions. In this example it wouldn't matter, but if `$INFILE` or `$OUTFILE` were relative pathnames (not beginning from the root of the filesystem, i.e., with a leading `/`), then the test might evaluate to true before the `cd` and not after, or vice versa. This way, we test right before we use the files.

We use the double-greater-than operator (`>>`) to concatenate output onto our results file, rather than replacing the old content with the new content.

The several tests could be combined into one large `if` statement using the `-a` (read “and”) operator, but then if a test failed you couldn't give a very helpful error message since you wouldn't know which test didn't pass.

There are several other characteristics for which you can test. Three of them are tested using binary operators, each taking two filenames:

FILE1 -nt *FILE2*

Is newer than (it checks the modification date). An existing file is considered “newer” than one that doesn't exist.

FILE1 -ot *FILE2*

Is older than; also, a file that doesn't exist is considered older than one that does.

FILE1 -ef *FILE2*

Have the same device and inode numbers (identical files, even if pointed to by different links)

Table 6-2 shows the other tests related to files (see “Test Operators” on page 600 in Appendix A for a more complete list). They all are unary operators, taking the form *option filename* as in `if [-e myfile]`.

Table 6-2. Unary operators that check file characteristics

Option	Description
-b	File is a block special device (for files like <code>/dev/hda1</code>)
-c	File is character special (for files like <code>/dev/tty</code>)
-d	File is a directory
-e	File exists
-f	File is a regular file
-g	File has its set-group-ID (<i>setgid</i>) bit set
-h	File is a symbolic link (same as -L)
-G	File is owned by the effective group ID
-k	File has its sticky bit set
-L	File is a symbolic link (same as -h)
-N	File has been modified since it was last read
-O	File is owned by the effective user ID
-p	File is a named pipe
-r	File is readable
-s	File has a size greater than zero
-S	File is a socket
-u	File has its set-user-ID (<i>setuid</i>) bit set
-w	File is writable
-x	File is executable

See Also

- Recipe 2.10, “Appending Rather than Clobbering Output”
- Recipe 4.6, “Using Fewer if Statements”
- “Test Operators” on page 600 in Appendix A

6.4 Testing for More than One Thing

Problem

What if you want to test for more than one characteristic? Do you have to nest your `if` statements?

Solution

Use the operators for logical AND (`-a`) and OR (`-o`) to combine more than one test in an expression. For example:

```
if [ -r $FILE -a -w $FILE ]
```

will test to see that the file is both readable *and* writable.

Discussion

All the file test conditions include an implicit test for existence, so you don't need to test if a file exists and is readable. It won't be readable if it doesn't exist.

These conjunctions (`-a` for AND and `-o` for OR) can be used for all the various test conditions. They aren't limited to just the file conditions.

You can make several AND/OR conjunctions in one statement. You might need to use parentheses to get the proper precedence, as in `a and (b or c)`, but if you use parentheses, be sure to escape their special meaning from the shell by putting a backslash before each or by quoting each parenthesis. Don't try to quote the entire expression in one set of quotes, however, as that will make your entire expression a single term that will be treated as a test for an empty string (see [Recipe 6.5](#)).

Here's an example of a more complex test with the parentheses properly escaped:

```
if [ -r "$FN" -a \( -f "$FN" -o -p "$FN" \) ]
```

Don't make the assumption that these expressions are evaluated in quite the same order as in Java or C. In C and Java, if the first part of the AND expression is false (or the first part true in an OR expression), the second part of the expression won't be evaluated (we say the expression *short-circuits*). However, because the shell makes multiple passes over the statement while preparing it for evaluation (e.g., doing parameter substitution, etc.), both parts of the joined condition may have been partially evaluated. While it doesn't matter in this simple example, in more complicated situations it might. For example:

```
if [ -z "$V1" -o -z "${V2:=YIKES}" ]
```

Even if `$V1` is empty, satisfying enough of the `if` statement that the second part of the condition (checking if `$V2` is empty) need not occur, the value of `$V2` may have

already been modified (as a side effect of the parameter substitution for \$V2). The parameter substitution step occurs before the `-z` tests are made. Confused? Don't be...just don't count on short circuits in your conditionals. If you need that kind of behavior, just break the `if` statement into two nested `if` statements or use `&&` and `||`.

See Also

- [Recipe 6.5, “Testing for String Characteristics”](#)
- [Appendix C](#) for more on command-line processing

6.5 Testing for String Characteristics

Problem

You want your script to check the values of some strings before using them. The strings could be user input, read from a file, or environment variables passed to your script. How do you do that with *bash* scripts?

Solution

There are some simple tests that you can do with the builtin *test* command, using the single-bracket `if` statements. You can check to see whether a variable has any text, and you can check to see whether two variables are equal as strings.

Discussion

Take a look at [Example 6-2](#).

Example 6-2. ch06/checkstr

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: checkstr
#
# if statement
# test a string to see if it has any length
#
# use the command-line argument
VAR="$1"
#
# if [ "$VAR" ] will usually work but is bad form, using -n is more clear
if [ -n "$VAR" ]
then
    echo has text
else
    echo zero length
```



```
fi
#
if [ -z "$VAR" ]
then
    echo zero length
else
    echo has text
fi
```

We use the phrase “has any length” deliberately. There are two types of variables that will have no length—those that have been set to an empty string and those that have not been set at all. This test does not distinguish between those two cases. All it asks is whether there are some characters in the variable.

It is important to put quotes around the "\$VAR" expression because without them your syntax could be disturbed by odd user input. If the value of \$VAR were `x -a 7 -lt 5` and if there were no quotes around the \$VAR, then the expression:

```
if [ -z $VAR ]
```

would become (after variable substitution):

```
if [ -z x -a 7 -lt 5 ]
```

which is legitimate syntax for a more elaborate test, but one that will yield a result that is not what you wanted (i.e., one not based on whether the string has characters).

See Also

- [Recipe 6.7, “Testing with Pattern Matches”](#)
- [Recipe 6.8, “Testing with Regular Expressions”](#)
- [Recipe 14.2, “Avoiding Interpreter Spoofing”](#)
- [“Test Operators” on page 600 in Appendix A](#)

6.6 Testing for Equality

Problem

You want to check to see if two shell variables are equal, but there are two different test operators: `-eq` and `=` (or `==`). Which one should you use?

Solution

The type of comparison you need determines which operator you should use. Use the `-eq` operator for numeric comparisons and the equality primary `=` (or `==`) for string comparisons.

Discussion

Example 6-3 is a simple script to illustrate the situation.

Example 6-3. ch06/strvsnum

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: strvsnum
#
# the old string vs. numeric comparison dilemma
#
VAR1=" 05 "
VAR2="5"

printf "%s" "do they -eq as equal? "
if [ "$VAR1" -eq "$VAR2" ]
then
    echo YES
else
    echo NO
fi

printf "%s" "do they = as equal? "
if [ "$VAR1" = "$VAR2" ]
then
    echo YES
else
    echo NO
fi
```

When we run the script, here is what we get:

```
$ bash strvsnum
do they -eq as equal? YES
do they = as equal? NO
$
```

While the numeric value is the same (5) for both variables, characters such as leading zeros and whitespace can mean that the strings are not equal as strings.

Both `=` and `==` are accepted, but the single equals sign follows the POSIX standard and is more portable.

It may help you to remember which comparison to use if you recognize that the `-eq` operator is similar to the FORTRAN `.eq.` operator. (FORTRAN is a very numbers-oriented language, used for scientific computation.) In fact, there are several numerical comparison operators in *bash*, each similar to an old FORTRAN operator. The abbreviations, all listed in [Table 6-3](#), are rather mnemonic and easy to figure out.

Another way to remember which to use is that it feels “backward” or “opposite”: the string-like comparators (the syntax using characters; e.g., `-eq`) are for numbers and the numeric-looking comparators (e.g., the math-like `+<=+`) are for strings.

Table 6-3. bash’s comparison operators

Numeric	String	Meaning
<code>-lt</code>	<code><</code>	Less than
<code>-le</code>	<code><=</code>	Less than or equal to
<code>-gt</code>	<code>></code>	Greater than
<code>-ge</code>	<code>>=</code>	Greater than or equal to
<code>-eq</code>	<code>=, =</code>	Equal to
<code>-ne</code>	<code>!=</code>	Not equal to

This is the opposite of Perl, in which `eq`, `ne`, etc. are the string operators, while `==`, `!=`, etc. are numeric.

Maybe the best solution is to always do your numerical tests with the double-parentheses syntax and your string comparisons with the double-square-brackets syntax. Then you can always use the math-style symbols for comparison.

See Also

- [Recipe 6.7, “Testing with Pattern Matches”](#)
- [Recipe 6.8, “Testing with Regular Expressions”](#)
- [Recipe 14.12, “Validating Input”](#)
- “Test Operators” on page 600 in [Appendix A](#)

6.7 Testing with Pattern Matches

Problem

You want to test a string not for a literal match, but to see if it fits a pattern. For example, you want to know if a file is named like a JPEG file might be named.

Solution

Use the double-bracket compound statement in an `if` statement to enable shell-style pattern matches on the righthand side of the equality operator:

```
if [[ "${MYFILENAME}" == *.jpg ]]
```

Discussion

The double-bracket syntax is not the old-fashioned `[` of the `test` command, but a newer `bash` mechanism (available since v2.01 or so). It uses the same operators that work with the single-bracket form, but in the double-bracket syntax the equals sign is a more powerful string comparator. You can use a single or a double equals sign, as we have used here; they are the same semantically. We prefer to use the double equals sign (especially when doing pattern matching) to emphasize the difference, but it is not the reason that we get pattern matching—that comes from the double-bracket compound statement.

The standard pattern matching includes the `*` to match any number of characters, the question mark (`?`) to match a single character, and brackets (`[]`) for including a list of possible characters. Note that these resemble shell file wildcards, and are not regular expressions.

Don't put quotes around the pattern if you want it to behave as a pattern. If our string had been quoted, it would have only matched strings with a literal asterisk as the first character.

There are more powerful pattern-matching capabilities available by turning on some additional options in `bash`. Let's expand our example to look for filenames that end in either `.jpg` or `.jpeg`. We can do that with this bit of code:

```
shopt -s extglob
if [[ "$FN" == *.*(jpg|jpeg) ]]
then
    # and so on
```

The `shopt -s` command is the way to turn on shell options. The `extglob` option deals with extended pattern matching (or *globbing*). With this extended pattern matching we can have several patterns, separated by the `|` character and grouped by parentheses. The first character preceding the parentheses says whether the list should match just one occurrence of a pattern in the list (using a leading `@`) or some other criteria. [Table 6-4](#) lists the possibilities.

Table 6-4. Grouping symbols for extended pattern matching

Grouping	Meaning
@(...)	Only one occurrence
*(...)	Zero or more occurrences
+(...)	One or more occurrences
?(...)	Zero or one occurrence
!(...)	Not this, but anything else

Matches are case-sensitive, but you may use `shopt -s nocasematch` (in *bash* versions 3.1+) to change that. This option affects case and `[]` commands.

See Also

- [Recipe 14.2, “Avoiding Interpreter Spoofing”](#)
- [Recipe 16.9, “Adjusting Shell Behavior and Environment”](#)
- [“shopt Options” on page 597 in Appendix A](#)
- [“Pattern-Matching Characters” on page 610 in Appendix A](#)
- [“extglob Extended Pattern-Matching Operators” on page 611 in Appendix A](#)

6.8 Testing with Regular Expressions

Problem

Sometimes even the extended pattern matching of the `extglob` option isn't enough. What you really need are regular expressions. Let's say that you rip a CD of classical music into a directory, `ls` that directory, and see these names:

```
$ ls
Ludwig Van Beethoven - 01 - Allegro.ogg
Ludwig Van Beethoven - 02 - Adagio un poco mosso.ogg
Ludwig Van Beethoven - 03 - Rondo - Allegro.ogg
Ludwig Van Beethoven - 04 - "Coriolan" Overture, Op. 62.ogg
Ludwig Van Beethoven - 05 - "Leonore" Overture, No. 2 Op. 72.ogg
$
```

You'd like to write a script to rename these files to something simple, such as just the track number. How can you do that?

Solution

Use the regular expression matching of the `=~` operator. Once it has matched the string, the various parts of the pattern are available in the shell variable

`$BASH_REMATCH`. [Example 6-4](#) is the part of the script that deals with the pattern match.

Example 6-4. ch06/trackmatch

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: trackmatch
#
for CDTRACK in *
do
    if [[ "$CDTRACK" =~ "([[:alpha:][:blank:]]*)-([[:digit:]]*)-(.*)$" ]]
    then
        echo Track ${BASH_REMATCH[2]} is ${BASH_REMATCH[3]}
        mv "$CDTRACK" "Track${BASH_REMATCH[2]}"
    fi
done
```



This requires *bash* version 3.0 or newer—older versions don't have the `==` operator. In addition, *bash* version 3.2 unified the handling of the pattern in the `==` and `==` conditional command operators but introduced a subtle quoting bug that was corrected in 3.2 patch #3. If the solution shown here fails, you may be using *bash* version 3.2 without that patch. You might want to upgrade to a newer version. You might also avoid the bug with a less readable version of the regular expression by removing the quotes around the regex and escaping each parenthesis and space character individually, which gets ugly quickly:

```
if [[ "$CDTRACK" =~ \([[:alpha:][:blank:]]*\)\-\ \
> \([[:digit:]]*\)\ \ \([[:digit:]]*\)\ \ \([[:digit:]]*\)\$ ]]
```

Discussion

If you are familiar with regular expressions from *sed*, *awk*, and older shells, you may notice a few slight differences with this newer form. Most noticeable are the character classes such as `[[:alpha:]]` and that the grouping parentheses don't need to be escaped—we don't write `\(` here, as we would in *sed*. Here, `\(` would mean a literal parenthesis.

The subexpressions, each enclosed in parentheses, are used to populate the *bash* builtin array variable `$BASH_REMATCH`. The zeroth element (`${BASH_REMATCH[0]}`) is the entire string matched by the regular expression. Any subexpressions are available as `${BASH_REMATCH[1]}`, `${BASH_REMATCH[2]}`, and so on. Any time a regular expression is used this way, it will populate the variable `$BASH_REMATCH`. Since other *bash* functions may want to use regular expression matching, you may want to assign this variable to one of your own naming as soon as possible, so as to preserve the values for

your later use. In our example we use the values right away, inside our `if/then` clause, so we don't bother to save them for use elsewhere.

Regular expressions have often been described as *write-only* expressions because they can be very difficult to decipher. We'll build this one up in several steps to show how we arrived at the final expression. The general layout of the filenames given to our datafiles, as in this example, seems to be like this:

```
Ludwig Van Beethoven - 04 - "Coriolan" Overture, Op. 62.ogg
```

That is, a composer's name, a track number, and then the title of the piece, ending in `.ogg` (these were saved in Ogg Vorbis format, for smaller space and higher fidelity).

At the lefthand side of the expression is an opening (or left) parenthesis. That begins our first subexpression. Inside it, we will write an expression to match the first part of the filename, the composer's name—marked in bold here:

```
([[[:alpha:][:blank:]]*)- ([[[:digit:]]*]) - (.*)$
```

The composer's name consists of any number of alphabetic characters and blanks. We use the square brackets to group the set of characters that will make up the name. Rather than write `[a-zA-Z]`, we use the character class names `[:alpha:]` and `[:blank:]` and put them inside the square brackets. This is followed by an asterisk to indicate zero or more repetitions. The right parenthesis closes off the first subexpression, followed by a literal hyphen and a blank.

The second subexpression (marked in bold here) will attempt to match the track number:

```
([[[:alpha:][:blank:]]*)- ([[[:digit:]]*) - (.*)$
```

The second subexpression begins with another left parenthesis. The track numbers are integers, composed of digits (the character class `[:digit:]`), which we write inside another pair of brackets followed by an asterisk as `[[::++digit++:]]*` to indicate zero or more of what is in the brackets (i.e., digits). Then our pattern has the literals blank, hyphen, and blank.

The final subexpression will catch everything else, including the track name and the file extension:

```
([[[:alpha:][:blank:]]*)- ([[[:digit:]]*]) - ((.*))$
```

This is the common and familiar `.*` regular expression, which means any number (*) of any character (.), again enclosed in parentheses. We end the expression with a dollar sign, which matches the end of the string. Matches are case-sensitive, but you may use `shopt -s nocasematch` (available in *bash* versions 3.1+) to change that. This option affects case and `[[` commands.

See Also

- `man regex` (Linux, Solaris, HP-UX) or `man re_format` (BSD, Mac) for the details of your regular expression library
- *Mastering Regular Expressions*, 3rd Edition, by Jeffrey E. F. Friedl (O'Reilly)
- [Recipe 7.7, “Searching with More Complex Patterns”](#)
- [Recipe 7.8, “Searching for an SSN”](#)
- [Recipe 19.15, “Confusing Shell Wildcards and Regular Expressions”](#)

6.9 Changing Behavior with Redirections

Problem

Normally you want a script to behave the same regardless of whether input comes from a keyboard or a file, or whether output is going to the screen or a file. Occasionally, though, you want to make that distinction. How do you do that in a script?

Solution

Use `test -t 0` in an `if` statement to branch between the two desired behaviors. The `0` is the file descriptor for standard input; use a `1` to test for redirection of standard output. The test is true if the file descriptor is connected to a terminal, and false otherwise (e.g., false when redirected to a file or piped into another program).

Discussion

Think long and hard before you do this. So much of the power and flexibility of *bash* scripting comes from the fact that scripts can be pipelined together. Be sure you have a really good reason to make your script behave oddly when input or output is redirected.

See Also

- [Recipe 2.18, “Using Multiple Redirects on One Line”](#)
- [Recipe 2.19, “Saving Output When Redirect Doesn't Seem to Work”](#)
- [Recipe 2.20, “Swapping STDERR and STDOUT”](#)
- [Recipe 10.1, ““Daemon-izing” Your Script”](#)
- [Recipe 15.9, “Using bash Net-Redirection”](#)

- [Recipe 15.12, “Redirecting Output for the Life of a Script”](#)
- [“I/O Redirection” on page 601 in Appendix A](#)

6.10 Looping for a While

Problem

You want your shell script to perform some actions repeatedly as long as some condition is met.

Solution

Use the `while` looping construct for arithmetic conditions:

```
while (( COUNT < MAX ))
do
    some stuff
    let COUNT++
done
```

for filesystem-related conditions:

```
while [ -z "$LOCKFILE" ]
do
    some things
done
```

or for reading input:

```
while read lineoftext
do
    process $lineoftext
done
```

Discussion

The double parentheses in our first `while` statement delimit an arithmetic expression, very much like the `$(())` expression for shell variable assignment (see [Recipe 6.1](#)). The variable names mentioned inside the parentheses are meant to be dereferenced. That is, you don't write `$VAR`, and instead use `VAR` inside the parentheses.

The use of the square brackets in `while [-z"$LOCKFILE"]` is the same as with the `if` statement—the single square bracket is the same as using the `test` statement.

The last example, `while read lineoftext`, doesn't have any parentheses, brackets, or braces. The syntax of the `while` statement in *bash* is defined such that the condition of the `while` statement is a list of statements to be executed (just like the `if`

statement), and the exit status of the last one determines whether the condition is true or false. An exit status of zero indicates the condition is true; otherwise it's false.

The `read` statement returns a `0` on a successful read and a `1` on end-of-file, which means that the `while` will find it true for any successful read, but when the end of file is reached (and a `1` is returned) the `while` condition will be false and the looping will end. At that point, the next statement to be executed will be the statement after the `done` statement.

This logic of “keep looping while the statement returns zero” might seem a bit flipped—most C-like languages use the opposite, namely, “loop while nonzero.” But in the shell, a zero return value means everything went well; nonzero return values indicate an error exit.

This explains what happens with the `(())` construct, too. Any expression inside the parentheses is evaluated, and if the result is nonzero, then the result of the `(())` is to return a `0`; similarly, a zero result returns a `1`. This means we can write expressions like Java or C programmers would, but the `while` statement still works as always in *bash*, expecting a zero result to be true.

In practical terms, it means we can write an infinite loop like this:

```
while (( 1 )); do
    ...
done
```

which “feels right” to a C programmer. But remember that the `while` statement is looking for a zero return value—which it gets because `((1))` returns `0` for a true (i.e., nonzero) result.

Before we leave the `while` loop, let's take one more look at that `while read` example, which is reading from standard input (i.e., the keyboard), and see how it might get modified in order to read input from a file instead of the keyboard.

This is typically done in one of three ways. The first requires no real modifications to the statements at all. Rather, when the script is invoked, standard input is redirected from a file like this:

```
myscript < file.name
```

But suppose you don't want to leave it up to the caller. If you know what file you want to process, or if it was supplied as a command-line argument to your script, then you can use this same `while` loop as is, but redirect the input from the file as follows:

```
while read lineoftext
do
    process that line
done < file.input
```

As a third option, you could begin by *cat*-ing the file to dump it to standard output, and then connect the standard output of that program to the standard input for the `while` statement:

```
cat file.input |
while read lineoftext
do
    process that line
done
```



Because of the pipe, the *cat* command and the `while` loop (including the *process that line* part) are each executing in their own separate processes. This means that if you use this method, the script commands inside the `while` loop cannot affect the other parts of the script outside the loop. For example, any variables that you set within the `while` loop will no longer have those values after the loop ends. Such is not the case, however, if you use `while read ... done < file.input`, because that isn't a pipeline.

See Also

- Recipe 6.1, “Doing Arithmetic in Your Shell Script”
- Recipe 6.2, “Branching on Conditions”
- Recipe 6.3, “Testing for File Characteristics”
- Recipe 6.4, “Testing for More than One Thing”
- Recipe 6.5, “Testing for String Characteristics”
- Recipe 6.6, “Testing for Equality”
- Recipe 6.7, “Testing with Pattern Matches”
- Recipe 6.8, “Testing with Regular Expressions”
- Recipe 6.11, “Looping with a read”
- Recipe 19.8, “Forgetting that Pipelines Make Subshells”

6.11 Looping with a read

Problem

You're using the Subversion revision control system, which is executable as *svn*. (This example is very similar to what you would do for CVS as well.) When you check the

status of a directory subtree to see what files have been changed, you see something like this:

```
$ svn status bcb
M    bcb/amin.c
?    bcb/dmin.c
?    bcb/mdiv.tmp
A    bcb/optrn.c
M    bcb/optson.c
?    bcb/prtbout.4161
?    bcb/rideaslist.odt
?    bcb/x.maxc
$
```

The lines that begin with question marks are files about which Subversion has not been told; in this case they're scratch files and temporary copies of files. The lines that begin with A are newly added files, and those that begin with M have been modified since the last changes were committed.

To clean up this directory, it would be nice to get rid of all the scratch files.

Solution

A common use of a `while` loop is to read files and the output of previous commands. Try:

```
svn status mysrc | grep '^?' | cut -c8- |
  while read FN; do echo "$FN"; rm -rf "$FN"; done
```

or:

```
svn status mysrc |
while read TAG FN
do
  if [[ $TAG == \? ]]
  then
    echo $FN
    rm -rf "$FN"
  fi
done
```

Discussion

Both scripts will do the same thing—remove files that *svn* reports with a question mark. The same solutions may be adapted to work with other revision control systems.

The first approach uses several subprograms to do its work (not a big deal in these days of gigahertz processors), and would fit on a single line in a typical terminal window. It uses *grep* to select only the lines that begin (signified by the `^`) with a question mark. The expression `'^?'` is put in single quotes to avoid any special meanings that

those characters have for *bash*. It then uses *cut* to take only the characters beginning in column eight (through the end of the line). That leaves just the filenames for the `while` loop to read.

The `read` statement will return a nonzero value when there is no more input, so at that point the loop will end. Until then, it will assign the line of text that it reads each time into the variable `$FN`, and that is the filename that we remove. We use the `-rf` options in case the unknown file is actually a directory of files, and to remove even read-only files. If you don't want/need to be so drastic in what you remove, leave those options off.

The second script can be described as more shell-like, since it doesn't need *grep* to do its searching (it uses the `if` statement) and it doesn't need *cut* to do its parsing (it uses the `read` statement). We've also formatted it more like you would format a script in a file. If you were typing this at a command prompt, you could collapse the indentation, but for our use here the readability is much more important than saving a few keystrokes.

The `read` in this second script reads into two variables, not just one. That is how we get *bash* to parse the line into two pieces—the leading character and the filename. The `read` statement parses its input into words, like words on a shell command line. The first word on the input line is assigned to the first word in the list of variables in the `read` statement, the second word to the second variable, and so on. The last variable in the list gets the entire remainder of the line, even if it's more than a single word. In our example, `$TAG` gets the first word, which is the character (M, A, or ?); the whitespace defines the end of that word and the beginning of the next. The variable `$FN` gets the remainder of the line as the filename, which is significant here in case the filenames have embedded spaces. (We wouldn't want just the first word of the filename.) The script then removes the filename and the loop continues.

See Also

- [Appendix D](#)

6.12 Looping with a Count

Problem

You need to loop a fixed number of times. You could use a `while` loop and do the counting and testing, but programming languages have for loops for such a common idiom. How does one do this in *bash* ?

Solution

Use a special case of the `for` syntax, one that looks a lot like C, but with double parentheses:

```
for (( i=0 ; i < 10 ; i++ )) ; do echo $i ; done
```

Discussion

In early versions of the shell, the original syntax for the `for` loop only included iterating over a fixed list of items. It was a neat innovation for word-oriented shell scripts dealing with filenames and such. But when users needed to count, they sometimes found themselves writing:

```
for i in 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
do
    echo $i
done
```

Now that's not too bad, especially for small loops, but let's face it—it's not going to work for 500 iterations. (Yes, you could nest loops 5×10 , but come on!) What you really need is a `for` loop that can count.

The variation of the `for` loop with C-like syntax has been in *bash* since version 2.04. Its more general form can be described as:

```
for (( expr1 ; expr2 ; expr3 )) ; do list ; done
```

The use of double parentheses is meant to indicate that these are arithmetic expressions. You don't need to use the `$` construct (as in `$i`, except for arguments like `$1`) when referring to variables inside the double parentheses (just like in the other places where double parentheses are used in *bash*). The expressions are integer arithmetic expressions and offer a rich variety of operators, including the use of the comma to put multiple operations within one expression:

```
for (( i=0, j=0 ; i+j < 10 ; i++, j++ ))
do
    echo  $\$(i*j)$ 
done
```

That `for` loop initializes two variables (`$i` and `$j`), then has a more complex second expression adding the two together before doing the less-than comparison. The comma operator is used again in the third expression to increment both variables.

See Also

- [Recipe 6.1, “Doing Arithmetic in Your Shell Script”](#)
- [Recipe 6.13, “Looping with Floating-Point Values”](#)

- [Recipe 17.24, “Writing Sequences”](#)

6.13 Looping with Floating-Point Values

Problem

The `for` loop with arithmetic expressions only does integer arithmetic. What do you do for floating-point values?

Solution

Use the `seq` command to generate your floating-point values, if your system provides it:

```
for fp in $(seq 1.0 .01 1.1)
do
    echo $fp; other stuff too
done
```

or:

```
seq 1.0 .01 1.1 |
while read fp
do
    echo $fp; other stuff too
done
```

Discussion

The `seq` command will generate a sequence of floating-point numbers, one per line. The arguments to `seq` are the starting value, the increment, and the ending value. This is *not* the intuitive order if you are used to the C language `for` loop, or if you learned your looping from BASIC (e.g., `FOR I=4 TO 10 STEP 2`). With `seq` the increment is the *middle* argument.

In the first example, the `$()` runs the command in a subshell and returns the result with the newlines replaced by just whitespace, so each value is a string value for the `for` loop.

In the second example, `seq` is run as a command with its output piped into a `while` loop that reads each line and does something with it. This would be the preferred approach for a really long sequence, as it can run the `seq` command in parallel with the `while`. The `for` loop version has to run `seq` to completion and put all of its output on the command line for the `for` statement. For very large sequences, this could be time- and memory-consuming.

See Also

- [Recipe 2.17, “Connecting Two Programs by Using Output as Arguments”](#)
- [Recipe 6.12, “Looping with a Count”](#)
- [Recipe 17.24, “Writing Sequences”](#)

6.14 Branching Many Ways

Problem

You have a series of comparisons to make, and the `if/then/else` is getting pretty long and repetitive. Isn't there an easier way?

Solution

Use the `case` statement for a multiway branch:

```
case $FN in
  *.gif) gif2png $FN
        ;;
  *.png) pngOK $FN
        ;;
  *.jpg) jpg2gif $FN
        ;;
  *.tif | *.TIFF) tif2jpg $FN
        ;;
  *) printf "File not supported: %s" $FN
     ;;
esac
```

The equivalent to this using `if/then/else` statements is:

```
if [[ $FN == *.gif ]]
then
  gif2png $FN
elif [[ $FN == *.png ]]
then
  pngOK $FN
elif [[ $FN == *.jpg ]]
then
  jpg2gif $FN
elif [[ $FN == *.tif || $FN == *.TIFF ]]
then
  tif2jpg $FN
else
  printf "File not supported: %s" $FN
fi
```


Discussion

The case statement will expand the word (including parameter substitution) between the case and in keywords. It will then try to match the word with the patterns listed in order. This is a very powerful feature of the shell. It is not just doing simple value comparisons, but string pattern matches (though *not* regular expressions). We have simple patterns in our example: *.gif matches any character sequence (signified by the *) that ends with the literal characters .gif.

Use |, a vertical bar meaning logical OR, to separate different patterns for which you want to take the same action. In our example, if \$FN ends either with .tif or .TIFF then the pattern will match and the (fictional) *tif2jpg* command will be executed.

There is no else or default keyword to indicate the statements to execute if no pattern matches. Instead, use * as the last pattern, since that pattern will match anything. Placing it last makes it act as the default and match anything that hasn't already been matched.

The double semicolon (;;) ends the set of statements associated with a pattern. As of *bash* version 4, there are two other ways to end a set of statements. The ;;& construct means that even if a match is found, the next pattern will be tested for a match and its statements will be executed as well if another match is found. The ;& construct means that execution will “fall through,” and the next set of statements will be executed regardless of whether its pattern matches. Here is a somewhat pointless example to show the use of these features:

```
# use other endings for case

case $FN in
  *.gif) gif2png $FN
        ;;&      # keep looking
  *.png) pngOK $FN
        ;;&      # keep looking
  *.jpg) jpg2gif $FN
        ;;&      # keep looking
  *.tif) tif2jpg $FN
        ;&       # fall through
  *.* ) echo "two.words"
        ;;
  * ) echo "oneword"
esac
```

If \$FN matches any of the first four patterns *bash* will execute its (fictional) conversion command, but also keep looking; it will find that it matches the fifth pattern as well and therefore also echo the phrase two.words.



An aside to C/C++ and Java programmers: the `bash case` is similar to the `switch` statement, and each pattern corresponds to a case. Notice, though, that the variable on which you can `switch/case` is a shell variable (typically a string value) and the cases are patterns (not just constant values). The patterns end with a right parenthesis (not a colon). The equivalent to the `break` in C/C++ and Java `switch` statements is, in *bash*, a double semicolon. The equivalent to their default keyword is, in *bash*, the `*` pattern.

Matches are case-sensitive, but you may use `shopt -s nocasematch` (available in *bash* versions 3.1+) to change that. This option affects `[[` commands.

We end the `case` statement with an `esac` (that's “c-a-s-e” spelled backward; this came from Algol 68).

See Also

- `help case`
- `help shopt`
- [Recipe 6.2, “Branching on Conditions”](#)

6.15 Parsing Command-Line Arguments

Problem

You want to write a simple shell script to print a line of dashes, but you want to parameterize it so that you can specify different line lengths and specify a character to use other than just a dash. The syntax would look like this:

```
dashes           # would print out 72 dashes
dashes 50        # would print out 50 dashes
dashes -c = 50   # would print out 50 equals signs
dashes -c x      # would print out 72 x characters
```

What's an easy way to parse those simple arguments?

Solution

For serious scripting, you should use the `getopts` builtin. But we would like to show you the `case` statement in action, so for this simple situation we'll use `case` for argument parsing.

Example 6-5 shows the beginning of the script (see Recipe 12.1 for a complete version).

Example 6-5. *ch06/dashes*

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: dashes
#
# dashes - print a line of dashes
#
# options: # how many (default 72)
# -c X use char X instead of dashes
#
LEN=72
CHAR='-'
while (( $# > 0 ))
do
    case $1 in
        [0-9]*) LEN=$1
            ;;
        -c) shift;
            CHAR=${1:--}
            ;;
        *) printf 'usage: %s [-c X] [#]\n' "${0##*/}" >&2
            exit 2
            ;;
    esac
    shift
done
#
# more...
```

Discussion

The default length (72) and the default character (-) are set at the beginning of the script (after some useful comments). The `while` loop allows us to parse more than one parameter. It will keep looping while the number of arguments (`$#`) is above zero.

The `case` statement matches three different patterns. First, the `[0-9]*` will match any digit followed by any other characters. We could have used a more elaborate expression to allow only pure numbers, but we'll assume that any argument that begins with a digit is a number. If that isn't true (e.g., if the user types 1T4), then the script will error when it tries to use `$LEN`. We can live with that for now.

The second pattern is a literal `-c`. There is no pattern to this, just an exact match. In that case, we use the `shift` builtin command to throw away that argument (now that we know what it is) and we take the next argument (which has now become the first argument, so it is referenced as `$1`) and save that as the new character choice. We

use `-` when referencing `$1` (as in `${1:-x}`) to specify a default value if the parameter isn't set. That way, if the user types `-c` but fails to specify an argument, it will use the default, specified as the character immediately following the `-`. In the expression `${1:-x}` it would be `x`. For our script, we wrote `${1:-}` (note the two minus signs), so the character taken as the default is the (second) minus sign.

The third pattern is the wildcard pattern (`*`), which matches everything, so that any argument unmatched by the previous patterns will be matched here. Placed last in the case statement, it is the catch-all that notifies the user of an error (since it wasn't one of the prescribed parameters); it prints a message instructing the user about correct usage.

That `printf` error message probably needs explaining if you're new to *bash*. There are four sections of that statement to look at. The first is simply the command name, `printf`. The second is the format string that `printf` will use (see [Recipe 2.3](#) and [“printf” on page 604 in Appendix A](#)). We use single quotes around the string so that the shell doesn't try to interpret any of the string. The last part of the line (`>&2`) tells the shell to redirect the output to standard error. Since this is an error message, that seems appropriate. Many script writers are casual about this and often neglect this redirection on error messages. We think it is a good habit to always redirect error messages to standard error.

The third part of the line uses string manipulation on `$0`. This is a common idiom used to strip off any leading path part of how the command was invoked. For example, consider what would happen if we used only `$0`. Here are two different but erroneous invocations of the same script. Notice the error messages:

```
$ dashes -g
usage: dashes [-c X] [#]

$ /usr/local/bin/dashes -g
usage: /usr/local/bin/dashes [-c X] [#]
```

In the second invocation, we used the full pathname. The error message then also contained the full pathname. Some people find this annoying. So, we strip `$0` down to just the script's base name (similar to using the *basename* command). Then the error messages look the same regardless of how the script is invoked:

```
$ dashes -g
usage: dashes [-c X] [#]

$ /usr/local/bin/dashes -g
usage: dashes [-c X] [#]
```

While this certainly takes a bit more time than just hardcoding the script name or using `$0` without trimming it, the script is more portable this way—if you change the script's name you don't have to modify the code. If you prefer to use the *basename*

command in a subshell, that is also worthwhile, as the extra time isn't that vital. This is an error message and the script is about to exit anyway.

We end the case statement with an `esac` and then do a *shift* so as to consume the argument that we just matched in our case statement. If we didn't do that, we'd be stuck in the `while` loop, parsing the same argument over and over. The *shift* will cause the second argument (`$2`) to become the first (`$1`) and the third to become the second, and so on, but also `$#` to be one smaller. On some iteration of the loop `$#` finally reaches zero (when there are no more arguments), and the loop terminates.

The actual printing of the dashes (or other character) is not shown here, as we wanted to focus on the case statement and related actions. You can see the complete script, with a function for the usage message, in its entirety in [Recipe 12.1](#).

See Also

- `help case`
- `help getopts`
- [Recipe 2.3, “Writing Output with More Formatting Control”](#)
- [Recipe 5.8, “Looping Over Arguments Passed to a Script”](#)
- [Recipe 5.11, “Counting Arguments”](#)
- [Recipe 5.12, “Consuming Arguments”](#)
- [Recipe 5.20, “Using `bash` for `basename`”](#)
- [Recipe 6.15, “Parsing Command-Line Arguments”](#)
- [Recipe 12.1, “Starting Simple by Printing Dashes”](#)
- [Recipe 13.1, “Parsing Arguments for Your Shell Script”](#)
- [Recipe 13.2, “Parsing Arguments with Your Own Error Messages”](#)
- “`printf`” on page 604 in [Appendix A](#)

6.16 Creating Simple Menus

Problem

You have a simple SQL script that you would like to run against different databases to reset them for tests that you want to run. You could supply the name of the database on the command line, but you want something more interactive. How can you write a shell script to choose from a list of names?

Solution

Use the `select` statement to create simple character-based screen menus, as in [Example 6-6](#).

Example 6-6. ch06/dbinit.1

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: dbinit.1
#
DBLIST=$(sh ./listdb | tail -n +2)
select DB in $DBLIST
do
    echo Initializing database: $DB
    mysql -u user -p $DB <myinit.sql
done
```

Ignore for a moment how `$DBLIST` gets its values; just know that it is a list of words (like the output from `ls` would give). The `select` statement will display those words, each preceded by a number, and the user will be prompted for input. The user makes a choice by typing the number and the corresponding word is assigned to the variable specified after the keyword `select` (in this case, `DB`).

Here's what the running of this script might look like:

```
$ ./dbinit
1) testDB
2) simpleInventory
3) masterInventory
4) otherDB
#? 2
Initializing database: simpleInventory
#?
$
```

Discussion

When the user types “2” the variable `DB` is assigned the word `simpleInventory`. If you really want to get at the user's literal choice, the variable `$REPLY` will hold it; in this case it would be 2.

The `select` statement is really a loop. When the user has entered a choice it will execute the body of the loop (between the `do` and the `done`) and then reprompt for the next value.

It doesn't redisplay the list every time, only if the user makes no choice and just presses the Enter key. So, to see the list again, the user can press Enter.

It also does not reevaluate the code after the `in`—that is, you can't alter the list once you've begun. If you modified `$DBLIST` inside the loop, it wouldn't change the list of choices.

The looping will stop when it reaches the end of the file, which for interactive use means when the user types Ctrl-D. (If you piped a series of choices into a `select` loop, it would end when the input ends.)

There isn't any formatting control over the list, though it will take the value of `$COLUMN` into account. If you're going to use `select`, you have to be satisfied with the way it displays your choices. You can, however, alter the prompt on the `select` using the `$PS3` variable, as we discuss next and in [Recipe 16.12](#).

See Also

- [Recipe 3.7, “Selecting from a List of Options”](#)
- [Recipe 6.17, “Changing the Prompt on Simple Menus”](#)
- [Recipe 16.2, “Customizing Your Prompt”](#)
- [Recipe 16.12, “Using Secondary Prompts: \\$PS2, \\$PS3, \\$PS4”](#)

6.17 Changing the Prompt on Simple Menus

Problem

You just don't like that prompt in the `select` menus. How can it be changed?

Solution

The *bash* environment variable `$PS3` is the prompt used by `select`. Set it to a new value and you'll get a new prompt.

Discussion

This is the third of the *bash* prompts. The first (`$PS1`) is the prompt you get before most commands. (We've used `$` in our examples, but it can be much more elaborate than that, including the user ID or directory name.) If a line of command input needs to be continued, the second prompt is used (`$PS2`).

For `select` loops, the third prompt, `$PS3`, is used. Set it before the `select` statement to make the prompt be whatever you want. You can even modify it within the loop to have it change as the loop progresses.

The script in [Example 6-7](#) is similar to the one in the previous recipe, but it counts how many times it has handled a valid input.

Example 6-7. ch06/dbinit.2

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: dbinit.2
#
DBLIST=$(sh ./listdb | tail -n +2)

PS3="0 inits >"

select DB in $DBLIST
do
    if [ $DB ]
    then
        echo Initializing database: $DB

        PS3="$((++i)) inits> "

        mysql -u user -p $DB <myinit.sql
    fi
done
```

We've added some extra whitespace to make the setting of `$PS3` stand out more. The `if` statement assures us that we're only counting the times when the user entered a valid choice. Such a check would have been useful in the previous version, but we were keeping it simple.

See Also

- [Recipe 3.7](#), “Selecting from a List of Options”
- [Recipe 6.17](#), “Changing the Prompt on Simple Menus”
- [Recipe 16.2](#), “Customizing Your Prompt”
- [Recipe 16.12](#), “Using Secondary Prompts: `$PS2`, `$PS3`, `$PS4`”

6.18 Creating a Simple RPN Calculator

Problem

You may be able to convert binary to decimal, octal, or hex in your head, but it seems that you can't do simple arithmetic anymore and you can never find a calculator when you need one. What to do?

Solution

Create a calculator using shell arithmetic and RPN notation, as in [Example 6-8](#).

Example 6-8. ch06/rpncalc

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: rpncalc
#
# simple RPN command-line (integer) calculator
#
# takes the arguments and computes with them
# of the form a b op
# allow the use of x instead of *
#
# error check our argument counts:
if [ \(( $# -lt 3 \) -o \(( $(($# % 2)) -eq 0 \) ]
then
    echo "usage: calc number number op [ number op ] ..."
    echo "use x or '*' for multiplication"
    exit 1
fi

ANS=$((($1 ${3//x/*} $2))
shift 3
while [ $# -gt 0 ]
do
    ANS=$((ANS ${2//x/*} $1))
    shift 2
done
echo $ANS
```

Discussion

The RPN (or *postfix*) style of notation puts the operands (the numbers) first, followed by the operator. If we are using RPN, we don't write $5 + 4$ but rather $5\ 4\ +$ as our expression. If you want to multiply the result by 2, then you just put $2\ *$ on the end, so the whole expression would be $5\ 4\ +\ 2\ *$, which is great for computers to parse because you can go left to right and never need parentheses. The result of any operation becomes the first operand for the next expression.

In our simple *bash* calculator we will allow the use of a lowercase *x* as a substitute for the multiplication symbol since *** has special meaning to the shell. But if you escape that special meaning by writing *'*'* or *** we want that to work, too.

How do we error check the arguments? We will consider it an error if there are less than three arguments (we need two operands and one operator, e.g., $6\ 3\ /$). There can be more than three arguments, but in that case there will always be an odd number (since we start with three and add two more, a second operand and the next

operator, and so on, always adding two more; the valid number of arguments would be 3 or 5 or 7 or 9 or...). We check that with the expression:

```
$(($# % 2)) -eq 0
```

to see if the result is zero. The `$()` says we're doing some shell arithmetic inside. We are using the `%` operator (called the *remainder operator*) to see if `$#` (which is the number of arguments) is divisible by 2 with no remainder (i.e., `-eq 0`).



Any arithmetic done within `$()` is integer arithmetic only.

Now that we know there are the right number of arguments, we can use them to compute the result. We write:

```
ANS=$(($1 ${3//x/*} $2))
```

which will compute the result and substitute the asterisk for the letter `x` at the same time. When you invoke the script you give it an RPN expression on the command line, but the shell syntax for arithmetic is our normal (*infix*) notation. So, we can evaluate the expression inside of `$()` but we have to switch the arguments around. Ignoring the `x-to-*` substitution for the moment, you can see it is just:

```
ANS=$(($1 $3 $2))
```

which just moves the operator between the two operands. *bash* will substitute the parameters before doing the arithmetic evaluation, so if `$1` is 5 and `$2` is 4 and `$3` is a `+`, then after parameter substitution *bash* will have:

```
ANS=$(($5 + 4))
```

and it will evaluate that and assign the result, 9, to `$ANS`. Done with those three arguments, we `shift 3` to toss them and get the new arguments into play. Since we've already checked that there are an odd number of arguments, if we have any more arguments to process we will have at least two more (only one more and it would be an even number, since $3+1=4$).

From that point on we loop, taking two arguments at a time. The previous answer is the first operand, the next argument (now `$1` as a result of the `shift`) is our second operand, and we put the operator inside `$2` in between and evaluate it all much like before. Once we are out of arguments, the answer is what we have in `$ANS`.

One last word about the substitution. `${2}` would be how we refer to the second argument. Though we often don't bother with the `{}` and just write `$2`, we need them here for the additional operations we will ask *bash* to perform on the argument. We

write `{2//x/*}` to say that we want to replace or substitute (`//`) an `x` with (indicated by the next `/`) an `*` before returning the value of `$2`. We could have written this in two steps by creating an extra variable:

```
OP=${2//x/*}
ANS=$((ANS OP $1))
```

That extra variable can be helpful as you first begin to use these features of *bash*, but once you are familiar with these common expressions, you'll find yourself putting them all together on one line (even though it'll be harder to read).

Are you wondering why we didn't write `$ANS` and `$OP` in the expression that does the evaluation? We don't have to use the `$` on variable names inside of `$(())` expressions, except for the positional parameters (e.g., `$1`, `$2`). The positional parameters need it to distinguish them from regular numbers (e.g., `1`, `2`).

See Also

- [Chapter 5](#)
- [Recipe 6.1, “Doing Arithmetic in Your Shell Script”](#)
- [Recipe 6.19, “Creating a Command-Line Calculator”](#)

6.19 Creating a Command-Line Calculator

Problem

You need more than just integer arithmetic, and you've never been very fond of RPN notation. How about a different approach to a command-line calculator?

Solution

Create a trivial command-line calculator using *awk*'s built-in floating-point arithmetic expressions, as in [Example 6-9](#).

Example 6-9. ch06/func_calc

```
# cookbook filename: func_calc
# Trivial command-line calculator
function calc {
    # INTEGER ONLY! --> echo The answer is: $(( $* ))
    # Floating point
```

```
awk "BEGIN {print \"The answer is: \" \$* }";  
} # end of calc
```

Discussion

You may be tempted to skip the *awk* command and try `echo The answer is: $$$*$`. This will work fine for integers, but will truncate the results of floating-point operations.

We use a function because aliases (see [Recipe 10.7](#)) do not allow the use of arguments.

You will probably want to add this function to your global */etc/bashrc* or local *~/.bashrc*.

The operators are what you'd expect and are the same as in C:

```
$ calc 2 + 3 + 4  
The answer is: 9
```

```
$ calc 2 + 3 + 4.5  
The answer is: 9.5
```

Watch out for shell metacharacters. For example:

```
$ calc (2+2-3)*4  
-bash: syntax error near unexpected token `2+2-3'
```

You need to escape the special meaning of the parentheses. You can put the expression inside single quotes, or just use a backslash in front of any special (to the shell) character to escape its meaning. For example:

```
$ calc '(2+2-3)*4'  
The answer is: 4
```

```
$ calc \ (2+2-3) \ *4  
The answer is: 4
```

```
$ calc '(2+2-3)*4.5'  
The answer is: 4.5
```

We need to escape the multiplication symbol too, since that has special meaning to *bash* as the wildcard for filenames. This is especially true if you like to put whitespace around your operators, as in `17 + 3 * 21`, because then `*` will match all the files in the current directory, putting their names on the command line in place of the asterisk—definitely not what you want.

See Also

- `man awk`
- “ARITHMETIC EVALUATION” in the *bash(1)* manpage
- Recipe 6.18, “Creating a Simple RPN Calculator”
- Recipe 10.7, “Redefining Commands with alias”
- Recipe 16.8, “Shortening or Changing Command Names”

Intermediate Shell Tools I

It is time to expand our repertoire. This chapter's recipes use some utilities that are not part of the shell, but which are so useful that it is hard to imagine using the shell without them.

One of the overarching philosophies of Unix (and thus Linux) is that of small (i.e., limited in scope) program pieces that can be fit together to provide powerful results. Rather than have one program that does everything, we have many different programs that each do one thing well.

That applies to *bash* as well. While it's getting big and feature-rich, it still doesn't try to do everything, and there are times when it is easier to use other commands to accomplish a task even if *bash* can be stretched to do it.

A simple example of this is the *ls* command. You needn't use *ls* to see the contents of your current directory. You could just type `echo *` to have filenames displayed. Or you could even get fancier, using the *bash printf* command and some formatting, etc. But that's not really the purpose of the shell, and someone has already provided a listing program (*ls*) to deal with all sorts of variations in filesystem information.

Perhaps more importantly, by not expecting *bash* to provide more filesystem listing features, we avoid additional feature creep pressures and instead give it some measure of independence; *ls* can be released with new features without requiring that we all upgrade our *bash* versions.

But enough philosophy—back to the practical.

What we have here are three of the most useful text-related utilities: *grep*, *sed*, and *awk*.

The *grep* program searches for strings, the *sed* program provides a way to edit text as it passes through a pipeline, and *awk*...well, *awk* is its own interesting beast, a precur-

sor to *perl* and a bit of a chameleon—it can look quite different depending on how it is used.

These utilities, and a few more that we will discuss in the next chapter, are very much a part of most shell scripts and most sessions spent typing commands to *bash*. If your shell script requires a list of files on which to operate, it is likely that either *find* or *grep* will be used to supply that list of files, and it's likely that *sed* and/or *awk* will be used to parse the input or format the output at some stage of the shell script.

To say it another way, if our scripting examples are going to tackle real-world problems, they need to use the wider range of tools that are actually used by real-world *bash* users and programmers.

7.1 Sifting Through Files for a String

Problem

You need to find all occurrences of a string in one or more files.

Solution

The *grep* command searches through files looking for the expression you supply:

```
$ grep printf *.c
both.c: printf("Std Out message.\n", argv[0], argc-1);
both.c: fprintf(stderr, "Std Error message.\n", argv[0], argc-1);
good.c: printf("%s: %d args.\n", argv[0], argc-1);
somio.c: // we'll use printf to tell us what we
somio.c: printf("open: fd=%d\n", iod[i]);
$
```

The files we searched through in this example were all in the current directory. We just used the simple shell pattern **.c* to match all the files ending in *.c* with no preceding pathname.

Not all the files through which you want to search may be that conveniently located. Of course, the shell doesn't care how much pathname you type, so we could have done something like this:

```
grep printf ../lib/*.c ../server/*.c ../cmd/*.c */*.c
```

Discussion

When more than one file is searched, *grep* begins its output with the filename, followed by a colon. The text after the colon is what actually appears in the files that *grep* searched.

The search matches any occurrence of the specified characters, so a line that contained the string “fprintf” was returned, since “printf” is contained within “fprintf”.

The first (nonoption) argument to *grep* can be just a simple string, as in this example, or it can be a more complex regular expression (regex). These regexps are not the same as the shell’s pattern matching, though they can look similar at times. Pattern matching is so powerful that you may find yourself relying on it to the point where you’ll start using “grep” as a verb, and wishing you could make use of it everywhere, as in “I wish I could *grep* my desk for that paper you wanted.”

You can vary the output from *grep* using command-line options. If you don’t want to see the specific filenames, you may turn this off using the `-h` option to *grep*:

```
$ grep -h printf *.c
printf("Std Out message.\n", argv[0], argc-1);
fprintf(stderr, "Std Error message.\n", argv[0], argc-1);
printf("%s: %d args.\n", argv[0], argc-1);
// we'll use printf to tell us what we
printf("open: fd=%d\n", iod[i]);
$
```

If you don’t want to see the actual lines from the file, but only a count of the number of times the expression is found, then use the `-c` option:

```
$ grep -c printf *.c
both.c:2
good.c:1
somio.c:2
$
```



A common mistake is to forget to provide *grep* with a source of input—for example, `grep myvar`. In this case *grep* assumes you will provide input from STDIN, but you think it will get it from a file. So it just sits there forever, seemingly doing nothing. (In fact, it is waiting for input from your keyboard.) This is particularly hard to catch when you are grepping a large amount of data and expect it to take a while.

See Also

- `man grep`
- `man regex` (Linux, Solaris, HP-UX) or `man re_format` (BSD, Mac) for the details of your regular expression library
- *Mastering Regular Expressions*, 3rd Edition, by Jeffrey E. F. Friedl (O’Reilly)

- *Classic Shell Scripting* by Nelson H. F. Beebe and Arnold Robbins (O’Reilly), Sections 3.1 and 3.2
- [Chapter 9](#) and the *find* utility, for more far-reaching searches
- [Recipe 9.5, “Finding Files Irrespective of Case”](#)

7.2 Getting Just the Filename from a Search

Problem

You need to find the files in which a certain string appears. You don’t want to see the line of text that was found, just the filenames.

Solution

Use the `-l` option of *grep* to get just the filenames:

```
$ grep -l printf *.c
both.c
good.c
somio.c
$
```

Discussion

If *grep* finds more than one match per file, it still only prints the name once. If *grep* finds no matches, it gives no output.

This option is handy if you want to build a list of files to be operated on, based on the fact that they contain the string that you’re looking for. Put the *grep* command inside `$()` and those filenames can be used on the command line.

For example, to remove the files that contain the phrase “This file is obsolete,” you could use this shell command combination:

```
rm -i $(grep -l 'This file is obsolete' * )
```

We’ve added the `-i` option to *rm* so that it will ask you before it removes each file. That’s obviously a safer way to operate, given the power of this combination of commands.

bash expands the `*` to match every file in the current directory (but does not descend into subdirectories) and passes them as the arguments to *grep*. Then *grep* produces a list of filenames that contain the given string. This list then is handed to the *rm* command to remove each file.

See Also

- `man grep`
- `man rm`
- `man regex` (Linux, Solaris, HP-UX) or `man re_format` (BSD, Mac) for the details of your regular expression library
- *Mastering Regular Expressions*, 3rd Edition, by Jeffrey E. F. Friedl (O’Reilly)
- [Recipe 2.15, “Connecting Two Programs by Using Output as Input”](#)
- [Recipe 9.5, “Finding Files Irrespective of Case”](#)

7.3 Getting a Simple True/False from a Search

Problem

You need to know whether a certain string is in a particular file, and you just want a yes or no sort of answer.

Solution

Use `-q`, the “quiet” option for `grep`. Or, for maximum portability, just throw the output away by redirecting it into `/dev/null`. Either way, your answer is in the `bash` return status variable `?`, so you can use it in an `if` test like this:

```
$ if grep -q findme bigdata.file ; then echo yes ; else echo nope ; fi
nope
$
```

Discussion

In a shell script, you often don’t want the results of the search displayed in the output; you just want to know whether there is a match so that your script can branch accordingly.

As with most Unix/Linux commands, a return value of `0` indicates successful completion. In this case, success is defined as having found the string in at least one of the given files (in this example, we searched in only one file). The return value is stored in the shell variable `?`, which we can then use in an `if` statement.

If we list multiple filenames after `grep -q`, then `grep` stops searching after the very first occurrence of the search string being found. It doesn’t search all the files, as you

really just want to know whether it found any occurrence of the string. If you really need to read through all the files (why?), then rather than use `-q` you can do this:

```
$ if grep findme bigdata.file > /dev/null ; then echo yes ; else echo nope ; fi
nope
$
```

The redirecting to `/dev/null` sends the output to a special kind of device, a *bit bucket*, that just throws away everything you give it.

The `/dev/null` technique is also useful if you want to write shell scripts that are portable across the various flavors of *grep* available on Unix and Linux systems, should you find one that doesn't support the `-q` option.

See Also

- `man grep`
- `man regex` (Linux, Solaris, HP-UX) or `man re_format` (BSD, Mac) for the details of your regular expression library
- *Mastering Regular Expressions*, 3rd Edition, by Jeffrey E. F. Friedl (O'Reilly)
- [Recipe 9.5, "Finding Files Irrespective of Case"](#)

7.4 Searching for Text While Ignoring Case

Problem

You need to search for a string (e.g., "error") in a logfile, and you want to do it case-insensitively to catch all occurrences.

Solution

Use the `-i` option on *grep* to ignore case:

```
grep -i error logfile.msgs
```

Discussion

A case-insensitive search finds messages written "ERROR," "error," and "Error," as well as ones like "ErrOR" and "eRrOr." This option is particularly useful for finding words anywhere that you might have mixed-case text, including words that might be capitalized at the beginning of a sentence or in email addresses.

See Also

- `man grep`
- `man regex` (Linux, Solaris, HP-UX) or `man re_format` (BSD, Mac) for the details of your regular expression library
- *Mastering Regular Expressions*, 3rd Edition, by Jeffrey E. F. Friedl (O’Reilly)
- [Recipe 9.5, “Finding Files Irrespective of Case”](#)

7.5 Doing a Search in a Pipeline

Problem

You need to search for some text, but the text you’re searching for isn’t in a file; instead, it’s in the output of a command or perhaps even the output of a pipeline of commands.

Solution

Just pipe your results into *grep*:

```
some pipeline | of commands | grep
```

Discussion

When no filename is supplied to *grep*, it reads from standard input. Most well-designed utilities meant for shell scripting will do this. It is one of the things that makes them so useful as building blocks for shell scripts.

If you also want to have *grep* search through error messages that come from the previous command, be sure to redirect its error output into standard output before the pipe:

```
gcc bigbadcode.c 2>&1 | grep -i error
```

This command attempts to compile some hypothetical hairy piece of code. We redirect standard error into standard output (`2>&1`) before we proceed to pipe (`|`) the output into *grep*, where it will search case-insensitively (`-i`) looking for the string `error`.

Don’t overlook the possibility of grepping the output of *grep*. Why would you want to do that? To further narrow down the results of a search. Let’s say you wanted to find out Bob Johnson’s email address:

```
$ grep -i johnson mail/*  
... too much output to think about; there are lots of Johnsons in the world ...  
$ !! | grep -i robert
```

```
grep -i johnson mail/* | grep -i robert
... more manageable output ...
$ !! | grep -i "the bluesman"
grep -i johnson mail/* | grep -i robert | grep -i "the bluesman"
Robert M. Johnson, The Bluesman <rmj@noplac.org>
```

You could have retyped the first *grep*, but this example also shows the power of the `!!` history operator (see [Recipe 18.2](#)). The `!!` lets you repeat the previous command without retyping it. You can then continue adding to the command line after the `!!` as we show here. The shell will display the command that it runs, so that you can see what you got as a result of the `!!` substitution.

You can build up a long *grep* pipeline very quickly and simply this way, seeing the results of the intermediate steps as you go and deciding how to refine your search with additional *grep* expressions. You could also accomplish the same task with a single *grep* and a clever regular expression, but we find that building up a pipeline incrementally is easier.

See Also

- `man grep`
- `man regex` (Linux, Solaris, HP-UX) or `man re_format` (BSD, Mac) for the details of your regular expression library
- *Mastering Regular Expressions*, 3rd Edition, by Jeffrey E. F. Friedl (O’Reilly)
- [Recipe 2.15, “Connecting Two Programs by Using Output as Input”](#)
- [Recipe 9.5, “Finding Files Irrespective of Case”](#)
- [Recipe 18.2, “Repeating the Last Command”](#)

7.6 Paring Down What the Search Finds

Problem

Your search is returning way more than you expected, including many results you don’t want.

Solution

Pipe the results into `grep -v` with an expression that describes what you don’t want to see.

Let’s say you were searching for messages in a logfile, and you wanted all the messages from the month of December. You know that your logfile uses the three-letter abbre-

viation Dec for December, but you're not sure if it's always abbreviated, so to be sure to catch all the messages you type:

```
grep -i dec logfile
```

But then you get output like this:

```
...
error on Jan 01: not a decimal number
error on Feb 13: base converted to Decimal
warning on Mar 22: using only decimal numbers
error on Dec 16 : the actual message you wanted
error on Jan 01: not a decimal number
...
```

A quick and dirty solution in this case is to pipe the first result into a second *grep* and tell the second *grep* to ignore any instances of “decimal”:

```
grep -i dec logfile | grep -vi decimal
```

It's not uncommon to string a few of these together (as new, unexpected matches are also discovered) to filter down the search results to what you're really looking for:

```
grep -i dec logfile | grep -vi decimal | grep -vi decimate
```

Discussion

The “dirty” part of this “quick and dirty” solution is that the solution here might also get rid of some of the December log messages, ones that you wanted to keep—if they have the word “decimal” in them, they'll be filtered out by the `grep -v`.

The `-v` option can be handy if used carefully; you just have to keep in mind what it might exclude.

For this particular example, a better solution would be to use a more powerful regular expression to match the December date, one that looked for “Dec” followed by a space and two digits:

```
grep 'Dec [0-9][0-9]' logfile
```

But that often won't work either because *syslog* uses a space to pad single-digit dates. To account for this, we can add a space in the first list:

```
grep 'Dec [0-9 ][0-9]' logfile
```

We used single quotes around the expression because of the embedded spaces, and to avoid any possible shell interpretation of the bracket characters (not that there would be, but just as a matter of habit). It's good to get into the habit of using single quotes around anything that might possibly be confusing to the shell. We could have written:

```
grep Dec\ [0-9\ ][0-9] logfile
```

escaping the spaces with a backslash, but in that form it's harder to see where the search string ends and the filename begins.

See Also

- `man grep`
- `man regex` (Linux, Solaris, HP-UX) or `man re_format` (BSD, Mac) for the details of your regular expression library
- *Mastering Regular Expressions*, 3rd Edition, by Jeffrey E. F. Friedl (O'Reilly)
- [Recipe 9.5, "Finding Files Irrespective of Case"](#)

7.7 Searching with More Complex Patterns

The regular expression mechanism of *grep* provides for some very powerful patterns that can fit most of your needs.

A regular expression describes patterns for matching against strings. Any alphabetic character (or other character without special meaning to the shell) just matches that character in the string. "A" matches A, "B" matches B; no surprise there. The next important rule is to combine letters just by position, so AB matches "A" followed by "B". This, too, seems obvious. But regular expressions define other special characters that can be used by themselves or in combination with other characters to make more complex patterns.

The first special character is the period (`.`), which matches any single character. Therefore, `....` matches any four characters; `A.` matches an "A" followed by any character; and `.A.` matches any character, then an "A", then any character (not necessarily the same character as the first).

An asterisk (`*`) matches zero or more occurrences of the previous character, so `A*` matches zero or more "A" characters, and `.*` matches zero or more characters of any sort (such as "abcdefg", "aaaabc", "sdgf;ljkjh"), or even an empty line).

So what does `.*` mean? It matches any single character followed by zero or more of any character (i.e., one or more characters, but not an empty line).

Speaking of lines, the caret `^` matches the beginning of a line of text and the dollar sign `$` matches the end of a line; hence, `^$` matches an empty line (the beginning followed by the end, with nothing in between).

What if you want to match an actual period, caret, dollar sign, or any other special character? Precede it by a backslash (`\`). `ion.` matches the letters "ion" followed by

any other letter, but `ion\.` matches “ion” bounded by a period (e.g., at the end of a sentence or wherever else it appears with a trailing dot).

A set of characters enclosed in square brackets (e.g., `[abc]`) matches any one of those characters (e.g., “a” or “b” or “c”). If the first character inside the square brackets is a caret, then it matches any character that is *not* in that set.

For example, `[AaEeIiOoUu]` matches any of the vowels, and `[^AaEeIiOoUu]` matches any character that is not a vowel. This last case is not the same as saying that it matches consonants, because `[^AaEeIiOoUu]` also matches punctuation and other special characters that are neither vowels nor consonants.

Another mechanism we want to introduce is a repetition mechanism called an “interval expression,” written as `\{n,m\}`, where n is the minimum number of repetitions and m is the maximum. If it is written as `\{n\}` it means “exactly n times,” and when written as `\{n,\}` it means “at least n times.”

For example, the regular expression `A\{5\}` matches exactly five “A” characters in a row, whereas `A\{5,\}` matches five or more “A” characters.

See Also

- `man grep`
- [Recipe 7.8, “Searching for an SSN”](#)

7.8 Searching for an SSN

Problem

You need a regular expression to match a Social Security number.

Solution

In the US these numbers are nine digits long, typically grouped as three digits, then two digits, then a final four digits (e.g., 123-45-6789). Sometimes they are written without hyphens, so you need to make hyphens optional in the regular expression:

```
grep '[0-9]\{3\}-\{0,1\}[0-9]\{2\}-\{0,1\}[0-9]\{4\}' datafile
```

You should be able to adapt this to other countries as needed, or consult one of the books we reference at the end of this recipe.

Discussion

These kinds of regular expressions are often jokingly referred to as *write-only* expressions, meaning that they can be difficult or impossible to read. We'll take this one apart to help you understand it. In general, though, in any *bash* script that you write using regular expressions, be sure to put comments nearby explaining what you intend the regular expression to match.

Adding some spaces to the regular expression would improve its readability, making visual comprehension easier, but it would also change the meaning—it would say that we'd need to match space characters at those points in the expression. Ignoring that for the moment, let's insert some spaces into the previous regular expression so that we can read it more easily:

```
[0-9]\{3\} -\{0,1\} [0-9]\{2\} -\{0,1\} [0-9]\{4\}
```

The first grouping says “any digit” then “exactly 3 times.” The next grouping says “a dash” then “0 or 1 time.” The third grouping says “any digit” then “exactly 2 times.” The next grouping says “a dash” then “0 or 1 time.” The last grouping says “any digit” then “exactly 4 times.”

See Also

- `man regex` (Linux, Solaris, HP-UX) or `man re_format` (BSD, Mac) for the details of your regular expression library
- *Classic Shell Scripting* by Nelson H. F. Beebe and Arnold Robbins (O'Reilly), Section 3.2, for more about regular expressions and the tools that use them
- *Mastering Regular Expressions*, 3rd Edition, by Jeffrey E. F. Friedl (O'Reilly)
- *Regular Expressions Cookbook*, 2nd Edition, by Jan Goyvaerts and Steven Levithan (O'Reilly)
- [Recipe 9.5, “Finding Files Irrespective of Case”](#)

7.9 Grepping Compressed Files

Problem

You need to *grep* some compressed files. Do you have to uncompress them first?

Solution

Not if you have *zgrep*, *zcat*, or *gzcat* on your system.

zgrep is simply a *grep* that understands various compressed and uncompressed file types (which types are understood varies from system to system). You will commonly run into this when searching *syslog* messages on Linux, since the log rotation facilities leave the current logfile uncompressed (so it can be in use), but *gzip* archival logs:

```
zgrep 'search term' /var/log/messages*
```

zcat is simply a *cat* that understands various compressed and uncompressed *files* (which types are understood varies from system to system). It might understand more formats than *zgrep*, and it might be installed on more systems by default. It is also used in recovering damaged compressed files, since it will simply output everything it possibly can, instead of erroring out as *gunzip* or other tools might:

```
zcat /var/log/messages.1.gz
```

gzcat is similar to *zcat*, the differences having to do with commercial versus free Unix variants, and backward compatibility.

Discussion

The *less* utility may also be configured to transparently display various compressed files, which is very handy. See [Recipe 8.15](#).

See Also

- [Recipe 8.6, “Compressing Files”](#)
- [Recipe 8.7, “Uncompressing Files”](#)
- [Recipe 8.15, “Doing More with less”](#)

7.10 Keeping Some Output, Discarding the Rest

Problem

You need a way to keep some of your output and discard the rest.

Solution

The following code prints the first word of every line of input:

```
awk '{print $1}' myinput.file
```

Words are delineated by whitespace. The *awk* utility reads data from the filename supplied on the command line, or from standard input if no filename is given. Therefore, you can redirect the input from a file, like this:

```
awk '{print $1}' < myinput.file
```

or even from a pipe, like this:

```
cat myinput.file | awk '{print $1}'
```

Discussion

The *awk* program can be used in several different ways. Its easiest, simplest use is just to print one or more selected fields from its input.

Fields are delineated by whitespace (or specified with the `-F` option) and are numbered starting at 1. The field `$0` represents the entire line of input.

awk is a complete programming language; *awk* scripts can become extremely complex. This is only the beginning.

See Also

- [Recipe 8.4, “Cutting Out Parts of Your Output”](#)
- [Recipe 13.13, “Isolating Specific Fields in Data”](#)
- `man awk`
- <http://www.faqs.org/faqs/computer-lang/awk/faq/>
- *Effective awk Programming*, 4th Edition, by Arnold Robbins (O’Reilly)
- *sed & awk*, 2nd Edition, by Arnold Robbins and Dale Dougherty (O’Reilly)

7.11 Keeping Only a Portion of a Line of Output

Problem

You want to keep only a portion of a line of output, such as just the first and last words. For example, you would like *ls* to list just filenames and permissions, without all of the other information provided by `ls -l`. However, you can’t find any options to *ls* that would limit the output in that way.

Solution

Pipe *ls* into *awk*, and just pull out the fields that you need:

```
$ ls -l | awk '{print $1, $NF}'
total 151130
-rw-r--r-- add.1
drwxr-xr-x art
drwxr-xr-x bin
-rw-r--r-- BuddyIcon.png
```

```
drwxr-xr-x CDs
drwxr-xr-x downloads
drwxr-sr-x eclipse
...
$
```

Discussion

Consider the output from the `ls -l` command. One line of it looks like this:

```
drwxr-xr-x 2 username group      176 2006-10-28 20:09 bin
```

so it is convenient for *awk* to parse (by default, whitespace delineates fields in *awk*). The output from `ls -l` has the permissions as the first field and the filename as the last field.

We use a bit of a trick to print the filename. Since the various fields are referenced in *awk* using a dollar sign followed by the field number (e.g., \$1, \$2, \$3), and since *awk* has a built-in variable called `NF` that holds the number of fields found on the current line, `$NF` always refers to the last field. (For example, the *ls* output line has eight fields, so the variable `NF` contains 8, so `$NF` refers to the eighth field of the input line, which in our example is the filename.)

Just remember that you don't use a `$` to read the value of an *awk* variable (unlike *bash* variables). `NF` is a valid variable reference by itself. Adding a `$` before it changes its meaning from “the number of fields on the current line” to “the last field on the current line.”

See Also

- `man awk`
- <http://www.faqs.org/faqs/computer-lang/awk/faq/>
- *Effective awk Programming*, 4th Edition, by Arnold Robbins (O'Reilly)
- *sed & awk*, 2nd Edition, by Arnold Robbins and Dale Dougherty (O'Reilly)

7.12 Reversing the Words on Each Line

Problem

You want to print the input lines with words in the reverse order.

Solution

```
$ awk '{
>   for (i=NF; i>=0; i--) {
```

```
>     printf "%s ", $i;
>   }
>   printf "\n"
> }' <filename>
```

You don't type the > characters; the shell will print those as a prompt to say that you haven't ended your command yet (it is looking for the matching single-quote mark). Because the *awk* program is enclosed in single quotes, the *bash* shell lets us type multiple lines, prompting us with the secondary prompt > until we supply the matching end quote. We spaced out the program for readability, even though we could have stuffed it all onto one line like this:

```
$ awk '{for (i=NF; i>=0; i--) {printf "%s ", $i;} printf "\n" }'<filename>
```

Discussion

The *awk* language has syntax for a for loop, very much like C. It even supports a *printf* mechanism for formatted output, again modeled after the C version (the *bash* version, too). We use the for loop to count down from the last to the first field, and print each field as we go. We deliberately don't put a \n on that first *printf* because we want to keep the several fields on the same line of output. When the loop is done, we add a newline to terminate the line of output.

The reference to \$i is very different in *awk* compared to *bash*. In *bash*, when we write \$i we are getting at the value stored in the variable named i. But in *awk*, as with most programming languages, we simply reference the value in i by naming it—that is, by just writing i. So what is meant by \$i in *awk*? The value of the variable i is resolved to a number, and then the dollar-number expression is understood as a reference to a field (or word) of input—that is, the ith field. So as i counts down from the last field to the first, this loop will print the fields in that reversed order.

See Also

- `man printf(1)`
- `man awk`
- <http://www.faqs.org/faqs/computer-lang/awk/faq/>
- *Effective awk Programming* by Arnold Robbins (O'Reilly)
- *sed & awk* by Arnold Robbins and Dale Dougherty (O'Reilly)
- “printf” on page 604 in Appendix A

7.13 Summing a List of Numbers

Problem

You need to sum a list of numbers, including numbers that don't appear on lines by themselves.

Solution

Use *awk* both to isolate the field to be summed and to do the summing. Here we'll sum up the numbers that are the file sizes from the output of an `ls -l` command:

```
ls -l | awk '{sum += $5}; END {print sum}'
```

Discussion

We are summing up the fifth field of the `ls -l` output. The output of `ls -l` looks like this:

```
-rw-r--r-- 1 albing users 267 2005-09-26 21:26 lilmax
```

The fields are: permissions, links, owner, group, size (in bytes), last modification date, time of modification, and filename. We're only interested in the size, so we use `$5` in our *awk* program to reference that field.

We enclose the two bodies of our *awk* program in braces (`{}`); note that there can be more than one body (or block) of code in an *awk* program. A block of code preceded by the literal keyword `END` is only run once, when the rest of the program has finished. Similarly, you can prefix a block of code with `BEGIN` and supply some code that will be run before any input is read. The `BEGIN` block is useful for initializing variables, and we could have used one here to initialize `sum`, but *awk* guarantees that variables will start out empty.

If you look at the output of an `ls -l` command, you will notice that the first line is a total, and doesn't fit our expected format for the other lines.

We have two choices for dealing with that. First, we can pretend it's not there, which is the approach taken in the preceding solution. Since that undesired line doesn't have a fifth field, our reference to `$5` will be empty, and our sum won't change.

The more conscientious approach would be to eliminate that line. We could do so before we give the output to *awk* by using *grep*:

```
ls -l | grep -v '^total' | awk '{sum += $5}; END {print sum}'
```

or we could do a similar thing within *awk*:

```
ls -l | awk '/^total/{next} {sum += $5}; END {print sum}'
```

The `^total` is a regular expression (regex); it means “the letters t-o-t-a-l occurring at the beginning of a line” (the leading `^` anchors the search to the beginning of a line). For any line of input matching that regex, the associated block of code will be executed. The second block of code (the `sum`) has no leading text, the absence of which tells `awk` to execute it for every line of input (meaning this will happen regardless of whether the line matches the regex).

Now, the whole point of adding the special case for “total” was to exclude such a line from our summing. Therefore, in the `^total` block we add a `next` command, which ends processing on this line of input and starts over with the next line of input. Since that next line of input will not begin with “total”, `awk` will execute the second block of code with this new line of input. We could also have used a `getline` in place of the `next` command. `getline` does not rematch all the patterns from the top, only the ones from there on down. Note that in `awk` programming, the order of the blocks of code matters.

See Also

- `man awk`
- <http://www.faqs.org/faqs/computer-lang/awk/faq/>
- *Effective awk Programming*, 4th Edition, by Arnold Robbins (O’Reilly)
- *sed & awk*, 2nd Edition, by Arnold Robbins and Dale Dougherty (O’Reilly)

7.14 Counting String Values with `awk`

Problem

You need to count all the occurrences of several different strings, including some strings whose values you don’t know beforehand. That is, you’re not trying to count the occurrences of a predetermined set of strings. Rather, you are going to encounter some strings in your data and you want to count these as-yet-unknown strings.

Solution

Use `awk`’s associative arrays (also known as *hashes* or *dictionaries* in other languages) for your counting.

For our example, we’ll count how many files are owned by various users on our system. The username shows up as the third field in `ls -l` output, so we’ll use that field

(`$3`) as the index of the array and increment that member of the array (see [Example 7-1](#)).

Example 7-1. ch07/asar.awk

```
#!/usr/bin/awk -f
# cookbook filename: asar.awk
# Associative arrays in Awk
# Usage: ls -lR /usr/local | asar.awk

NF > 7 {
    user[$3]++
}
END {
    for (i in user) {
        printf "%s owns %d files\n", i, user[i]
    }
}
```

We invoke *awk* a bit differently here. Because this *awk* script is a bit more complex, we've put it in a separate file. We use the `-f` option to tell *awk* where to get the script file just for fun, but we could have used a `#!/usr/bin/awk shebang` line in the script itself too:

```
$ ls -lR /usr/local | awk -f asar.awk
bin owns 68 files
albing owns 1801 files
root owns 13755 files
man owns 11491 files
$
```

Discussion

We use the condition `NF > 7` as a qualifier to part of the *awk* script to weed out the lines that do not contain filenames, which appear in the `ls -lR` output and are useful for readability—they include blank lines to separate different directories as well as total counts for each subdirectory. Such lines don't have as many fields (or words). The expression `NF > 7` that precedes the opening brace is not enclosed in slashes, which is to say that it is not a regular expression. It's a logical expression, much like you would use in an `if` statement, and it evaluates to true or false. The `NF` variable is a special built-in variable that refers to the number of fields for the current line of input. So, only if a line of input has more than seven fields (words of text) will it be processed by the statements within the braces.

The key line, however, is this one:

```
user[$3]++
```

Here, the username (e.g., *bin*) is used as the index to the array. It's called an *associative array* because a hash table (or similar mechanism) is being used to associate each unique string with a numerical value. *awk* is doing all that work for you behind the scenes; you don't have to write any string comparisons or lookups and such.

Once you've built such an array, it might seem difficult to get the values back out. For this, *awk* has a special form of the for loop. Instead of the numeric `for(i=0; i<max; i++)` that *awk* also supports, there is a particular syntax for associative arrays:

```
for (i in user)
```

In this expression, the variable `i` will take on successive values (in no particular order) from the various values used as indexes to the array `user`. In our example, this means that `i` will take on the values (`bin`, `albing`, `root`, and `man`), one in each iteration of the loop. If you haven't seen associative arrays before, then we hope that you're surprised and impressed. This is a very powerful feature of *awk* (and Perl).

See Also

- `man awk`
- <http://www.faqs.org/faqs/computer-lang/awk/faq/>
- *Effective awk Programming*, 4th Edition, by Arnold Robbins (O'Reilly)
- *sed & awk*, 2nd Edition, by Arnold Robbins and Dale Dougherty (O'Reilly)
- [Recipe 7.15, "Counting String Values with bash"](#)

7.15 Counting String Values with bash

Problem

You need to count all the occurrences of several different strings, including some strings whose values you don't know beforehand. That is, you're not trying to count the occurrences of a predetermined set of strings. Rather, you are going to encounter some strings in your data and you want to count these as-yet-unknown strings.

Solution

If you are using version 4.0 or newer, use *bash*'s associative arrays (also known as *hashes* or *dictionaries* in other languages) for your counting.

For our example, we'll count how many files are owned by various users on our system. The username shows up as the third field in `ls -l` output, so we'll use that value (`$3`) as the index of the array, and increment that member of the array:

Example 7-2. `ch07/cnt_owner.sh`

```
## cookbook filename: cnt_owner
# count owners of a file using bash
# pipe "ls -l" into this script

declare -A AACOUNT
while read -a LSL
do
    # only consider lines that are 7 words or longer
    if (( ${#LSL[*]} > 7 ))    # the size of the array
    then
        NDX=${LSL[3]}        # string assign
        (( AACOUNT[${NDX}] += 1 ))    # math increment
    fi
done

for VALS in "${!AACOUNT[@]}"    # index of each element
do
    echo $VALS "owns" ${AACOUNT[$VALS]} "files"
done
```

We can invoke the program as follows with the results as shown:

```
$ ls -lR /usr/local | bash cnt_owner.sh
bin owns 68 files
root owns 13755 files
man owns 11491 files
albing owns 1801 files
$
```

Discussion

The `read -a LSL` reads a line at a time, and each word (delineated by whitespace) is assigned to an entry in the array `LSL`. We check to see how many words were read by checking the size of the array to weed out the lines that do not contain filenames. Such lines are part of the `ls -lR` output and are usually useful for readability because they include blank lines to separate different directories as well as total counts for each subdirectory. They don't have useful information for our script, but fortunately such lines don't have as many fields (or words) as the lines we want.

Only for lines with at least seven words do we take the third word, which should be the owner of the file, and use that as an index to our associative array. With standard arrays, such as `LSL`, each element is referred to by its index and that index is an integer. With an associative array, however, the index can be a string.

To print out the results we need to loop over the list of index values that were used with this array. The construct `"${AACOUNT[@]}"` would generate a list of all the values

in the array, but add the “bang”—“\${!AACCOUNT[@]}”—and you get a list of all the index values used with this array.

Note that the output is in no particular order (it’s related to the internals of the hashing algorithm). If you want it sorted by name or by number of files, then pipe this result into the *sort* command.

See Also

- [Recipe 7.14, “Counting String Values with awk”](#)
- [Recipe 7.16, “Showing Data as a Quick and Easy Histogram”](#)

7.16 Showing Data as a Quick and Easy Histogram

Problem

You need a quick screen-based histogram of some data.

Solution

Use the associative arrays of *awk*, as discussed in [Recipe 7.14](#) (see [Example 7-3](#)).

Example 7-3. ch07/hist.awk

```
#!/usr/bin/awk -f
# cookbook filename: hist.awk
# Histograms in Awk
# Usage: ls -lR /usr/local | hist.awk

function max(arr, big)
{
    big = 0;
    for (i in user)
    {
        if (user[i] > big) { big=user[i];}
    }
    return big
}

NF > 7 {
    user[$3]++
}
END {
    # for scaling
    maxn = max(user);
    for (i in user) {
        printf "%s owns %d files\n", i, user[i]
    }
}
```

```

scaled = 60 * user[i] / maxm ;
printf "%-10.10s [%8d]:", i, user[i]
for (i=0; i<scaled; i++) {
    printf "#";
}
printf "\n";
}
}

```

When we run it with the same input as [Recipe 7.14](#), we get:

```

$ ls -lR /usr/local | awk -f hist.awk
bin      [      68]:#
albing   [   1801]:#####
root     [  13755]:#####
man      [  11491]:#####
$

```

Discussion

We could have put the code for `max` as the first code inside the `END` block, but we wanted to show you that you can define functions in `awk`. We are using a fancier `printf` statement here. The string format `%-10.10s` will left-justify and pad to 10 characters but also truncate at 10 characters. The integer format `%8d` will assure that the integer is printed in an 8-character field. This gives each histogram the same starting point, by using the same amount of space regardless of the username or the size of the integer.

Like all arithmetic in `awk`, the scaling calculation is done with floating-point numbers unless we explicitly truncate the result with a call to the built-in `int()` function. We don't do so, which means that the `for` loop will execute at least once, so that even the smallest amount of data will still display a single hash mark.

The data returned from the `for (i in user+)` loop is in no particular order, probably based on some convenient ordering of the underlying hash table. If you wanted the histogram displayed in a sorted order, either numeric by count or alphabetical by username, you would have to add some sorting. One way to do this is to break this program apart into two pieces, sending the output from the first part into the `sort` command and then piping that output into the second piece to print the histogram.

See Also

- `man awk`
- <http://www.faqs.org/faqs/computer-lang/awk/faq/>
- *Effective awk Programming*, 4th Edition, by Arnold Robbins (O'Reilly)

- *sed* & *awk*, 2nd Edition, by Arnold Robbins and Dale Dougherty (O'Reilly)
- [Recipe 7.14](#), “Counting String Values with *awk*”
- [Recipe 7.17](#), “An Easy Histogram with *bash*”
- [Recipe 8.1](#), “Sorting Your Output”

7.17 An Easy Histogram with *bash*

Problem

You'd like to use *bash* rather than an external program to compute and draw your histogram. Is that possible?

Solution

Yes, thanks to associative arrays. They are available in versions of *bash* from 4.0 onward. Based on the code for counting strings ([Recipe 7.15](#)), the difference is only in the output section. First we make a pass over the values to find the largest value, so that we can scale our output to fit on the page:

```
BIG=0
for VALS in "${!UCOUNT[@]}"
do
    if (( UCOUNT[$VALS] > BIG )) ; then BIG=${UCOUNT[$VALS]} ; fi
done
```

With a maximum value (in *BIG*), we output a line for each entry in the array:

```
#
# print the histogram
#
for VALS in "${!UCOUNT[@]}"
do
    printf "%-9.9s [%7d]:" $VALS ${UCOUNT[$VALS]}
    # scale to the max value (BIG); N.B. integer /
    SCALED=$(( ( 59 * UCOUNT[$VALS] ) / BIG ) + 1 ))
    for ((i=0; i<SCALED; i++)) {
        printf "#"
    }
    printf "\n"
done
```

Discussion

As in [Recipe 7.15](#), the construct "\${!UCOUNT[@]}" is crucial. It evaluates to a list of index values used on the array (in this case, the array *UCOUNT*). The for loop takes

each value one at a time and uses it as the index into the array to get the count for that user.

We scale it to 59 spaces and then add 1 so that any nonzero value will have at least one mark on the histogram. This isn't a problem in the *awk* version ([Recipe 7.16](#)) because *awk* uses floating-point math, but the *bash* version uses integer math so anything too small may end up as 0 after the division.

See Also

- [Recipe 7.15, “Counting String Values with bash”](#)
- [Recipe 7.16, “Showing Data as a Quick and Easy Histogram”](#)

7.18 Showing a Paragraph of Text After a Found Phrase

Problem

You are searching for a phrase in a document, and want to show the paragraph after the found phrase.

Solution

We're assuming a simple text file, where *paragraph* means all the text between blank lines, so the occurrence of a blank line implies a paragraph break. Given that, it's a pretty short *awk* program:

```
$ cat para.awk
/keyphrase/ { flag=1 }
flag == 1 { print }
/^\$/ { flag=0 }

$ awk -f para.awk < searchthis.txt
```

Discussion

There are just three simple code blocks. The first is invoked when a line of input matches the regular expression (here just the word “keyphrase”). If “keyphrase” occurs anywhere within a line of input, that is a match and this block of code will be executed. All that happens in this block is that the flag is set.

The second code block is invoked for every line of input, since there is no regular expression preceding its open brace. Even the input that matches “keyphrase” will also be applied to this code block (if we didn't want that effect, we could use a next

statement in the first block). All this second block does is print the entire input line, but only if the flag is set.

The third block has a regular expression that, if satisfied, will simply reset (turn off) the flag. That regular expression uses two characters with special meaning: the caret (^), when used as the first character of a regular expression, matches the beginning of the line; the dollar sign (\$), when used as the last character, matches the end of the line. So, the regular expression `^$` matches an empty line, with no characters between the beginning and end of the line.

We could have used a slightly more complicated regular expression for an empty line to let it handle any line with just whitespace rather than a completely blank line. That would make the third line look like this:

```
/^[[:blank:]]*$/ { flag=0 }
```

Perl programmers love the sort of problem and solution discussed in this recipe, but we've implemented it with *awk* because Perl is (mostly) beyond the scope of this book. If you know Perl, by all means use it. If not, *awk* might be all you need.

See Also

- `man awk`
- <http://www.faqs.org/faqs/computer-lang/awk/faq/>
- *Effective awk Programming*, 4th Edition, by Arnold Robbins (O'Reilly)
- *sed & awk*, 2nd Edition, by Arnold Robbins and Dale Dougherty (O'Reilly)

Intermediate Shell Tools II

This chapter introduces some more useful utilities that are not part of the shell but are used in so many shell scripts that you really should know about them.

Sorting is such a common task, and so useful for readability reasons, that it's good to know about the *sort* command. In a similar vein, the *tr* command will translate or map from one character to another, or even just delete characters.

One common thread here is that these utilities are written not just as standalone commands, but also as *filters* that can be included in a pipeline of commands. These sorts of commands will typically take one to many filenames as parameters (or arguments), but in the absence of any filenames they will read from standard input. They also write to standard output. That combination makes it easy to connect to the commands with pipes, as in *something | sort | even more*.

This makes them especially useful, and avoids the clutter and confusion of a myriad of temporary files.

8.1 Sorting Your Output

Problem

You would like output in a sorted order, but you don't want to write (yet again) a custom sort function for your program or shell script. Hasn't this been done already?

Solution

Use the *sort* utility. You can sort one or more files by putting the filenames on the command line:

```
sort file1.txt file2.txt myotherfile.xyz
```

With no filenames on the command line, *sort* will read from standard input, so you can pipe the output from a previous command into *sort*:

```
somecommands | sort
```

Discussion

It can be handy to have your output in sorted order, and handier still not to have to add sorting code to every program you write. The shell's piping allows you to hook up *sort* to any program's standard output.

There are many options to *sort*, but two of the three most worth remembering are:

```
sort -r
```

to reverse the order of the sort (where, to borrow a phrase, the last shall be first and the first, last) and:

```
sort -f
```

to “fold” lower- and uppercase characters together; i.e., to ignore the case differences. This can be done either with the `-f` option or with a GNU long-format option:

```
sort --ignore-case
```

We decided to keep you in suspense, so see [Recipe 8.2](#) for the third-coolest *sort* option.

See Also

- `man sort`
- [Recipe 8.2, “Sorting Numbers”](#)

8.2 Sorting Numbers

Problem

When sorting numeric data, you notice that the order doesn't seem right:

```
$ sort somedata
2
200
21
250
$
```

Solution

You need to tell *sort* that the data should be sorted as numbers. Specify a numeric sort with the `-n` option:

```
$ sort -n somedata
2
21
200
250
$
```

Discussion

There is nothing wrong with the original (if odd) sort order if you realize that it is an alphabetic sort on the data (i.e., 21 comes after 200 because 1 comes after 0 in an alphabetic sort). Of course, what you probably want is numeric ordering, so you need to use the `-n` option.

`sort -rn` can be very handy in giving you a descending frequency list of something when combined with `uniq -c`. For example, let's display the most popular shells on this system:

```
$ cut -d':' -f7 /etc/passwd | sort | uniq -c | sort -rn
 20 /bin/sh
 10 /bin/false
   2 /bin/bash
   1 /bin/sync
$
```

`cut -d':' -f7 /etc/passwd` isolates the shell from the `/etc/passwd` file. Then we have to do an initial sort so that *uniq* will work. `uniq -c` counts consecutive, duplicate lines, which is why we need the presort. Then `sort -rn` gives us a reverse numerical sort, with the most popular shell at the top.

If you don't need to count the occurrences and just want a unique list of values—i.e., if you want *sort* to remove duplicates—then you can use the `-u` option on the *sort* command (and omit the *uniq* command). So, to find just the list of different shells on this system:

```
cut -d':' -f7 /etc/passwd | sort -u
```

See Also

- `man sort`
- `man uniq`
- `man cut`

8.3 Sorting IP Addresses

Problem

You want to sort a list of numeric IP address, but you'd like to sort by the last portion of the number or by the entire address logically.

Solution

To sort by the last octet only (old syntax):

```
$ sort -t. -n +3.0 ipaddr.list
10.0.0.2
192.168.0.2
192.168.0.4
10.0.0.5
192.168.0.12
10.0.0.20
$
```

To sort the entire address as you would expect (POSIX syntax):

```
$ sort -t . -k 1,1n -k 2,2n -k 3,3n -k 4,4n ipaddr.list
10.0.0.2
10.0.0.5
10.0.0.20
192.168.0.2
192.168.0.4
192.168.0.12
$
```

Discussion

We know this is numeric data, so we use the `-n` option. The `-t` option indicates the character to use as a separator between fields (in our case, a period) so that we can also specify which fields to sort first. In the first example, we start sorting with the third field (zero-based) from the left, and the very first character (again, zero-based) of that field, so `+3.0`.

In the second example, we used the new POSIX specification instead of the traditional (but obsolete) `+pos1 -pos2` method. Unlike the older method, it is not zero-based, so fields start at 1:

```
sort -t . -k 1,1n -k 2,2n -k 3,3n -k 4,4n ipaddr.list
```

Wow, that's ugly. Here it is in the old format, which is just as bad:

```
sort -t. +0n -1 +1n -2 +2n -3 +3n -4
```

Using `-t.` to define the field delimiter is the same, but the sort-key fields are given quite differently. In this case, `-k 1,1n` means “start sorting at the beginning of field one (1) and (,) stop sorting at the end of field one (1) and do a numerical sort (n). Once you get that, the rest is easy. When using more than one field, it’s very important to tell *sort* where to stop. The default is to go to the end of the line, which is often not what you want and which will really confuse you if you don’t understand what it’s doing.



The order that *sort* uses is affected by your locale setting. If your results are not as expected, that’s one thing to check.

Your sort order will vary from system to system depending on whether your *sort* command defaults to using a *stable* sort. A stable sort preserves the original order in the sorted data when the sort fields are equal. Linux and Solaris do not default to a stable sort, but NetBSD does. And while `-S` turns off the stable sort on NetBSD, it sets the buffer size in other versions of *sort*.

Say we have a trivial file like:

```
10.0.0.5      # mainframe
192.168.0.12 # speedy
10.0.0.20    # lanyard
192.168.0.4  # office
10.0.0.2     # sluggish
192.168.0.2  # laptop
```

If we run this *sort* command on a Linux or Solaris system:

```
sort -t. -k4n ipaddr.list
```

or this command on a NetBSD system:

```
sort -t. -S -k4n ipaddr.list
```

we will get the data sorted as shown in the first column of [Table 8-1](#). Remove the `-S` on a NetBSD system, and *sort* will produce the ordering as shown in the second column.

Table 8-1. Sort ordering comparison of Linux, Solaris, and NetBSD

Linux and Solaris (default) and NetBSD (with -S)		NetBSD stable (default) sort ordering	
10.0.0.2	# sluggish	192.168.0.2	# laptop
192.168.0.2	# laptop	10.0.0.2	# sluggish

Linux and Solaris (default) and NetBSD (with -S)		NetBSD stable (default) sort ordering	
10.0.0.4	# mainframe	192.168.0.4	# office
192.168.0.4	# office	10.0.0.4	# mainframe
192.168.0.12	# speedy	192.168.0.12	# speedy
10.0.0.20	# lanyard	10.0.0.20	# lanyard

If our input file, *ipaddr.list*, had all the 192.168 addresses first, followed by all the 10. addresses, then the stable sort would leave the 192.168 address first when there is a tie—that is, when two elements in our sort have the same value. We can see in [Table 8-1](#) that this situation exists for `laptop` and `sluggish`, since each has a 2 as its fourth field, and also for `mainframe` and `office`, which tie with 4. In the default Linux sort (and NetBSD with the `-S` option specified), the order is not guaranteed.

To get back to something easy, and just for practice, let's sort by the text in our IP address list. This time we want our separator to be the `#` character and we want an alphabetic sort on the second field, so we get:

```
$ sort -t'#' -k2 ipaddr.list
10.0.0.20    # lanyard
192.168.0.2 # laptop
10.0.0.5    # mainframe
192.168.0.4 # office
10.0.0.2    # sluggish
192.168.0.12 # speedy
$
```

The sorting will start with the second key and, in this case, go through the end of the line. With just the one separator (`#`) per line, we didn't need to specify the ending, though we could have written `-k2,2`.

See Also

- `man sort`
- `./functions/inetaddr`, as provided in the *bash* tarball ([Appendix B](#))

8.4 Cutting Out Parts of Your Output

Problem

You need to look at only part of your fixed-width or column-based data. You'd like to take a subset of it, based on the column position.

Solution

Use the *cut* command with the *-c* option to take particular columns:¹

```
$ ps -l | cut -c12-15
PID
5391
7285
7286
$
```

or:

```
$ ps -elf | cut -c58-
(output not shown)
$
```

Discussion

With the *cut* command we specify what portion of the lines we want to keep. In the first example, we are keeping columns 12 (starting at column 1) through 15, inclusive. In the second case, we specify starting at column 58 but don't specify the end of the range so that *cut* will take from column 58 on through the end of the line.

Most of the data manipulation we've looked at has been based on *fields*, relative positions separated by characters called *delimiters*. The *cut* command can do that too, but it is one of the few utilities that you'll use with *bash* that can also easily deal with fixed-width, columnar data (via the *-c* option).

Using *cut* to print out fields rather than columns is possible, though it's more limited than other choices such as *awk*. The default delimiter between fields is the tab character, but you can specify a different delimiter with the *-d* option. Here is an example of a *cut* command using fields:

```
cut -d'#' -f2 < ipaddr.list
```

and an equivalent *awk* command:

```
awk -F'#' '{print $2}' < ipaddr.list
```

You can even use *cut* to handle nonmatching delimiters by using more than one *cut*. You may be better off using a regular expression with *awk* for this, but sometimes a couple of quick and dirty *cut* commands are faster to figure out and type.

Here is how you can get the field out from between square brackets. Note that the first *cut* uses a delimiter of open square bracket (*-d '['*) and field 2 (*-f2*, starting at

¹ Note that our example *ps* command only works with certain systems; e.g., CentOS-4, Fedora Core 5, and Ubuntu work, but Red Hat 8, NetBSD, Solaris, and macOS all garble the output due to using different columns.

1). Because the first *cut* has already removed part of the line, the second *cut* uses a delimiter of closed square bracket (`-d ']'`) and field 1 (`-f1`):

```
$ cat delimited_data
Line [l1].
Line [l2].
Line [l3].

$ cut -d '[' -f2 delimited_data | cut -d ']' -f1
l1
l2
l3
$
```

See Also

- `man cut`
- `man awk`

8.5 Removing Duplicate Lines

Problem

After selecting and/or sorting some data, you notice that there are many duplicate lines in your results. You'd like to get rid of the duplicates, so that you can see just the unique values.

Solution

You have two choices available to you. If you've just been sorting your output, add the `-u` option to the *sort* command:

```
somesequence | sort -u
```

If you aren't running *sort*, just pipe the output into *uniq*—provided, that is, that the output is sorted, so that identical lines are adjacent:

```
somesequence | uniq > myfile
```

Discussion

Since *uniq* requires the data to be sorted already, we're more likely to just add the `-u` option to *sort* unless we also need to count the number of duplicates (`-c`, see [Recipe 8.2](#)) or see only the duplicates (`-d`), which *uniq* can do.



Don't accidentally overwrite a valuable file by mistake; the *uniq* command is a bit odd in its parameters. Whereas most Unix/Linux commands take multiple input files on the command line, *uniq* does not. In fact, the first (nonoption) argument is taken to be the (one and only) input file and any second argument, if supplied, is taken as the *output* file. So if you supply two filenames on the command line, the second one will get clobbered without warning.

See Also

- `man sort`
- `man uniq`
- [Recipe 8.2, “Sorting Numbers”](#)

8.6 Compressing Files

Problem

You need to compress some files and aren't sure of the best way to do it.

Solution

First, you need to understand that in traditional Unix, archiving (or combining) and compressing files are two different operations using two different tools, while in the DOS and Windows world it's typically one operation with one tool. A “tarball” is created by combining several files and/or directories using the *tar* (tape archive) command, then compressed using the *compress*, *gzip*, or *bzip2* tools. This results in files like *tarball.tar.Z*, *tarball.tar.gz*, *tarball.tgz*, or *tarball.tar.bz2*, respectively. Having said that, many other tools, including *zip*, are supported.

In order to use the correct format, you need to understand where your data will be used. If you are simply compressing some files for yourself, use whatever you find easiest. If other people will need to use your data, consider what platform they will be using and what they are comfortable with.

The Unix traditional tarball was *tarball.tar.Z*, but *gzip* is now much more common and *xz* and *bzip2* (which offer better compression than *gzip*) are gaining ground. There is also a tool question. Some versions of *tar* allow you to use the compression of your choice automatically while creating the archive. Others don't.

The universally accepted Unix or Linux format would be a *tarball.tar.gz* created like this:

```
$ tar cf tarball_name.tar directory_of_files
$ gzip tarball_name.tar
$
```

If you have GNU *tar*, you could use *-Z* for *compress* (don't, this is obsolete), *-z* for *gzip* (safest), or *-j* for *bzip2* (highest compression). Don't forget to use an appropriate filename, as this is not automatic. For example:

```
tar czf tarball_name.tgz directory_of_files
```

While *tar* and *gzip* are available for many platforms, if you need to share with Windows you are better off using *zip*, which is nearly universal:

```
zip -r zipfile_name directory_of_files
```

zip and *unzip* are supplied by the InfoZip packages on Unix and almost any other platform you can possibly think of. Unfortunately, they are not always installed by default. Run the command by itself for some helpful usage information, since these tools are not like most other Unix tools. And note the *-l* option to convert Unix line endings to DOS line endings, or *-ll* for the reverse.

Discussion

There are far too many compression algorithms and tools to talk about here; others include *ar*, *arc*, *arj*, *bin*, *bz2*, *cab*, *jar*, *cpio*, *deb*, *hqx*, *lha*, *lzh*, *rar*, *rpm*, *uue*, and *zoo*.

When using *tar*, we *strongly* recommend using a relative directory to store all the files. If you use an absolute directory, you might overwrite something on another system that you shouldn't. If you don't use any directory, you'll clutter up whatever directory the user is in when they extract the files (see [Recipe 8.8](#)). The recommended use is the name and possibly version of the data you are processing. [Table 8-2](#) shows some examples.

Table 8-2. Good and bad examples of naming files for the tar utility

Good	Bad
<code>./myapp_1.0.1</code>	<code>myapp.c</code>
	<code>myapp.h</code>
	<code>myapp.man</code>
<code>./bintools</code>	<code>/usr/local/bin</code>

It is worth noting that Red Hat Package Manager (RPM) files are actually CPIO files with a header. You can get a shell or Perl script called *rpm2cpio* to strip that header and then extract the files like this:

```
rpm2cpio some.rpm | cpio -i
```

Debian's *.deb* files are actually *ar* archives containing gzipped or bziped *tar* archives. They may be extracted with the standard *ar*, *gunzip*, or *bunzip2* tools.

Many of the Windows-based tools such as WinZip, PKZIP, FilZip, and 7-Zip can handle many or all of the formats mentioned here, and more (including tarballs and RPMs).

See Also

- `man tar`
- `man gzip`
- `man bzip2`
- `man compress`
- `man zip`
- `man rpm`
- `man ar`
- `man dpkg`
- <http://www.info-zip.org/>
- <http://rpm5.org/docs/rpm-guide.html#id3049451>
- [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Deb_\(file_format\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Deb_(file_format))
- <http://www.rpm.org/>
- http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/RPM_Package_Manager
- Recipe 7.9, “Grepping Compressed Files”
- Recipe 8.7, “Uncompressing Files”
- Recipe 8.8, “Checking a tar Archive for Unique Directories”
- Recipe 17.3, “Unzipping Many ZIP Files”

8.7 Uncompressing Files

Problem

You need to uncompress one or more files ending in extensions like *.tar*, *.tar.gz*, *.gz*, *.tgz*, *.Z*, or *.zip*.

Solution

Figure out what you are dealing with and use the right tool. [Table 8-3](#) maps common extensions to programs capable of handling them. The `file` command is helpful here since it can usually tell you the type of a file even if the name is incorrect.

Table 8-3. Common file extensions and compression utilities

File extension	Command
<code>.tar</code>	<code>tar tf</code> (list contents), <code>tar xf</code> (extract)
<code>.tar.gz</code> , <code>.tgz</code>	GNU <code>tar</code> : <code>tar tzf</code> (list contents), <code>tar xzf</code> (extract) Else: <code>gunzip file</code> && <code>tar xf file</code>
<code>.tar.bz2</code>	GNU <code>tar</code> : <code>tar tjf</code> (list contents), <code>tar xjf</code> (extract) Else: <code>gunzip2 file</code> && <code>tar xf file</code>
<code>.tar.Z</code>	GNU <code>tar</code> : <code>tar tZf</code> (list contents), <code>tar xZf</code> (extract) Else: <code>uncompress file</code> && <code>tar xf file</code>
<code>.zip</code>	<code>unzip</code> (often not installed by default)

You should also try the `file` command:

```
$ file what_is_this.*
what_is_this.1: GNU tar archive
what_is_this.2: gzip compressed data, from Unix

$ gunzip what_is_this.2
gunzip: what_is_this.2: unknown suffix -- ignored

$ mv what_is_this.2 what_is_this.2.gz

$ gunzip what_is_this.2.gz

$ file what_is_this.2
what_is_this.2: GNU tar archive
```

Discussion

If the file extension matches none of those listed in [Table 8-3](#) and the `file` command doesn't help, but you are sure it's an archive of some kind, then you should do a web search for it.

See Also

- [Recipe 7.9, “Grepping Compressed Files”](#)
- [Recipe 8.6, “Compressing Files”](#)

8.8 Checking a tar Archive for Unique Directories

Problem

You want to untar an archive, but you want to know beforehand which directories it is going to write into. You can look at the table of contents of the *tar* archive by using `tar -t`, but the output can be very large and it's easy to miss something.

Solution

Use an *awk* script to parse off the directory names from the *tar* archive's table of contents, then use `sort -u` to leave you with just the unique directory names:

```
tar tf some.tar | awk -F/ '{print $1}' | sort -u
```

Discussion

The `t` option will produce the table of contents for the file specified with the `f` option whose filename follows. The *awk* command specifies a nondefault field separator by using `-F/` to specify a slash as the separator between fields. Thus, the `print $1` will print the first directory name in the pathname.

Finally, all the directory names will be sorted and only unique ones will be printed.

If a line of the output contains a single period then some files will be extracted into the current directory when you unpack this *tar* file, so be sure to be in the directory you desire.

Similarly, if the filenames in the archive are all local and without a leading `./`, then you will get a list of filenames that will be created in the current directory.

If the output contains a blank line, that means that some of the files are specified with absolute pathnames (i.e., beginning with `/`); again be careful, as extracting such an archive might clobber something that you don't want replaced.

Some *tar* programs strip the leading `/` by default (e.g., GNU *tar*) or optionally. That's a much safer way to create a tarball, but you can't count on that when you are looking at extracting one.

See Also

- `man tar`
- `man awk`
- [Recipe 8.1, "Sorting Your Output"](#)

- [Recipe 8.2, “Sorting Numbers”](#)
- [Recipe 8.3, “Sorting IP Addresses”](#)

8.9 Translating Characters

Problem

You need to convert one character to another in all of your text.

Solution

Use the *tr* command to translate one character to another. For example:

```
tr ';' ',' <before >after
```

Discussion

In its simplest form, a *tr* command replaces occurrences of the first (and only) character of the first argument with the first (and only) character of the second argument.

In the example solution, we redirected input from the file named *before* and sent the output into the file named *after*, and we translated all occurrences of a semicolon into a comma.

Why do we use the single quotes around the semicolon and the comma? Well, a semicolon has special meaning to *bash*, so if we didn't quote it *bash* would break our command into two commands, resulting in an error. The comma has no special meaning, but we quote it out of habit to avoid any special meaning we may have forgotten about—it's safer always to use the quotes, as then we never forget to use them when we need them.

The *tr* command can do more than one translation at a time if we put the several characters to be translated in the first argument and their corresponding resultant characters in the second argument. Just remember, it's a one-for-one substitution. For example:

```
tr ';:;!?' ',' <other.punct >commas.all
```

will translate all occurrences of the punctuation symbols of semicolon, colon, period, exclamation point, and question mark to commas. Since the second argument is shorter than the first, its last (and here, its only) character is repeated to match the length of the first argument, so that each character has a corresponding character for the translation.

This kind of translation could be done with the *sed* command, though *sed* syntax is a bit trickier. The *tr* command is not as powerful, since it doesn't use regular expres-

sions, but it does have some special syntax for ranges of characters—and that can be quite useful, as we’ll see in [Recipe 8.10](#).

See Also

- `man tr`
- [Recipe 8.10, “Converting Uppercase to Lowercase”](#)

8.10 Converting Uppercase to Lowercase

Problem

You need to eliminate case distinctions in a stream of text.

Solution

You can translate all uppercase characters (A–Z) to lowercase (a–z) using the `tr` command and specifying a range of characters, as in:

```
tr 'A-Z' 'a-z' <be.fore >af.ter
```

There is also special syntax in `tr` for specifying this sort of range for upper- and lowercase conversions:

```
tr '[:upper:]' '[:lower:]' <be.fore >af.ter
```

There are some versions of `tr` that honor the current locale’s collating sequence, and A–Z may not always be the set of uppercase letters in the current locale. It’s better to avoid that problem and use `[:lower:]` and `[:upper:]` if possible, but that does make it impossible to use subranges like N–Z and a–m.

Discussion

Although `tr` doesn’t support regular expressions, it does support a range of characters. Just make sure that both arguments end up with the same number of characters. If the second argument is shorter, its last character will be repeated to match the length of the first argument. If the first argument is shorter, the second argument will be truncated to match the length of the first.

Here’s a very simplistic encoding of a text message using a simple substitution cypher that offsets each character by 13 places (i.e., ROT13). An interesting characteristic of ROT13 is that the same process is used to both encipher and decipher the text:

```
$ cat /tmp/joke
Q: Why did the chicken cross the road?
A: To get to the other side.
```

```
$ tr 'A-Za-z' 'N-ZA-Mn-za-m' < /tmp/joke
D: Jul qvq gur puvpxra pebff gur ebnq?
N: Gb trg gb gur bgure fvqr.
```

```
$ tr 'A-Za-z' 'N-ZA-Mn-za-m' < /tmp/joke | tr 'A-Za-z' 'N-ZA-Mn-za-m'
Q: Why did the chicken cross the road?
A: To get to the other side.
```

See Also

- `man tr`
- <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rot13>
- [Recipe 8.9, “Translating Characters”](#)

8.11 Converting DOS Files to Linux Format

Problem

You need to convert DOS-formatted text files to the Linux format. In DOS, each line ends with a pair of characters—the return and the newline. In Linux, each line ends with a single newline. So how can you delete that extra DOS character?

Solution

Use the `-d` option on `tr` to delete the character(s) in the supplied list. For example, to delete all DOS carriage returns (`\r`), use the command:

```
tr -d '\r' <file.dos >file.txt
```



This will delete all `\r` characters in the file, not just those at the end of a line. Typical text files rarely have characters like that inline, but it is possible. You may wish to look into the `dos2unix` and `unix2dos` programs if you are worried about this.

Discussion

The `tr` utility has a few special escape sequences that it recognizes, among them `\r` for carriage return and `\n` for newline. The other special backslash sequences are listed in [Table 8-4](#).

Table 8-4. The special escape sequences of the *tr* utility

Sequence	Meaning
<code>\ooo</code>	Character with octal value <code>ooo</code> (1–3 octal digits)
<code>\\</code>	Backslash character (i.e., escapes the backslash itself)
<code>\a</code>	“Audible” bell, the ASCII BEL character (since “b” was taken for backspace)
<code>\b</code>	Backspace
<code>\f</code>	Form feed
<code>\n</code>	Newline
<code>\r</code>	Return
<code>\t</code>	Tab (sometimes called a “horizontal” tab)
<code>\v</code>	Vertical tab

See Also

- `man tr`

8.12 Removing Smart Quotes

Problem

You want simple ASCII text out of a document in MS Word, but when you save it as text some odd characters still remain.

Solution

Translate the odd characters back to simple ASCII like this:

```
tr '\221\222\223\224\226\227' '\047\047"--' <odd.txt >plain.txt
```

Discussion

Such “smart quotes” come from the Windows-1252 character set, and may also show up in email messages that you save as text.

To clean up such text, we can use the *tr* command. The 221 and 222 (octal) curved single quotes will be translated to simple single quotes. We specify them in octal (047) to make it easier on us, since the shell uses single quotes as a delimiter. The 223 and 224 (octal) are opening and closing curved double quotes, and will be translated to simple double quotes. The double quotes can be typed within the second argument since the single quotes protect them from shell interpretation. The 226 and 227 (octal) are dash characters and will be translated to hyphens (and no, that second

hyphen in the second argument is not technically needed since *tr* will repeat the last character to match the length of the first argument, but it's better to be specific).

See Also

- `man tr`
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quotation_mark#Curved_quotes_and_Unicode for way more than you might ever have wanted to know about quotation marks and related character set issues

8.13 Counting Lines, Words, or Characters in a File

Problem

You need to know how many lines, words, or characters are in a given file.

Solution

Use the *wc* (word count) command in a command substitution.

The normal output of *wc* is something like this:

```
$ wc data_file
  5   15   60 data_file

# Lines only
$ wc -l data_file
  5 data_file

# Words only
$ wc -w data_file
 15 data_file

# Characters (often the same as bytes) only
$ wc -c data_file
 60 data_file

# Note 60B
$ ls -l data_file
-rw-r--r--  1 jp  users   60B Dec  6 03:18 data_file
```

You may be tempted to just do something like this:

```
data_file_lines=$(wc -l "$data_file")
```

That won't do what you expect, since you'll get something like "5 data_file" as the value. You may also see:

```
data_file_lines=$(cat "$data_file" | wc -l)
```

Instead, use this to avoid the filename problem without a *useless use of cat*:

```
data_file_lines=$(wc -l < "$data_file")
```

Discussion

If your version of *wc* is locale-aware, the number of characters will not equal the number of bytes in some character sets.

See Also

- `man wc`
- [Recipe 15.7, “Splitting Output Only When Necessary”](#)

8.14 Rewrapping Paragraphs

Problem

You have some text with lines that are too long or too short, so you'd like to rewrap them to be more readable.

Solution

Use the *fmt* command:

```
fmt mangled_text
```

optionally with a goal and maximum line length:

```
fmt 55 60 mangled_text
```

Discussion

One tricky thing about *fmt* is that it expects blank lines to separate headers and paragraphs. If your input file doesn't have those blanks, it has no way to tell the difference between different paragraphs and extra newlines inside the same paragraph—so you will end up with one giant paragraph, with the correct line lengths.

The *pr* command might also be of some interest for formatting text.

See Also

- `man fmt`
- `man pr`

8.15 Doing More with less

Problem

“*less* is more!” You’d like to take better advantage of the features of the *less* pager.

Solution

Read the *less* manpage and use the `$LESS` variable with `~/.lessfilter` and `~/.lesspipe` files.

less takes options from the `$LESS` variable, so rather than creating an alias with your favorite options, put them in that variable. It takes both long and short options, and any command-line options will override options in the variable. We recommend using the long options in the `$LESS` variable since they are easy to read. For example:

```
export LESS="--LONG-PROMPT --LINE-NUMBERS --ignore-case --QUIET"
```

But that is just the beginning. *less* is expandable via *input preprocessors*, which are simply programs or scripts that preprocess the file that *less* is about to display. This is handled by setting the `$LESSOPEN` and `$LESSCLOSE` environment variables appropriately.

You could build your own, but save yourself some time (after reading the following discussion) and look into Wolfgang Friebe’s *lesspipe.sh*. The script works by setting and exporting the `$LESSOPEN` environment variable when run by itself:

```
$ ./lesspipe.sh
LESSOPEN="|./lesspipe.sh %s"
export LESSOPEN
$
```

So you simply run it in an `eval` statement, like `eval $(/path/to/lesspipe.sh)` or `eval ` /path/to/lesspipe.sh ``, and then use *less* as usual. A partial list of supported formats for version 1.82 is:

gzip, *compress*, *bzip2*, *zip*, *rar*, *tar*, *nroff*, *ar* archive, *pdf*, *ps*, *dvi*, shared library, executable, directory, RPM, Microsoft Word, OASIS (OpenDocument, Openoffice, Libreoffice) formats, Debian, MP3 files, image formats (*png*, *gif*, *jpeg*, *tiff*, ...), utf-16 text, iso images and filesystems on removable media via `/dev/xxx`.

But there is a catch. These formats require various external tools, so not all features in the example *lesspipe.sh* will work if you don't have them. The package also contains *./configure* (or *make*) scripts to generate a version of the filter that will work on your system, given the tools that you have available.

Discussion

less is unique in that it is a GNU tool that was already installed by default on every single test system we tried—every one. Not even *bash* can say this. And version differences aside, it works the same on all of them. Quite a claim to fame.

However, the same cannot be said for *lesspipe** and the `$LESSOPEN` filters. We found other versions, with wildly variable capabilities, besides the ones listed in the Solution section:

- Red Hat has a */usr/bin/lesspipe.sh* that can't be used like `eval ` /path/to/less pipe.sh ``.
- Debian has a */usr/bin/lesspipe* that can be *eval*'ed and also supports additional filters via a *~/.lessfilter* file.
- SUSE Linux has a */usr/bin/lessopen.sh* that can't be *eval*'ed.
- FreeBSD has a trivial */usr/bin/lesspipe.sh* (no *eval*, *.Z*, *.gz*, or *.bz2*).
- Solaris, HP-UX, the other BSDs, and macOS have nothing by default.

To see if you already have one of these, try this on your system. This Debian system has the Debian *lesspipe* installed but not in use (since `$LESSOPEN` is not defined):

```
$ type lesspipe.sh; type lesspipe; set | grep LESS
-bash3: type: lesspipe.sh: not found
lesspipe is /usr/bin/lesspipe
$
```

This Ubuntu system has the Debian *lesspipe* installed and in use:

```
$ type lesspipe.sh; type lesspipe; set | grep LESS
-bash: type: lesspipe.sh: not found
lesspipe is hashed (/usr/bin/lesspipe)
LESSCLOSE='/usr/bin/lesspipe %s %s'
LESSOPEN='| /usr/bin/lesspipe %s'
$
```

We recommend that you download, configure, and use Wolfgang Friebe's *lesspipe.sh* because it's the most capable. We also recommend that you read the *less* manpage because it's very interesting.

See Also

- `man less`
- `man lesspipe`
- `man lesspipe.sh`
- <http://www.greenwoodsoftware.com/less/>
- <http://www-zeuthen.desy.de/~friebel/unix/lesspipe.html>

Finding Files: `find`, `locate`, `slocate`

How easy is it for you to search for files throughout your filesystem?

For the first few files that you created, it was probably easy enough just to remember their names and where you kept them. Then when you got more files, you created subdirectories (or *folders* in GUI-speak) to clump your files into related groups. Soon there were subdirectories inside of subdirectories, and now you are having trouble remembering where you put things. And of course, with larger and larger disks it is getting easier to just keep creating and never deleting any files (and for some of us, this getting older thing isn't helping either).

But how do you find that file you were just editing last week? Or the attachment that you saved in a subdirectory (which seemed such a logical choice at the time)? Or maybe your filesystem has become cluttered with MP3 files scattered all over it, and you want to collect them all up.

Various attempts have been made to provide graphical interfaces to help you search for files, which is all well and good—but how do you use the results from a GUI-style search as input to other commands?

bash and the GNU tools can help. They provide some very powerful search capabilities that enable you to search by filename, dates of creation or modification, even content. They send the results to standard output, perfect for use in other commands or scripts.

So stop your wondering—here's the information you need.

9.1 Finding All Your MP3 Files

Problem

You have MP3 audio files scattered all over your filesystem. You'd like to move them all into a single location so that you can organize them and then copy them onto a music player.

Solution

The *find* utility can locate all of those files and then execute a command to move them where you want. For example:

```
find . -name '*.mp3' -print -exec mv '{}' ~/songs \;
```

Discussion

The syntax for the *find* utility is unlike that of other Unix tools. It doesn't use options in the typical way, with dash and single-letter collections up front followed by several words of arguments. Rather, the options look like short words, and are ordered in a logical sequence describing the logic of which files are to be found, and what to do with them, if anything, when they are found. These word-like options are often called *predicates*.

A *find* command's first arguments are the directory or directories in which to search. A typical use is simply `(.)` for the current directory, but you can provide a whole list of directories, or even search the entire filesystem (permissions allowing) by specifying the root of the filesystem `(/)` as the starting point.

In our example the first option (the `-name` predicate) specifies the pattern we will search for. Its syntax is like the *bash* pattern-matching syntax, so `*.mp3` will match all filenames that end in the characters `“.mp3”`. Any file that matches this pattern is considered to return true and is passed along to the next predicate of the command.

Think of it this way: *find* will climb around in the filesystem, and each filename that it finds it will present to this gauntlet of predicates that must be run. Any predicate that is true is passed. Encounter a false, and that filename's turn is immediately over, and the next filename is processed.

The `-print` predicate is easy. It is always true and it has the side effect of printing the name to standard output, so any file that has made it this far in the sequence of predicates will have its name printed.

The `-exec` is a bit odd. Any filename making it this far will become part of a command that is executed. The remainder of the line, up to the `;`, is the command to be executed. The `{}` is replaced by the name of the file that was found. So in our exam-

ple, if *find* encounters a file named *mhsr.mp3* in the *./music/jazz* subdirectory, then the command that will be executed will be:

```
mv ./music/jazz/mhsr.mp3 ~/songs
```

The command will be issued for each file that matches the pattern. If lots and lots of matching files are found, lots and lots of commands will be issued. Sometimes this is too demanding of system resources, and it can be a better idea to use *find* just to find the files and print the filenames into a datafile, and issue fewer commands by consolidating arguments several to a line. (But with machines getting faster all the time, this is less and less of an issue. It might even be something worthwhile for your dual-core or quad-core processor to do.)

See Also

- `man find`
- [Recipe 1.5, “Finding and Running Commands”](#)
- [Recipe 1.6, “Getting Information About Files”](#)
- [Recipe 9.2, “Handling Filenames Containing Odd Characters”](#)

9.2 Handling Filenames Containing Odd Characters

Problem

You used a *find* command like the one in [Recipe 9.1](#), but the results were not what you intended because many of your filenames contain odd characters.

Solution

First, understand that to Unix folks, odd means “anything not a lowercase letter, or maybe a number.” So uppercase letters, spaces, punctuation, and character accents are all odd, but you’ll find all of those and more in the names of many songs and bands.

Depending on the oddness of the characters and your system, tools, and goal, it might be enough to simply quote the replacement string (i.e., put single quotes around the {}, as in '{ }'). You did test your command first, right?

If that’s no good, try using the `-print0` argument to *find* and the `-0` argument to *xargs*. `-print0` tells *find* to use the null character (`\0`) instead of whitespace as the output delimiter between pathnames found. `-0` then tells *xargs* the input delimiter. These will always work, but they are not supported on every system.

The *xargs* command takes whitespace-delimited (except when using `-0`) pathnames from standard input and executes a specified command on as many of them as possible (up to a bit less than the system's `ARG_MAX` value; see [Recipe 15.13](#)). Since there is a lot of overhead associated with calling other commands, using *xargs* can drastically speed up operations because you are calling the other command as few times as possible, rather than each time a pathname is found.

So, to rewrite the solution from [Recipe 9.1](#) to handle odd characters:

```
find . -name '*.mp3' -print0 | xargs -i -0 mv '{}' ~/songs
```

Here is a similar example demonstrating how to use *xargs* to work around spaces in a path or filename when locating and then copying files:

```
locate P1100087.JPG PC220010.JPG PA310075.JPG PA310076.JPG | xargs -i cp '{}' .
```

Discussion

There are two problems with this approach. One is that not all versions of *xargs* support the `-i` option, and the other is that the `-i` option eliminates argument grouping, thus negating the speed increase we were hoping for. The problem is that the *mv* command needs the destination directory as the final argument, but traditional *xargs* will simply take its input and tack it onto the end of the given command until it runs out of space or input. The results of that behavior applied to an *mv* command would be very, very ugly. Some versions of *xargs* provide a `-i` switch that defaults to using `{}` (like *find*), but using `-i` results in the command being run repeatedly, once for each argument. So the only benefit over using *find*'s `-exec` is the odd-character handling.

The *xargs* utility is most effective when used in conjunction with *find* and a command like *chmod* that just wants a list of arguments to process. You can really see a vast speed improvement when handling large numbers of pathnames. For example:

```
find some_directory -type f -print0 | xargs -0 chmod 0644
```

See Also

- `man find`
- `man xargs`
- [Recipe 9.1, “Finding All Your MP3 Files”](#)
- [Recipe 15.13, “Working Around “Argument list too long” Errors”](#)

9.3 Speeding Up Operations on Found Files

Problem

You used a *find* command like the one in [Recipe 9.1](#), but the resulting operations took a long time because you found a lot of files. You want to speed it up.

Solution

See the discussion on *xargs* in [Recipe 9.2](#).

See Also

- [Recipe 9.1, “Finding All Your MP3 Files”](#)
- [Recipe 9.2, “Handling Filenames Containing Odd Characters”](#)

9.4 Finding Files Across Symbolic Links

Problem

You issued a *find* command to find your *.mp3* files, but it didn't find all of them—it missed all those that were part of your filesystem but were mounted via a symbolic link. Is *find* unable to cross that kind of boundary?

Solution

Use the `-follow` predicate. The example we used in [Recipe 9.2](#) becomes:

```
find -L . -name '*.mp3' -print0 | xargs -i -0 mv '{}' ~/songs
```

Discussion

Sometimes you don't want *find* to cross over onto other filesystems, which is where symbolic links originated. So the default for *find* is not to follow a symbolic link. If you do want it to do so, then use the `-L` option on your *find* command, immediately following the command name and before the directory list.

See Also

- `man find`

9.5 Finding Files Irrespective of Case

Problem

Some of your MP3 files end with `.MP3` rather than `.mp3`. How do you find those?

Solution

Use the `-iname` predicate (if your version of `find` supports it) to run a case-insensitive search, rather than just `-name`. For example:

```
find . -follow -iname '*.mp3' -print0 | xargs -i -0 mv '{}' ~/songs
```

Discussion

Sometimes you care about the case of the filename and sometimes you don't. Use the `-iname` option when you don't care; i.e., in situations like this, where `.mp3` and `.MP3` both indicate that the file is probably an MP3 file. (We say *probably* because on Unix-like systems you can name a file anything that you want. It isn't forced to have a particular extension.)

One of the most common places where you'll see the upper- and lowercase issue is when dealing with Microsoft Windows-compatible filesystems, especially older or "lowest common denominator" filesystems. A digital camera that we use stores its files with filenames like `PICT001.JPG`, incrementing the number with each picture. If you were to try:

```
find . -name '*.jpg' -print
```

you wouldn't find many pictures. In this case you could also try:

```
find . -name '*. [Jj][Pp][Gg]' -print
```

since that regular expression will match either letter in brackets, but that isn't as easy to type, especially if the pattern that you want to match is much longer. In practice, using `-iname` is an easier choice. The catch is that not every version of `find` supports the `-iname` predicate. If your system doesn't support it, you could try tricky regular expressions as shown here, use multiple `-name` options with the case variations you expect, or install the GNU version of `find`.

See Also

- `man find`

9.6 Finding Files by Date

Problem

Someone sent you a JPEG image file that you saved on your filesystem a few months ago. Now you don't remember where you put it. How can you find it?

Solution

Use a *find* command with the `-mtime` predicate, which checks the date of last modification. For example:

```
find . -name '*.jpg' -mtime +90 -print
```

Discussion

The `-mtime` predicate takes an argument to specify the time frame for the search. The `90` stands for 90 days. By using a plus sign on the number (`+90`) we indicate that we're looking for a file modified *more than* 90 days ago. Write `-90` (using a minus sign) for *less than* 90 days. Use neither a plus nor a minus to mean exactly 90 days.

There are several predicates for searching based on file modification times, and each takes a quantity argument. Using a plus, minus, or no sign indicates greater than, less than, or equal to, respectively, for all of those predicates.

The *find* utility also has logical AND, OR, and NOT constructs, so if you know that the file was at least one week (7 days) but not more than 14 days old, you can combine the predicates like this:

```
find . -mtime +7 -a -mtime -14 -print
```

You can get even more complicated, using OR as well as AND and even NOT to combine predicates, as in:

```
find . -mtime +14 -name '*.text' -o \( -mtime -14 -name '*.txt' \) -print
```

This will print out the names of files ending in *.text* that are older than 14 days, as well as those that are newer than 14 days but have *.txt* as their last 4 characters.

You will likely need parentheses to get the precedence right. Two predicates in sequence are like a logical AND, which binds tighter than an OR (in *find* as in most languages). Use parentheses as much as you need to make it unambiguous.

Parentheses have a special meaning to *bash*, so we need to escape that meaning and write them as `\(` and `\)` or inside of single quotes as `'('` and `')'`. You cannot use single quotes around the entire expression though, as that will confuse the *find* command. It wants each predicate as its own word.

See Also

- `man find`

9.7 Finding Files by Type

Problem

You are looking for a directory with the word “java” in its name. When you tried:

```
find . -name '*java*' -print
```

you got way too many files—including all the Java source files in your part of the filesystem.

Solution

Use the `-type` predicate to select only directories:

```
find . -type d -name '*java*' -print
```

Discussion

We put the `-type d` first, followed by the `-name '*java*'`. Either order would have found the same set of files, but putting the `-type d` first in the list of predicates makes the search slightly more efficient: as each file is encountered, the test will be made to see if it is a directory and then only directories will have their names checked against the pattern. All files have names; relatively few are directories. So, this ordering eliminates most files from further consideration before we ever do the string comparison. Is it a big deal? With processors getting faster all the time, it matters less. With disk sizes getting bigger all the time, it matters more. There are several types of files for which you can check, not just directories. [Table 9-1](#) lists the single characters used to find these types of files.

Table 9-1. Characters used by `find`'s `-type` predicate

Key	Meaning
b	Block special file
c	Character special file
d	Directory
p	Pipe (or “fifo”)
f	Plain ol' file

Key	Meaning
l	Symbolic link
s	Socket
D	Door (Solaris only)

See Also

- `man find`

9.8 Finding Files by Size

Problem

You want to do a little housecleaning, and to get the most out of your effort you are going to start by finding your largest files and deciding if you need to keep them around. But how do you find your largest files?

Solution

Use the `-size` predicate in the `find` command to select files above, below, or of exactly a certain size. For example:

```
find . -size +3000k -print
```

Discussion

Like the numeric argument to `-mtime`, the `-size` predicate's numeric argument can be preceded by a minus sign, a plus sign, or no sign at all to indicate less than, greater than, or exactly equal to the numeric argument. In our example, we're looking for files that are greater than the size indicated.

The size indicated includes a unit of `k` for kilobytes. If you use `c` for the unit, that means just bytes (or characters). If you use `b`, or don't put any unit, that indicates a size in blocks. (The block is a 512-byte block, historically a common unit in Unix systems.) So, we're looking for files that are greater than 3 MB in size.



If you want to delete the files and are using a version of `find` that supports it, the `-delete` action is much easier than trying to use `rm` or `xargs rm`.

See Also

- `man find`
- `man du`
- “Solution” on page 225

9.9 Finding Files by Content

Problem

You wrote an important letter and saved it as a text file, putting `.txt` on the end of the filename, but you’ve forgotten the rest of the name. Beyond that, the only thing you remember about the content of the letter is that you used the word “portend.” How do you find a file with some known content?

Solution

If you are in the vicinity of that file, say within the current directory, you can start with a simple `grep`:

```
grep -i portend *.txt
```

With the `-i` option, `grep` will ignore upper- and lowercase differences. This command may not be sufficient to find what you’re looking for, but start simply. Of course, if you think the file might be in one of your many subdirectories, you can try to reach all the files that are in subdirectories of the current directory with this command:

```
grep -i portend */*.txt
```

Let’s face it, though, that’s not a very thorough search.

If that doesn’t do it, let’s use a more complete solution: the `find` command. Use the `-exec` option on `find` so that if the predicates are true up to that point, it will execute a command for each file it finds. You can invoke `grep` or other utilities like this:

```
find . -name '*.txt' -exec grep -Hi portend '{}' \;
```

Discussion

We use the `-name '*.txt'` construct to help narrow down the search. Any such test will help, since having to run a separate executable for each file the command finds is costly in time and CPU horsepower. Maybe you have a rough idea of how old the file is (e.g., `-mtime -5` or some such); if so, add that too.

The `'{}'` is where the filename is put when executing the command. The `;` indicates the end of the command, in case you want to continue with more predicates. Both the

braces and the semicolon need to be escaped, so we quote one and use the backslash for the other. It doesn't matter which way we escape them, only that we do escape them so that *bash* doesn't misinterpret them.

On some systems, the `-H` option will print the name of the file if *grep* finds something. Normally, with only one filename on the command, *grep* won't bother to name the file; it just prints out the matching line that it finds. Since we're searching through many files, we need to know which file was grepped.

If you're running a version of *grep* that doesn't have the `-H` option, then just put `/dev/null` as one of the filenames on the *grep* command. The *grep* command will then have more than one file to open, and will print out the filename if it finds the text.

See Also

- `man find`

9.10 Finding Existing Files and Content Fast

Problem

You'd like to be able to find files without having to wait for a long *find* command to complete, or you need to find a file with some specific content.

Solution

If your system has *locate*, *slocate*, Beagle, Spotlight, or some other indexer, you are already set. If not, look into them.

As we discussed in [Recipe 1.5](#), *locate* and *slocate* consult database files about the system (usually compiled and updated by a *cron* job) to find file or command names almost instantly. The location of the actual database files, what is indexed therein, and how often may vary from system to system. Consult your system's manpages for details. Here's an example:

```
$ locate apropos
/usr/bin/apropos
/usr/share/man/de/man1/apropos.1.gz
/usr/share/man/es/man1/apropos.1.gz
/usr/share/man/it/man1/apropos.1.gz
/usr/share/man/ja/man1/apropos.1.gz
/usr/share/man/man1/apropos.1.gz
```

locate and *slocate* don't index content, though, so see [Recipe 9.9](#) for that.

Most modern graphical operating systems now include local search tools that use an indexer to crawl, parse, and index the names *and contents* of all of the files (and usually email messages) in your personal file space; i.e., your home directory on a Unix or Linux system. This information is then almost instantly available to you when you look for it. These tools are usually very configurable, graphical, and operate on a per-user basis.

Discussion

slocate stores permission information (in addition to filenames and paths), so it will not list programs to which the user does not have access. On most Linux systems *locate* is a symbolic link to *slocate*; other systems may have separate programs, or may not have *slocate* at all. Both of these are command-line tools that crawl and index the entire filesystem, more or less, but they only contain filenames and locations.

See Also

- `man locate`
- `man slocate`
- [Recipe 1.5, “Finding and Running Commands”](#)
- [Recipe 9.9, “Finding Files by Content”](#)

9.11 Finding a File Using a List of Possible Locations

Problem

You need to execute, source, or read a file, but it could be located in a number of different places in or outside of the `$PATH`.

Solution

If you are going to source the file and it's located somewhere on the `$PATH`, just source it. *bash*'s builtin `source` command (also known by the shorter-to-type but harder-to-read POSIX name `.`) will search the `$PATH` if the `sourcepath` shell option is set, which it is by default:

```
source myfile
```

If you want to execute a file only if you know it exists in the `$PATH` and is executable, and you have *bash* version 2.05b or higher, use `type -P` to search the `$PATH`. Unlike

the *which* command, type `-P` only produces output when it finds the file, which makes it much easier to use in this case:

```
LS=$(type -P ls)
[ -x "$LS" ] && $LS

# --OR--

LS=$(type -P ls)
if [ -x "$LS" ]; then
    : commands involving $LS here
fi
```

If you need to look in a variety of locations, possibly including the `$PATH`, use a `for` loop. To search each of the elements of the `$PATH`, use the variable substitution operator `${variable//pattern/replacement}` to replace all of the `:` separators with a space, thereby rendering them as separate words, and then use `for` as usual to iterate over a list of words. To search the `$PATH` and other possible locations, just list them in the `for` statement as in these examples:

```
for path in ${PATH//:/ }; do
    [ -x "$path/ls" ] && $path/ls
done

# --OR--

for path in ${PATH//:/ } /opt/foo/bin /opt/bar/bin; do
    [ -x "$path/ls" ] && $path/ls
done
```

If the file is not in the `$PATH` but could be in a list of other locations, possibly even under different names, list the full paths for each:

```
for file in /usr/local/bin/inputrc /etc/inputrc ~/.inputrc; do
    [ -f "$file" ] && bind -f "$file" && break # Use the first one found
done
```

Perform any additional tests as needed. For example, you may wish to use *screen* when logging in if it's present on the system:

```
for path in ${PATH//:/ }; do
    if [ -x "$path/screen" ]; then
        # If screen(1) exists and is executable:
        for file in /opt/bin/settings/run_screen ~/settings/run_screen; do
            [ -x "$file" ] && $file && break # Execute the first one found
        done
    fi
done
```

See [Recipe 16.22](#) for more details on this code fragment.

Discussion

Using `for` to iterate through each possible location may seem like overkill, but it's actually very flexible and allows you to search wherever you need to, apply whatever other tests are appropriate, and then do whatever you want with the file if found. By replacing each `:` with a space in the `$PATH`, we turn it into the kind of space-delimited list `for` expects (but as we also saw, any space-delimited list will work). Adapting this technique as needed will allow you to write some very flexible and portable shell scripts that can be highly tolerant of file locations.

You may be tempted to set `$IFS=':'` to directly parse the `$PATH`, rather than preparing it into `$path`. That will work, but involves extra work with variables and isn't as flexible.

You may also be tempted to do something like the following:

```
[ -n "$(which myfile)" ] && bind -f $(which myfile)
```

The problem here is not when the file exists, but when it doesn't. The *which* utility behaves differently on different systems. The Red Hat *which* is aliased to provide details when the argument is an alias and to set various command-line switches, and it returns a not found message (while *which* on Debian or FreeBSD does not). But if you try that line on NetBSD, you could end up trying to bind `no myfile` in `/sbin /usr/sbin /bin /usr/bin /usr/pkg/sbin /usr/pkg/bin /usr/X11R6/bin /usr/local/sbin /usr/local/bin`, which is not what you meant.

The *command* command is also interesting in this context. It's been around longer than `type -P` and may be useful under some circumstances.

Red Hat Enterprise Linux 4.x behaves like this:

```
$ alias which
alias which='alias | /usr/bin/which --tty-only --read-alias --show-dot --show-tilde'

$ which rd
alias rd='rmdir'
    /bin/rmdir

$ which ls
alias ls='ls --color=auto -F -h'
    /bin/ls

$ which cat
/bin/cat

$ which cattt
/usr/bin/which: no cattt in (/usr/kerberos/bin:/usr/local/bin:/bin:/usr/bin:/usr/X11R6/bin:/home/jp/bin)

$ command -v rd
```

```
alias rd='rmdir'

$ command -v ls
alias ls='ls --color=auto -F -h'

$ command -v cat
/bin/cat
```

Debian and FreeBSD (but not NetBSD or OpenBSD) behave like this:

```
$ alias which
-bash3: alias: which: not found

$ which rd

$ which ls
/bin/ls

$ which cat
/bin/cat

$ which cattt

$ command -v rd
-bash: command: rd: not found

$ command -v ls
/bin/ls

$ command -v cat
/bin/cat

$ command -v ll
alias ll='ls -l'
```

See Also

- `help type`
- `man which`
- `help source`
- `man source`
- [Recipe 16.22, “Getting Started with a Custom Configuration”](#)
- [Recipe 17.4, “Recovering Disconnected Sessions Using screen”](#)

Additional Features for Scripting

Many scripts are written as simple one-off scripts that are only used by their author, consisting of only a few lines—perhaps only a single loop, if that. But some scripts are heavy-duty scripts that will see a lot of use from a variety of users. Such scripts will often need to take advantage of features that allow for better sharing and reuse of code. These advanced scripting techniques can be useful for many kinds of scripts, and are often found in larger systems of scripts such as the */etc/init.d* scripts on many Linux systems. You don't have to be a system administrator to appreciate and use the tips and techniques described here. They will prove themselves on any large scripting effort.

10.1 “Daemon-izing” Your Script

Problem

Sometimes you want a script to run as a *daemon*, in the background and never ending. To do this properly you need to be able to detach your script from its controlling TTY—that is, from the terminal session used to start the daemon. Simply putting an ampersand on the command isn't enough. If you start your daemon script on a remote system via an SSH (or similar) session, you'll notice that when you log out, the SSH session doesn't end and your window is hung until that script ends (which, being a daemon, it won't).

Solution

Use the following to invoke your script, run it in the background, and still allow yourself to log out:

```
nohup mydaemonscrip 0<&-1>/dev/null 2>&1 &
```

or:

```
nohup mydaemonscrip >>/var/log/myadmin.log 2>&1 <&- &
```

Discussion

You need to close the controlling TTY (terminal), which is connected in three ways to your (or any) job: via standard input (STDIN), standard output (STDOUT), and standard error (STDERR). We can close STDOUT and STDERR by pointing them at another file—typically either a logfile, so that you can retrieve their output at a later time, or the file `/dev/null` to throw away all their output. We use the redirecting operator `>` to do this.

But what about STDIN? The cleanest way to deal with STDIN is to close the file descriptor. The *bash* syntax to do that is like a redirect, but with a dash for the filename (`0<&-` or `<&-`).

We use the *nohup* command so that the script is run without being interrupted by a hangup signal when we log off.

In the first example, we use the file descriptor numbers (i.e., 0, 1, 2) explicitly in all three redirections. They are optional in the case of STDIN and STDOUT, so in our second example we don't use them explicitly. We also put the input redirect at the end of the second command rather than at the beginning, since the order here is not important. (However, the order is important and the file descriptor number is necessary in redirecting STDERR.)

See Also

- Chapters 2 and 3 for more on redirecting output and input

10.2 Reusing Code with Includes and Sourcing

Problem

There are a set of shell variable assignments that you would like to have common across a set of scripts that you are writing. You tried putting this configuration information in its own script, but when you run that script from within another script, the values don't stick; your configuration is running in another shell, and when that shell exits, so do your values. Is there some way to run that configuration script within the current shell?

Solution

Use the *bash* shell's *source* command or POSIX's single period (.) to read in the contents of that configuration file. The lines of that file will be processed as if encountered in the current script.

Here's an example of some configuration data:

```
$ cat myprefs.cfg
SCRATCH_DIR=/var/tmp
IMG_FMT=png
SND_FMT=ogg
$
```

It is just a simple script consisting of three assignments. Here's another script, one that will use these values:

```
# use the user prefs
source $HOME/myprefs.cfg
cd ${SCRATCH_DIR:-/tmp}
echo You prefer $IMG_FMT image files
echo You prefer $SND_FMT sound files
```

Discussion

The script that is going to use the configuration file uses the *source* command to read in the file. It can also use a dot (.) in place of the word *source*. A dot is easy and quick to type, but hard to notice in a script or screenshot:

```
. $HOME/myprefs.cfg
```

You wouldn't be the first person to look right past the dot and think that the script was just being executed.

Sourcing is both a powerful and a dangerous feature of *bash* scripting. It gives you a way to create a configuration file and then share that file among several scripts. With that mechanism, you can change your configuration by editing one file, not several scripts.

The contents of the configuration file are not limited to simple variable assignment, however. Any valid shell command is legal syntax, because when you source a file like this, it is simply getting its input from a different source; it is still the *bash* shell processing *bash* commands. Regardless of what shell commands are in that sourced file—for example, loops or invoking other commands—it is all legitimate shell input and will be run as if it were part of your script.

Here's a modified configuration file:

```
$ cat myprefs.cfg
SCRATCH_DIR=/var/tmp
IMG_FMT=$(cat $HOME/myimage.pref)
```

```
if [ -e /media/mp3 ]
then
    SND_FMT=mp3
else
    SND_FMT=ogg
fi
echo config file loaded
$
```

This configuration file is hardly what one thinks of as a passive list of configured variables. It can run other commands (e.g., *cat*) and use `if` statements to vary its choices. It even ends by echoing a message. Be careful when you source something, as it's a wide-open door into your script.

One of the best uses of sourcing scripts comes when you define *bash* functions (as we will show you in [Recipe 10.3](#)). These functions can then be shared as a common library of functions among all the scripts that source the script of function definitions.

See Also

- The *bash* manpage for more about *readline*
- [Recipe 10.3](#), “Using Configuration Files in a Script”
- [Recipe 10.4](#), “Defining Functions”

10.3 Using Configuration Files in a Script

Problem

You want to use one or more external configuration files for one or more scripts.

Solution

You could write a lot of code to parse some special configuration file format. Do yourself a favor and don't do that. Just make the config file a shell script and use the solution in [Recipe 10.2](#).

Discussion

This is just a specific application of sourcing a file. However, it's worth noting that you may need to give a little thought to how you can reduce all of your configuration needs to *bash*-legal syntax. In particular, you can make use of Boolean flags and optional variables (see [Chapter 5](#) and [Recipe 15.11](#)):

```

# In config file
VERBOSE=0          # 0 or '' for off, 1 for on
SSH_USER='jbagadonutz@' # Note trailing @, set to '' to use the current user

# In script
[ "$VERBOSE" ] || echo "Verbose msg from $0 goes to STDERR" >&2
[...]
ssh $SSH_USER$REMOTE_HOST [...]

```

Of course, depending on the user to get the configuration file correct can be chancy, so instead of requiring the user to read the comment and add the trailing @, we could do it in the script:

```

# If $SSH_USER is set and doesn't have a trailing @ add it:
[ -n "$SSH_USER" -a "$SSH_USER" = "${SSH_USER%}" ] && SSH_USER="$SSH_USER@"

```

or just use:

```
ssh ${SSH_USER:+${SSH_USER}@}${REMOTE_HOST} [...]
```

to make that same substitution right in place. The *bash* variable operator `:+` will do the following: if `$SSH_USER` has a value, it will return the value to the right of the `:+` (in this case we specified the variable itself along with an extra @); otherwise, if unset or empty, it will return nothing.

See Also

- [Chapter 5](#)
- [Recipe 10.2, “Reusing Code with Includes and Sourcing”](#)
- [Recipe 15.11, “Getting Input from Another Machine”](#)

10.4 Defining Functions

Problem

There are several places in your shell script where you would like to give the user a usage message (a message describing the proper syntax for the command), but you don’t want to keep repeating the code for the same echo statement. Isn’t there a way to do this just once and have several references to it? If you could make the usage message its own script, then you could just invoke it anywhere in your original script—but that requires two scripts, not one. Besides, it seems odd to have the message for how to use one script be the output of a different script. Isn’t there a better way to do this?

Solution

You need a *bash* function. At the beginning of your script, put something like this:

```
function usage ()
{
    printf "usage: %s [ -a | - b ] file1 ... fileN\n" "${0##*/}" > &2
}
```

Then later in your script you can write code like this:

```
if [ $# -lt 1 ]
then
    usage
fi
```

Discussion

Functions may be defined in several ways (`[function] name [()] {compound-command} [redirections]`). We could write a function definition any of these ways:

```
function usage ()
{
    printf "usage: %s [ -a | - b ] file1 ... fileN\n" "${0##*/}" > &2
}

function usage {
    printf "usage: %s [ -a | - b ] file1 ... fileN\n" "${0##*/}" > &2
}

usage ()
{
    printf "usage: %s [ -a | - b ] file1 ... fileN\n" "${0##*/}" > &2
}
```

Either the reserved word `function` or the trailing literal `()` must be present. If `function` is used, the `()` are optional. We like using the word `function` because it is very clear and readable, and it is easy to *grep* for; e.g., `grep '^function' script` will list the functions in your *script* file.

This function definition should go at the top of your shell script, or at least somewhere before you need to invoke the function. The definition is, in a sense, just another *bash* statement. But once it has been executed, the function is defined. If you invoke the function before it is defined you will get a “command not found” error. That’s why we always put our function definitions first, before any other commands in our scripts.

Our function does very little; it is just a *printf* statement. Because we have this one usage message embodied in a single function, though, if we ever add a new option we don't need to modify several statements scattered throughout the script, just this one.

The only argument to `printf` beyond the format string is `$0`, the name by which the shell script was invoked, modified (with the `##` operator) so that only the last part of any pathname is included. This is similar to using `$(basename $0)`.

Since the usage message is an error message, we redirect the output of the *printf* statement to standard error. We could also have put that redirection on the outside of the function definition, so that all output from the function would be redirected. This would be convenient if we had multiple output statements, like this:

```
function usage ()
{
    printf "usage: %s [ -a | - b ] file1 ... fileN\n" "${0##*/}"
    printf "example: %s -b *.jpg \n" "${0##*/}"
    printf "or else: %s -a myfile.txt yourfile.txt \n" "${0##*/}"
} > &2
```

See Also

- [Recipe 5.20, “Using bash for basename”](#)
- [Recipe 7.1, “Sifting Through Files for a String”](#)
- [Recipe 16.15, “Creating a Better cd Command”](#)
- [Recipe 16.16, “Creating and Changing Into a New Directory in One Step”](#)
- [Recipe 19.14, “Avoiding “command not found” When Using Functions”](#)

10.5 Using Functions: Parameters and Return Values

Problem

You want to use a function and you need to get some values into the function. How do you pass in parameters? How do you get values back?

Solution

You don't put parentheses around the arguments like you might expect from some programming languages. Put any parameters for a *bash* function right after the function's name, separated by whitespace, just as if you were invoking any shell script or command. Don't forget to quote them if necessary!

```

# define the function:
function max ()
{ ... }
#
# call the function:
#
max 128 $SIM
max $VAR $CNT

```

You have two ways to get values back from a function. First, you can assign values to variables inside the body of your function, as in [Example 10-1](#). Those variables will be global to the whole script unless they are explicitly declared `local` within the function.

Example 10-1. ch10/func_max.1

```

# cookbook filename: func_max.1

# define the function:
function max ()
{
    local HIDN
    if [ $1 -gt $2 ]
    then
        BIGN=$1
    else
        BIGN=$2
    fi
    HIDN=5
}

```

For example:

```

# call the function:
max 128 $SIM
# use the result:
echo $BIGN

```

The other way is to use `echo` or `printf` to send the output to standard output, as in [Example 10-2](#).

Example 10-2. ch10/func_max.2

```

# cookbook filename: func_max.2

# define the function:
function max ()
{
    if [ $1 -gt $2 ]
    then
        echo $1
    fi
}

```

```
    else
        echo $2
    fi
}
```

Then you must invoke the function inside a `$()`, capturing the output and using the result, or it will be wasted on the screen. For example:

```
# call the function:
BIGR=$(max 128 $SIM)
# use the result
echo $BIGR
```

Discussion

Putting parameters on the invocation of the function is just like calling any shell script. The parameters are just the other words on the command line.

Within the function, the parameters are referred to as if they were command-line arguments by using `$1`, `$2`, etc. However, `$0` is left alone. It remains the name by which the entire script was invoked. On return from the function, `$1`, `$2`, etc. are back to referring to the parameters with which the script was invoked.

Also of interest is the `$FUNCNAME` array. `$FUNCNAME` all by itself references the zeroth element of the array, which is the name of the currently executing function. In other words, `$FUNCNAME` is to a function as `$0` is to a script, except without all the path information. The rest of the array elements are what amounts to a call stack, with “main” as the bottom or last element. This variable only exists while a function is executing.

We included the useless variable `$HIDN` just to show that it is local to the function definition. Even though we can assign it values inside the function, any such value would not be available elsewhere in the script. It is a variable whose value is local to that function; it comes into existence when the function is called, and is gone once the function returns.

Returning values by setting variables is more efficient, and can handle lots of data—many variables can be set—but the approach has its drawbacks. Notably, it requires that the function and the rest of the script agree on variable names for the information hand-off. This kind of coupling has maintenance issues. The other approach, using the output as the way to return values, does reduce this coupling, but is limited in its usefulness—it is limited in how much data it can return before your script has to spend lots of effort parsing the results of the function. So which to use? As with much of engineering, this, too, is a trade-off and you have to decide based on your specific needs.

See Also

- [Recipe 1.8, “Using Shell Quoting”](#)
- [Recipe 16.5, “Changing Your \\$PATH Temporarily”](#)

10.6 Trapping Interrupts

Problem

You are writing a script that needs to be able to trap signals and respond accordingly.

Solution

Use the *trap* utility to set signal handlers. First, use `trap -l` (or `kill -l`) to list the signals you may trap. They vary from system to system:

```
# NetBSD
$ trap -l
1) SIGHUP      2)  SIGINT      3)  SIGQUIT     4)  SIGILL
5)  SIGTRAP    6)  SIGABRT     7)  SIGEMT     8)  SIGFPE
9)  SIGKILL    10) SIGBUS      11) SIGSEGV    12) SIGSYS
13) SIGPIPE   14) SIGALRM    15) SIGTERM    16) SIGURG
17) SIGSTOP   18) SIGTSTP    19) SIGCONT    20) SIGCHLD
21) SIGTTIN   22) SIGTTOU    23) SIGIO      24) SIGXCPU
25) SIGXFSZ   26) SIGVTALRM  27) SIGPROF    28) SIGWINCH
29) SIGINFO   30) SIGUSR1    31) SIGUSR2    32) SIGPWR
$
# Linux (re-wrapped to fit on the page)
$ trap -l
1) SIGHUP      2)  SIGINT      3)  SIGQUIT     4)  SIGILL
5)  SIGTRAP    6)  SIGABRT     7)  SIGBUS      8)  SIGFPE
9)  SIGKILL    10) SIGUSR1     11) SIGSEGV    12) SIGUSR2
13) SIGPIPE   14) SIGALRM    15) SIGTERM    16) SIGSTKFLT
17) SIGCHLD   18) SIGCONT    19) SIGSTOP    20) SIGTSTP
21) SIGTTIN   22) SIGTTOU    23) SIGURG     24) SIGXCPU
25) SIGXFSZ   26) SIGVTALRM  27) SIGPROF    28) SIGWINCH
29) SIGIO     30) SIGPWR     31) SIGSYS     34) SIGRTMIN
35) SIGRTMIN+1 36) SIGRTMIN+2 37) SIGRTMIN+3 38) SIGRTMIN+4
39) SIGRTMIN+5 40) SIGRTMIN+6 41) SIGRTMIN+7 42) SIGRTMIN+8
43) SIGRTMIN+9 44) SIGRTMIN+10 45) SIGRTMIN+11 46) SIGRTMIN+12
47) SIGRTMIN+13 48) SIGRTMIN+14 49) SIGRTMIN+15 50) SIGRTMAX-14
51) SIGRTMAX-13 52) SIGRTMAX-12 53) SIGRTMAX-11 54) SIGRTMAX-10
55) SIGRTMAX-9 56) SIGRTMAX-8 57) SIGRTMAX-7 58) SIGRTMAX-6
59) SIGRTMAX-5 60) SIGRTMAX-4 61) SIGRTMAX-3 62) SIGRTMAX-2
63) SIGRTMAX-1 64) SIGRTMAX
$
```


Next, set your trap(s) and signal handlers. Note that the exit status of your script will be 128+*signal number* if the command was terminated by signal *signal number*. Here is a simple case where we only care that we got a signal and don't care what it was. If our trap had been trap '' ABRT EXIT HUP INT QUIT TERM, this script would be rather hard to kill because any of those signals would just be ignored:

```
$ cat hard_to_kill
#!/bin/bash
trap ' echo "You got me! $?" ' ABRT EXIT HUP INT QUIT TERM
trap ' echo "Later... $?"; exit ' USR1
sleep 120

$ ./hard_to_kill
^CYou got me! 130
You got me! 130

$ ./hard_to_kill &
[1] 26354

$ kill -USR1 %1
User defined signal 1
Later... 158
You got me! 0
[1]+ Done                ./hard_to_kill

$ ./hard_to_kill &
[1] 28180

$ kill %1
You got me! 0
[1]+ Terminated        ./hard_to_kill
```

Example 10-3 is a more interesting example.

Example 10-3. ch10/hard_to_kill

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: hard_to_kill

function trapped {
    if [ "$1" = "USR1" ]; then
        echo "Got me with a $1 trap!"
        exit
    else
        echo "Received $1 trap--neener, neener"
    fi
}

trap "trapped ABRT" ABRT
trap "trapped EXIT" EXIT
trap "trapped HUP" HUP
```

```

trap "trapped INT" INT
trap "trapped KILL" KILL # This won't actually work
trap "trapped QUIT" QUIT
trap "trapped TERM" TERM
trap "trapped USR1" USR1 # This one is special

# Just hang out and do nothing, without introducing "third-party"
# trap behavior, such as if we used 'sleep'
while (( 1 )); do
    : # : is a NOOP
done

```

Here we invoke this example then try to kill it:

```

$ ./hard_to_kill
^CReceived INT trap--neener, neener
^CReceived INT trap--neener, neener
^CReceived INT trap--neener, neener
^Z
[1]+ Stopped ./hard_to_kill

$ kill -TERM %1

[1]+ Stopped ./hard_to_kill
Received TERM trap--neener, neener

$ jobs
[1]+ Stopped ./hard_to_kill

$ bg
[1]+ ./hard_to_kill &

$ jobs
[1]+ Running ./hard_to_kill &

$ kill -TERM %1
Received TERM trap--neener, neener

$ kill -HUP %1
Received HUP trap--neener, neener

$ kill -USR1 %1
Got me with a USR1 trap!
Received EXIT trap--neener, neener

[1]+ Done ./hard_to_kill

```

Discussion

First, we should mention that you can't actually trap `-SIGKILL (-9)`. That signal kills processes dead immediately, so they have no chance to trap anything—so maybe our examples weren't really so hard to kill after all. But remember that this signal does not

allow the script or program to clean up or shut down gracefully at any time. That's often a bad thing, so try to avoid using `kill -KILL` unless you have no other choice.

Usage for `trap` is as follows:

```
trap [-lp] [arg] [signal [signal]]
```

The first nonoption argument to `trap` is the code to execute when the given signal is received. As shown in the previous examples, that code can be self-contained, or it can be a call to a function. For most nontrivial uses a call to one or more error handling functions is probably best, since that lends itself well to cleanup and graceful termination features. If this argument is the null string, the given signal or signals will be ignored. If the argument is `-` or missing, but one or more signals are listed, they will be reset to the shell defaults. `-l` lists the signal names, as shown in the Solution section, while `-p` will print any current traps and their handlers.

When using more than one trap handler, we recommend you take the extra time to alphabetize the signal names because that makes them easier to read and find later on.

As noted previously, the exit status of your script will be $128 + \text{signal number}$ if the command was terminated by signal *signal number*.

There are three pseudosignals for various special purposes. The `DEBUG` signal is similar to `EXIT` but is used before every command for debugging purposes. The `RETURN` signal is triggered when execution resumes after a function or `source` (`.`) call. And the `ERR` signal is triggered after a simple command fails. Consult the Bash Reference Manual for more specific details and caveats, especially dealing with functions using the `declare` builtin or the `set -o functrace` option.



There are some POSIX differences that affect `trap`. As noted in the [Bash Reference Manual](#), “Starting `bash` with the `--posix` command-line option or executing `'set -o posix'` while Bash is running will cause Bash to conform more closely to the POSIX standard by changing the behavior to match that specified by POSIX in areas where the Bash default differs.” In particular, this will cause `kill` and `trap` to display signal names without the leading `SIG` and the output of `kill -l` will be different. Also, `trap` will handle its argument somewhat more strictly; in particular, it will require a leading `-` in order to reset the trap to the shell default. In other words, it requires `trap -USR1`, not just `trap USR1`. We recommend that you always include the `-` even when not necessary, because it makes your intent clearer in the code.

See Also

- `help trap`
- [Recipe 1.19, “Learning More About bash Documentation”](#)
- [Recipe 10.1, ““Daemon-izing” Your Script”](#)
- [Recipe 14.11, “Using Secure Temporary Files”](#)
- [Recipe 17.7, “Clearing the Screen When You Log Out”](#)

10.7 Redefining Commands with `alias`

Problem

You’d like to slightly alter the definition of a command, perhaps so that you always use a particular option on the command (e.g., always using `-a` on the `ls` command or `-i` on the `rm` command).

Solution

Use the *alias* feature of *bash* for interactive shells (only). The *alias* command is smart enough not to go into an endless loop when you say something like:

```
alias ls='ls -a'
```

In fact, just type `alias` with no other arguments and you can see a list of aliases that are already defined for you in your *bash* session. Some installations may already have several available for you.

Discussion

The *alias* mechanism is a straightforward text substitution. It occurs very early in the command-line processing, so other substitutions will occur after the *alias*. For example, if you want to define the single letter “h” to be the command that lists your home directory, you can do it like this:

```
alias h='ls $HOME'
```

or like this:

```
alias h='ls ~'
```

The use of single quotes is significant in the first instance, meaning that the variable `$HOME` will not be evaluated when the definition of the *alias* is made. Only when you run the command will the (string) substitution be made, and only then will the `$HOME`

variable be evaluated. That way if you change the definition of `$HOME` the alias will move with it, so to speak.

If, instead, you used double quotes, then the substitution of the variable's value would be made right away and the alias would be defined with the value of `$HOME` substituted. You can see this by typing `alias` with no arguments so that `bash` lists all the alias definitions. You would see something like this:

```
...
alias h='ls /home/youracct'
...
```

If you don't like what your alias does and want to get rid of it, just use `unalias` and the name of the alias that you no longer want. For example:

```
\unalias h
```

will remove the definition we made earlier. If you get really messed up, you can use `unalias -a` to remove all the alias definitions in your current shell session. Why did we prefix the previous command with a backslash? The backslash prefix disables alias expansion for any command, so it is standard security best practice to use `\unalias` just in case some bad actor has aliased `unalias`, perhaps to `:"`, to make it ineffective:

```
$ alias unalias=':'
$ alias unalias
alias unalias=':'
$ unalias unalias
$ alias unalias
alias unalias=':'
$ \unalias unalias
$ alias unalias
bash: alias: unalias: not found
```

Aliases do not allow arguments. For example, you cannot do this:

```
alias='mkdir $1 && cd $1'
```

The difference between `$1` and `$HOME` is that `$HOME` is defined (one way or another) when the alias itself is defined, while you'd expect `$1` to be passed in at runtime. Sorry, that doesn't work. Use a function instead.

See Also

- [Appendix C](#) for more on command-line processing

- [Recipe 10.4, “Defining Functions”](#)
- [Recipe 10.5, “Using Functions: Parameters and Return Values”](#)
- [Recipe 14.4, “Clearing All Aliases”](#)
- [Recipe 16.16, “Creating and Changing Into a New Directory in One Step”](#)

10.8 Avoiding Aliases and Functions

Problem

You’ve written an alias or function to override a real command, but now you want to execute the real command.

Solution

Use the *bash* shell’s *builtin* command to ignore shell functions and aliases and run an actual builtin command.

Use the *command* command to ignore shell functions and aliases and run an actual external command.

If you only want to avoid alias expansion, but still allow function definitions to be considered, then prefix the command with `\` to just prevent alias expansion.

Use the *type* command (also with `-a`) to figure out what you’ve got.

Here are some examples:

```
$ alias echo='echo ~~~'

$ echo test
~~~ test

$ \echo test
test

$ builtin echo test
test

$ type echo
echo is aliased to `echo ~~~`

$ unalias echo

$ type echo
echo is a shell builtin

$ type -a echo
```

```
echo is a shell builtin
echo is /bin/echo
```

```
$ echo test
test
```

Here is a function definition that we will discuss:

```
function cd ()
{
    if [[ $1 = "... " ]]
    then
        builtin cd ../..
    else
        builtin cd "$1"
    fi
}
```

Discussion

The *alias* command is smart enough not to go into an endless loop when you say something like `alias ls='ls-a'` or `alias echo='echo ~~~'`, so in our first example we need to do nothing special on the righthand side of our alias definition to refer to the actual *echo* command.

When we have *echo* defined as an alias, the *type* command will not only tell us that this is an alias, but show us the alias definition. Similarly, with function definitions, we would be shown the actual body of the function. `type -a some_command` will show us all of the places (aliases, builtins, functions, and external) that contain *some_command* (as long as we are not also using `-p`).

In our last example, the function overrides the definition of *cd* so that we can add a simple shortcut. We want our function to understand that `cd ...` means to go up two directories; i.e., `cd ../..` (see [Recipe 16.15](#)). All other arguments will be treated as normal. Our function simply looks for a match with `...` and substitutes the real meaning. But how, within (or without) the function, do we invoke the underlying *cd* command so as to actually change directories? The *builtin* command tells *bash* to assume that the command that follows is a shell builtin command and not to use any alias or function definition. We use it within the function, but it can be used at any time to refer, unambiguously, to the actual command, avoiding any function name that might be overriding it.

If your function name is that of an executable, like *ls*, and not a builtin command, then you can override any alias and/or function definition by just referring to the full path to the executable, such as `/bin/ls` rather than just *ls* as the command. If you don't know its full path, just prefix the command with the keyword *command* and *bash* will ignore any alias and function definitions with that name and use the actual command. Please note, however, that the `$PATH` variable will still be used to determine the

location of the command. If you are running the wrong *ls* because your `$PATH` has some unexpected values, adding *command* will not help in that situation.

See Also

- `help builtin`
- `help command`
- `help type`
- [Recipe 14.4, “Clearing All Aliases”](#)
- [Recipe 16.15, “Creating a Better `cd` Command”](#)

10.9 Counting Elapsed Time

Problem

You want to display how long a script, or an operation in a script, takes.

Solution

Use the `time` builtin or the *bash* variable `$SECONDS`.

Discussion

`time` reports the time used by a process or pipeline in a variety of ways:

```
$ time sleep 4

real    0m4.029s
user    0m0.000s
sys     0m0.000s

$ time sha256sum /bin/* &> /dev/null

real    0m1.252s
user    0m0.072s
sys     0m0.028s
```

You can use `time` for commands or functions inside a script, but you can't time the entire script from inside itself. You can certainly add `time` to a calling script or *cron* job, but be aware if you add it to *cron* that there will always be output, so you will always get a *cron* email about the run.

If that seems like overkill or you just want to know how long the entire script took, you can use `$SECONDS`. According to the Bash Reference Manual:

[`$SECONDS`] expands to the number of seconds since the shell was started. Assignment to this variable resets the count to the value assigned, and the expanded value becomes the value assigned plus the number of seconds since the assignment.

Examples:

```
$ cat seconds
started="$SECONDS"
sleep 4
echo "Run-time = $((($SECONDS - $started)) seconds..."
```

```
$ bash seconds
Run-time = 4 seconds...
```

```
$ time bash seconds
Run-time = 4 seconds...
```

```
real    0m4.003s
user    0m0.000s
sys     0m0.000s
```

See Also

- `help time`
- The Bash Reference Manual for your *bash* version (see <http://www.bashcookbook.com/bashinfo/>)

10.10 Writing Wrappers

Problem

You have a series of related commands or tools that you often need to use in an ad hoc manner, and you want to collect them in one place to make them easier to use and remember.

Solution

Write a shell script “wrapper” using `case . .esac` blocks as needed.

Discussion

There are two basic ways to handle needs like this. One is to write a lot of tiny shell scripts, or perhaps aliases, to handle all the needs. This is the approach taken by Busy-Box where a large number of tools are really just symlinks to a single binary. The other is like the majority of revision control tools, where you call a single binary like a “prefix,” then add the action or command. Both approaches have merit, but we tend

to prefer the second one because you only have to remember the single prefix command.

There is an excellent discussion of this concept and a more complicated implementation in [Signal v. Noise](#); we encourage you to read about it. Our implementation is a bit simpler, and has some handy tricks. Some of our basic design considerations are as follows:

- Simple to read and understand
- Simple to add to
- Built-in, inline help that's easy to write
- Easy to use and remember

We wrote the second edition of this book in AsciiDoc, and there is a lot of markup to remember, so here's an excerpt from a tool we wrote to help us ([Example 10-4](#)). This tool can get input from the command line or it can read from and write to the Linux clipboard.

Example 10-4. ch10/ad

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: ad
# O'Reilly "book" tool wrapper for AsciiDoc

# Trivial sanity checks ❶
[ -n "$BOOK_ASC" ] || {
    echo "FATAL: must export \$BOOK_ASC to the location of '...bcb2/head/asciidoc/'!"
    exit 1
}
\cd "$BOOK_ASC" || {
    echo "FATAL: can't cd to '$BOOK_ASC'!"
    exit 2
}

SELF="$0" ❷ # For clarity in recursion

action="$1" ❸ # For code readability
shift ❹ # Remove that argument from the list

# If `xsel` is executable and we have no more arguments... ❺
[ -x /usr/bin/xsel -a $# -lt 1 ] && {
    # Read/write the clipboard
    text=$(xsel -b)
    function Output {
        echo -en "$*" | xsel -bi
    }
} || { # Otherwise...
    # Read/write STDIN/STDOUT
```

```

text=$*
function Output {
    echo -en "$*"
}
}

case "$action" in

#####
# Content/Markup

rec|recipe )          # Create the tags for a new recipe
    id="$(($SELF id $text)" # Create an "ID"
    Output "$(cat <<- EoF
                [[${id}]
                === $text

                [[problem-${id}]
                ==== Problem

                [[solution-${id}]
                ==== Solution

                [[discussion-${id}]
                ==== Discussion

                [[see_also-${id}]
                ==== See Also
                * `man `
                * item1
                * <<xref-id-here>>
                * URL[text]
                EoF
            )"
    ;;

table )              # Create the tags for a new table
    Output "$(cat <<- EoF
                .A Table
                [options="header"]
                |=====
                |head|h|h
                |cell|c|c
                |cell|c|c
                |=====
                EoF
            )"
    ;;

# ...
### Headers
h1 )                # Inside chapter head 1 (really Asciidoc h3)

```

6

7

8

9

10

```

    Output "=== $text"
;;
h2 )          # Inside chapter head 2 (really AsciiDoc h4)
    Output "==== $text"
;;
h3 )          # Inside chapter head 3 (really AsciiDoc h5)
    Output "===== $text"
;;

### Lists
bul|bullet )  # Bullet list (.. = level 2, + = multiline element)
    Output ". $text"
;;
nul|number|order* ) # Num./ordered list (## = level 2, + = multiline element)
    Output "# $text"
;;
term )       # Terms
    Output "term_here::\n $text"
;;
# ...

cleanup )    ## Clean up all the xHTML/XML/PDF cruft
    rm -fv {ch??.app?}.{pdf,xml,html} book.xml docbook-xsl.css
;;

* )
    \cd - > /dev/null # UGLY cheat to revert the 'cd' above...
    # See also: http://stackoverflow.com/questions/59895/can-a-bash-script-tell-what-directory-its-stored-in
    ( echo "Usage:"
    egrep '\)[[:space:]]+# ' $SELF
    echo ''
    egrep '\)[[:space:]]+## ' $SELF ) | more
;;

```

esac

- ❶ Sanity-check required variables and locations.
- ❷ Set a more readable name for recursion.
- ❸ Set a more readable name for the command or action we're going to take.
- ❹ Remove that argument from the list so we don't reuse or include it in the input or output later.
- ❺ If the *xsel* command is available and executable, and we passed no other arguments, then set up the input and output to be from and to the clipboard. That turns this script into an application-generic macro tool! No matter what editor

you are using, if you have a GUI and read from and write to the clipboard, if you switch to a terminal session you can copy text, process it, and paste it easily, which is a really handy thing to be able to do!

- ⑥ Each block in the `case...esac` is both the code and the documentation. The number of `#` characters determines the section, so the code can be in whatever order makes sense, but the help/usage can vary from that.
- ⑦ Take the input text and make a recursive call to get an ID out of that, then output the boilerplate markup.
- ⑧ Note that inside the here-document the indentation must be tabs.
- ⑨ Sometimes the boilerplate markup doesn't include any input text.
- ⑩ Sometimes the operation is very simple, like just remembering how many equals signs are needed.
- ⑪ Sometimes the operation is a bit more complicated, with embedded newlines and expanded escape characters.
- ⑫ Actions can do anything you can think of and figure out how to automate!
- ⑬ If you don't provide any arguments, or provide incorrect arguments, even including ones like `-h` or `--help`, you get a generated usage message.
- ⑭ We wrap the blocks in a `()` subshell to get the output in the right order and send it all into the `more` command. The two `egrep` commands display our `case...esac` section lines, as in ⑥, which are both code and documentation, grouped by the count of `#` characters (one or two).



Use `pbcopy` and `pbpaste` instead of `xsel` on a Mac.

Example usage:

```
$ ad
Usage:
  rec|recipe )      # Create the tags for a new recipe
  table )          # Create the tags for a new table
  h1 )             # Inside chapter heading 1 (really AsciiDoc h3)
  h2 )             # Inside chapter heading 2 (really AsciiDoc h4)
  h3 )             # Inside chapter heading 3 (really AsciiDoc h5)
```

```

    bul|bullet )          # Bullet list (.. = level 2, + = multiline element)
    nul|number|order* ) # Num./ordered list (## = level 2, + = multiline element)
    term )              # Terms

    cleanup )           ## Clean up all the xHTML/XML/PDF cruft
$

```

To use *ad* to create the tags for a new recipe, like this one, you would type out the title, select it, open or flip to a terminal window, type `ad rec`, flip back to your editor, and paste it in. It's much easier than it sounds and much faster to do than to describe. The beauty of this kind of script is that it works for all kinds of problems, it's usually easy to extend, and the usage reminders all but write themselves. We've used scripts following this pattern to:

- Write the second edition of this book
- Wrap up various SSH commands to do common chores on groups of servers
- Collect various Debian package system tools, prior to the advent of *apt*
- Automate various “cleanup” tasks like trimming whitespace, sorting, and performing various simple text manipulations like stripping out rich-text formatting
- Automate *grep* commands to search various specific file types and locations for notes and archived documentation

See Also

- <https://signalvnoise.com/posts/3264-automating-with-convention-introducing-sub>
— <https://github.com/37signals/sub>
- Appendix D
- Recipe 15.17, “Automating a Process Using Phases”
- http://docs.atlas.oreilly.com/writing_in_asciidoc.html

Working with Dates and Times

Working with dates and times should be simple, but it's not. Regardless of whether you're writing a shell script or a much larger program, timekeeping is full of complexities: different formats for displaying the time and date, Daylight Saving Time, leap years, leap seconds, and all of that. For example, imagine that you have a list of contracts and the dates on which they were signed. You'd like to compute expiration dates for all of those contracts. It's not a trivial problem: does a leap year get in the way? Is it the sort of contract where Daylight Saving Time is likely to be a problem? And how do you format the output so that it's unambiguous? Does 7/4/07 mean July 4, 2007, or does it mean April 7?

Dates and times permeate every aspect of computing. Sooner or later you are going to have to deal with them: in system, application, or transaction logs; in data processing scripts; in user or administrative tasks; and more. This chapter will help you deal with them as simply and cleanly as possible. Computers are very good at keeping time accurately, particularly if they are using the Network Time Protocol (NTP) to keep themselves synced with national and international time standards. They're also great at understanding the variations in Daylight Saving Time from locale to locale. To work with time in a shell script, you need the Unix *date* command (or even better, the GNU version of the *date* command, which is standard on Linux). *date* is capable of displaying dates in different formats and even doing date arithmetic correctly.

Note that *gawk* (the GNU version of *awk*) has the same *strftime* formatting as the GNU *date* command. We're not going to cover *gawk* usage here except for one trivial example. We recommend sticking with GNU *date* because it's much easier to use and it has the very useful *-d* argument. But keep *gawk* in mind should you ever encounter a system that has *gawk* but not GNU *date*.

11.1 Formatting Dates for Display

Problem

You need to format dates or times for output.

Solution

Use the `date` command with a `strftime` format specification. See “[Date and Time String Formatting with strftime](#)” on page 609 in [Appendix A](#) or the `strftime` manpage for the list of format specifications supported:

```
# Setting environment variables can be helpful in scripts:
$ STRICT_ISO_8601='%Y-%m-%dT%H:%M:%S%z' # Strict ISO 8601 format
$ ISO_8601='%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %Z'      # Almost ISO8601, but more human-readable
$ ISO_8601_1='%Y-%m-%d %T %Z'         # %T is the same as %H:%M:%S
$ DATEFILE='%Y%m%d%H%M%S'            # Suitable for use in a filename

$ date "+$ISO_8601"
2006-05-08 14:36:51 CDT

$ gawk "BEGIN {print strftime(\"$ISO_8601\")}"
2006-12-07 04:38:54 EST

# Same as previous $ISO_8601
$ date '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %Z'
2006-05-08 14:36:51 CDT

$ date -d '2005-11-06' "+$ISO_8601"
2005-11-06 00:00:00 CST

$ date "+Program starting at: $ISO_8601"
Program starting at: 2006-05-08 14:36:51 CDT

$ printf "%b" "Program starting at: $(date '+$ISO_8601')\n"
Program starting at: $ISO_8601

$ echo "I can rename a file like this: mv file.log file_$(date +%DATEFILE).log"
I can rename a file like this: mv file.log file_20060508143724.log
```

Discussion

You may be tempted to place the `+` in the environment variable to simplify the later command, but some systems the `date` command is more picky about the existence and placement of the `+` than on others. Our advice is to explicitly add it to the `date` command itself.

Many more formatting options are available; see the *date* manpage or the C `strftime()` function (`man 3 strftime`) on your system for a full list.

Unless otherwise specified, the time zone is assumed to be local time as defined by your system. The `%z` format is a nonstandard extension used by the GNU *date* command; it may not work on your system.

ISO 8601 is the recommended standard for displaying dates and times and should be used if at all possible. It offers a number of advantages over other display formats:

- It is a recognized standard.
- It is unambiguous.
- It is easy to read while still being easy to parse programmatically (e.g., using *awk* or *cut*).
- It sorts as expected when used in columnar data or in filenames.

Try to avoid `MM/DD/YY` or `DD/MM/YY` (or even worse, `M/D/YY` or `D/M/YY`) formats. They do not sort well and they are ambiguous, since either the day or the month may come first depending on geographical location, which also makes them hard to parse. Likewise, use 24-hour time when possible to avoid even more ambiguity and parsing problems.

See Also

- `man date`
- `man 3 strftime`
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/ISO_8601
- <https://www.iso.org/iso-8601-date-and-time-format.html>
- “Date and Time String Formatting with `strftime`” on page 609 in Appendix A

11.2 Supplying a Default Date

Problem

You want your script to provide a useful default date, and perhaps prompt the user to verify it.

Solution

Using the GNU *date* command, assign the most likely date to a variable, then allow the user to change it (see [Example 11-1](#)).

Example 11-1. ch11/default_date

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: default_date

# Use noon time to prevent a script running around midnight and a clock a
# few seconds off from causing off by one day errors.
START_DATE=$(date -d 'last week Monday 12:00:00' '+%Y-%m-%d')

while [ 1 ]; do
    printf "%b" "The starting date is $START_DATE, is that correct? (Y/new date)"
    read answer

    # Anything other than ENTER, "Y", or "y" is validated as a new date
    # Could use "[Yy]*" to allow the user to spell out "yes"...
    # Validate the new date format as: CCYY-MM-DD
    case "$answer" in
        [Yy]) break
            ;;
        [0-9][0-9][0-9][0-9]-[0-9][0-9]-[0-9][0-9])
            printf "%b" "Overriding $START_DATE with $answer\n"
            START_DATE="$answer"
            ;;
        *) printf "%b" "Invalid date, please try again...\n"
            ;;
    esac
done

END_DATE=$(date -d "$START_DATE +7 days" '+%Y-%m-%d')

echo "START_DATE: $START_DATE"
echo "END_DATE: $END_DATE"
```

Discussion

Not all *date* commands support the *-d* option, but the GNU version does. Our advice is to obtain and use the GNU *date* command if at all possible.

Leave out the user verification code if your script is running unattended or at a known time (e.g., from *cron*).

See [Recipe 11.1](#) for information about how to format the dates and times.

We use code like this in scripts that generate SQL queries. The script runs at a given time and creates a SQL query for a specific date range to generate a report.

See Also

- `man date`
- [Recipe 11.1, “Formatting Dates for Display”](#)
- [Recipe 11.3, “Automating Date Ranges”](#)

11.3 Automating Date Ranges

Problem

You have one date (perhaps from [Recipe 11.2](#)) and you would like to generate another automatically.

Solution

The GNU `date` command is very powerful and flexible, but the power of `-d` isn't documented well. Your system may document it under `getdate` (try the `getdate` manpage). Here are some examples:

```
$ date '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %z'
2005-11-05 01:03:00 -0500

$ date -d 'today' '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %z'
2005-11-05 01:04:39 -0500

$ date -d 'yesterday' '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %z'
2005-11-04 01:04:48 -0500

$ date -d 'tomorrow' '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %z'
2005-11-06 01:04:55 -0500

$ date -d 'Monday' '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %z'
2005-11-07 00:00:00 -0500

$ date -d 'this Monday' '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %z'
2005-11-07 00:00:00 -0500

$ date -d 'last Monday' '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %z'
2005-10-31 00:00:00 -0500

$ date -d 'next Monday' '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %z'
2005-11-07 00:00:00 -0500
```

```

$ date -d 'last week' '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %z'
2005-10-29 01:05:24 -0400

$ date -d 'next week' '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %z'
2005-11-12 01:05:29 -0500

$ date -d '2 weeks' '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %z'
2005-11-19 01:05:42 -0500

$ date -d '-2 weeks' '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %z'
2005-10-22 01:05:47 -0400

$ date -d '2 weeks ago' '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %z'
2005-10-22 01:06:00 -0400

$ date -d '+4 days' '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %z'
2005-11-09 01:06:23 -0500

$ date -d '-6 days' '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %z'
2005-10-30 01:06:30 -0400

$ date -d '2000-01-01 +12 days' '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %z'
2000-01-13 00:00:00 -0500

$ date -d '3 months 1 day' '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S %z'
2006-02-06 01:03:00 -0500

```

Discussion

The `-d` option allows you to specify a specific date instead of using “now,” but not all *date* commands support it. The GNU version does, and our advice is to obtain and use that version if at all possible.

Using `-d` can be tricky. These arguments work as expected:

```

$ date '+%a %Y-%m-%d'
Sat 2005-11-05

$ date -d 'today' '+%a %Y-%m-%d'
Sat 2005-11-05

$ date -d 'Saturday' '+%a %Y-%m-%d'
Sat 2005-11-05

$ date -d 'last Saturday' '+%a %Y-%m-%d'
Sat 2005-10-29

$ date -d 'this Saturday' '+%a %Y-%m-%d'
Sat 2005-11-05

```

But if you run this on Saturday, you would expect to see *next* Saturday but instead will get today:

```
$ date -d 'next Saturday' '+%a %Y-%m-%d'
Sat 2005-11-05
$
```

Also watch out for *this week day*, because as soon as the specified day is in the past, this week becomes *next* week. So, if you ran the following command on Saturday 2005-11-05 you would get these results, which may not be what you were expecting:

```
$ date -d 'this week Friday' '+%a %Y-%m-%d'
Fri 2005-11-11
```

The `-d` options can be incredibly useful, but be sure to thoroughly test your code and provide appropriate error checking.

If you don't have GNU *date*, you may find the following shell functions' presented in "Shell Corner: Date-Related Shell Functions" in the September 2005 issue of *Unix Review*, to be useful:

`pn_month`

Previous and next *x* months relative to the given month

`end_month`

End of month of the given month

`pn_day`

Previous and next *x* days relative to the given day

`cur_weekday`

Day of week for the given day

`pn_weekday`

Previous and next *x* days of the week relative to the given day

And these are available in newer versions of *bash*:

`pn_day_nr`

(Nonrecursive) Previous and next *x* days relative to the given day

`days_between`

Number of days between two dates

Note that `pn_month`, `end_month`, and `cur_weekday` are independent of the rest of the functions. However, `pn_day` is built on top of `pn_month` and `end_month`, and `pn_week` day is built on top of `pn_day` and `cur_weekday`.

See Also

- `man date`
- `man getdate`
- <http://www.drdoobs.com/shell-corner-date-related-shell-function/199102857>
- Recipe 11.2, “Supplying a Default Date”

11.4 Converting Dates and Times to Epoch Seconds

Problem

You want to convert a date and time to epoch seconds to make it easier to do date and time arithmetic.

Solution

Use the GNU `date` command with the nonstandard `-d` option and a standard `%s` format:

```
# "Now" is easy
$ date +%s
1131172934

# Some other time needs the nonstandard -d
$ date -d '2005-11-05 12:00:00 +0000' +%s
1131192000
```

Epoch seconds are simply the number of seconds since the epoch (which is midnight on January 1, 1970, also known as 1970-01-01T00:00:00). This command simply starts at the epoch, adds the epoch seconds, and displays the date and time as you wish.

Discussion

If you do not have the GNU `date` command available, this is a harder problem to solve. Our advice is to obtain and use the GNU `date` command if at all possible. If that is not possible, you might be able to use Perl. Here are three ways to print the time right now in epoch seconds:

```
$ perl -e 'print time, qq(\n);'
1154158997

# Same as above
$ perl -e 'use Time::Local; print timelocal(localtime()) . qq(\n);'
1154158997
```

```
$ perl -e 'use POSIX qw(strftime); print strftime("%s", localtime()) . qq(\n);'  
1154159097
```

Using Perl to convert a specific day and time instead of “right now” is even harder due to Perl’s date/time data structure. Years start at 1900 and months (but not days) start at 0 instead of 1. The format of the command is: `timelocal(sec, min, hour, day, month-1, year-1900)`. So, to convert 2005-11-05 06:59:49 to epoch seconds:

```
# The given time is in local time  
$ perl -e 'use Time::Local;  
> print timelocal("49", "59", "06", "05", "10", "105") . qq(\n);'  
1131191989  
  
# The given time is in UTC time  
$ perl -e 'use Time::Local;  
> print timegm("49", "59", "06", "05", "10", "105") . qq(\n);'  
1131173989
```

See Also

- `man date`
- [Recipe 11.5, “Converting Epoch Seconds to Dates and Times”](#)
- [“Date and Time String Formatting with strftime” on page 609 in Appendix A](#)

11.5 Converting Epoch Seconds to Dates and Times

Problem

You need to convert epoch seconds to a human-readable date and time.

Solution

Use the GNU `date` command with your desired format from [Recipe 11.1](#):

```
$ EPOCH='1131173989'  
  
$ date -d "1970-01-01 UTC $EPOCH seconds" +"%Y-%m-%d %T %z"  
2005-11-05 01:59:49 -0500  
  
$ date --utc --date "1970-01-01 $EPOCH seconds" +"%Y-%m-%d %T %z"  
2005-11-05 06:59:49 +0000
```

Discussion

If you don't have GNU *date* on your system you can try one of these Perl one-liners:

```
$ EPOCH='1131173989'

$ perl -e "print scalar(gmtime($EPOCH)), qq(\n);" # UTC
Sat Nov 5 06:59:49 2005

$ perl -e "print scalar(localtime($EPOCH)), qq(\n);" # Your local time
Sat Nov 5 01:59:49 2005

$ perl -e "use POSIX qw(strftime);
> print strftime('%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S', localtime($EPOCH)), qq(\n);"
2005-11-05 01:59:49
```

See Also

- `man date`
- [Recipe 11.1, “Formatting Dates for Display”](#)
- [Recipe 11.4, “Converting Dates and Times to Epoch Seconds”](#)
- [“Date and Time String Formatting with strftime” on page 609 in Appendix A](#)

11.6 Getting Yesterday or Tomorrow with Perl

Problem

You need to get yesterday or tomorrow's date, and you have Perl but not GNU *date* on your system.

Solution

Use these Perl one-liners, adjusting the number of seconds added to or subtracted from time:

```
# Yesterday at this same time (note subtraction)
$ perl -e "use POSIX qw(strftime);
> print strftime('%Y-%m-%d', localtime(time - 86400)), qq(\n);"
2005-11-04

# Tomorrow at this same time (note addition)
$ perl -e "use POSIX qw(strftime);
> print strftime('%Y-%m-%d', localtime(time + 86400)), qq(\n);"
2005-11-06
```


Discussion

This is really just a specific application of the preceding recipes, but it's so common that it's worth talking about by itself. See [Recipe 11.7](#) for a handy table of values that may be of use.

See Also

- [Recipe 11.2](#), “Supplying a Default Date”
- [Recipe 11.3](#), “Automating Date Ranges”
- [Recipe 11.4](#), “Converting Dates and Times to Epoch Seconds”
- [Recipe 11.5](#), “Converting Epoch Seconds to Dates and Times”
- [Recipe 11.7](#), “Figuring Out Date and Time Arithmetic”
- “Date and Time String Formatting with `strftime`” on page 609 in [Appendix A](#)

11.7 Figuring Out Date and Time Arithmetic

Problem

You need to do some kind of arithmetic with dates and times.

Solution

If you can't get the answer you need using the `date` command (see [Recipe 11.3](#)), convert your existing dates and times to epoch seconds using [Recipe 11.4](#), perform your calculations, then convert the resulting epoch seconds back to your desired format using [Recipe 11.5](#).



If you don't have GNU `date`, you may find the shell functions presented in “Shell Corner: Date-Related Shell Functions” in the September 2005 issue of *Unix Review* to be very useful. See [Recipe 11.3](#).

For example, suppose you have log data from a machine where the time was badly off. Everyone should already be using the Network Time Protocol so this doesn't happen, but just suppose:

```
CORRECTION='172800' # 2 days' worth of seconds

# Code to extract the date portion from the data
# into $bad_date goes here
```

```

# Suppose it's this:
bad_date='Jan 2 05:13:05' # syslog-formatted date

# Convert to epoch second using GNU date
bad_epoch=$(date -d "$bad_date" '+%S')

# Apply correction
good_epoch=$(( bad_epoch + $CORRECTION ))

# Make corrected date human-readable, with GNU date
good_date=$(date -d "1970-01-01 UTC $good_epoch seconds")
good_date_iso=$(date -d "1970-01-01 UTC $good_epoch seconds" +%Y-%m-%d %T)
Date

echo "bad_date:      $bad_date"
echo "bad_epoch:     $bad_epoch"
echo "Correction:    +$CORRECTION"
echo "good_epoch:     $good_epoch"
echo "good_date:      $good_date"
echo "good_date_iso:  $good_date_iso"

# Code to insert the $good_date back into the data goes here

```



Watch out for years! Some Unix commands, like *ls* and *syslog*, try to be easy to read and omit the year under certain conditions. You may need to take that into account when calculating your correction factor. If you have data from a large range of dates or from different time zones, you will have to find some way to break it into separate files and process them individually.

Discussion

Dealing with any kind of date arithmetic is much easier using epoch seconds than any other format of which we are aware. You don't have to worry about hours, days, weeks, or years; you just do some simple addition or subtraction and you're all set. Using epoch seconds also avoids all the convoluted rules about leap years and seconds, and if you standardize on one time zone (usually UTC, which used to be called GMT) you can even avoid time zones.

Table 11-1 lists values that may be of use.

Table 11-1. Conversion table of common epoch time values

Seconds	Minutes	Hours	Days
60	1		
300	5		
600	10		
3,600	60	1	
18,000	300	5	
36,000	600	10	
86,400	1,440	24	1
172,800	2,880	48	2
604,800	10,080	168	7
1,209,600	20,160	336	14
2,592,000	43,200	720	30
31,536,000	525,600	8,760	365

See Also

- <http://www.jpdomain.org/networking/time.html>
- Recipe 11.3, “Automating Date Ranges”
- Recipe 11.4, “Converting Dates and Times to Epoch Seconds”
- Recipe 11.5, “Converting Epoch Seconds to Dates and Times”
- Recipe 13.13, “Isolating Specific Fields in Data”

11.8 Handling Time Zones, Daylight Saving Time, and Leap Years

Problem

You need to account for time zones, Daylight Saving Time, and leap years or seconds.

Solution

Don't.

Discussion

This is a lot trickier than it sounds. Leave it to code that's already been in use and debugged for years, and just use a tool that can handle your needs. Odds are high that

one of the other recipes in this chapter has covered what you need, probably using GNU *date*. If not, there is almost certainly another tool out there that can do the job. For example, there are a number of excellent Perl modules that deal with dates and times.

Really, we aren't kidding. This is a real nightmare to get right. Save yourself a lot of agony and just use a tool.

See Also

- [Recipe 11.1, “Formatting Dates for Display”](#)
- [Recipe 11.3, “Automating Date Ranges”](#)
- [Recipe 11.4, “Converting Dates and Times to Epoch Seconds”](#)
- [Recipe 11.5, “Converting Epoch Seconds to Dates and Times”](#)
- [Recipe 11.7, “Figuring Out Date and Time Arithmetic”](#)

11.9 Using *date* and *cron* to Run a Script on the Nth Day

Problem

You need to run a script on the *N*th weekday of the month (e.g., the second Wednesday), and most *crons* will not allow that.

Solution

Use a bit of shell code in the command to be run. In your Linux Vixie-*crontab*, adapt one of the following lines. If you are using another *cron* program, you may need to convert the day of the week names to numbers according to the schedule your *cron* uses (0–6 or 1–7) and use +%w (day of week as number) in place of +%a (*locale*'s abbreviated weekday name):

```
# Vixie-cron
# Min Hour DoM Mnth DoW Program
# 0-59 0-23 1-31 1-12 0-7

# Vixie-cron requires % to be escaped or you get an error!

# Run the first Wednesday @ 23:00
00 23 1-7 * Wed [ "$(date '+\%a')" == "Wed" ] && /path/to/command args to command

# Run the second Thursday @ 23:00
00 23 8-14 * Thu [ "$(date '+\%a')" == "Thu" ] && /path/to/command

# Run the third Friday @ 23:00
```

```
00 23 15-21 * Fri [ "$(date '+\%a')" == "Fri" ] && /path/to/command

# Run the fourth Saturday @ 23:00
00 23 22-27 * Sat [ "$(date '+\%a')" == "Sat" ] && /path/to/command

# Run the fifth Sunday @ 23:00
00 23 28-31 * Sun [ "$(date '+\%a')" == "Sun" ] && /path/to/command
```



Note that any given day of the week doesn't always happen five times during one month, so be sure you really know what you are asking for if you schedule something for the fifth week of the month.

Also note that Vixie-cron requires a % to be escaped or you get an error like "Syntax error: EOF in backquote substitution." Other versions of *cron* may not require this, so check your manpage.



If *cron* seems like it's not working, try restarting your MTA (e.g., *sendmail*). Some versions of *cron* on some systems, such as **Vixie-cron on Red Hat**, are tied into the *sendmail* process.

Discussion

Most versions of *cron* (including Linux's Vixie-cron) do not allow you to schedule a job on the *N*th day of the month. To get around that, we schedule the job to run during the *range of days* when the *N*th day we need occurs, then check to see if it is the correct day on which to run. The "second Wednesday of the month" must occur somewhere in the range of the 8th to 14th day of the month, so we simply run every day and see if it's Wednesday. If so, we execute our command.

Table 11-2 shows the ranges noted in the solution.

Table 11-2. Day ranges for each week of a month

Week	Day range
First	1 to 7
Second	8 to 14
Third	15 to 21
Fourth	22 to 27
Fifth (see previous warning)	28 to 31

We know this almost seems too simplistic; check a calendar if you don't believe us:

```
$ cal 10 2006
  October 2006
  S  M  Tu  W  Th  F  S
  1  2  3  4  5  6  7
  8  9 10 11 12 13 14
 15 16 17 18 19 20 21
 22 23 24 25 26 27 28
 29 30 31
$
```

See Also

- `man 5 crontab`
- `man cal`

11.10 Logging with Dates

Problem

You want to output logs or other lines with dates, but you want to avoid the overhead of shelling out to the *date* command.

Solution

As of *bash* 4 or newer, you can use `printf '%(fmt)T'` for dates and times:

```
printf '%(%F %T)T; Foo Bar\n' '-1'
```

You can also use *printf* to assign to a variable, so you can easily reuse it:

```
printf -v today '%(%F)T' '-1'    # Set $today = '2014-11-15'
```

Discussion

The `'-1'` argument is important, and inconsistent! The *bash* manpage says:

Two special argument values may be used: `-1` represents the current time, and `-2` represents the time the shell was invoked.

But the default behavior changed between *bash* 4.2 and 4.3. In 4.2, a null argument is treated as null, which will return the local time at the Unix epoch, which is almost certainly not what you want or expect. In 4.3 there is a special exception so that a null argument is treated as a `'-1'` argument. For example:

```
$ echo $BASH_VERSION
4.2.37(1)-release
```

```
$ printf '%(%F %T %Z)T; Foo Bar\n'  
1969-12-31 19:00:00 EST; Foo Bar  
  
$ printf '%(%F %T %Z)T; Foo Bar\n' '-1'  
2014-11-15 15:24:26 EST; Foo Bar  
  
$ echo $BASH_VERSION  
4.3.11(1)-release  
  
$ printf '%(%F %T %Z)T; Foo Bar\n'  
2014-11-15 15:25:02 EST; Foo Bar  
  
$ printf '%(%F %T %Z)T; Foo Bar\n' '-1'  
2014-11-15 15:25:05 EST; Foo Bar
```



The *printf* in *bash* is a builtin command, but there is also a separate binary executable called *printf* which isn't the same. The separate executable is for other shells that don't have a builtin *printf*. So, don't confuse the manpage for *printf* with the description of *printf* that is part of the *bash* manpage. Though there are large similarities between the two, the latter is what you want.

See Also

- `man date`
- `man strftime`
- [Recipe 15.15, “Using logger Correctly”](#)
- [Recipe 15.17, “Automating a Process Using Phases”](#)
- [Recipe 17.18, “Writing to a Circular Log”](#)

End-User Tasks as Shell Scripts

You have seen a lot of smaller scripts and syntax up to now. Our examples have, of necessity, been small in scale and scope. Now we would like to show you a few larger (though not large) examples. They are meant to give you useful, real-world examples of actual uses of shell scripts beyond just system administration tasks. We hope you find them useful or usable. More than that, we hope you learn something about *bash* by reading through them and maybe trying them yourself or even tweaking them for your own use.

12.1 Starting Simple by Printing Dashes

Problem

You want a simple script that prints a line of dashes.

Solution

Printing a line of dashes with a simple command might sound easy—and it is. But as soon as you think you’ve got a simple script, it begins to grow. What about varying the length of the line of dashes? What about changing the character from a dash to a user-supplied character? Do you see how easily *feature creep* occurs? Can we write a simple script that takes those extensions into account without getting too complex?

Consider the script in [Example 12-1](#).

Example 12-1. ch12/dash

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: dash
# dash - print a line of dashes
```

```

# options: # how many (default 72)
#         -c X use char X instead of dashes
#
function usagexit ( )
{
    printf "usage: %s [-c X] [#]\n" "${0##*/}" ❶
    exit 2
} >&2

LEN=72 ❷
CHAR='- '
while (( $# > 0 )) ❸
do
    case $1 in
        [0-9]*) LEN=$1;; ❹
        -c) shift ❺
            CHAR=$1;;
        *) usagexit;; ❻
    esac
done

if (( LEN > 4096 )) ❼
then
    echo "too large" >&2
    exit 3
fi

# build the string to the exact length
DASHES=""
for ((i=0; i<LEN; i++))
do
    DASHES="${DASHES}${CHAR}"
done
printf "%s\n" "$DASHES"

```

Discussion

The basic task is accomplished by building a string of the required number of dashes (or an alternate character) and then printing that string to standard output (STDOUT). That takes only the last six lines. The default values are set early in the script, before the `while` loop. All the other lines deal with argument parsing, error checking, user messages, and comments.

You will find that this is pretty typical for a robust end-user script. Less than 20 percent of the code does most of the “real” work—but that other 80 percent of the code is what makes the script usable and “friendly” for your users.

- ❶ Here we use the string manipulation operator with a pattern (`*/`) to trim off any leading pathname characters when displaying this script’s name. That way no

matter how the user invokes the script (for example, `./dashes`, `/home/username/bin/dashes`, or even `../over/there/dashes`), it will still be referred to as just *dashes* in the usage message.

- ❷ The default values are set with the two assignments here.
- ❸ The argument parsing is done while there are some arguments to parse. As arguments are handled, each `shift` builtin will decrement the number of arguments and eventually get us out of the `while` loop.
- ❹ There are only two possible allowable arguments: specifying a number for the length, and
- ❺ a `-c` option followed by a character, to be used instead of the dash.
- ❻ Any other options will end up here and result in the usage message and an early exit.
- ❼ Finally, notice that the script enforces a maximum length here, though it is completely arbitrary. Would you keep or remove such a restriction?

We could be more careful in parsing the `-c` and its argument. Because we don't use more sophisticated parsing (e.g., with *getopts*; see [Recipe 13.1](#)), our code requires the option and its argument to be separated by whitespace. (In running the script one must type, for example, `-c 25` and not `-c25`.) We don't even check to see that the second argument is supplied at all. Furthermore, the user might type not just a single letter but a whole string. (Can you think of a simple way to limit this, by taking only the first character of the argument? Do you need/want to? Why not let the user specify a string instead of a single character?)

The parsing of the numerical argument could also use some more sophisticated techniques. The patterns in a `case` statement follow the rules of *pathname expansion* and are not regular expressions. It might be tempting to assume that the `case` pattern `[0-9]*` means “only digits,” but that would be the regular expression meaning. In the `case` statement it means any string that begins with a digit. Not catching erroneous input like `9.5` or `612more` will result in errors in the script later on. The use of an `if` statement with `=~` and its more sophisticated regular expression matching might be useful here.

You can see from this example that even simple scripts can become quite involved, mostly due to error checking, argument parsing, and the like. For scripts that you write for yourself, such techniques are often glossed over or skipped entirely—after all, as the only user of the script you know the proper usage and are willing to use it correctly or have it fail in an ugly display of error messages. For scripts that you want

to share, however, such is not the case, and much care and effort will likely be put into toughening up your script.

See Also

- [Recipe 5.8, “Looping Over Arguments Passed to a Script”](#)
- [Recipe 5.11, “Counting Arguments”](#)
- [Recipe 5.12, “Consuming Arguments”](#)
- [Recipe 5.20, “Using bash for basename”](#)
- [Recipe 6.15, “Parsing Command-Line Arguments”](#)
- [Recipe 13.1, “Parsing Arguments for Your Shell Script”](#)

12.2 Viewing Photos in an Album

Problem

You have a directory full of images you just downloaded from your digital camera. You want a quick and easy way to view them all, so that you can pick out the good ones.

Solution

Write a shell script that will generate a set of HTML pages so that you can view your photos with a browser. Call it *mkalbum* and put it somewhere like your *~/bin* directory.

On the command line, *cd* into the directory where you want your album created (typically where your photos are located). Then run some command that will generate the list of photos that you want included in this album (e.g., `ls *.jpg`, but see also [Recipe 9.5](#)), and pipe this output into the *mkalbum* shell script in [Example 12-2](#), which we will explain later. You need to put the name of the album (i.e., the name of a directory that will be created by the script) on the command line as the only argument to the shell script. It might look something like this:

```
ls *.jpg | mkalbum rugby
```

[Figure 12-1](#) shows a sample of the generated web page.



Figure 12-1. Sample *mkalbum* web page

The large title is the name of the photo (i.e., the filename); there are hyperlinks to other pages for the first, last, next, and previous photos in the album.

Example 12-2 is the shell script (*mkalbum*) that will generate the set of HTML pages for your album, one page per image (the line numbers are not part of the script, but are included to make it easier to discuss).

Example 12-2. ch12/mkalbum

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash ❶
# cookbook filename: mkalbum
# mkalbum - make an HTML "album" of a pile of photo files.
# ver. 0.2
#
# An album is a directory of HTML pages.
# It will be created in the current directory.
#
# An album page is the HTML to display one photo, with
# a title that is the filename of the photo, along with
# hyperlinks to the first, previous, next, and last photos.
#
# ERRORT
ERRORT() ❷
{
    printf "%b" "$@" ❸
} >&2
```

```

#
# USAGE
USAGE()
{
    ERRORT "usage: %s <newdir>\n" "${0##*/}"
}

# EMIT(thisph, startph, prevph, nextph, lastph)
EMIT()
{
    THISPH="../$1"
    STRTPH="${2%.*}.html"
    PREVPH="${3%.*}.html"
    NEXTPH="${4%.*}.html"
    LASTPH="${5%.*}.html"
    if [ -z "$3" ]
    then
        PREVLIN='<TD> Prev </TD>'
    else
        PREVLIN='<TD> <A HREF="'$PREVPH'"> Prev </A> </TD>'
    fi
    if [ -z "$4" ]
    then
        NEXTLIN='<TD> Next </TD>'
    else
        NEXTLIN='<TD> <A HREF="'$NEXTPH'"> Next </A> </TD>'
    fi
    cat <<EOF
<HTML>
<HEAD><TITLE>$THISPH</TITLE></HEAD>
<BODY>
    <H2>$THISPH</H2>
    <TABLE WIDTH="25%">
    <TR>
    <TD> <A HREF="$STRTPH"> First </A> </TD>
    $PREVLIN
    $NEXTLIN
    <TD> <A HREF="$LASTPH"> Last </A> </TD>
    </TR>
    </TABLE>
    <IMG SRC="$THISPH" alt="$THISPH"
    BORDER="1" VSPACE="4" HSPACE="4"
    WIDTH="800" HEIGHT="600"/>
</BODY>
</HTML>
EOF
}

if (( $# != 1 ))
then
    USAGE

```

```

        exit -1
    fi
    ALBUM="$1"
    if [ -d "${ALBUM}" ]
    then
        ERRORT "Directory [%s] already exists.\n" ${ALBUM}
        USAGE
        exit -2
    else
        mkdir "$ALBUM"
    fi
    cd "$ALBUM"

    PREV=""
    FIRST=""
    LAST="last"

    while read PHOTO
    do
        # prime the pump
        if [ -z "${CURRENT}" ]
        then
            CURRENT="$PHOTO"
            FIRST="$PHOTO"
            continue
        fi

        PHILE=${CURRENT##*/} # remove any leading path
        EMIT "$CURRENT" "$FIRST" "$PREV" "$PHOTO" "$LAST" > "${PHILE%.*}.html"

        # set up for next iteration
        PREV="$CURRENT"
        CURRENT="$PHOTO"
    done

    PHILE=${CURRENT##*/} # remove any leading pathname
    EMIT "$CURRENT" "$FIRST" "$PREV" "" "$LAST" > "${PHILE%.*}.html"

    # make the symlink for "last"
    ln -s "${PHILE%.*}.html" ./last.html
    # make a link for index.html
    ln -s "${FIRST%.*}.html" ./index.html

```

8

Discussion

While there are plenty of free or inexpensive photo viewers, using *bash* to build a simple photo album helps to illustrate the power of shell programming, and gives us a meatier example to discuss.

- ❶ The shell script begins with the special comment that defines which executable to use to run this script. Then follow some comments describing the script. Let's just put in one more word encouraging you to be sure to comment your scripts. Even the sparsest comments will be worth something 3 days or 13 months from now when you wish you could remember what this script was all about.
- ❷ After the comments we have put our function definitions. The `ERROUT` function will act very much like `printf` (since all it does is invoke `printf`), but with the added twist that it redirects its output to standard error. This saves you from having to remember to redirect the output on every `printf` of error messages.
- ❸ While normally we put the redirection at the end of a command, here it is put at the end of a function definition to tell `bash` to redirect all output that emanates from this function.
- ❹ The `USAGE` function, while not strictly necessary as a separate function, is a handy way to document up front how you expect your script to be invoked. Rather than hardcoding the name of the script in our usage message, we like to use the `$0` special variable in case the script is renamed. The `$0` is the name of the script as it was invoked, including any pathname if specified by the user.
- ❺ By using the `##` operator we get rid of all that path noise (specified by the `*/`).
- ❻ The `EMIT` function is a larger function. Its purpose is to emit the HTML for each page of the album. Each page is its own (static) web page, with hyperlinks to the previous and next image as well as links to the first and last image. The `EMIT` function doesn't know much; it is given the names of all the images to which to link, and it takes those names and converts them to page names, which for our script are the same as the image name but with the file extension changed to `.html`. So, for example, if `$2` held the filename `pict001.jpg`, the result of `${2%.*}.html` would be `pict001.html`.
- ❼ Since there is so much HTML to emit, rather than have `printf` after `printf` statement, we use the `cat` command and a here-document to allow us to type the literal HTML in the script, line after line, with shell variable expansion being applied to the lines. The `cat` command is simply copying (concatenating) `STDIN` to the `STDOUT`. In our script we redirect `STDIN` to take its input from the succeeding lines of text; i.e., a here-document. By *not* quoting the end-of-input word (just `EOF` and not `'EOF'` or `\EOF`) we ensure that `bash` will continue to do variable substitution on our input lines, enabling us to use variable names based on our parameters for various titles and hyperlinks.

- 8 The last two commands in the script create symbolic links as shortcuts to the first and last photos. This way the script doesn't need to figure out the names of the first and last pages of the album; it just uses the hardcoded names *index.html* and *last.html*, respectively, when generating all the other album pages. Then, as a last step, since the last filename processed is the last photo in our album, it creates the link to it. Similarly, with the first page (although we know that name right away), we waited until the end to put it with the other symbolic link, just as a matter of style—to keep the two similar operations in proximity.

One last thought about the design of this script: we could have passed in a filename to the EMIT function and had EMIT redirect its own output to that file, but such redirection was not really logically a part of the EMIT idea (c.f. our ERRROUT function, whose whole purpose *is* the redirection). The purpose of EMIT is to create the HTML; where we send that HTML is another matter. Because *bash* allows us to redirect output so easily, it is possible to make that a separate step. Besides, it was easier to debug when the method just wrote its output to STDOUT.

See Also

- <http://www.w3schools.com>
- *HTML & XHTML: The Definitive Guide*, 6th Edition, by Chuck Musciano and Bill Kennedy (O'Reilly)
- Recipe 3.2, “Keeping Your Data with Your Script”
- Recipe 3.3, “Preventing Weird Behavior in a Here-Document”
- Recipe 3.4, “Indenting Here-Documents”
- Recipe 5.13, “Getting Default Values”
- Recipe 5.14, “Setting Default Values”
- Recipe 5.18, “Changing Pieces of a String”
- Recipe 5.23, “Using Array Variables”
- Recipe 9.5, “Finding Files Irrespective of Case”
- Recipe 16.11, “Keeping a Private Stash of Utilities by Adding ~/bin”


```

#
# main:
#
let SUM=0
let COUNT=0
export FZ
export FREE
FREESPACE
find . -name '*.mp3' -print | \
( while read PATHNM
  do
    FILESIZE "$PATHNM"
    if ((FZ <= FREE))
    then
      echo loading $PATHNM
      cp "$PATHNM" /media/mp3
      if (( $? == 0 ))
      then
        let SUM+=FZ
        let COUNT++
        REDUCE $FZ
      else
        echo "bad copy of $PATHNM to /media/mp3"
        rm -f /media/mp3/"${PATHNM###*/}"
        # recompute because we don't know how far it got
        FREESPACE
      fi
      # any reason to go on?
      if (( FREE <= 0 ))
      then
        break
      fi
    else
      echo skipping $PATHNM
    fi
  done
  printf "loaded %d songs (%d blocks)" $COUNT $SUM
  printf " onto /media/mp3 (%d blocks free)\n" $FREE
)
# end of script

```

1

2

3

4

Discussion

Invoke this script and it will copy any MP3 file that it finds from the current directory on down (toward the leaf nodes of the tree) onto an MP3 player (or other device) mounted on `/media/mp3`. The script will try to determine the free space on the device before it begins its copying, and then it will subtract the disk size of copied items so as to know when to quit (i.e., when the device is full, or as full as we can get it).

The script is simple to invoke:

```
load_mp3
```

Then you can watch as it copies files, or you can go grab a cup of coffee—it depends on how fast your disk is and how fast your MP3 memory writes go.

Let's look at some *bash* features used in this script:

- ❶ We'll start after the opening comments and the function definitions. (We'll discuss the function definitions later.) The main body of the shell script starts by initializing some variables and exporting some variables so they will be available globally.
- ❷ Here we call the `FREESPACE` function to determine how much free space is available on the MP3 player before we begin copying files.
- ❸ The `find` command will locate all the MP3 files (actually, only those files whose names end in ".mp3"). This information is piped into a `while` loop that begins on the next line.
- ❹ Why is the `while` loop wrapped inside of parentheses? The parentheses mean that the statements inside them will be run inside of a subshell. But what we're concerned about here is that we group the `while` statement with the `printf` statements that come after the loop, near the very end of the script. Since each statement in a pipeline is run in its own subshell, and since the `find` pipes its output into the `while` loop, none of the counting that we do inside the `while` loop will be available outside of that loop. Putting the `while` and the `printf`s inside of a subshell means, they are now both executing in the same shell environment and can share variables. A similar effect can be accomplished with braces.



As of *bash* 4.4 the parentheses are no longer needed, provided that this is run as a shell script (not interactively) and the shell option `lastpipe` is set, as would happen if you put `shopt -s lastpipe` in the script somewhere before the `find` command.

Let's look inside the `while` loop and see what it's doing:

```
FILESIZE "$PATHNM"  
  if ((FZ <= FREE))  
  then  
    echo loading $PATHNM  
    cp "$PATHNM" /media/mp3  
    if (( $? == 0 ))  
    then
```

For each filename that it reads from the *find* command's output, it will use the `FILE SIZE` function (discussed momentarily) to determine the size of that file. Then it checks to see if the file is smaller than the remaining disk space; i.e., whether there is room for this file. If so, it will *echo* the filename so we can see what it's doing and then it will invoke *cp* to copy the file onto the MP3 player.

It's important to check and see if the copy command completed successfully. The `$?` is the result of the previous command, so it represents the result of the *cp* command. If the copy is successful, then we can deduct the copied file's size from the space available on the MP3 player. But if it failed, then we need to try to remove the copy (since, if it is there at all, it will be incomplete). We use the `-f` option on *rm* so as to avoid error messages if the file never got created. Then we recalculate the free space to be sure that we have the count right. (After all, the copy might have failed because somehow our estimate was wrong and we really are out of space.)

In the main part of the script, all three of our `if` statements use the double parentheses around the expression. All three are numerical `if` statements, and we wanted to use the familiar operators (e.g., `<=` and `==`). These same `if` conditions could have been checked using the square bracket (`[]`) form of the `if` statement, but then the operators would be `-le` and `-eq`. We do use a different form of the `if` statement in the `FILESIZE` function. There we need to check the existence of the file (whose name is in the variable `$FN`). That is simple to write with the `-e` operator, but that is not available to the arithmetic-style `if` statement (i.e., when using parentheses instead of square brackets).

Speaking of arithmetic expressions, let's take a look at the `REDUCE` function and see what's going on there:

```
function REDUCE ( )  
(( FREE--${1:-0})) # this works, but is unusual
```

Most people write functions using curly braces to delimit the body of the function. However, in *bash*, any compound statement will work. In this case we chose the double parentheses of arithmetic evaluation, since that is all we need the function to do, but this is unusual and could cause readability and maintainability confusion unless well commented. Whatever value is supplied on the command line that invokes `REDUCE` will be the first (positional) parameter (i.e., `$1`). We simply subtract that value from `$FREE` to get the new value for `$FREE`. That is why we used the arithmetic expression syntax—so that we can use the `-=` operator.

While we are looking at the functions, let's look at two lines in the `FILESIZE` function. The comment in the script shows another simple way to do this, but we want to explain a more general technique useful for more interesting purposes than just checking file sizes. Take a close look at these lines:

```
set -- $(ls -s "$FN")
FZ=$1
```

There is a lot going on in those few characters. First, the *ls* command is run inside of a subshell (the `$()` construct). The `-s` option on *ls* gives us the size, in blocks, of the file along with the filename. The output of the command is returned as words on the command line for the *set* command. The purpose of the *set* command here is to parse the words of the *ls* output. There are lots of ways we could do that, but this approach is a useful technique to remember.

The `set --` will take the remaining words on the command line and make them the new positional parameters. If you write `set -- this is a test`, then `$1` is `this` and `$3` is `a`. The previous values for `$1`, `$2`, etc. are lost, but in our script we saved into `$FN` the only parameter that gets passed into this function. Having done so, we are free to reuse the positional parameters, and we use them by having the shell do the parsing for us. We can then get at the file size as `$1`, as you see in the assignment to `$FZ`. (By the way, in this case, since this is inside a function, it is only the function's positional parameters that are changed, not those from the invoking of the script.)

We use this technique of having the shell do our parsing for us again, in the other function:

```
set -- $(df /media/mp3 | grep '^/dev/')
FREE=$4
```

The output of the *df* command will report on the size, in blocks, available on the device. We pipe the output through *grep*, since we only want the one line with our device's information and we don't want the heading line that *df* produces. Once *bash* has set our arguments, we can grab the free space on the device as `$4`.

A comment in the script shows an alternative way to parse the output of the *df* command. We could just pipe the output into *awk* and let it parse the output from *df* for us:

```
# FREE=$(df /media/mp3 | awk '/^\/dev/ {print $4}')
```

In this version, by using the expression in slashes we tell *awk* to pay attention only to lines with a leading `/dev`. (The caret anchors the search to the beginning of the line and the backslash escapes the meaning of the slash, so as not to end the search expression at that point and to include a slash as the first character to find.)

So which approach to use? They both involve invoking an external program, in one case *grep* and in the other *awk*. There are usually several ways to accomplish the same thing (in *bash* as in life), so the choice is yours. In our experience, it usually comes down to which one you think of first.

See Also

- `man df`
- `man grep`
- `man awk`
- Recipe 10.4, “Defining Functions”
- Recipe 10.5, “Using Functions: Parameters and Return Values”
- Recipe 19.8, “Forgetting that Pipelines Make Subshells”

12.4 Burning a CD

Problem

You have a directory full of files on your Linux system that you would like to burn to a CD. Do you need an expensive CD burning program, or can you do it with the shell and some open source programs?

Solution

You can do it with two open source programs called *mkisofs* and *cdrecord*, and a *bash* script to help you keep all the options straight.

Start by putting all the files that you want to copy to CD into a directory structure. The script in [Example 12-4](#) will take that directory, make an ISO filesystem image from those files, then burn the ISO image. All it takes is a bunch of disk space and a bit of time—but you can get up and wander while the *bash* script runs.



This script may not work on your system. We include it here as an example of shell scripting, not as a workable CD recording and backup mechanism.

Example 12-4. ch12/cdscript

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: cdscript
# cdscript - prep and burn a CD from a dir.
#
# usage: cdscript dir [ cddev ]
#
if (( $# < 1 || $# > 2 ))
then
```

```

    echo 'usage: cdscrip dir [ cddev ]'
    exit 2
fi

# set the defaults
SRCDIR=$1
# your device might be "ATAPI:0,0,0" or other digits
CDDEV=${2:-"ATAPI:0,0,0"}
ISOIMAGE=/tmp/cd$$ .iso ❶

echo "building ISO image..."
#
# make the ISO fs image
#
mkisofs -A "$(cat ~/.cdAnnotation)" \
  -p "$(hostname)" -V "${SRCDIR##*/}" \
  -r -o "$ISOIMAGE" $SRCDIR
STATUS=$? ❷
if (( STATUS != 0 ))
then
    echo "Error. ISO image failed."
    echo "Investigate then remove $ISOIMAGE"
    exit $STATUS
fi

echo "ISO image built; burning to cd..."
#
# burn the CD
#
SPD=8
OPTS="-eject -v fs=64M driveropts=burnproof"
cdrecord $OPTS -speed=$SPD dev=${CDDEV} $ISOIMAGE
STATUS=$? ❸
if (( STATUS != 0 ))
then
    echo "Error. CD Burn failed."
    echo "Investigate then remove $ISOIMAGE"
    exit $STATUS
fi

rm -f $ISOIMAGE
echo "Done."

```

Discussion

Here is a quick look at some of the odder constructs in this script

- ❶ We construct a temporary filename by using the \$\$ variable, which gives us our process number. As long as this script is running, it will be the one and only

process of that number, so this gives us a name that is unique among all other running processes. (See [Recipe 14.11](#) for a better way.)

- ② We save the status of the *mkisofs* command. Well-written Unix and Linux commands (and *bash* shell scripts) will return 0 on success (i.e., if nothing went wrong) and a nonzero value if they fail. We could have just used the `$?` in the `if` statement on the next line, but we want to hold on to the status from the *mkisofs* command so that, in the event of failure, we can pass that value back out as the return value of this script.
- ③ We do the same with the *cdrecord* command, saving its return value, so that if the command fails, the `if` statement would therefore be true, so then the `exit` statement can send back that failure code.

It may take a bit of thought to unpack these lines:

```
mkisofs -A "$(cat ~/.cdAnnotation)" \  
-p "$(hostname)" -V "${SRCDIR##*/}" \  
-r -o "$ISOIMAGE" $SRCDIR
```

All three lines are just a single line of input to *bash* that has been separated across lines by putting a backslash as the very last character on the line in order to escape the normal meaning of an end of line. Be sure you don't put a space after the trailing `\`. But that's just the tip of the iceberg here. There are three subshells that are invoked whose output is used in the construction of the final command line that invokes *mkisofs*.

First there is an invocation of the *cat* program to dump the contents of a file called *.cdAnnotation* located in the home directory (`~/`) of the user invoking this script. The purpose is to provide a string to the `-A` option, which the *mkisofs* manpage describes as “a text string that will be written into the volume header.” Similarly, the `-p` option wants another such string, this time indicating the preparer of the image. For our script it seemed like it might be handy to put the hostname where the script is run as the preparer, so we run *hostname* in a subshell (though using the builtin `$HOSTNAME` is more efficient). Finally, the volume name is specified with the `-V` parameter, and for that we use the name of the directory where all the files are found. That directory is specified on the command line to our script, and we use the `##` operator to peel off the leading directory pathname (using the pattern `*/`), if any (so, for example, `/usr/local/stuff` becomes just *stuff*).

See Also

- [Recipe 5.20](#), “Using *bash* for *basename*”
- [Recipe 14.11](#), “Using Secure Temporary Files”

12.5 Comparing Two Documents

Problem

It is easy to compare two text files (see [Recipe 17.10](#)). But what about documents produced by your suite of office applications? They are not stored as text, so how can you compare them? If you have two versions of the same document, and you need to know what the content changes are (if any) between the two versions, is there anything you can do besides printing them out and comparing page after page?

Solution

First, use an office suite such as LibreOffice that will let you save your documents in OpenDocument Format (ODF). Once you have your files in ODF, you can use a shell script to compare just the content of the files. We stress the word *content* here because the formatting differences are another issue, and it is (usually) the content that is the most important determinant of which version is newer or more important to the end user.

[Example 12-5](#) is a *bash* script that can be used to compare two LibreOffice files, which are saved in ODF (but use the conventional suffix *.odt* to indicate a text-oriented document, as opposed to a spreadsheet or a presentation file).

Example 12-5. ch12/oodiff

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: oodiff
# oodiff -- diff the CONTENTS of two OpenOffice/LibreOffice files
# works only on .odt files
#
function usagexit ()
{
    echo "usage: ${0##*/} file1 file2"
    echo "where both files must be .odt files"
    exit $1
} >&2

# assure two readable arg filenames which end in .odt
if (( $# != 2 ))
then
    usagexit 1
fi
if [[ $1 != *.odt || $2 != *.odt ]]
then
    usagexit 2
fi
if [[ ! -r $1 || ! -r $2 ]]
then
```

```

    usagexit 3
fi

BAS1=$(basename "$1" .odt)
BAS2=$(basename "$2" .odt)

# unzip them someplace private
PRIV1="/tmp/${BAS1}.$$_1"
PRIV2="/tmp/${BAS2}.$$_2"

# make absolute
HERE=$PWD
if [[ ${1:0:1} == '/' ]]
then
    FULL1="$1"
else
    FULL1="${HERE}/${1}"
fi

# make absolute
if [[ ${2:0:1} == '/' ]]
then
    FULL2="$2"
else
    FULL2="${HERE}/${2}"
fi

# mkdir scratch areas and check for failure
# N.B. must have whitespace around the { and } and
#      must have the trailing ; in the {} lists
mkdir "$PRIV1" || { echo "Unable to mkdir '$PRIV1'" ; exit 4; }
mkdir "$PRIV2" || { echo "Unable to mkdir '$PRIV2'" ; exit 5; }

cd "$PRIV1"
unzip -q "$FULL1"
sed -e 's/>/>\
/g' -e 's/</\
</g' content.xml > contentwnl.xml

cd "$PRIV2"
unzip -q "$FULL2"
sed -e 's/>/>\
/g' -e 's/</\
</g' content.xml > contentwnl.xml

cd "$HERE"

diff "${PRIV1}/contentwnl.xml" "${PRIV2}/contentwnl.xml"

rm -rf "$PRIV1" "$PRIV2"

```

2

3

Discussion

Underlying this script is the knowledge that LibreOffice files are stored like ZIP files. Unzip them and there are a collection of XML files that define your document. One of those files contains the content of your document; that is, the paragraphs of text without any formatting (but with XML tags to tie each snippet of text to its formatting). The basic idea behind the script is to *unzip* the two documents and compare the content pieces using *diff*, and then clean up the mess that we've made.

One other step is taken to make the diffs easier to read. Since the content is all in XML and there aren't a lot of newlines, the script will insert a newline after every opening tag and before every end tag (tags whose contents begin with a slash, as in `</ ... >`). While this introduces a lot of blank lines, it also enables *diff* to focus on the real differences: the textual content.

As far as shell syntax goes, you have seen all this in other recipes in the book, but it may be worth explaining a few pieces of syntax just to be sure you can tell what is going on in the script.

- ❶ This line redirects all the output from this shell function to `STDERR`. That seems appropriate since this is a help message, not the normal output of this program. Putting the redirect on the function definition means we don't need to remember to redirect every output line separately.
- ❷ This contains the terse expression `if [[${1:0:1} == '/']]`, which checks to see whether the first argument begins with a slash character. The `${1:0:1}` is the syntax for a substring of a shell variable. The variable is `$1`, the first positional parameter. The `:0:1` syntax says to start at an offset of zero and that the substring should be one character long.
- ❸ The lines of this *sed* command may be a little hard to read because they involve escaping the newline character so that it becomes part of the *sed* substitution string. The substitution expression takes each `>` in the first substitution and each `<` in the second, and replaces it with itself *plus* a newline. We do this to our content file in order to spread out the XML and get the content on lines by itself. That way the *diff* doesn't show any XML tags, just content text.

See Also

- [Recipe 8.7, “Uncompressing Files”](#)
- [Recipe 13.3, “Parsing Some HTML”](#)
- [Recipe 14.11, “Using Secure Temporary Files”](#)

- Recipe 17.3, “Unzipping Many ZIP Files”
- Recipe 17.10, “Using diff and patch”

Parsing and Similar Tasks

This is a chapter of tasks that programmers might recognize. The recipes here aren't necessarily more advanced than the other *bash* script recipes in the book, but if you are not a programmer, these tasks might seem obscure or irrelevant to your use of *bash*. We won't do much explaining of the reasons why you'd find yourself in these situations (as a programmer, you'll recognize some if not all of them). Even if you don't recognize the situations, though, you should read them for what you can learn about *bash*.

Some of the recipes in this chapter include the parsing of command-line arguments. Recall that the typical way to specify options on a shell script is to have a leading minus sign and a single letter. For example, an option for your script to give fewer messages might use `-q` as a flag to mean quiet mode. Sometimes an option might take an argument. For example, a user option where you need to specify a username might use `-u` followed by the username. This distinction will be made clear in this chapter's first recipe.

Some Linux commands also allow long-form options. Using the previous example of a short-format `-u` option, a command might also support a long format like `--user=username`. We will not be showing any long-format options, though they could be used for some of the techniques that we show. The best way to parse long arguments is to use the *getopt* (note no *s*) command.

13.1 Parsing Arguments for Your Shell Script

Problem

You want to have some options on your shell script, some flags that users can use to alter its behavior. You could do the parsing directly, using `${}` to tell you how many

arguments have been supplied and using `${1:0:1}` to test the first character of the first argument to see if it is a minus sign. You would need some `if/then` or `case` logic to identify which option it is and whether it takes an argument, though. And what if the user doesn't supply a required argument, or calls your script with two options combined (e.g., `-ab`)? Will you also parse for that? The need to parse options for a shell script is a common situation. Lots of scripts have options. Isn't there a more standard way to do this?

Solution

Use `bash`'s builtin `getopts` command to help parse options.

Example 13-1, based largely on the example in the manpage for `getopts`, illustrates.

Example 13-1. ch13/getopts_example

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: getopts_example
#
# using getopts
#
aflag=
bflag=
while getopts 'ab:' OPTION
do
    case $OPTION in
        a) aflag=1
           ;;
        b) bflag=1
           bval="$OPTARG"
           ;;
        ?) printf "Usage: %s: [-a] [-b value] args\n" "${0##*/}" >&2
           exit 2
           ;;
    esac
done
shift $((($OPTIND - 1))

if [ "$aflag" ]
then
    printf "Option -a specified\n"
fi
if [ "$bflag" ]
then
    printf 'Option -b "%s" specified\n' "$bval"
fi
printf "Remaining arguments are: %s\n" "$*
```


Discussion

There are two kinds of options supported here. The first and simpler kind is an option that stands alone. It typically represents a flag to modify a command's behavior. An example of this sort of option is the `-l` option on the `ls` command. The second kind of option requires an argument. An example of this is the `mysql` command's `-u` option, which requires that a username be supplied, as in `mysql -u sysadmin`. Let's look at how `getopts` supports the parsing of both kinds.

`getopts` takes two arguments:

```
getopts 'ab:' OPTION
```

The first is a list of option letters. The second is the name of a shell variable. In our example we are defining `-a` and `-b` as the only two valid options, so the first argument to `getopts` has just those two letters...and a colon. What does the colon signify? It indicates that `-b` needs an argument, just like `-u username` or `-f filename` might be used. The colon needs to be adjacent to any option letter taking an argument. For example, if only `-a` took an argument we would need to write `a:b` instead.

The `getopts` builtin will set the variable named in the second argument to the value that it finds when it parses the shell script's argument list (`$1`, `$2`, etc.). If it finds an argument with a leading minus sign, it will treat that as an option argument and put the letter into the given variable (`$OPTION` in our example). Then it returns true (i.e., `0`) so that the `while` loop will process the option, then continue to parse options by repeated calls to `getopts` until it runs out of arguments (or encounters a double minus, `--`, which allows users to put an explicit end to the options). Then `getopts` returns false (i.e., a nonzero value) and the `while` loop ends.

Inside the loop, when the parsing has found an option letter for processing, we use a case statement on the variable `$OPTION` to set flags or otherwise take action when the option is encountered. For options that take arguments, that argument is placed in the shell variable `$OPTARG` (a fixed name not related to our use of `$OPTION` as our variable). We need to save that value by assigning it to another variable because as the parsing continues to loop, the variable `$OPTARG` will be reset on each call to `getopts`.

The third case of our case statement is a question mark, a shell pattern that matches any single character. When `getopts` finds an option that is not in the set of expected options (`'ab:'` in our example), it will return a literal question mark in the variable (`$OPTION` in our example). So, we could have made our case statement read `\?` or `'?'` for an exact match, but the `?` as a pattern match of any single character provides a convenient default. It will match a literal question mark as well as matching any other single character.

In the usage message that we print, we have made two changes from the example script in the manpage. First, we use `#{0##*/}` to give the name of the script without

the pathname that may have been part of how it was invoked. Secondly, we redirect this message to standard error (>&2) because that is really where such messages belong. All of the error messages from *getopts* that occur when an unknown option or missing argument is encountered are written to standard error; we add our usage message to that chorus.

When the `while` loop terminates, we see the next line to be executed is:

```
shift $((OPTARG - 1))
```

which is a `shift` statement used to move the positional parameters of the shell script from \$1, \$2, etc. down a given number of positions (tossing the lower ones). The variable `$OPTARG` is an index into the arguments that *getopts* uses to keep track of where it is when it parses. Once we are done parsing, we can toss all the options that we've processed by executing this `shift` statement. For example, if we had this command line:

```
myscript -a -b alt plow harvest reap
```

then after parsing for options, `$OPTARG` would be set to 4. By doing three `$OPTARG - 1` shifts we would get rid of the options, and then a quick `echo $*` would give this:

```
plow harvest reap
```

The remaining (nonoption) arguments will then be ready for use in our script (in a `for` loop, perhaps). In our example script, the last line is a *printf* showing all the remaining arguments.

See Also

- `help case`
- `help getopts`
- `help getopt`
- [Recipe 5.8, “Looping Over Arguments Passed to a Script”](#)
- [Recipe 5.11, “Counting Arguments”](#)
- [Recipe 5.12, “Consuming Arguments”](#)
- [Recipe 5.18, “Changing Pieces of a String”](#)
- [Recipe 5.20, “Using `bash` for `basename`”](#)
- [Recipe 6.10, “Looping for a While”](#)
- [Recipe 6.14, “Branching Many Ways”](#)
- [Recipe 6.15, “Parsing Command-Line Arguments”](#)
- [Recipe 13.2, “Parsing Arguments with Your Own Error Messages”](#)

13.2 Parsing Arguments with Your Own Error Messages

Problem

You are using *getopts* to parse the options for your shell script, but you don't like the error messages that it writes when it encounters bad input. Can you still use *getopts* but write your own error handling?

Solution

If you just want *getopts* to be quiet and not report any errors at all, just assign `OPTERR=0` before you begin parsing. But if you want *getopts* to give you more information without the error messages, then begin the option list with a colon, as shown in the script in [Example 13-2](#). (The quotes around the option list are optional.)

Example 13-2. ch13/getopts_custom

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: getopts_custom
#
# using getopts - with custom error messages
#
aflag=
bflag=
# since we don't want getopts to generate error
# messages, but want this script to issue its
# own messages, we will put, in the option list, a
# leading ':' to silence getopts.
while getopts :ab: FOUND
do
    case $FOUND in
        a) aflag=1
           ;;
        b) bflag=1
           bval="$OPTARG"
           ;;
        \:) printf "argument missing from -%s option\n" $OPTARG
            printf "Usage: %s: [-a] [-b value] args\n" ${0##*/}
            exit 2
           ;;
        \?) printf "unknown option: -%s\n" $OPTARG
            printf "Usage: %s: [-a] [-b value] args\n" ${0##*/}
            exit 2
           ;;
    esac >&2
done
shift $((OPTARG - 1))

if [ "$aflag" ]
```

```

then
    printf "Option -a specified\n"
fi
if [ "$bflag" ]
then
    printf 'Option -b "%s" specified\n' "$bval"
fi
printf "Remaining arguments are: %s\n" "$*"

```

Discussion

The script is very similar to the one in [Recipe 13.1](#); see that recipe’s Discussion section for more background. One difference here is that *getopts* may now return a colon. It does so when an option is missing (e.g., when the user invokes the script with `-b` but without an argument for it). In that case, it puts the option letter into `$OPTARG` so that you know what option it was that was missing its argument.

Similarly, if an unsupported option is given (e.g., if the user tries `-d` when invoking the script) *getopts* returns a question mark as the value for `$FOUND`, and puts the letter (the `d` in this case) into `$OPTARG` so that it can be used in the error messages.

We put a backslash in front of both the colon and the question mark to indicate that these are literals and not any special patterns or shell syntax. While not necessary for the colon, it looks better to have the parallel construction with the two punctuation marks both being escaped.

We added an I/O redirection on the `esac` (the end of the case statement), so that all output from the various *printf* commands will be redirected to standard error. This is in keeping with the purpose of standard error and is just easier to put it here than remembering to put it on each *printf* individually.

See Also

- [help case](#)
- [help getopts](#)
- [help getopt](#)
- [Recipe 5.8, “Looping Over Arguments Passed to a Script”](#)
- [Recipe 5.11, “Counting Arguments”](#)
- [Recipe 5.12, “Consuming Arguments”](#)
- [Recipe 5.18, “Changing Pieces of a String”](#)
- [Recipe 5.20, “Using bash for basename”](#)
- [Recipe 6.15, “Parsing Command-Line Arguments”](#)

- Recipe 13.1, “Parsing Arguments for Your Shell Script”

13.3 Parsing Some HTML

Problem

You want to pull the strings out of some HTML. For example, you'd like to get at the `href="urlstringstuff"`-type strings from the `<a>` tags within a chunk of HTML.

Solution

For a quick and easy shell parse of HTML, provided it doesn't have to be foolproof, you might want to try something like this:

```
cat $1 | sed -e 's/>/>\n/g' | grep '<a' | while IFS=' ' read a b c ; do echo $b; done
```

Discussion

Parsing HTML from *bash* is pretty tricky, mostly because *bash* tends to be very line-oriented whereas HTML was designed to treat newlines like whitespace. So, it's not uncommon to see tags split across two or more lines, as in:

```
<a href="blah..." rel="blah..." media="blah..."\ntarget="blah..." >
```

There are also two ways to write `<a>` tags, one with a separate ending `` tag and one without, where instead the singular `<a>` tag itself ends with a `/>`. Between this and the potential for multiple tags on a line and tags split across lines, it's a bit messy to parse, and our simple *bash* technique for this is often not foolproof.

Here are the steps involved in our solution. First, break the multiple tags on one line into at most one line per tag:

```
cat file | sed -e 's/>/>\n/g'
```

Yes, that's a newline right after the backslash so that it substitutes each end-of-tag character (i.e., the `>`) with that same character and then a newline. That will put tags on separate lines, with maybe a few extra blank lines. The trailing `g` tells *sed* to do the search and replace *globally*; i.e., multiple times on a line if need be.

Then you can pipe that output into *grep* to grab just the `<a` tag lines:

```
cat file | sed -e 's/>/>\n/g' | grep '<a'
```

or maybe just lines with double quotes:

```
cat file | sed -e 's/>/>\
/g' | grep '".*"'
```

The single quotes tell the shell to take the inner characters literally and not do any shell expansion on them, and the rest is a regular expression to match a double quote followed by any character (.) any number of times (*), followed by another double quote. (This won't work if the string itself is split across lines.)

To parse out the contents of what's inside the double quotes, one trick is to use the shell's internal field separator (\$IFS) to tell it to use the double quote (") as the separator. You can do a similar thing with *awk* and its -F (field separator) option.

For example:

```
cat $1 | sed -e 's/>/>\
/g' | grep '".*"' | awk -F'"' '{ print $2}'
```

(Or use `grep '<a'` if you just want <a tags and not all quoted strings.)

If you want to use the \$IFS shell trick rather than *awk*, it would be:

```
cat $1 | sed -e 's/>/>\
/g' | grep '<a' | while IFS='"' read PRE URL POST ; do echo $URL; done
```

where the *grep* output is piped into a `while` loop that reads the input into three fields (PRE, URL, and POST). By preceding the *read* command with `IFS='"'`, we set that environment variable just for the *read* command, not for the entire script. Thus, it will parse with the quotes as its notion of what separates the words of the input line. It will set PRE to be everything up to the first quote, URL to be everything from there to the next quote, and POST to be everything thereafter. Then the script just echoes the second variable, URL; that's all the characters between the quotes.

See Also

- `man sed`
- `man grep`

13.4 Parsing Output into an Array

Problem

You want the output of some program or script to be put into an array.

Solution

Example 13-3 illustrates how to use an array to parse the output into words.

Example 13-3. ch13/parseViaArray

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: parseViaArray
#
# find the file size
# use an array to parse the ls -l output into words

LSL=$(ls -ld $1)

declare -a MYRA
MYRA=( $LSL )

echo the file $1 is ${MYRA[4]} bytes.
```

Discussion

In our example, we take the output from the `ls -l` command and parse the words by putting them into an array. Then we can just refer to each array element to get at each word. (Remember that the arrays are zero-based, so an index of 4 gives us the fifth element.) The typical output from the `ls -l` command looks like this (yours may vary due to locale):

```
-rw-r--r-- 1 albing users 113 2006-10-10 23:33 mystuff.txt
```

Arrays are easy to initialize if you know the values as you write the script. The format is simple. We begin by declaring the variable to be an array, and then we assign it values:

```
declare -a MYRA
MYRA=(first second third home)
```

The same can be done by using a variable inside those parentheses. Just be sure *not* to use quotes around the variable. Writing `MYRA=$("$LSL")` will put the entire string into the first argument, since it is all contained as one quoted string. Then `${MYRA[0]}` will be the only array element, and it will contain the entire string, which is not what you wanted.

We also could have shortened this script by combining the steps like this:

```
declare -a MYRA
MYRA=( $(ls -ld $1) )
```

If you want to know how many elements you have in your new array, just reference the variable `${#MYRA[*]}` or `${#MYRA[@]}`, either of which is a lot of special characters to type.

See Also

- [Recipe 5.23, “Using Array Variables”](#)

13.5 Parsing Output with a Function Call

Problem

You want to parse the output of some program into various variables to be used elsewhere in your program. Arrays are great when you are looping through the values, but not very readable if you want to refer to each separately, rather than by an index.

Solution

Use a function call to parse the words, as shown in [Example 13-4](#).

Example 13-4. ch13/parseViaFunc

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: parseViaFunc
#
# parse ls -l via function call
# an example of output from ls -l follows:
# -rw-r--r-- 1 albing users 126 Jun 10 22:50 fnsize

function lsparts ()
{
    PERMS=$1
    LCOUNT=$2
    OWNER=$3
    GROUP=$4
    SIZE=$5
    CRMONTH=$6
    CRDAY=$7
    CRTIME=$8
    FILE=$9
}

lsparts $(ls -l "$1")

echo $FILE has $LCOUNT 'link(s)' and is $SIZE bytes long.
```


Here's what it looks like when it runs:

```
$ ./fnsizе fnsizе
fnsizе has 1 link(s) and is 311 bytes long.
$
```

Discussion

We can let *bash* do the work of parsing by putting the text to be parsed in a function call. Calling a function is much like calling a shell script. *bash* parses the words into separate variables and assigns them to \$1, \$2, etc. Our function can just assign each positional parameter to a separate variable. If the variables are not declared locally then they are available outside as well as inside the function.

We put quotes around the reference to \$1 in the *ls* command in case the filename supplied has spaces in its name. The quotes keep it all together so that *ls* sees it as a single filename and not as a series of separate filenames.

We use quotes in the expression 'link(s)' to avoid special treatment of the parentheses by *bash*. Alternatively, we could have put the entire phrase (except for the echo itself) inside of double quotes—double, not single, so that the variable substitution (for \$FILE, etc.) still occurs.



You might need to adjust the field list depending on how your computer and *ls* command present the date, or add options to your *ls* command to modify its output. For example, `ls -l --time-style="long-iso"` will produce a slightly different output format where month and day are replaced by a YYYY-MM-DD format date; you would then want to replace CRMONTH and CRDAY with a single variable, say, CRDATE, and adjust the field numbers accordingly.

See Also

- [Recipe 10.4, “Defining Functions”](#)
- [Recipe 10.5, “Using Functions: Parameters and Return Values”](#)
- [Recipe 13.9, “Getting Your Plurals Right”](#)
- [Recipe 17.7, “Clearing the Screen When You Log Out”](#)

13.6 Parsing Text with a read Statement

Problem

There are many ways to parse text with *bash*. What if you don't want to use a function? Is there another way?

Solution

Use the `read` statement, as in [Example 13-5](#).

Example 13-5. ch13/parseViaRead

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: parseViaRead
#
# parse ls -l with a read statement
# an example of output from ls -l follows:
# -rw-r--r-- 1 albing users 126 2006-10-10 22:50 fnsize

ls -l "$1" | { read PERMS LCOUNT OWNER GROUP SIZE CRDATE CRTIME FILE ;
              echo $FILE has $LCOUNT 'link(s)' and is $SIZE bytes long. ;
            }
```

Discussion

Here we let *read* do all the parsing. It will break apart the input into *words*, where words are separated by whitespace, and assign each word to the variables named in the `read` statement. Actually, you can even change the separator, by setting the *bash* `$IFS` (internal field separator) variable to whatever character you want for parsing; just remember to set it back!

As you can see from the sample output of `ls -l`, we have tried to choose names that get at the meaning of each word in the output. Since `FILE` is the last word, any extra fields will also be part of that variable. That way if the name has whitespace in it, like “Beethoven Fifth Symphony,” then all three words will end up in `$FILE`.

See Also

- [Recipe 2.14, “Saving or Grouping Output from Several Commands”](#)
- [Recipe 19.8, “Forgetting that Pipelines Make Subshells”](#)

13.7 Parsing with read into an Array

Problem

You've got a varying number of words on each line of input, so you can't just assign each word to a predetermined variable.

Solution

Use the `-a` option on the `read` command, and the words will be read into an array variable:

```
read -a MYRAY
```

Discussion

Whether coming from user input or a pipeline, `read` will parse the input into words, putting each word in its own array element. The variable does not need to be declared as an array—using it in this fashion is enough to make it into an array. Each element can be referenced with the `bash` array syntax. Arrays in `bash` are zero-based, so the second word on a line of input will be put into `${MYRAY[1]}` in our example. The number of words will determine the size of the array. In our example, the size of the array is `${#MYRAY[@]}`.

See Also

- [Recipe 3.5, “Getting User Input”](#)
- [Recipe 13.6, “Parsing Text with a read Statement”](#)

13.8 Reading an Entire File

Problem

You want to read in a whole file and then parse it. Must you do this using a `for` loop and reading one line at a time, or is there a shorthand?

Solution

Use the `mapfile` or `readarray` command in `bash`. They are identical commands that take the same arguments and let you read an entire file into an array, one array entry for each line of the file, with one statement.

The choice of command, either *readarray* or *mapfile*, seems to be one of perspective—are you thinking about the destination (the array), or the source (the datafile)? Use whichever makes more sense to you. They are interchangeable.

Here's a sample *mapfile* command, part of a fuller example in the discussion:

```
mapfile -t -s 1 -n 1500 -C showprg -c 100 BIGDATA < /tmp/myfile.data
```

This command will discard (i.e., skip) the first line (`-s 1`) of input, reading up to 1,500 lines (`-n 1500`) and discarding the newline at the end of each line (`-t`). Every 100 lines (`-c 100`) it will call a user-defined function called `showprg` (to show progress in reading the file; the default is every 5,000 lines). The data is put into the array called `BIGDATA`, one line of input per entry. Input is redirected from the file as shown.

Discussion

Here's the first part of an example use of *mapfile* (or *readarray*, if you prefer). It reads the file and shows progress as it reads. Then it prints out how many lines it read—i.e., the size of the array:

```
# use mapfile to read in $1

# show progress with dots
function showprg ()
{
    printf "."
}

# create a large datafile for our use
ls -l /usr/bin > /tmp/myfile.data

# a.k.a. readarray; load up BIGDATA
mapfile -t -s 1 -n 1500 -C showprg -c 100 BIGDATA < /tmp/myfile.data

# put a newline at the end of the showprg output
echo

# how many lines did we read?
siz=${#BIGDATA[@]}
echo "size: ${siz}"
```

The `showprg` function will print a dot (but no newline) each time it is called. This will show progress when reading in a large file. You could do something much fancier if you wanted; it's whatever function you want, after all.

So now that the file has been read into the array, what might we do with all that data? In this case it's a very long output from the `ls` command. We could now go through the file one line at a time and print out some of the data:

```

# number the lines as we print them out
for((i=0; i<tsiz; i++))
do
    ALINE=${BIGDATA[i]}
    if [[ ${ALINE:0:1} == 'l' ]] # only symbolic links
    then
        # print the relevant substring
        printf "%4d: %s\n" $i "${ALINE:48}"
    fi
done

rm /tmp/myfile.data # clean up

```

In this case, the script will look at the first character of a line and, if it's an `l`, print out the line, beginning at character 48 (zero-based). Since the data in the file is the “long” output of an `ls` command, such a first character indicates that we are looking at a symbolic link. (Similarly, a `d` would indicate a directory, but we don't use that here.)

Here is an excerpt of the output that might result from running the whole script. The first line shows the dots that appear as the progress of the read:

```

.....
size: 1500
(other output, and then)
1307: rsh -> /etc/alternatives/rsh
1311: rtstat -> lnstat
1315: rview -> /etc/alternatives/rview
(even more output)

```

See Also

- [Recipe 13.7, “Parsing with read into an Array”](#)

13.9 Getting Your Plurals Right

Problem

You want to use a plural noun when you have more than one of an object. But you don't want to scatter `if` statements all through your code.

Solution

[Example 13-6](#) illustrates a way to make words plural.

Example 13-6. ch13/pluralize

```

#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: pluralize

```

```

#
# A function to make words plural by adding an s
# when the value ($2) is != 1 or -1.
# It only adds an 's'; it is not very smart.
#
function plural ()
{
    if [ $2 -eq 1 -o $2 -eq -1 ]
    then
        echo ${1}
    else
        echo ${1}s
    fi
}

while read num name
do
    echo $num $(plural "$name" $num)
done

```

Discussion

The function, though only set to handle the simple addition of an *s*, will do fine for many nouns. The function doesn't do any error checking of the number or contents of the arguments. If you wanted to use this script in a serious application, you might want to add those kinds of checks.

We put the name in quotes when we call the *plural* function in case there are embedded blanks in the name. It did, after all, come from the `read` statement, and the last variable in a `read` statement gets all the remaining text from the input line. You can see that in the following example.

We put the script in [Example 13-6](#) into a file named *pluralize* and ran it against the following data:

```

$ cat input.file
1 hen
2 duck
3 squawking goose
4 limerick oyster
5 corpulent porpoise

$ ./pluralize < input.file
1 hen
2 ducks
3 squawking geese
4 limerick oysters
5 corpulent porpoises

```

“Gooses” isn’t correct English, but the script did what was intended. If you like the C-like syntax better, you could write the `if` statement like this:

```
if (( $2 == 1 || $2 == -1 ))
```

The square bracket (i.e., the `test` builtin) is the older form, more common across the various versions of `bash`, but either should work. Use whichever form’s syntax is easiest for you to remember.

We don’t expect you would keep a file like `pluralize` around, but the `plural` function might be handy to have as part of a larger scripting project. Then whenever you report on the count of something you could use the `plural` function as part of the reference, as shown in the `while` loop in the script.

See Also

- [Recipe 6.11, “Looping with a read”](#)

13.10 Taking It One Character at a Time

Problem

You have some parsing to do, and for whatever reason nothing else will do—you need to take your strings apart one character at a time.

Solution

The substring function for variables will let you take things apart, and another feature tells you how long a string is. [Example 13-7](#) demonstrates their use.

Example 13-7. ch13/onebyone

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: onebyone
#
# parsing input one character at a time

while read ALINE
do
  for ((i=0; i < ${#ALINE}; i++))
  do
    ACHAR=${ALINE:i:1}
    # do something here, e.g. echo $ACHAR
    echo $ACHAR
```

done
done

Discussion

The `read` statement will take input from standard input and put it, a line at a time, into the variable `$ALINE`. Since there are no other variables in the `read` statement, it takes the entire line and doesn't divvy it up, but it will remove leading and trailing `$IFS` whitespace unless you use `IFS= read` or just `read` by itself and later reference the default `$REPLY` variable.

The `for` loop will loop once for each character in the `$ALINE` variable. We can compute how many times to loop by using `${#ALINE}`, which returns the length of the contents of `$ALINE`.

Each time through the loop we assign `$ACHAR` the value of the one-character substring of `$ALINE` that begins at the `i`th position. That's simple enough.

See Also

- [Recipe 13.1, “Parsing Arguments for Your Shell Script”](#)
- [Recipe 13.4, “Parsing Output into an Array”](#)
- [Recipe 13.5, “Parsing Output with a Function Call”](#)
- [Recipe 13.6, “Parsing Text with a read Statement”](#)
- [Recipe 13.7, “Parsing with read into an Array”](#)

13.11 Cleaning Up an SVN Source Tree

Problem

Subversion's `svn status` command shows all the files that have been modified, but if you have scratch files or other garbage lying around in your source tree, `svn` will list those, too. It would be useful to have a way to clean up your source tree, removing those files unknown to Subversion.



Subversion won't know about new files unless and until you do an `svn add` command. *Don't* run this script until you've added any new source files, or they'll be gone for good.

Solution

You can *grep* output from the `svn status` command and *read* that to create a list of files to delete:

```
svn status src | grep '^?' | \
  while read status filename; do echo "$filename"; rm -rf "$filename"; done
```

Discussion

The `svn status` output lists one file per line. It puts an M as the first character of a line for files that have been modified, an A for newly added (but not yet committed) files, and a question mark for those about which it knows nothing. We just *grep* for those lines beginning with a question mark. We process the output with a *read* statement in a *while* loop. The *echo* isn't strictly necessary, but it's useful to see what's being removed, just in case there is a mistake or an error. You can at least see that it's gone for good. When we do the remove, we use the `-rf` options in case the file is a directory, but mostly just to keep the remove quiet. Problems encountered with permissions and such are squelched by the `-f` option; it just removes the file as best as your permissions allow. We put the reference to the filename in quotes ("`$fn`") in case there are special characters, like spaces, in the filename.

See Also

- [Recipe 6.11, “Looping with a read”](#)
- [Appendix D](#)

13.12 Setting Up a Database with MySQL

Problem

You want to create and initialize several databases using MySQL. You want them all to be initialized using the same SQL commands. Each database needs its own name, but each database will have the same contents, at least at initialization. You may need to do this setup over and over, as in the case where these databases are used as part of a test suite that needs to be reset when tests are rerun.

Solution

The simple *bash* script in [Example 13-8](#) can help with this administrative task.

Example 13-8. *ch13/dbinit*

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: dbinit
#
# initialize databases from a standard file
# creating databases as needed

DBLIST=$(mysql -e "SHOW DATABASES;" | tail -n +2)
select DB in $DBLIST "new..."
do
    if [[ $DB == "new..." ]]
    then
        printf "%b" "name for new db: "
        read DB rest
        echo creating new database $DB
        mysql -e "CREATE DATABASE IF NOT EXISTS $DB;"
    fi

    if [ -n "$DB" ]
    then
        echo Initializing database: $DB
        mysql $DB < ourInit.sql
    fi
done
```

Discussion

The `tail -n +2` is added to remove the heading from the list of databases (see [Recipe 2.12](#)).

The `select` creates the menus showing the existing databases. We added the literal `"new..."` as an additional choice (see [Recipe 3.7](#) and [Recipe 6.16](#)).

When the user wants to create a new database, we prompt for and read a new name, but we use two fields in the `read` statement as a bit of error handling. If the user types more than one name on the line, we only use the first name—it gets put into the variable `$DB` while the rest of the input is put into `$rest` and ignored. (We could add an error check to see if `$rest` is null.)

Whether created anew or chosen from the list of extant databases, if the `$DB` variable is not empty, it will invoke `mysql` one more time to feed it the set of SQL statements that we've put into the file `ourInit.sql` as our standardized initialization sequence.

If you're going to use a script like this, you might need to add parameters to your `mysql` command, such as `-u` and `-p` to prompt for a username and password. It will depend on how your database and its permissions are configured, or whether you have a file named `.my.cnf` with your MySQL defaults.

We could also have added an error check after the creation of the new database to see if it succeeded; if it did not succeed, we could unset DB, thereby bypassing the initialization. However, as many a math textbook has said, “we leave that as an exercise for the reader.”

See Also

- [Recipe 2.12, “Skipping a Header in a File”](#)
- [Recipe 3.7, “Selecting from a List of Options”](#)
- [Recipe 6.16, “Creating Simple Menus”](#)
- [Recipe 14.20, “Using Passwords in Scripts”](#)

13.13 Isolating Specific Fields in Data

Problem

You need to extract one or more fields from each line of output.

Solution

Use *cut* if there are delimiters you can easily pick out, even if they are different for the beginning and end of the field you need:

```
# Here's an easy one - what users, home directories and shells do
# we have on this NetBSD system?
$ cut -d':' -f1,6,7 /etc/passwd
root:/root:/bin/csh
toor:/root:/bin/sh
daemon:/:sbin/nologin
operator:/usr/guest/operator:/sbin/nologin
bin:/:sbin/nologin
games:/usr/games:/sbin/nologin
postfix:/var/spool/postfix:/sbin/nologin
named:/var/chroot/named:/sbin/nologin
ntpd:/var/chroot/ntpd:/sbin/nologin
sshd:/var/chroot/sshd:/sbin/nologin
smmsp:/nonexistent:/sbin/nologin
uucp:/var/spool/uucppublic:/usr/libexec/uucp/uucico
nobody:/nonexistent:/sbin/nologin
jp:/home/jp:/usr/pkg/bin/bash

# What is the most popular shell on the system?
$ cut -d':' -f7 /etc/passwd | sort | uniq -c | sort -rn
10 /sbin/nologin
2 /usr/pkg/bin/bash
1 /bin/csh
```

```

1 /bin/sh
1 /usr/libexec/uucp/uucico

# Now let's see the first two directory levels
$ cut -d':' -f6 /etc/passwd | cut -d '/' -f1-3 | sort -u
/
/home/jp
/nonexistent
/root
/usr/games
/usr/guest
/var/chroot
/var/spool

```

Use `awk` to split on multiples of whitespace, or if you need to rearrange the order of the output fields. Note the `→` denotes a tab character in the output. The default is a space, but you can change that using `$OFS`:

```

# Users, home directories, and shells, but swap the last two
# and use a tab delimiter
$ awk 'BEGIN {FS=":"; OFS="\t"; } { print $1,$7,$6; }' /etc/passwd
root → /bin/csh → /root
toor → /bin/sh → /root
daemon → /sbin/nologin → /
operator → /sbin/nologin → /usr/guest/operator
bin → /sbin/nologin → /
games → /sbin/nologin → /usr/games
postfix → /sbin/nologin → /var/spool/postfix
named → /sbin/nologin → /var/chroot/named
ntpd → /sbin/nologin → /var/chroot/ntpd
sshd → /sbin/nologin → /var/chroot/sshd
smmsp → /sbin/nologin → /nonexistent
uucp → /usr/libexec/uucp/uucico → /var/spool/uucppublic
nobody → /sbin/nologin → /nonexistent
jp → /usr/pkg/bin/bash → /home/jp

# Multiples of whitespace and swapped, first field removed
$ grep '^# [1-9]' /etc/hosts | awk '{print $3,$2}'
10.255.255.255 10.0.0.0
172.31.255.255 172.16.0.0
192.168.255.255 192.168.0.0

```

Use `grep -o` to display just the part that matched your pattern. This is particularly handy when you can't express delimiters in a way that lends itself to the solutions shown here. For example, say you need to extract all IP addresses from a file, no matter where they are. Note we use *egrep* because of the regular expression (*regex*), but `-o` should work with whichever GNU *grep* flavor you use (it is probably not supported on non-GNU versions; check your documentation):

```

$ cat has_ipas
This is line 1 with 1 IPA: 10.10.10.10
Line 2 has 2; they are 10.10.10.11 and 10.10.10.12.

```

Line three is ftp_server=10.10.10.13:21.

```
$ egrep -o '[0-9]{1,3}\.[0-9]{1,3}\.[0-9]{1,3}\.[0-9]{1,3}' has_ipas
10.10.10.10
10.10.10.11
10.10.10.12
10.10.10.13
```

Discussion

The possibilities are endless, and we haven't even scratched the surface here. This is the very essence of what the Unix toolchain idea is all about: take a number of small tools that do one thing well and combine them as needed to solve problems.

Also, the regex we used for IP addresses is naive and could match other things, including invalid addresses. For a much better pattern, use the Perl Compatible Regular Expressions (PCRE) regex from *Mastering Regular Expressions*, 3rd Edition, by Jeffrey E. F. Friedl (O'Reilly), if your *grep* supports *-P*:

```
$ grep -oP '([01]?\d\d?|2[0-4]\d|25[0-5])\.([01]?\d\d?|2[0-4]\d|25[0-5])\.([01]?\d\d?|2[0-4]\d|25[0-5])\.([01]?\d\d?|2[0-4]\d|25[0-5])' has_ipas
10.10.10.10
10.10.10.11
10.10.10.12
10.10.10.13
$
```

Or use Perl:

```
$ perl -ne 'while ( m/([01]?\d\d?|2[0-4]\d|25[0-5])\.([01]?\d\d?|2[0-4]\d|25[0-5])\.([01]?\d\d?|2[0-4]\d|25[0-5])\.([01]?\d\d?|2[0-4]\d|25[0-5])/g ) { print qq($1.$2.$3.$4\n); }' has_ipas
10.10.10.10
10.10.10.11
10.10.10.12
10.10.10.13
$
```

See Also

- man cut
- man awk
- man grep
- *Mastering Regular Expressions*, 3rd Edition, by Jeffrey E. F. Friedl (O'Reilly)
- [Recipe 8.4, "Cutting Out Parts of Your Output"](#)

- [Recipe 13.15, “Trimming Whitespace”](#)
- [Recipe 15.10, “Finding My IP Address”](#)
- [Recipe 17.16, “Finding Lines That Appear in One File but Not in Another”](#)

13.14 Updating Specific Fields in Datafiles

Problem

You need to extract certain parts (fields) of a line (record) and update them.

Solution

In the simple case, you want to extract a single field from a line, then perform some operation on it. For that, you can use *cut* or *awk*. See [Recipe 13.13](#) for details.

For the more complicated case, you need to modify a field in a datafile without extracting it. If it's a simple search and replace, use *sed*.

For example, let's switch everyone from *cs*h to *sh* on this NetBSD system:

```
$ grep csh /etc/passwd
root:*:0:0:Charlie &:/root:/bin/csh

$ sed 's;/csh$;/sh;' /etc/passwd | grep '^root'
root:*:0:0:Charlie &:/root:/bin/sh
```

You can use *awk* if you need to do arithmetic on a field or modify a string only in a certain field:

```
$ cat data_file
Line 1 ends
Line 2 ends
Line 3 ends
Line 4 ends
Line 5 ends

$ awk '{print $1, $2+5, $3}' data_file
Line 6 ends
Line 7 ends
Line 8 ends
Line 9 ends
Line 10 ends

# If the second field contains '3', change it to '8' and mark it
$ awk '{ if ($2 == "3") print $1, $2+5, $3, "Tweaked" ; else print $0; }' \
data_file
Line 1 ends
Line 2 ends
Line 8 ends Tweaked
```

Line 4 ends
Line 5 ends

Discussion

The possibilities here are as endless as your data, but hopefully these examples will give you enough of a start to easily modify your data.

See Also

- `man awk`
- `man sed`
- <http://sed.sourceforge.net/sedfaq.html>
- <http://sed.sourceforge.net/sed1line.txt>
- Recipe 11.7, “Figuring Out Date and Time Arithmetic”
- Recipe 13.13, “Isolating Specific Fields in Data”

13.15 Trimming Whitespace

Problem

You need to trim leading and/or trailing whitespace from lines for fields of data.

Solution

These solutions rely on a *bash*-specific treatment of *read* and `$REPLY`. See the end of the discussion for an alternate solution.

First, we’ll show a file with some leading and trailing whitespace. Note that we add `~~` to show the whitespace, and that the `→` denotes a literal tab character in the output:

```
# Show the whitespace in our sample file
$ while read; do echo ~"$REPLY"~~; done < whitespace
~~ This line has leading spaces.~~
~~This line has trailing spaces.  ~~
~~ This line has both leading and trailing spaces.  ~~
~~ → Leading tab.~~
~~Trailing tab. → ~~
~~ → Leading and trailing tab. → ~~
~~ → Leading mixed whitespace.~~
~~Trailing mixed whitespace. →    ~~
~~ → Leading and trailing mixed whitespace. →    ~~
$
```

To trim both leading and trailing whitespace, use `$IFS` and the builtin `$REPLY` variable (see the discussion for why this works):

```
$ while read REPLY; do echo ~"$REPLY"~; done < whitespace
~~This line has leading spaces.~~
~~This line has trailing spaces.~~
~~This line has both leading and trailing spaces.~~
~~Leading tab.~~
~~Trailing tab.~~
~~Leading and trailing tab.~~
~~Leading mixed whitespace.~~
~~Trailing mixed whitespace.~~
~~Leading and trailing mixed whitespace.~~
$
```

To trim only leading or only trailing *spaces*, use a simple pattern match:

```
# Leading spaces only
$ while read; do echo "~${REPLY## }~"; done < whitespace
~~This line has leading spaces.~~
~~This line has trailing spaces.~~
~~This line has both leading and trailing spaces.~~
~~ → Leading tab.~~
~~Trailing tab.~~
~~ → Leading and trailing tab. → ~
~~ → Leading mixed whitespace.~~
~~Trailing mixed whitespace. → ~
~~ → Leading and trailing mixed whitespace. → ~

# Trailing spaces only
$ while read; do echo "~${REPLY% }~"; done < whitespace
~~ This line has leading spaces.~~
~~This line has trailing spaces.~~
~~ This line has both leading and trailing spaces.~~
~~ → Leading tab.~~
~~Trailing tab.~~
~~ → Leading and trailing tab. → ~
~~ → Leading mixed whitespace.~~
~~Trailing mixed whitespace. → ~
~~ → Leading and trailing mixed whitespace. → ~
```

Trimming only leading or only trailing *whitespace* (including tabs) is a bit more complicated:

```
# You need this either way
$ shopt -s extglob

# Leading whitespace only
$ while read; do echo "~${REPLY##+([[:space:]))}~"; done < whitespace
~~This line has leading spaces.~~
~~This line has trailing spaces.~~
~~This line has both leading and trailing spaces.~~
~~Leading tab.~~
```



```

~~Trailing tab. ~~
~~Leading and trailing tab. → ~~
~~Leading mixed whitespace.~~
~~Trailing mixed whitespace.      → ~~
~~Leading and trailing mixed whitespace.  → ~~
$

# Trailing whitespace only
$ while read; do echo "$REPLY%+([[:space:]])"; done < whitespace
~~ This line has leading spaces.~~
~~This line has trailing spaces.~~
~~ This line has both leading and trailing spaces.~~
~~ → Leading tab.~~
~~Trailing tab.~~
~~ → Leading and trailing tab.~~
~~     → Leading mixed whitespace.~~
~~Trailing mixed whitespace.~~
~~     → Leading and trailing mixed whitespace.~~

```

Discussion

OK, at this point you are probably looking at these lines and wondering how we're going to make this comprehensible. It turns out there's a simple, if subtle, explanation.

Here we go. The first example used the default `$REPLY` variable that `read` uses when you do not supply your own variable name(s). Chet Ramey (maintainer of `bash`) made a design decision to “[if] there are no variables, save the text of the line read to the variable `$REPLY`,” unchanged:

```
while read; do echo "$REPLY"; done < whitespace
```

But when we supply one or more variable names to `read`, it does parse the input, using the values in `$IFS` (which are space, tab, and newline by default). One step of that parsing process is to trim leading and trailing whitespace—just what we want:

```
while read REPLY; do echo "$REPLY"; done < whitespace
```

Trimming leading or trailing spaces (but not both) is easy using the `${##}` or `${%%}` operators (see [Recipe 6.7](#)):

```
while read; do echo "${REPLY## }"; done < whitespace
while read; do echo "${REPLY% }"; done < whitespace
```

Covering tabs is a little harder. If we had only tabs, we could use the `${##}` or `${%%}` operators and insert literal tabs using the Ctrl-V Ctrl-I key sequence. But that's risky since it's probable there's a mix of spaces and tabs, and some text editors or unwary users may strip out the tabs. So, we turn on extended globbing and use a character class to make our intent clear. The `[[:space:]]` character class would work without `extglob`, but we need to say “one or more occurrences” using `+` or else it will trim a single spaces or tabs, but not multiples of both on the same line. If you only care

about space or tab, you could use the `[:blank:]` character class instead, since `[:space:]` includes other characters like the vertical tab (`\v`) and DOS CR (carriage return, `\r`):

```
# This works, need extglob for +() part
$ shopt -s extglob
...
$ while read; do echo "--${REPLY##+([[:space:]])}~"; done < whitespace
...
$ while read; do echo "--${REPLY%+([[:space:]])}~"; done < whitespace
...

# This doesn't
$ while read; do echo "--${REPLY##[[:space:]]}~"; done < whitespace
~~This line has leading spaces.~~
~~This line has trailing spaces.~~
~~This line has both leading and trailing spaces.~~
~~Leading tab.~~
~~Trailing tab.~~
~~Leading and trailing tab.~~
~~  → Leading mixed whitespace.~~
~~Trailing mixed whitespace.    →~~
~~  → Leading and trailing mixed whitespace.    →~~
```

Here's a different take, exploiting the same `$IFS` parsing, but to parse out fields (or words) instead of records (or lines):

```
$ for i in $(cat white_space); do echo ~$i~; done
~~This~~
~~line~~
~~has~~
~~leading~~
~~white~~
~~space.~~
~~This~~
~~line~~
~~has~~
~~trailing~~
~~white~~
~~space.~~
~~This~~
~~line~~
~~has~~
~~both~~
~~leading~~
~~and~~
~~trailing~~
~~white~~
~~space.~~
$
```

Finally, although the original solutions rely on Chet's design decision about *read* and *\$REPLY*, this solution does not:

```
shopt -s extglob

while IFS= read -r line; do
echo "None: ~$line~" # preserve all whitespaces
echo "Ld: ~${line##+([[[:space:]]]}~" # trim leading whitespace
echo "Tr: ~${line%+([[[:space:]]]}~" # trim trailing whitespace
line="${line##+([[[:space:]]]})" # trim leading and...
line="${line%+([[[:space:]]]})" # ...trailing whitespace
echo "All: ~$line~" # Show all trimmed
done < whitespace
```

See Also

- [Recipe 6.7, “Testing with Pattern Matches”](#)
- [Recipe 13.6, “Parsing Text with a read Statement”](#)

13.16 Compressing Whitespace

Problem

You have runs of whitespace in a file (perhaps it is fixed-length, space-padded) and you need to compress the spaces down to a single character or delimiter.

Solution

Use *tr* or *awk* as appropriate.

Discussion

If you are trying to compress runs of whitespace down to a single character, you can use *tr*, but be aware that you may damage the file if it is not well formed. For example, if fields are delimited by multiple whitespace characters but internally have spaces, compressing multiple spaces down to one space will remove that distinction. Imagine if the `_` characters in the following example were spaces instead. Note the `→` denotes a literal tab character in the output:

```
$ cat data_file
Header1      Header2      Header3
Rec1_Field1  Rec1_Field2  Rec1_Field3
Rec2_Field1  Rec2_Field2  Rec2_Field3
Rec3_Field1  Rec3_Field2  Rec3_Field3

$ cat data_file | tr -s ' ' '\t'
```

```
Header1 → Header2 → Header3
Rec1_Field1 → Rec1_Field2 → Rec1_Field3
Rec2_Field1 → Rec2_Field2 → Rec2_Field3
Rec3_Field1 → Rec3_Field2 → Rec3_Field3
```

If your field delimiter is more than a single character, *tr* won't work since it translates *single characters* from its first set into the *matching single character* in the second set. You can use *awk* to combine or convert field separators. *awk*'s internal field separator FS accepts regular expressions, so you can separate on pretty much anything. There is a handy trick to this as well: an assignment to any field causes *awk* to reassemble the record using the output field separator, OFS, so assigning field 1 to itself and then printing the record has the effect of translating FS to OFS without you having to worry about how many records there are in the data.

In this example, multiple spaces delimit fields, but fields also have internal spaces, so the more simple case of:

```
awk 'BEGIN {OFS="\t"} {$1=$1; print }' data_file1
```

won't work. Here is a datafile:

```
$ cat data_file1
Header1          Header2          Header3
Rec1 Field1     Rec1 Field2     Rec1 Field3
Rec2 Field1     Rec2 Field2     Rec2 Field3
Rec3 Field1     Rec3 Field2     Rec3 Field
$
```

In the next example, we assign two spaces to FS and the tab to OFS. We then make an assignment (`$1 = $1`) so *awk* rebuilds the record, but that results in strings of tabs replacing the double spaces, so we use *gsub* to squash the tabs, then we print. Note the `→` denotes a literal tab character in the output. The output is a little hard to read, so there is a hex dump as well. Recall that ASCII tab is 09 while ASCII space is 20:

```
$ awk 'BEGIN { FS = " "; OFS = "\t" } { $1 = $1; gsub(/\t+ ?/, "\t"); print }' \
data_file1
Header1 → Header2 → Header3
Rec1 Field1 → Rec1 Field2 → Rec1 Field3
Rec2 Field1 → Rec2 Field2 → Rec2 Field3
Rec3 Field1 → Rec3 Field2 → Rec3 Field3

$ awk 'BEGIN { FS = " "; OFS = "\t" } { $1 = $1; gsub(/\t+ ?/, "\t"); print }' \
data_file1 | hexdump -C
00000000 48 65 61 64 65 72 31 09 48 65 61 64 65 72 32 09 |Header1.Header2.|
00000010 48 65 61 64 65 72 33 0a 52 65 63 31 20 46 69 65 |Header3.Rec1 Fie|
00000020 6c 64 31 09 52 65 63 31 20 46 69 65 6c 64 32 09 |ld1.Rec1 Field2.|
00000030 52 65 63 31 20 46 69 65 6c 64 33 0a 52 65 63 32 |Rec1 Field3.Rec2|
00000040 20 46 69 65 6c 64 31 09 52 65 63 32 20 46 69 65 | Field1.Rec2 Fie|
00000050 6c 64 32 09 52 65 63 32 20 46 69 65 6c 64 33 0a |ld2.Rec2 Field3.|
00000060 52 65 63 33 20 46 69 65 6c 64 31 09 52 65 63 33 |Rec3 Field1.Rec3|
00000070 20 46 69 65 6c 64 32 09 52 65 63 33 20 46 69 65 | Field2.Rec3 Fie|
```

```
00000080 6c 64 0a
00000083
```

```
|ld.|
```

You can use *awk* to trim leading and trailing whitespace in the same way, but as noted previously, this will replace your field separators unless they are already spaces:

```
awk '{ $1 = $1; print }' white_space
```

See Also

- *Effective awk Programming*, 4th Edition, by Arnold Robbins (O’Reilly)
- *sed & awk*, 2nd Edition, by Arnold Robbins and Dale Dougherty (O’Reilly)
- [Recipe 13.17, “Processing Fixed-Length Records”](#)
- [“tr Escape Sequences” on page 611 in Appendix A](#)
- [“Table of ASCII Values” on page 619 in Appendix A](#)

13.17 Processing Fixed-Length Records

Problem

You need to read and process data that is in a fixed-length (also called fixed-width) form.

Solution

Use Perl or *gawk* 2.13 or greater. Given a file like:

```
$ cat fixed-length_file
Header1-----Header2-----Header3-----
Rec1 Field1      Rec1 Field2      Rec1 Field3
Rec2 Field1      Rec2 Field2      Rec2 Field3
Rec3 Field1      Rec3 Field2      Rec3 Field3
```

you can process it using GNU’s *gawk*, by setting `FIELDWIDTHS` to the correct field lengths, setting `OFS` as desired, and making an assignment so *gawk* rebuilds the record using this `OFS`. However, *gawk* does not remove the spaces used in padding the original record, so we use two `gsub`s to do that, one for all the internal fields and the other for the last field in each record. Finally, we just print. Note the `→` denotes a literal tab character in the output. The output is a little hard to read, so there is a hex dump as well. Recall that ASCII tab is `09` while ASCII space is `20`:

```
$ gawk 'BEGIN { FIELDWIDTHS = "18 32 16"; OFS = "\t" }
> { $1 = $1; gsub(/ +\t/, "\t"); gsub(/ +$/, ""); print }' fixed-length_file
Header1----- → Header2----- → Header3-----
Rec1 Field1 → Rec1 Field2 → Rec1 Field3
Rec2 Field1 → Rec2 Field2 → Rec2 Field3
```

```
Rec3 Field1 → Rec3 Field2 → Rec3 Field3
```

```
$ gawk 'BEGIN { FIELDWIDTHS = "18 32 16"; OFS = "\t" }
> { $1 = $1; gsub(/ +\t/, "\t"); gsub(/ +$/, ""); print }' fixed-length_file \
> | hexdump -C
00000000 48 65 61 64 65 72 31 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d |Header1-----|
00000010 2d 2d 09 48 65 61 64 65 72 32 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d |---.Header2-----|
00000020 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d |-----|
00000030 2d 2d 2d 09 48 65 61 64 65 72 33 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d |----.Header3-----|
00000040 2d 2d 2d 2d 0a 52 65 63 31 20 46 69 65 6c 64 31 |----.Rec1 Field1|
00000050 09 52 65 63 31 20 46 69 65 6c 64 32 09 52 65 63 |.Rec1 Field2.Rec|
00000060 31 20 46 69 65 6c 64 33 0a 52 65 63 32 20 46 69 |1 Field3.Rec2 Fi|
00000070 65 6c 64 31 09 52 65 63 32 20 46 69 65 6c 64 32 |eld1.Rec2 Field2|
00000080 09 52 65 63 32 20 46 69 65 6c 64 33 0a 52 65 63 |.Rec2 Field3.Rec|
00000090 33 20 46 69 65 6c 64 31 09 52 65 63 33 20 46 69 |3 Field1.Rec3 Fi|
000000a0 65 6c 64 32 09 52 65 63 33 20 46 69 65 6c 64 33 |eld2.Rec3 Field3|
000000b0 0a                                     |.|
000000b1
```

If you don't have *gawk*, you can use Perl, which is more straightforward anyway. We use a nonprinting while input loop (`-n`), unpack each record (`$_`) as it's read, and turn the resulting list back into a scalar by joining the elements with a tab. We then print each record, adding a newline at the end:

```
$ perl -ne 'print join("\t", unpack("A18 A32 A16", $_) ) . "\n";' \
> fixed-length_file
Header1----- → Header2----- → Header3-----
Rec1 Field1 → Rec1 Field2 → Rec1 Field3
Rec2 Field1 → Rec2 Field2 → Rec2 Field3
Rec3 Field1 → Rec3 Field2 → Rec3 Field3
$ perl -ne 'print join("\t", unpack("A18 A32 A16", $_) ) . "\n";' \
> fixed-length_file |
> hexdump -C
00000000 48 65 61 64 65 72 31 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d |Header1-----|
00000010 2d 2d 09 48 65 61 64 65 72 32 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d |---.Header2-----|
00000020 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d |-----|
00000030 2d 2d 2d 09 48 65 61 64 65 72 33 2d 2d 2d 2d 2d |----.Header3-----|
00000040 2d 2d 2d 2d 0a 52 65 63 31 20 46 69 65 6c 64 31 |----.Rec1 Field1|
00000050 09 52 65 63 31 20 46 69 65 6c 64 32 09 52 65 63 |.Rec1 Field2.Rec|
00000060 31 20 46 69 65 6c 64 33 0a 52 65 63 32 20 46 69 |1 Field3.Rec2 Fi|
00000070 65 6c 64 31 09 52 65 63 32 20 46 69 65 6c 64 32 |eld1.Rec2 Field2|
00000080 09 52 65 63 32 20 46 69 65 6c 64 33 0a 52 65 63 |.Rec2 Field3.Rec|
00000090 33 20 46 69 65 6c 64 31 09 52 65 63 33 20 46 69 |3 Field1.Rec3 Fi|
000000a0 65 6c 64 32 09 52 65 63 33 20 46 69 65 6c 64 33 |eld2.Rec3 Field3|
000000b0 0a                                     |.|
000000b1
```

See the Perl documentation for the `pack` and `unpack` template formats.

Discussion

Anyone with any Unix background will automatically use some kind of delimiter in output, since the *textutils* toolchain is never far from mind, so fixed-length (a.k.a. fixed-width) records are rare in the Unix world. They are very common in the mainframe world, however, so they will occasionally crop up in large applications that originated on big iron, such as some applications from SAP. As we've just seen, it's no problem to handle them.

One caveat to this recipe is that it requires each record to end in a newline. Many old mainframe record formats don't, in which case you can use [Recipe 13.18](#) to add newlines to the end of each record before processing.

See Also

- `man gawk`
- <http://www.faqs.org/faqs/computer-lang/awk/faq/>
- <http://perldoc.perl.org/functions/unpack.html>
- <http://perldoc.perl.org/functions/pack.html>
- [Recipe 13.15](#), “Trimming Whitespace”
- [Recipe 13.18](#), “Processing Files with No Line Breaks”

13.18 Processing Files with No Line Breaks

Problem

You have a large file with no line breaks, and you need to process it.

Solution

Preprocess the file and add line breaks in appropriate places. For example, OpenOffice's OpenDocument Format (ODF) files are basically zipped XML files. It is possible to *unzip* them and *grep* the XML, which we did a lot while writing this book. See [Recipe 12.5](#) for a more comprehensive treatment of ODF files. In this example, we insert a newline after every closing angle bracket (>). That makes it much easier to process the file using *grep* or other *textutils*. Note that we must enter a backslash followed immediately by the Enter key to embed an escaped newline in the *sed* script:

```
$ wc -l content.xml
1 content.xml

$ sed -e 's/>/>\n'
```

```
> /g' content.xml | wc -l
1687
```

If you have fixed-length records with no newlines, do this instead, where 48 is the length of the record:

```
$ cat fixed-length
Line_1_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZLine_2__
aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZLine_3__
aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZLine_4__
aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZLine_5__
aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZLine_6__
aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZLine_7__
aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZLine_8__
aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZLine_9__
aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZLine_10__
aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZLine_11__
aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZLine_12__
aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
```

```
$ wc -l fixed-length
 1 fixed-length
```

```
$ sed 's/.\{48\}/&\
> /g;' fixed-length
Line_1_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_2_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_3_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_4_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_5_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_6_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_7_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_8_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_9_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_10_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_11_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_12_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
```

```
$ perl -pe 's/(.{48})/$1\n/g;' fixed-length
Line_1_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_2_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_3_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_4_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_5_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_6_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_7_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_8_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_9_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_10_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_11_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
Line_12_ _aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaZZZ
```


Discussion

This happens often when people create output programmatically, especially using canned modules and especially with HTML or XML output.

Note the *sed* substitutions have an odd construct that allows an embedded newline. In *sed*, a literal ampersand (&) on the righthand side (RHS) of a substitution is replaced by the entire expression matched on the lefthand side (LHS), and the trailing \ on the first line escapes the newline so you don't get an error like "sed: -e expression #1, char 11: unterminated 's'". This is because *sed* doesn't recognize \n as a metacharacter on the RHS of s///.

See Also

- <http://sed.sourceforge.net/sedfaq.html>
- *Effective awk Programming*, 4th Edition, by Arnold Robbins (O'Reilly)
- *sed & awk*, 2nd Edition, by Arnold Robbins and Dale Dougherty (O'Reilly)
- [Recipe 12.5, "Comparing Two Documents"](#)
- [Recipe 13.17, "Processing Fixed-Length Records"](#)

13.19 Converting a Datafile to CSV

Problem

You have a data file that you need to convert to a Comma Separated Values (CSV) file.

Solution

Use *awk* to convert the data into CSV format:

```
$ awk 'BEGIN { FS="\t"; OFS="\", \"\" } { gsub(/"/, "\\\""); $1 = $1;
> printf "\"%s\\n", $0}' tab_delimited
"Line 1","Field 2","Field 3","Field 4","Field 5 with ""internal"" double-quotes"
"Line 2","Field 2","Field 3","Field 4","Field 5 with ""internal"" double-quotes"
"Line 3","Field 2","Field 3","Field 4","Field 5 with ""internal"" double-quotes"
"Line 4","Field 2","Field 3","Field 4","Field 5 with ""internal"" double-quotes"
$
```

You can do the same thing in Perl also:

```
$ perl -naF'\t' -e 'chomp @F; s/"/"/g for @F; print q(").join(q(","),@F)
> .qq("\n");' tab_delimited
"Line 1","Field 2","Field 3","Field 4","Field 5 with ""internal"" double-quotes"
"Line 2","Field 2","Field 3","Field 4","Field 5 with ""internal"" double-quotes"
"Line 3","Field 2","Field 3","Field 4","Field 5 with ""internal"" double-quotes"
```

```
"Line 4","Field 2","Field 3","Field 4","Field 5 with ""internal"" double-quotes"
$
```

Discussion

First of all, it's tricky to define exactly what CSV really means. There is no formal specification, and various vendors have implemented various versions. Our version here is very simple, and should hopefully work just about anywhere. We place double quotes around all fields (some implementations only quote strings, or strings with internal commas), and we double internal double quotes.

To do that, we have *awk* split up the input fields using a tab as the field separator and set the output field separator (OFS) to `","`, which will provide the trailing quote for each field and then the leading quote for the next field as well as the comma in between them. We then globally replace any double quotes with two double quotes, make an assignment so *awk* rebuilds the record with our specified OFS (see the *awk* trick in [Recipe 13.15](#)), and print out the record with leading and trailing double quotes. We have to escape double quotes in several places, which looks a little cluttered, but otherwise this is very straightforward.

See Also

- <http://www.faqs.org/faqs/computer-lang/awk/faq/>
- [Recipe 13.15](#), “Trimming Whitespace”
- [Recipe 13.20](#), “Parsing a CSV Datafile”

13.20 Parsing a CSV Datafile

Problem

You have a Comma Separated Values datafile that you need to parse.

Solution

Unlike the previous recipe for converting to CSV, there is no easy way to do this, since it's tricky to define exactly what CSV really means.

Possible solutions for you to explore are:

- *sed*: <http://sed.sourceforge.net/sedfaq4.html#s4.12>.
- *awk*: <http://lorance.freeshell.org/csv/>.

- Perl: *Mastering Regular Expressions*, 3rd Edition, by Jeffrey E. F. Friedl (O'Reilly) has a regex to do this; see also [CPAN](#), the Comprehensive Perl Archive Network, for various modules.
- Load the CSV file into a spreadsheet (LibreOffice's Calc and Microsoft's Excel both work), then copy and paste the contents into a text editor; you should get tab-delimited output that you can now use easily.

Discussion

As noted in [Recipe 13.19](#), there is no formal specification for CSV, and that fact, combined with data variations, makes this task much harder than it sounds.

See Also

- [Recipe 13.19, "Converting a Datafile to CSV"](#)

Writing Secure Shell Scripts

Writing secure shell scripts?! How can shell scripts be secure when you can read the source code?

Any system that depends on concealing implementation details is attempting to use *security by obscurity*, and that is no security at all. Just ask the major software manufacturers whose source code is a closely guarded trade secret, yet whose products are incessantly vulnerable to exploits written by people who have never seen that source code. Contrast that with the code from OpenSSH and OpenBSD, which is totally open, yet very secure.

Security by obscurity will never work for long, though some forms of it can be a useful *additional* layer of security. For example, having daemons assigned to listen on nonstandard port numbers will keep a lot of the so-called script-kiddies away. But security by obscurity must never be the *only* layer of security because sooner or later, someone is going to discover whatever you've hidden.

As Bruce Schneier says, security is a process. It's not a product, object, or technique, and it is never finished. As technology, networks, attacks and defenses evolve, so must your security process. So what does it mean to write *secure* shell scripts?

Secure shell scripts will reliably do what they are supposed to do, and only what they are supposed to do. They won't lend themselves to being exploited to gain *root* access, they won't accidentally `rm -rf /`, and they won't leak information, such as passwords. They will be robust, but will fail gracefully. They will tolerate inadvertent user mistakes and sanitize all user input. They will be as simple as possible, and contain only clear, readable code and documentation so that the intention of each line is unambiguous.

That sounds a lot like any well-designed, robust program, doesn't it? Security should be part of any good design process from the start—it shouldn't be tacked on at the

end. In this chapter we highlighted the most common security weaknesses and questions, and show you how to tackle them.

A lot has been written about security over the years. If you're interested, *Practical UNIX & Internet Security*, 3rd Edition, by Gene Spafford et al. (O'Reilly) is a good place to start. Chapter 15 of *Classic Shell Scripting* by Nelson H. F. Beebe and Arnold Robbins (O'Reilly) is another excellent resource. There are also many good online references, such as "A Lab engineer's check list for writing secure Unix code".

The listing in [Example 14-1](#) collects the most universal of the secure shell programming techniques, so they are all in one place as a quick reference when you need them or to copy into a script template. Be sure to read the full recipe for each technique so you understand it.

Example 14-1. ch14/security_template

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: security_template

# Set a sane/secure path
PATH='/usr/local/bin:/bin:/usr/bin'
# It's almost certainly already marked for export, but make sure
\export PATH

# Clear all aliases. Important: leading | inhibits alias expansion.
\unalias -a

# Clear the command path hash
hash -r

# Set the hard limit to 0 to turn off core dumps
ulimit -H -c 0 --

# Set a sane/secure IFS (note this is bash & ksh93 syntax only--not portable!)
IFS=$' \t\n'

# Set a sane/secure umask variable and use it
# Note this does not affect files already redirected on the command line
# 022 results in 0755 perms, 077 results in 0700 perms, etc.
UMASK=022
umask $UMASK

until [ -n "$temp_dir" -a ! -d "$temp_dir" ]; do
    temp_dir="/tmp/meaningful_prefix.${RANDOM}${RANDOM}${RANDOM}"
done
mkdir -p -m 0700 $temp_dir \
    || (echo "FATAL: Failed to create temp dir '$temp_dir': $?"; exit 100)

# Do our best to clean up temp files no matter what
# Note $temp_dir must be set before this, and must not change!
```

```
cleanup="rm -rf $temp_dir"  
trap "$cleanup" ABRT EXIT HUP INT QUIT
```

14.1 Avoiding Common Security Problems

Problem

You want to avoid common security problems in your scripting.

Solution

Validate all external input, including interactive input and that from configuration files and interactive use. In particular, never eval input that you have not checked very thoroughly.

Use secure temporary files, ideally in secure temporary directories.

Make sure you are using trusted external executables.

Discussion

In a way, this recipe barely scratches the surface of scripting and system security. Yet it also covers the most common security problems you'll find.

Data validation, or rather the lack of it, is a huge deal in computer security right now. This is the problem that leads to buffer overflow and data injection attacks, which are by far the most common classes of exploit going around. *bash* doesn't suffer from this issue in the same way that C does, but the concepts are the same. In the *bash* world it's more likely that unvalidated input will contain something like `;rm -rf /` than a buffer overflow; however, neither is welcome. Validate your data!

Race conditions are another big issue, closely tied to the problem of an attacker gaining an ability to write over unexpected files. A *race condition* exists when two or more separate events must occur in the correct order at the correct time without external interference. They often result in providing an unprivileged user with read and/or write access to files that user shouldn't be able to access, which in turn can result in so-called *privilege escalation*, where an ordinary user can gain *root* access. Insecure use of temporary files is a very common factor in this kind of attack. Using secure temporary files, especially inside secure temporary directories, will eliminate this attack vector.

Another common attack vector is Trojaned utilities. Like the Trojan horse, these appear to be one thing while they are in fact something else. The canonical example here is the Trojaned *ls* command that works just like the real *ls* command except when run by *root*. In that case it creates a new user called *root*, with a default password known to the attacker, and deletes itself. Using a secure *\$PATH* is about the best

you can do from the scripting side. From the systems side there are many tools, such as FCheck, Tripwire, and AIDE, to help you assure system integrity.

See Also

- <https://www.tripwire.com/>
- <http://aide.sourceforge.net/>

14.2 Avoiding Interpreter Spoofing

Problem

You want to avoid certain kinds of *setuid root* spoofing attacks.

Solution

Pass a single trailing dash to the shell, as in:

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

Discussion

The first line of a script is a magic line (often called the *shebang* line) that tells the kernel what interpreter to use to process the rest of the file. The kernel will also look for a single option to the specified interpreter. There are some attacks that take advantage of this fact, but if you pass an argument along, they are avoided. See [section 4.7 of the Unix FAQs](#) for details.

However, hardcoding the path to *bash* may present a portability issue. See [Recipe 15.1](#) for details.

See Also

- [Recipe 14.15, “Writing setuid or setgid Scripts”](#)
- [Recipe 15.1, “Finding bash Portably for #!”](#)

14.3 Setting a Secure \$PATH

Problem

You want to make sure you are using a secure path.

Solution

Set `$PATH` to a known good state at the beginning of every script:

```
# Set a sane/secure path
PATH='/usr/local/bin:/bin:/usr/bin'
# It's almost certainly already marked for export, but make sure
export PATH
```

Or use the `getconf` utility to get a path guaranteed by POSIX to find all of the standard utilities:

```
export PATH=$(getconf PATH)
```

Discussion

There are two portability problems with the second example. First, `$()` is less portable (if more readable) than `` ``. Second, having the `export` command on the same line as the variable assignment won't always work across every old or odd version of Unix and Linux. `var='foo'; export var` is more portable than `export var='foo'`. Also note that the `export` command need only be used once to flag a variable to be exported to child processes.

If you don't use `getconf`, our example is a good default path for starters, though you may need to adjust it for your particular environment or needs. You might also use the less portable version:

```
export PATH='/usr/local/bin:/bin:/usr/bin'
```

Depending on your security risk and needs, you should also consider using absolute paths. This tends to be cumbersome and can be an issue where portability is concerned, as different operating systems put tools in different places. One way to mitigate these issues to some extent is to use variables. If you do this, sort them so you don't end up with the same command three times because you missed it scanning the unsorted list. See [Example 14-2](#) for an example.

Example 14-2. ch14/finding_tools

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: finding_tools

# Export may or may not also be needed, depending on what you are doing

# These are fairly safe bets
_cp='/bin/cp'
_mv='/bin/mv'
_rm='/bin/rm'

# These are a little trickier
case $(/bin/uname) in
```

```

'Linux')
    _cut='/bin/cut'
    _nice='/bin/nice'
    # [...]
;;
'SunOS')
    _cut='/usr/bin/cut'
    _nice='/usr/bin/nice'
    # [...]
;;
# [...]
esac

```

One other advantage of this method is that it makes it very easy to see exactly what tools your script depends on, and you can even add a simple function to make sure that each tool is available and executable before your script really gets going.



Be careful about the variable names you use. Some programs, like InfoZip, use environment variables such as \$ZIP and \$UNZIP to pass settings to the program itself, so if you do something like ZIP='/usr/bin/zip', you can spend days pulling your hair out wondering why it works fine from the command line, but not in your script. Trust us. We learned this one the hard way. Also RTFM.

See Also

- [Recipe 6.14, “Branching Many Ways”](#)
- [Recipe 6.15, “Parsing Command-Line Arguments”](#)
- [Recipe 14.9, “Finding World-Writable Directories in Your \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 14.10, “Adding the Current Directory to the \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 15.2, “Setting a POSIX \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 16.4, “Changing Your \\$PATH Permanently”](#)
- [Recipe 16.5, “Changing Your \\$PATH Temporarily”](#)
- [Recipe 19.3, “Forgetting That the Current Directory Is Not in the \\$PATH”](#)
- [“Builtin Commands” on page 588 in Appendix A](#)
- [“bash Reserved Words” on page 590 in Appendix A](#)

14.4 Clearing All Aliases

Problem

You need to make sure that there are no malicious aliases in your environment for security reasons.

Solution

Use the `\unalias -a` command to unalias any existing aliases.

Discussion

If an attacker can trick *root* or even another user into running a command, they will be able to gain access to data or privileges they shouldn't have. One way to trick another user into running a malicious program is to create an alias to some other common program (e.g., *ls*).

The leading `\`, which suppresses alias expansion, is very important because without it you can be tricked, like this:

```
$ alias unalias=echo
$ alias builtin=ls
$ builtin unalias vi
ls: unalias: No such file or directory
ls: vi: No such file or directory
$ unalias -a
-a
```



As Chet says, “This is a tricky problem”:

Since the shell finds shell functions before builtins in command search, and allows functions to be exported in the environment, it might be worth stressing to use *builtin* before every builtin, use *command* to skip function lookup, or just unset every function you might be interested in:

```
_OLD=$POSIXLY_CORRECT; POSIXLY_CORRECT=1
\unset -f builtin command unset
POSIXLY_CORRECT=$_OLD ; \unset _OLD
builtin unalias command builtin unset
unset -f $(command declare -F \
| command sed 's/^declare -f //' )
```

Or consider unsetting the `expand_aliases` option, in which case you have to do the `unset/unalias` dance for *shopt* as well.

—Chet Ramey

See Also

- [Recipe 10.7, “Redefining Commands with alias”](#)
- [Recipe 10.8, “Avoiding Aliases and Functions”](#)
- [Recipe 16.8, “Shortening or Changing Command Names”](#)

14.5 Clearing the Command Hash

Problem

You need to make sure that your command hash has not been subverted.

Solution

Use the `hash -r` command to clear entries from the command hash.

Discussion

On execution, *bash* “remembers” the location of most commands found in the `$PATH` to speed up subsequent invocations.

If an attacker can trick *root* or even another user into running a command, they will be able to gain access to data or privileges they shouldn’t have. One way to trick

another user into running a malicious program is to poison the hash so that the wrong program may be run.

See Also

- [Recipe 14.9, “Finding World-Writable Directories in Your \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 14.10, “Adding the Current Directory to the \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 15.2, “Setting a POSIX \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 16.4, “Changing Your \\$PATH Permanently”](#)
- [Recipe 16.5, “Changing Your \\$PATH Temporarily”](#)
- [Recipe 19.3, “Forgetting That the Current Directory Is Not in the \\$PATH”](#)

14.6 Preventing Core Dumps

Problem

You want to prevent your script from dumping core in the case of an unrecoverable error, since core dumps may contain sensitive data from memory such as passwords.

Solution

Use the *bash* builtin *ulimit* to set the core file size limit to 0, typically in your *.bashrc* file:

```
ulimit -H -c 0 --
```

Discussion

Core dumps are intended for debugging and contain an image of the memory used by the process at the time it failed. As such, the file will contain anything the process had stored in memory (e.g., user-entered passwords).

Set this in a system-level file such as */etc/profile* or */etc/bashrc* to which users have no write access if you don't want them to be able to change it.

See Also

- `help ulimit`

14.7 Setting a Secure \$IFS

Problem

You want to make sure your internal field separator environment variable is clean.

Solution

Set it to a known good state at the beginning of every script using this clear (but not POSIX-compliant) syntax:

```
# Set a sane/secure IFS (note this is bash & ksh93 syntax only--not portable!)
IFS=$' \t\n'
```

Discussion

As noted, this syntax is not portable. However, the canonical portable syntax is unreliable because it may easily be inadvertently stripped by editors that trim whitespace. The values are traditionally space, tab, newline—and the order is important. `$*`, which returns all positional parameters, the special `${!prefix@}` and `${!prefix*}` parameter expansions, and programmable completion all use the *first* value of `$IFS` as their separator.

The typical method for writing leaves a trailing space and tab (indicated here by the dot and arrow) on the first line:

```
1 IFS=' • → ¶
2 '
```

Newline, space, tab is less likely to be trimmed, but that changes the default order, which may result in unexpected results from some commands:

```
1 IFS=' ¶
2 • → '
```

See Also

- [Recipe 13.15, “Trimming Whitespace”](#)

14.8 Setting a Secure umask

Problem

You want to make sure you are using a secure `umask`.

Solution

Use the *bash* builtin *umask* to set a known good state at the beginning of every script:

```
# Set a sane/secure umask variable and use it
# Note this does not affect files already redirected on the command line
# 002 results in 0775 perms, 077 results in 0700 perms, etc.
UMASK=002
umask $UMASK
```

Discussion

We set the `$UMASK` variable in case we need to use different masks elsewhere in the program. You could just as easily skip it and do the following—it's not a big deal:

```
umask 002
```



Remember that *umask* is a mask that specifies the bits to be *taken away* from the default permissions of 777 for directories and 666 for files. When in doubt, test it out:

```
# Run a new shell so you don't affect your current
# environment
/tmp$ bash

# Check the current settings
/tmp$ touch um_current

# Check some other settings
/tmp$ umask 000 ; touch um_000
/tmp$ umask 022 ; touch um_022
/tmp$ umask 077 ; touch um_077

/tmp$ ls -l um_*
-rw-rw-rw-  1 jp  jp  0 Jul 22 06:05 um000
-rw-r--r--  1 jp  jp  0 Jul 22 06:05 um022
-rw-----  1 jp  jp  0 Jul 22 06:05 um077
-rw-rw-r--  1 jp  jp  0 Jul 22 06:05 umcurrent

# Clean up and exit the subshell
/tmp$ rm um_*
/tmp$ exit
```

See Also

- `help umask`
- http://linuxzoo.net/page/sec_umask.html

14.9 Finding World-Writable Directories in Your \$PATH

Problem

You want to make sure that there are no world-writable directories in *root*'s \$PATH. (To see why, read [Recipe 14.10](#).)

Solution

Use the simple script in [Example 14-3](#) to check your \$PATH. Use it in conjunction with *su* or *sudo* to check paths for other users.

Example 14-3. ch14/chkpath.1

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: chkpath.1
# Check your $PATH for world-writable or missing directories

exit_code=0

for dir in ${PATH//:/ }; do
  [ -L "$dir" ] && printf "%b" "symlink, "
  if [ ! -d "$dir" ]; then
    printf "%b" "missing\t\t"
    (( exit_code++ ))
  elif [ -n "$(ls -lLd $dir | grep '^d.....w. ')" ]; then
    printf "%b" "world writable\t"
    (( exit_code++ ))
  else
    printf "%b" "ok\t\t"
  fi
  printf "%b" "$dir\n"
done
exit $exit_code
```

For example:

```
# ./chkpath
ok          /usr/local/sbin
ok          /usr/local/bin
ok          /sbin
ok          /bin
ok          /usr/sbin
ok          /usr/bin
ok          /usr/X11R6/bin
ok          /root/bin
missing     /does_not_exist
world writable /tmp
symlink, world writable /tmp/bin
```



```
symlink, ok /root/sbin
#
```

Discussion

We convert the `$PATH` to a space-delimited list using the technique from [Recipe 9.11](#), test for symbolic links (`-L`), and make sure the directory actually exists (`-d`). Then we get a long directory listing (`-l`), dereferencing symbolic links (`-L`) and listing the directory name only (`-d`), not the directory's contents. Then we finally get to `grep` for world-writable directories.

As you can see, we spaced out the `ok` directories, while directories with a problem may get a little cluttered. We also broke the usual rule of Unix tools being quiet unless there's a problem, because we felt it was a useful opportunity to see exactly what is in your path and give it a once-over in addition to the automated check.

We also provide an exit code of zero on success with no problems detected in the `$PATH`, or the count of errors found. With a little more tweaking, as in [Example 14-4](#), we can add the file's mode, owner, and group into the output, which might be even more valuable to check.

Example 14-4. ch14/chkpath.2

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: chkpath.2
# Check your $PATH for world-writable or missing directories, with 'stat'

exit_code=0

for dir in ${PATH//:/ }; do
  [ -L "$dir" ] && printf "%b" "symlink, "
  if [ ! -d "$dir" ]; then
    printf "%b" "missing\t\t\t\t"
    (( exit_code++ ))
  else
    stat=$(ls -lhd $dir | awk '{print $1, $3, $4}')
    if [ -n "$(echo $stat | grep '^d.....w. ')" ]; then
      printf "%b" "world writable\t$stat "
      (( exit_code++ ))
    else
      printf "%b" "ok\t\t\t$stat "
    fi
  fi
  printf "%b" "$dir\n"
done
exit $exit_code
```

For example:

```
# ./chkpath ; echo $?
ok          drwxr-xr-x root root /usr/local/sbin
ok          drwxr-xr-x root root /usr/local/bin
ok          drwxr-xr-x root root /sbin
ok          drwxr-xr-x root root /bin
ok          drwxr-xr-x root root /usr/sbin
ok          drwxr-xr-x root root /usr/bin
ok          drwxr-xr-x root root /usr/X11R6/bin
ok          drwx----- root root /root/bin
missing    /does_not_exist
world writable drwxrwxrwt root root /tmp
symlink, ok   drwxr-xr-x root root /root/sbin
2
#
```

See Also

- [Recipe 9.11, “Finding a File Using a List of Possible Locations”](#)
- [Recipe 14.10, “Adding the Current Directory to the \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 15.2, “Setting a POSIX \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 16.4, “Changing Your \\$PATH Permanently”](#)
- [Recipe 16.5, “Changing Your \\$PATH Temporarily”](#)
- [Recipe 19.3, “Forgetting That the Current Directory Is Not in the \\$PATH”](#)

14.10 Adding the Current Directory to the \$PATH

Problem

Having to type `./script` (the leading dot-slash all the time) is tedious, and you’d rather just add `.` (or an empty directory, meaning a leading or trailing `:` or a `::` in the middle) to your `$PATH`.

Solution

We advise against doing this for any user, but we strongly advise against doing it for *root*. If you absolutely must do this, make sure the `.` comes last. Never do it as *root*.

Discussion

As you know, the shell searches the directories listed in `$PATH` when you enter a command name without a path. The reason not to add `.` is the same reason not to allow world-writable directories in your `$PATH` (see [Recipe 14.9](#) for how to find these).

Say you are in `/tmp` and have `.` as the first thing in your `$PATH`. If you type `ls` and there happens to be a file called `/tmp/ls`, you will run that file instead of the `/bin/ls` you meant to run. Now what? Well, it depends. It's possible (even likely, given the name) that `/tmp/ls` is a malicious script, and if you have just run it as `root` there is no telling what it could do, up to and including deleting itself when it's finished to remove the evidence.

So what if you put it last? Well, have you ever typed `mc` instead of `mv`? We have. So unless Midnight Commander is installed on your system, you could accidentally run `./mc` when you meant `/bin/mv`, with the same consequences as just described.

Just say no to dot!

See Also

- Section 2.13 of the [Unix FAQs](#)
- [Recipe 9.11](#), “Finding a File Using a List of Possible Locations”
- [Recipe 14.3](#), “Setting a Secure `$PATH`”
- [Recipe 14.9](#), “Finding World-Writable Directories in Your `$PATH`”
- [Recipe 15.2](#), “Setting a POSIX `$PATH`”
- [Recipe 16.4](#), “Changing Your `$PATH` Permanently”
- [Recipe 16.5](#), “Changing Your `$PATH` Temporarily”
- [Recipe 19.3](#), “Forgetting That the Current Directory Is Not in the `$PATH`”

14.11 Using Secure Temporary Files

Problem

You need to create a temporary file or directory, but are aware of the security implications of using a predictable name.

Solution

Try using `echo "$TMPDIR"` to see if your system provides a secure temporary directory. We're using the `~s` as brackets so you see something if the variable is not set.

The easy, portable, and “usually good enough” solution is to just use `$RANDOM` inline in your script. For example:

```
# Make sure $TMP is set to something
[ -n "$TMP" ] || TMP='/tmp'

# Make a "good enough" random temp directory
until [ -n "$temp_dir" -a ! -d "$temp_dir" ]; do
    temp_dir="/$TMP/meaningful_prefix.${RANDOM}${RANDOM}${RANDOM}"
done
mkdir -p -m 0700 $temp_dir
|| { echo "FATAL: Failed to create temp dir '$temp_dir': $?"; exit 100 }
# Make a "good enough" random temp file
until [ -n "$temp_file" -a ! -e "$temp_file" ]; do
    temp_file="/$TMP/meaningful_prefix.${RANDOM}${RANDOM}${RANDOM}"
done
touch $temp_file && chmod 0600 $temp_file
|| { echo "FATAL: Failed to create temp file '$temp_file': $?"; exit 101 }
```

Even better, use both a random temporary directory and a random filename, as in [Example 14-5](#)!

Example 14-5. ch14/make_temp

```
# cookbook filename: make_temp

# Make sure $TMP is set to something
[ -n "$TMP" ] || TMP='/tmp'

# Make a "good enough" random temp directory
until [ -n "$temp_dir" -a ! -d "$temp_dir" ]; do
    temp_dir="/$TMP/meaningful_prefix.${RANDOM}${RANDOM}${RANDOM}"
done
mkdir -p -m 0700 $temp_dir \
|| { echo "FATAL: Failed to create temp dir '$temp_dir': $?"; exit 100; }

# Make a "good enough" random temp file in the temp dir
temp_file="$temp_dir/meaningful_prefix.${RANDOM}${RANDOM}${RANDOM}"
touch $temp_file && chmod 0600 $temp_file \
|| { echo "FATAL: Failed to create temp file '$temp_file': $?"; exit 101; }
```

No matter how you do it, don't forget to set a trap to clean up ([Example 14-6](#)). As noted, `$temp_dir` must be set before this trap is declared, and its value must not change. If those things aren't true, rewrite the logic to account for your needs.

Example 14-6. *ch14/clean_temp*

```
# cookbook filename: clean_temp

# Do our best to clean up temp files no matter what
# Note $temp_dir must be set before this, and must not change!
cleanup="rm -rf $temp_dir"
trap "$cleanup" ABRT EXIT HUP INT QUIT
```



`SRANDOM` is not available in *dash*, which is */bin/sh* in some Linux distributions. Notably, current versions of Debian and Ubuntu use *dash* because it is smaller and faster than *bash* and thus helps to boot faster. But that means that */bin/sh*, which used to be a symlink to *bash*, is now a symlink to *dash* instead, and various *bash*-specific features will not work.

Discussion

`SRANDOM` has been available since at least *bash* 2.0, and using it is probably good enough. Simple code is better and easier to secure than complicated code, so using `SRANDOM` may make your code more secure than having to deal with the validation and error-checking complexities of *mktemp* or */dev/urandom*. You may also tend to use it more because it is so simple. However, `SRANDOM` provides only numbers, while *mktemp* provides numbers and upper- and lowercase letters, and *urandom* provides numbers and lowercase letters, thus vastly increasing the key space.

However you create it, using a temporary directory in which to work has the following advantages:

- `mkdir -p -m 0700 $temp_dir` avoids the race condition inherent in `touch $temp_file && chmod 0600 $temp_file`.
- Files created inside the directory are not even visible to a non-*root* attacker outside the directory when 0700 permissions are set.
- A temporary directory makes it easy to ensure all of your temporary files are removed at exit. If you have temp files scattered about, there's always a chance of forgetting one when cleaning up.
- You can choose to use meaningful names for temp files inside such a directory, which may make development and debugging easier, and thus improve script security and robustness.
- Use of a meaningful prefix in the path makes it clear what scripts are running (this may be good or bad, but consider that *ps* or */proc* do the same thing). More

importantly, it might highlight a script that has failed to clean up after itself, which could possibly lead to an information leak.

Example 14-5 advises using a *meaningful_prefix* in the pathname you are creating. Some people will undoubtedly argue that since that is predictable, it reduces the security. It's true that part of the path is predictable, but we still feel the advantages we've outlined outweigh this objection. If you still disagree, simply omit the meaningful prefix.

Depending on your risk and security needs, you may want to use random temporary files inside the random temporary directory, as we did in our example. That will probably not do anything to materially increase security, but if it makes you feel better, go for it.

We talked about a race condition in `touch $temp_file&&chmod 0600$temp_file`. One way to avoid that is to do this:

```
saved_umask=${umask}
umask 077
touch $temp_file
umask $saved_umask
unset saved_umask
```

We recommended using both a random temporary directory and a random (or semi-random) filename since it provides more overall benefits.

If the numeric-only nature of `$RANDOM` really bothers you, consider combining some other sources of pseudounpredictable and pseudorandom data and a hash function:

```
nice_long_random_string=${ (last ; who ; netstat -a ; free ; date \
; echo $RANDOM) | md5sum | cut -d' ' -f1 }
```



We do not recommend using the fallback method shown here because the additional complexity is probably a cure that is worse than the disease. But it's an interesting look at a way to make things a lot harder than they need to be.

A theoretically more secure approach is to use the *mktemp* utility present on many modern systems, with a fallback to `/dev/urandom`, also present on many modern systems, or even `$RANDOM`. The problem is that *mktemp* and `/dev/urandom` are not always available, and dealing with that in practice in a portable way is much more complicated than our solution. **Example 14-7** is one way it could look, but try to use something simpler if possible.

Example 14-7. ch14/MakeTemp

```
# cookbook filename: MakeTemp
# Function to incorporate or source into another script
#####
# Try to create a secure temp file name or directory
# Called like: $temp_file=$(MakeTemp <file|dir> [path/to/name-prefix])
# Returns the name of secure temp file name or directory in $TEMP_NAME
# For example:

#       $temp_dir=$(MakeTemp dir /tmp/$PROGRAM.foo)
#       $temp_file=$(MakeTemp file /tmp/$PROGRAM.foo)
#
function MakeTemp {

    # Make sure $TMP is set to something
    [ -n "$TMP" ] || TMP='/tmp'

    local type_name=$1
    local prefix=${2:-$TMP/temp} # Unless prefix is defined, use $TMP + temp
    local temp_type=''
    local sanity_check=''

    case $type_name in
        file )
            temp_type='f'
            ur_cmd='touch'
            #           -f Regular file  -r Readable
            #           -w Writable      -O Owned by me
            sanity_check='test -f $TEMP_NAME -a -r $TEMP_NAME \
                -a -w $TEMP_NAME -a -O $TEMP_NAME'
            ;;
        dir|directory )
            temp_type='d'
            ur_cmd='mkdir -p -m0700'
            #           -d Directory     -r Readable
            #           -w Writable      -x Searchable  -O Owned by me
            sanity_check='test -d $TEMP_NAME -a -r $TEMP_NAME \
                -a -w $TEMP_NAME -a -x $TEMP_NAME -a -O $TEMP_NAME'
            ;;
        * ) Error "\nBad type in $PROGRAM:MakeTemp! Needs file|dir." 1 ;;
    esac

    # First try mktemp
    TEMP_NAME=$(mktemp $temp_type ${prefix}.XXXXXXXXXX)

    # If that fails try urandom, if that fails give up
    if [ -z "$TEMP_NAME" ]; then
        TEMP_NAME="${prefix}.${(cat /dev/urandom | od -x | tr -d ' ' | head -1)}"
        $ur_cmd $TEMP_NAME
    fi
```

```

# Make sure the file or directory was actually created, or DIE
if ! eval $sanity_check; then
    Error \
    "\aFATAL ERROR: can't make temp $type_name with '$0:MakeTemp$*'\n" 2
else
    echo "$TEMP_NAME"
fi
} # end of function MakeTemp

```

See Also

- `man mktemp`
- Recipe 14.13, “Setting Permissions”
- Recipe 15.3, “Developing Portable Shell Scripts”
- http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Debian_Almquist_shell
- Appendix B, particularly `./scripts.noah/mktmp.bash`

14.12 Validating Input

Problem

You’ve asked for input (e.g., from a user or a program), and to ensure security or data integrity you need to make sure you got what you asked for.

Solution

There are various ways to validate your input, depending on what the input is and how strict you need to be.

Use pattern matching for simple “it matches or it doesn’t” situations (see Recipes 6.6, 6.7, and 6.8):

```
[[ "$raw_input" == *.jpg ]] && echo "Got a JPEG file."
```

Use a case statement, as in Example 14-8, when there are various things that might be valid (see Recipes 6.14 and 6.15).

Example 14-8. ch14/validate_using_case

```
# cookbook filename: validate_using_case
```

```
case $raw_input in
    *.company.com      ) # Probably a local hostname
    ;;
```



```

*.jpg                ) # Probably a JPEG file
;;
*.[jJ][pP][gG]      ) # Probably a JPEG file, case-insensitive
;;
foo | bar            ) # Entered 'foo' or 'bar'
;;
[0-9][0-9][0-9]      ) # A 3-digit number
;;
[a-z][a-z][a-z][a-z] ) # A 4-lowercase-char word
;;
*                    ) # None of the above
;;

```

esac

Use a regular expression when pattern matching isn't specific enough and you have *bash* version 3.0+ (see [Recipe 6.8](#)). This example is looking for a three- to six-alphanumeric-character filename with a *.jpg* extension (case-sensitive):

```
[[ "$raw_input" =~ [[:alpha:]]{3,6}\.jpg ]] && echo "Got a JPEG file."
```

Discussion

For a larger and more detailed example, see the *examples/scripts/shprompt* in a recent *bash* tarball. Note this was written by Chet Ramey, who maintains *bash*:

```

# shprompt -- give a prompt and get an answer satisfying certain criteria
#
# shprompt [-dDfFsy] prompt
#   s = prompt for string
#   f = prompt for filename
#   F = prompt for full pathname to a file or directory
#   d = prompt for a directory name
#   D = prompt for a full pathname to a directory
#   y = prompt for y or n answer
#
# Chet Ramey
# chet@ins.CWRU.Edu

```

For a similar example, see *examples/scripts.noah/y_or_n_p.bash*, written circa 1993 by Noah Friedman and later converted to *bash* version 2 syntax by Chet Ramey. Also in the examples, see *./functions/isnum2* and *./functions/isvalidip*.

See Also

- [Recipe 3.5, “Getting User Input”](#)
- [Recipe 3.6, “Getting Yes or No Input”](#)
- [Recipe 3.7, “Selecting from a List of Options”](#)
- [Recipe 3.8, “Prompting for a Password”](#)

- Recipe 6.6, “Testing for Equality”
- Recipe 6.7, “Testing with Pattern Matches”
- Recipe 6.8, “Testing with Regular Expressions”
- Recipe 6.14, “Branching Many Ways”
- Recipe 6.15, “Parsing Command-Line Arguments”
- Recipe 11.2, “Supplying a Default Date”
- Recipe 13.6, “Parsing Text with a read Statement”
- Recipe 13.7, “Parsing with read into an Array”
- Appendix B for *bash* examples

14.13 Setting Permissions

Problem

You want to set permissions in a secure manner.

Solution

If you need to set exact permissions for security reasons (or you are *sure* that you don’t care what is already there, and you just need to change it), use *chmod* with four-digit octal modes:

```
chmod 0755 some_script
```

If you only want to add or remove permissions, but need to leave other existing permissions unchanged, use the + and - operations in symbolic mode:

```
chmod +x some_script
```

If you try to recursively set permissions on all the files in a directory structure using something like `chmod -R 0644 some_directory` then you’ll regret it because you’ve now rendered any subdirectories nonexecutable, which means you won’t be able to access their content, *cd* into them, or traverse below them. Use *find* and *xargs* with *chmod* to set the files and directories individually. For file permissions:

```
find some_directory -type f -print0 | xargs -0 chmod 0644
```

For directory permissions:

```
find some_directory -type d -print0 | xargs -0 chmod 0755
```

Of course, if you only want to set permissions on the files in a single directory (non-recursive), just *cd* in there and set them.

When creating a directory, use `mkdir -m mode new_directory` since you not only accomplish two tasks with one command, but you avoid any possible race condition between creating the directory and setting the permissions.

Discussion

Many people are in the habit of using three-digit octal modes, but we like to use all four possible digits to be explicit about what we mean to do with all attributes. We also prefer using octal mode when possible because it's very clear what permissions you are going to end up with. You may also use the absolute operation (=) in symbolic mode if you like, but we're traditionalists who like the old octal method best.

Ensuring the final permissions when using the symbolic mode and the + or - operations is trickier since they are relative, not absolute. Unfortunately, there are many cases where you can't simply arbitrarily replace the existing permissions using *octal* mode. In such cases you have no choice but to use symbolic mode, often using + to add a permission while not disturbing other existing permissions. Consult your specific system's *chmod* for details, and verify that your results are as you expect. Here are a few examples:

```
$ ls -l
-rw-r--r-- 1 jp users 0 Dec 1 02:09 script.sh
$

# Make file readable, writable, and executable for the owner using octal notation
$ chmod 0700 script.sh

$ ls -l
-rwx----- 1 jp users 0 Dec 1 02:09 script.sh

# Make file readable and executable for everyone using symbolic notation
$ chmod ugo+rx *.sh

$ ls -l
-rwxr-xr-x 1 jp users 0 Dec 1 02:09 script.sh
```

Note in the last example that although we added (+) rx to everyone (ugo), the owner still has write (w) permission. That's what we wanted to do here, and that is often the case. But do you see how, in a security setting, it might be easy to make a mistake and allow an undesirable permission to slip through the cracks? That's why we like to use the absolute octal mode if possible, and of course we always check the results of our command.

In any case, before you adjust the permissions on a large group of files, thoroughly test your command. You may also want to back up the permissions and owners of the files. See [Recipe 17.8](#) for details.

See Also

- `man chmod`
- `man find`
- `man xargs`
- [Recipe 9.2, “Handling Filenames Containing Odd Characters”](#)
- [Recipe 17.8, “Capturing File Metadata for Recovery”](#)

14.14 Leaking Passwords into the Process List

Problem

`ps` may show passwords entered on the command line in the clear. For example:

```
$ ./cheesy_app -u user -p password &
[1] 13301

$ ps
  PID TT STAT      TIME COMMAND
 5280 p0 S      0:00.08 -bash
 9784 p0 R+    0:00.00 ps
13301 p0 S      0:00.01 /bin/sh ./cheesy_app -u user -p password
```

Solution

Try really hard not to use passwords on the command line.

Discussion

Really. Don't do that.

Many applications that provide a `-p` or similar switch will also prompt you if a password is required and you do not provide it on the command line. That's great for interactive use, but not so great in scripts. You may be tempted to write a trivial “wrapper” script or an alias to try and encapsulate the password on the command line. Unfortunately, that won't work since the command is eventually run and so ends up in the process list anyway. If the command can accept the password on STDIN, you may be able to pass it in that way:

```
./bad_app < ~/.hidden/bad_apps_password
```

That creates other problems, but at least avoids displaying the password in the process list.

If that won't work, you'll need to either find a new app, patch the one you are using, or just live with it.

See Also

- [Recipe 3.8, “Prompting for a Password”](#)
- [Recipe 14.20, “Using Passwords in Scripts”](#)

14.15 Writing *setuid* or *setgid* Scripts

Problem

You have a problem you think you can solve by using the *setuid* or *setgid* bit on a shell script.

Solution

Use Unix groups and file permissions and/or *sudo* to grant the appropriate users the least privileges they need to accomplish their tasks.

Using the *setuid* or *setgid* bit on a shell script will create more problems—especially security problems—than it solves. Some systems (such as Linux) don't even honor the *setuid* bit on shell scripts, so creating *setuid* shell scripts creates an unnecessary portability problem in addition to the security risks.

Discussion

setuid *root* scripts are especially dangerous, so don't even think about it. Use *sudo*.

setuid and *setgid* have a different meaning when applied to directories than they do when applied to executable files. When one of these is set on a directory it causes any newly created files or subdirectories to be owned by the directory's owner or group, respectively.

Note you can check a file to see if it is *setuid* by using `test -u` and check to see if it is *setgid* by using `test -g`:

```
$ mkdir suid_dir sgid_dir

$ touch suid_file sgid_file

$ ls -l
total 4
drwxr-xr-x 2 jp users 512 Dec 9 03:45 sgid_dir
-rw-r--r-- 1 jp users  0 Dec 9 03:45 sgid_file
drwxr-xr-x 2 jp users 512 Dec 9 03:45 suid_dir
```

```

-rw-r--r-- 1 jp users  0 Dec 9 03:45 suid_file

$ chmod 4755 suid_dir suid_file

$ chmod 2755 sgid_dir sgid_file

$ ls -l
total 4
drwxr-sr-x 2 jp users 512 Dec 9 03:45 sgid_dir
-rwxr-sr-x 1 jp users  0 Dec 9 03:45 sgid_file
drwsr-xr-x 2 jp users 512 Dec 9 03:45 suid_dir
-rwsr-xr-x 1 jp users  0 Dec 9 03:45 suid_file

$ [ -u suid_dir ] && echo 'Yup, suid' || echo 'Nope, not suid'
Yup, suid

$ [ -u sgid_dir ] && echo 'Yup, suid' || echo 'Nope, not suid'
Nope, not suid

$ [ -g sgid_file ] && echo 'Yup, sgid' || echo 'Nope, not sgid'
Yup, sgid

$ [ -g suid_file ] && echo 'Yup, sgid' || echo 'Nope, not sgid'
Nope, not sgid

```

See Also

- `man chmod`
- [Recipe 14.18, “Running as a Non-root User”](#)
- [Recipe 14.19, “Using sudo More Securely”](#)
- [Recipe 14.20, “Using Passwords in Scripts”](#)
- [Recipe 17.15, “Using sudo on a Group of Commands”](#)

14.16 Restricting Guest Users

The material concerning the restricted shell in this recipe also appears in *Learning the bash Shell*, 3rd Edition, by Cameron Newham (O’Reilly).

Problem

You need to allow some guest users on your system and need to restrict what they can do.

Solution

Avoid using shared accounts if possible, since you lose accountability and create logistical headaches when users leave and you need to change the password and inform the other users. Create separate accounts with the least possible permissions necessary to do whatever is needed. Consider using:

- A *chroot* jail, as discussed in [Recipe 14.17](#)
- SSH to allow noninteractive access to commands or resources, as discussed in [Recipe 14.21](#)
- *bash*'s restricted shell

Discussion

The *restricted shell* is designed to put the user into an environment where their ability to move around and write files is severely limited. It's usually used for guest accounts. You can make a user's login shell restricted by putting *rbash* in the user's */etc/passwd* entry if this option was included when *bash* was compiled.

The specific constraints imposed by the restricted shell disallow the user from doing the following:

- Changing working directories. *cd* is inoperative. If you try to use it, you will get the error message `cd: restricted from bash`.
- Redirecting output to a file. The redirectors `>`, `>|`, `<>`, and `>>` are not allowed.
- Assigning a new value to the environment variables `$ENV`, `$BASH_ENV`, `$SHELL`, or `$PATH`.
- Specifying any commands with slashes (`/`) in them. The shell will treat files outside of the current directory as "not found."
- Using the *exec* builtin.
- Specifying a filename containing a `/` as an argument to the `.` (*source*) builtin command.
- Importing function definitions from the shell environment at startup.
- Adding or deleting builtin commands with the `-f` and `-d` options to the *enable* builtin command.
- Specifying the `-p` option to the *command* builtin command.
- Turning off restricted mode with `set +r`.

These restrictions go into effect after the user's *.bash_profile* and environment files are run. In addition, it is wise to change the owner of the user's *.bash_profile* and *.bashrc*

files to *root*, and make these files read-only. The user's home directory should also be made read-only.

This means that the restricted shell user's entire environment is set up in */etc/profile* and *.bash_profile*. Since the user can't access */etc/profile* and can't overwrite *.bash_profile*, this lets the system administrator configure the environment as they see fit. It's also a good idea that the last command in the startup file be a *cd* to some other directory, usually a subdirectory of the user's *\$HOME* for an extra layer of protection.

Two common ways of setting up such environments are to set up a directory of safe commands and have that directory be the only one in *\$PATH*, and to set up a command menu from which the user can't escape without exiting the shell.



The restricted shell is not proof against a determined attacker. It can also be difficult to lock down as well as you think you have, since many common applications, such as *vi* and Emacs, allow shell escapes that might bypass the restricted shell entirely.

Used wisely it can be a valuable additional layer of security, but it should not be the only layer.

Note that the original Bourne shell has a restricted version called *rsh*, which may be confused with the so-called *r-tools* (*rsh*, *rccp*, *rlogin*, etc.) remote shell program, which is also *rsh*. The very insecure *rsh* has been mostly replaced (we most sincerely hope) by *ssh* (the Secure Shell).

See Also

- [Recipe 14.17, “Using chroot Jails”](#)
- [Recipe 14.21, “Using SSH Without a Password”](#)

14.17 Using chroot Jails

Problem

You have to use a script or application that you don't trust.

Solution

Consider placing it in a so-called *chroot jail*. The *chroot* command changes the root directory of the current process to the directory you specify, then returns a shell or *execs* a given command. That has the effect of placing the process, and thus the program, into a jail from which it theoretically can't escape to the parent directory. So if

that application is compromised or otherwise does something malicious, it can only affect the small portion of the filesystem you restricted it to. In conjunction with running as a user with very limited rights, this is a very useful layer of security to add.

Unfortunately, covering all the details of *chroot* is beyond the scope of this recipe, since it would probably require a whole separate book. We present it here to promote awareness of the functionality.

Discussion

So why doesn't everything run in *chroot* jails? Because many applications need to interact with other applications, files, directories, or sockets all over the filesystem. That's the tricky part about using *chroot* jails; the application can't see outside of its walls, so everything it needs must be inside those walls. The more complicated the application, the more difficult it is to run in a jail.

Some applications that must inherently be exposed to the internet, such as DNS (e.g., BIND), web, and mail (e.g., Postfix) servers, may be configured to run in *chroot* jails with varying degrees of difficulty. See the documentation for the distribution and specific applications you are running for details.

Another interesting use of *chroot* is during system recovery. Once you have booted from a LiveCD and mounted the root filesystem on your hard drive, you may need to run a tool such as LILO or GRUB which, depending on your configuration, might need to believe it's really running on the damaged system. If the LiveCD and the installed system are not too different, you can usually *chroot* into the mount point of the damaged system and fix it. That works because all the tools, libraries, configuration files, and devices already exist in the jail, since they really are a complete (if not quite working) system. You might have to experiment with your `$PATH` in order to find things you need once you've chrooted though (that's an aspect of the "if the LiveCD and the installed system are not too different" caveat).

On a related note, the NSA's Security Enhanced Linux (SELinux) implementation of Mandatory Access Control (MAC) may be of interest. MAC provides a very granular way to specify at a system level what is and is not allowed, and how various components of the system may interact. The granular definition is called a *security policy* and it has a similar effect to a jail, in that a given application or process can do only what the policy allows it to do.

Red Hat Linux has incorporated SELinux into its enterprise product. Novell's SUSE product has a similar MAC implementation called AppArmor, and there are similar implementations for Solaris, BSD, and macOS.

See Also

- `man chroot`
- <https://selinuxproject.org>
- http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mandatory_access_control
- <http://olivier.sessink.nl/jailkit/>
- <http://www.jmcresearch.com/projects/jail/>

14.18 Running as a Non-root User

Problem

You'd like to run your scripts as a non-*root* user, but are afraid you won't be able to do the things you need to do.

Solution

Run your scripts under non-*root* user IDs, either as you or as dedicated users, and run interactively as non-*root*, but configure *sudo* to handle any tasks that require elevated privileges.

Discussion

sudo may be used in a script as easily as it may be used interactively. See the *sudoers* NOPASSWD option especially (see [Recipe 14.19](#) and the *sudoers* manpage).

See Also

- `man sudo`
- `man sudoers`
- [Recipe 14.15, “Writing setuid or setgid Scripts”](#)
- [Recipe 14.19, “Using sudo More Securely”](#)
- [Recipe 14.20, “Using Passwords in Scripts”](#)
- [Recipe 17.15, “Using sudo on a Group of Commands”](#)

14.19 Using `sudo` More Securely

Problem

You want to use `sudo` but are worried about granting too many people too many privileges.

Solution

Good! You should be worrying about security. While using `sudo` is much more secure than not using it, the default settings may be greatly improved.

Take the time to learn a bit about `sudo` itself and the `/etc/sudoers` file. In particular, learn why in most cases you should not be using the `ALL=(ALL) ALL` specification! Yes, that will work, but it's not even remotely secure. The only difference between that and just giving everyone the `root` password is that they don't know the `root` password; they can still do everything `root` can do. `sudo` logs the commands it runs, but that's trivial to avoid by using `sudo bash`.

Second, give your needs some serious thought. Just as you shouldn't be using the `ALL=(ALL) ALL` specification, you probably shouldn't be managing users one by one either. The `sudoers` utility allows for very granular management, and we strongly recommend using it. `man sudoers` provides a wealth of material and examples, especially the section on preventing shell escapes.

Third, the `sudoers` file has a `NOPASSWD` tag that, as you might expect, allows user accounts to perform privileged operations without first having to enter their user passwords. This is one way to allow automation requiring `root` access without leaving plain-text passwords all over the place, but it's also obviously a double-edged sword.

`sudoers` allows for four kinds of aliases: `user`, `runas`, `host`, and `command`. Judicious use of them as roles or groups will significantly reduce the maintenance burden. For instance, you can set up a `User_Alias` for `BUILD_USERS`, then define the machines those users need to run on with `Host_Alias` and the commands they need to run with `Cmd_Alias`. If you set a policy to only edit `/etc/sudoers` on one machine and copy it around to all relevant machines periodically using `scp` with public-key authentication, you can set up a very secure yet usable system of least privilege.



When `sudo` asks for your password, it's really asking for your password. As in, your user account. Not `root`. For some reason people often get confused by this at first.

Discussion

Unfortunately, *sudo* is not installed by default on every system. It is usually installed on Linux, macOS, and OpenBSD; other systems will vary. You should consult your system's documentation and install it if it's not already there.



You should always use *visudo* to edit your */etc/sudoers* file. Like *vim*, *visudo* locks the file so that only one person can edit it at a time, and it performs some syntax sanity checks before replacing the production file so that you don't accidentally lock yourself out of your system.

See Also

- `man sudo`
- `man sudoers`
- `man visudo`
- *SSH, The Secure Shell: The Definitive Guide*, 2nd Edition, by Daniel J. Barrett, Richard Silverman, and Robert G. Byrnes (O'Reilly)
- [Recipe 14.15, “Writing setuid or setgid Scripts”](#)
- [Recipe 14.18, “Running as a Non-root User”](#)
- [Recipe 14.20, “Using Passwords in Scripts”](#)
- [Recipe 17.15, “Using sudo on a Group of Commands”](#)

14.20 Using Passwords in Scripts

Problem

You need to hardcode a password in a script.

Solution

This is obviously a bad idea and should be avoided whenever possible. Unfortunately, sometimes it isn't possible to avoid it.

The first way to try to avoid doing this is to see if you can use *sudo* with the `NOPASSWD` option to avoid having to hardcode a password anywhere. This obviously has its own risks, but is worth checking out. See [Recipe 14.19](#) for more details.

Another alternative may be to use SSH with public keys and ideally restricted commands (see [Recipe 14.21](#)).

If there is no other way around it, about the best you can do is put the user ID and password in a separate file that is readable only by the user who needs it, then source that file when necessary ([Recipe 10.3](#)). Leave that file out of revision control, of course.

Discussion

Accessing data on remote machines in a secure manner is relatively easy using SSH (see [Recipe 14.21](#) and [Recipe 15.11](#)). It may even be possible to use that SSH method to access other data on the same host, but it's probably much more efficient to use *sudo* for that. But what about accessing data in a remote database, perhaps using some SQL command? There is not much you can do in that case.

Yes, you say, but what about *crypt* or the other password hashes? The problem is that the secure methods for storing passwords all involve using what's known as a one-way hash. The password checks in, but it can't check out. In other words, given the hash, there is theoretically no way to get the plain-text password back out. And that plain-text password is the point—we need it to access our database or whatever. So secure storage is out.

That leaves insecure storage, but the problem here is that it may actually be worse than plain text because it might give you a false sense of security. If it really makes you feel better, and you promise not to get a false sense of security, go ahead and use ROT13 or something to obfuscate the password:

```
ROT13=$(echo password | tr 'A-Za-z' 'N-ZA-Mn-za-m')
```

ROT13 only handles ASCII letters, so you could also use ROT47 to handle some punctuation as well:

```
ROT47=$(echo password | tr '!~' 'P~-!~0')
```



We really can't stress enough that ROT13 and ROT47 are nothing more than “security by obscurity” and thus are not security at all. They are better than nothing, if and only if you (or your management) do not get a false sense that you are “secure” when you are not. Just be aware of your risks. Having said that, the reality is sometimes the benefit outweighs the risk.

See Also

- <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/ROT13>

- Recipe 10.3, “Using Configuration Files in a Script”
- Recipe 14.15, “Writing `setuid` or `setgid` Scripts”
- Recipe 14.18, “Running as a Non-root User”
- Recipe 14.19, “Using `sudo` More Securely”
- Recipe 14.21, “Using SSH Without a Password”
- Recipe 15.11, “Getting Input from Another Machine”
- Recipe 17.15, “Using `sudo` on a Group of Commands”

14.21 Using SSH Without a Password

Problem

You need to use SSH or `scp` in a script and would like to do so without using a password. Or you’re using them in a *cron* job and can’t have a password.¹



SSH1 (the protocol) and `ssh1` (the executable) are deprecated and considered less secure than the newer SSH2 protocol as implemented by OpenSSH and SSH Communications Security. We strongly recommend using SSH2 with OpenSSH and will not cover SSH1 here.

Solution

There are two ways to use SSH without a password: the wrong way and the right way. The wrong way is to use a public key that is not encrypted by a passphrase. The right way is to use a passphrase-protected public key with `ssh-agent` or `keychain`.

We assume you are using OpenSSH; if not, consult your documentation (the commands and files will be similar).

First, you need to create a key pair if you don’t already have one. Only one key pair is necessary to authenticate you to as many machines as you configure, but you may decide to use more than one key pair, perhaps for personal and work reasons. The pair consists of a *private key* that you should protect at all costs, and a *public key* (`*.pub`) that you can post on a billboard if you like. The two are related in a complex

¹ We thank Daniel Barrett, Richard Silverman, and Robert Byrnes for their inspiration and excellent work in *SSH, The Secure Shell: The Definitive Guide*—especially Chapters 2, 6, and 11—and *Linux Security Cookbook*, without which this recipe would be a mere shadow of itself.

mathematical way such that they can identify each other, but you can't derive one from the other.

Use `ssh-keygen` (this might be `ssh-keygen2` if you're not using OpenSSH) to create a key pair. `-t` is used to specify the type; consult your system's man page for possible values. `-b` is optional and specifies the number of bits in the new key (2,048 is the default for RSA keys at the time of this writing). `-C` allows you to specify a comment, but it defaults to `user@hostname` if you omit it. We recommend using `-t rsa -b 4096 -C meaningful comment` and we recommend strongly against using no passphrase. `ssh-keygen` also allows you to change your key file's passphrase or comment:

```
$ ssh-keygen --help
unknown option -- -
usage: ssh-keygen [options]
Options:
  -A          Generate non-existent host keys for all key types.
  -a number  Number of KDF rounds for new key format or moduli primality tests.
  -B          Show bubblebabble digest of key file.
  -b bits    Number of bits in the key to create.
  -C comment Provide new comment.
  -c         Change comment in private and public key files.
  -D pkcs11  Download public key from pkcs11 token.
  -e         Export OpenSSH to foreign format key file.
  -F hostname Find hostname in known hosts file.
  -f filename Filename of the key file.
  -G file    Generate candidates for DH-GEX moduli.
  -g         Use generic DNS resource record format.
  -H         Hash names in known_hosts file.
  -h         Generate host certificate instead of a user certificate.
  -I key_id  Key identifier to include in certificate.
  -i         Import foreign format to OpenSSH key file.
  -J number  Screen this number of moduli lines.
  -j number  Start screening moduli at specified line.
  -K checkpt Write checkpoints to this file.
  -k         Generate a KRL file.
  -L         Print the contents of a certificate.
  -l         Show fingerprint of key file.
  -M memory  Amount of memory (MB) to use for generating DH-GEX moduli.
  -m key_fmt Conversion format for -e/-i (PEM|PKCS8|RFC4716).
  -N phrase  Provide new passphrase.
  -n name,... User/host principal names to include in certificate
  -O option  Specify a certificate option.
  -o         Enforce new private key format.
  -P phrase  Provide old passphrase.
  -p         Change passphrase of private key file.
  -Q         Test whether key(s) are revoked in KRL.
  -q         Quiet.
  -R hostname Remove host from known_hosts file.
  -r hostname Print DNS resource record.
  -S start   Start point (hex) for generating DH-GEX moduli.
  -s ca_key  Certify keys with CA key.
```

```

-T file      Screen candidates for DH-GEX moduli.
-t type      Specify type of key to create.
-u           Update KRL rather than creating a new one.
-V from:to   Specify certificate validity interval.
-v           Verbose.
-W gen       Generator to use for generating DH-GEX moduli.
-y           Read private key file and print public key.
-Z cipher    Specify a cipher for new private key format.
-z serial    Specify a serial number.

```

```
$ ssh-keygen -v -t rsa -b 4096 -C 'This is my new key'
```

```

Generating public/private rsa key pair.
Enter file in which to save the key (/home/jp/.ssh/id_rsa):
Enter passphrase (empty for no passphrase):
Enter same passphrase again:
Your identification has been saved in /home/jp/.ssh/id_rsa.
Your public key has been saved in /home/jp/.ssh/id_rsa.pub.
The key fingerprint is:
eb:b3:0b:3a:d8:9f:d0:02:5d:99:ce:69:98:ef:f0:0c This is my new key
The key's randomart image is:
+--[ RSA 4096 ]-----+
|           |
|          o |
|         +  |
|        . * . |
|       . + = S |
|      . +   . |
|     oE +   . |
|    . oX +.  |
|   . o* ++   |
+-----+

```

```
$ $ ls -l ~/.ssh/id_rsa*
```

```

-rw----- 1 jp jp 3.3K Aug 27 15:10 /home/jp/.ssh/id_rsa
-rw-r--r-- 1 jp jp 744 Aug 27 15:10 /home/jp/.ssh/id_rsa.pub

```

```
$ fold -w75 ~/.ssh/id_rsa.pub
```

```

ssh-rsa AAAAB3NzaC1yc2EAAAADAQABAAQCrxvIjPrLxx9VgkE0uBfdiGGZ5KC380yTB477
MFYw4W7JMDnN5p7Yx8dvl91Fuc13U+RsuBBqWjNvB6hHesdWr/6D2EgoTGJDbegNNla+qb8jJtX
ZK1s+B9sk9SoIlt4AF5wEAMag0K4Jmv0v/xFHwVRm1BfuEQQIVP7Z8v56e7HWz/pZMb0tM89WMg
ITyJh6cuTG1XHRmYxpOoaPBEKeDXTM0mfYAQW02yQt6fL29RW1DH5J+jVYarswScGe6SKSYGQPZ
L7a3KRkbpGPRdVK2CY2P1tXQlnh9hPYqvHtAzXUMYJpSwBkNzRN3A571FBtNuxLgtP+xHNEN7Kz
WpUsT1wv6DQw//UDSHJZShVUHMkp414y6dwmKgXTtqVWXybb/t2EU+CuWk80kLA2Tv7dKUnn8tA
87D1LU3hAhr58jDEzXbIfL9yYhV2xHBxVUDf80Lv9p9ZKngRx8hkj8MoDr0J6EqL3JhWKRqRdJy
GwKAYjCk5UQ9EH/sQ3NjhJE1Qb31o0dgE3ZKXfm8VXBZS0XTH40Hjd9RA4VCWjEpdR2QUgeSXW
aM94v3p606njKT6fFXV36S33/F/R0c1vZlcJDTpRCbpCXRNkgPtDAImBNmmweaYB0Ym3wqHRB2I
bnw5vftDpptndB774sV2FcrXptkM8Pd/vRS35q56FSgcT6Q== This is my new key

```

Once you have a key pair, add your public key to the `~/.ssh/authorized_keys` file in your home directory on any other machines to which you wish to connect using this key pair. You can use `scp`, `cp` with a floppy or USB key, or simple cut-and-paste from

terminal sessions to do that. The important part is that it all ends up on a single line. While you can do it all in one command (e.g., `scp id_dsa.pub remote_host:~/.ssh/authorized_keys`), we don't recommend that even when you're "absolutely sure" that `authorized_keys` doesn't exist. Instead, you can use a slightly more complicated but much safer command:

```
$ ssh remote_host "echo $(cat ~/.ssh/id_rsa.pub) >> ~/.ssh/authorized_keys"
jp@remote_host's password:

$ ssh remote_host
Last login: Thu Dec 14 00:02:52 2006 from openbsd.jpdomain.org
NetBSD 2.0.2 (GENERIC) #0: Wed Mar 23 08:53:42 UTC 2005

Welcome to NetBSD!

$ exit
logout
Connection to remote_host closed.
```

As you can see, we were prompted for a password for the initial `scp`, but after that `ssh` just worked. What isn't shown here is the use of `ssh-agent`, which cached the passphrase to the key so that we didn't have to type it.

The command shown here also assumes that `~/.ssh` exists on both machines. If not, create it using `mkdir -m 0700 -p ~/.ssh`. Your `~/.ssh` directory must be mode `0700` or OpenSSH will complain. It's not a bad idea to use `chmod 0600 ~/.ssh/authorized_keys` as well.

It's also worth noting that we've just set up a one-way relationship. We can SSH from our local host to our remote host with no password, but the same is not true in reverse, due to both lack of the private key and lack of the agent on the remote host. You can simply copy your private key all over the place to enable a "web of passwordless SSH," but that complicates matters when you want to change your passphrase and it makes it harder to secure your private key. If possible, you are better off having one well-protected and trusted machine from which you `ssh` out to remote hosts as needed.

The SSH agent is clever and subtle in its use. We might argue it's too clever. The way it is intended to be used in practice is via an `eval` and command substitution: `eval 'ssh-agent'`. That creates two environment variables so that `ssh` or `scp` can find the agent and ask it about your identities. That's very slick, and it's well documented in many places. The only problem is that this is unlike any other program in common use (except some of the features of `less`; see [Recipe 8.15](#)) and is totally obscure to a new or uninformed user.

If you just run the agent, it prints out some details and looks like it worked. And it did, in that it's now running. But it won't actually do anything, because the necessary

environment variables were never actually set. We should also mention in passing that the handy `-k` switch tells the agent to exit.

Here are some examples of incorrect and correct ways to use the SSH agent:

```
# The Wrong Way to Use the Agent
# Nothing in the environment
$ set | grep SSH
$ ssh-agent
SSH_AUTH_SOCK=/tmp/ssh-bACKp27592/agent.27592; export SSH_AUTH_SOCK;
SSH_AGENT_PID=24809; export SSH_AGENT_PID;
echo Agent pid 24809;

# Still nothing
$ set | grep SSH
# Can't even kill it, because -k needs $SSH_AGENT_PID
$ ssh-agent -k
SSH_AGENT_PID not set, cannot kill agent

# Is it even running? Yes
$ ps x
  PID TT  STAT   TIME COMMAND
24809 ??  Is    0:00.01 ssh-agent
22903 p0   I     0:03.05 -bash (bash)
11303 p0   R+    0:00.00 ps -x

$ kill 24809

$ ps x
  PID TT  STAT   TIME COMMAND
22903 p0   I     0:03.06 -bash (bash)
30542 p0   R+    0:00.00 ps -x

# This is correct
$ eval `ssh-agent`
Agent pid 21642

# Hey, it worked!
$ set | grep SSH
SSH_AGENT_PID=21642
SSH_AUTH_SOCK=/tmp/ssh-ZfEsa28724/agent.28724

# Kill it - the wrong way
$ ssh-agent -k
unset SSH_AUTH_SOCK;
unset SSH_AGENT_PID;
echo Agent pid 21642 killed;

# Oops, the process is dead but it didn't clean up after itself
$ set | grep SSH
SSH_AGENT_PID=21642
SSH_AUTH_SOCK=/tmp/ssh-ZfEsa28724/agent.28724
```

```

# The Right Way to Use the Agent
$ eval `ssh-agent`
Agent pid 19330

$ set | grep SSH
SSH_AGENT_PID=19330
SSH_AUTH_SOCK=/tmp/ssh-fwxMfj4987/agent.4987

$ eval `ssh-agent -k`
Agent pid 19330 killed

$ set | grep SSH
$

```

Intuitive, isn't it? Not. Very slick, very efficient, very subtle, yes. User-friendly, not so much.

Once we have the agent running as expected we have to load our identities using the *ssh-add* command. That's very easy: we just run it, optionally with a list of key files to load. It will prompt for all the passphrases needed. In this example we don't list any keys, so it just uses the default as set in the main SSH configuration file:

```

$ ssh-add
Enter passphrase for /home/jp/.ssh/id_rsa:
Identity added: /home/jp/.ssh/id_rsa (/home/jp/.ssh/id_rsa)
$

```

So now we can use SSH interactively, in this particular shell session, to log in to any machine we've previously configured, without a password or passphrase. So what about other sessions, scripts, or *cron*?

Use Daniel Robbins's *keychain* script, which:

acts as a frontend to *ssh-agent* and *ssh-add*, but allows you to easily have one long-running *ssh-agent* process per system, rather than the norm of one *ssh-agent* per login session.

This dramatically reduces the number of times you need to enter your passphrase. With *keychain*, you only need to enter a passphrase once every time your local machine is rebooted.

Keychain also makes it easy for remote *cron* jobs to securely "hook in" to a long-running *ssh-agent* process, allowing your scripts to take advantage of key-based logins.

keychain is a clever, well-written, and well-commented shell script that automates and manages the otherwise tedious process of exporting those environment variables we discussed earlier into other sessions. It also makes them available to scripts and *cron*. But you're probably saying to yourself, wait a second here, you want me to leave all my keys in this thing forever, until the machine reboots? Well, yes, but it's not as bad as it sounds.

First of all, you can always kill it, though that will also prevent scripts or *cron* from using it. Second, there is a `--clear` option that flushes cached keys when you log in. Sound backward? It actually makes sense. Here are the details, from *keychain*'s author (first published by IBM developerWorks; see <http://www.ibm.com/developerworks/linux/library/l-keyc2/>):

I explained that using unencrypted private keys is a dangerous practice, because it allows someone to steal your private key and use it to log in to your remote accounts from any other system without supplying a password. Well, while *keychain* isn't vulnerable to this kind of abuse (as long as you use encrypted private keys, that is), there is a potentially exploitable weakness directly related to the fact that *keychain* makes it so easy to "hook in" to a long-running *ssh-agent* process. What would happen, I thought, if some intruder were somehow able to figure out my password or passphrase and log into my local system? If they were somehow able to log in under my username, *keychain* would grant them instant access to my decrypted private keys, making it a no-brainer for them to access my other accounts.

Now, before I continue, let's put this security threat in perspective. If some malicious user were somehow able to log in as me, *keychain* would indeed allow them to access my remote accounts. Yet, even so, it would be very difficult for the intruder to steal my decrypted private keys since they are still encrypted on disk. Also, gaining access to my private keys would require a user to actually *log in* as me, not just read files in my directory. So, abusing *ssh-agent* would be a much more difficult task than simply stealing an unencrypted private key, which only requires that an intruder somehow gain access to my files in `~/.ssh`, whether logged in as me or not. Nevertheless, if an intruder were successfully able to log in as me, they could do quite a bit of additional damage by using my decrypted private keys. So, if you happen to be using *keychain* on a server that you don't log into very often or don't actively monitor for security breaches, then consider using the `--clear` option to provide an additional layer of security.

The `--clear` option allows you to tell *keychain* to assume that every new login to your account should be considered a potential security breach until proven otherwise. When you start *keychain* with the `--clear` option, *keychain* immediately flushes all your private keys from *ssh-agent*'s cache when you log in, before performing its normal duties. Thus, if you're an intruder, *keychain* will prompt you for passphrases rather than giving you access to your existing set of cached keys. However, even though this enhances security, it does make things a bit more inconvenient and very similar to running *ssh-agent* all by itself, without *keychain*. Here, as is often the case, one can opt for greater security or greater convenience, but not both.

Despite this, using *keychain* with `--clear` still has advantages over using *ssh-agent* all by itself; remember, when you use *keychain --clear*, your *cron* jobs and scripts will still be able to establish passwordless connections; this is because your private keys are flushed at *login*, not *logout*. Since a logout from the system does not constitute a potential security breach, there's no reason for *keychain* to respond by flushing *ssh-agent*'s keys. Thus, the `--clear` option [is] an ideal choice for infrequently accessed servers that need to perform occasional secure copying tasks, such as backup servers, firewalls, and routers.

To actually use the *keychain*-wrapped *ssh-agent* from a script or *cron*, simply source the file *keychain* creates from your script. *keychain* can also handle GPG keys:

```
[ -r ~/.ssh-agent ] && source ~/.ssh-agent \  
|| { echo "keychain not runnin" >&2 ; exit 1; }
```

Discussion

When using SSH in a script, you don't want to be prompted to authenticate or have extraneous warnings displayed. The `-q` option will turn on quiet mode and suppress warnings, while `-o 'BatchMode yes'` will prevent user prompts. Obviously if there is no way for SSH to authenticate itself, it will fail, since it can't even fall back to prompting for a password. But that shouldn't be a problem since you've made it this far in this recipe.

SSH is an amazing, wonderful tool and there is a lot to it—enough to fill another book about this size. We highly recommend *SSH, The Secure Shell: The Definitive Guide*, 2nd Edition, by Daniel J. Barrett, Richard Silverman, and Robert G. Byrnes (O'Reilly) for everything you ever wanted to know (and more) about SSH.

Using public keys between OpenSSH and SSH2 Server from SSH Communications Security can be tricky; see Chapter 6 in *Linux Security Cookbook* by the same authors (O'Reilly) for tips.

The IBM developerWorks articles on SSH by *keychain* author (and Gentoo Chief Architect) Daniel Robbins are also a great reference (<http://www.ibm.com/developerworks/linux/library/l-keyc.html>, <http://www.ibm.com/developerworks/linux/library/l-keyc2/>, <http://www.ibm.com/developerworks/linux/library/l-keyc3/>).

If *keychain* doesn't seem to be working, or if it works for a while then seems to stop, you may have another script somewhere else rerunning *ssh-agent* and getting things out of sync. Check the following and make sure the PIDs and socket all agree:

```
$ ps -ef | grep [s]sh-agent  
jp17364  0.0  0.0  3312 1132?        S   Dec16   0:00 ssh-agent  
  
$ cat ~/.keychain/$HOSTNAME-sh  
SSH_AUTH_SOCK=/tmp/ssh-UJc17363/agent.17363; export SSH_AUTH_SOCK;  
SSH_AGENT_PID=17364; export SSH_AGENT_PID;  
  
$ set | grep SSH_A  
SSH_AGENT_PID=17364  
SSH_AUTH_SOCK=/tmp/ssh-UJc17363/agent.17363
```



Depending on your operating system, you may have to adjust your `ps` command; if `-ef` doesn't work, try `-eu`.

Key Fingerprints

All flavors of SSH support *fingerprints* to facilitate key comparison and verification for both user and host keys. As you may guess, bit-by-bit verification of long, seemingly random data is tedious and error prone at best, and virtually impossible at worst (say, over the phone). Fingerprints provide an easier way to perform this verification. You may have seen fingerprints in other applications, especially PGP/GPG keys.

The reason to verify keys in the first place is to prevent so-called *man in the middle* attacks. If Alice sends her key to Bob, he must make sure that the key he receives is actually from Alice, and that Eve has not intercepted it and sent her own key instead. This requires an out-of-band communications channel, such as a telephone.

There are two fingerprint formats, the traditional hex format from PGP and a newer, supposedly easier to read format called *bubblebabble*. When Bob receives Alice's key, he calls her up and reads her the fingerprint. If they match, they both know he has the correct key.

```
$ ssh-keygen -l -f ~/.ssh/id_rsa
4096 eb:b3:0b:3a:d8:9f:d0:02:5d:99:ce:69:98:ef:f0:0c This is my new key (RSA)
```

```
$ ssh-keygen -l -f ~/.ssh/id_rsa.pub
4096 eb:b3:0b:3a:d8:9f:d0:02:5d:99:ce:69:98:ef:f0:0c This is my new key (RSA)
```

```
$ ssh-keygen -B -f ~/.ssh/id_rsa
4096 xuked-dutis-hoper-berag-ducut-tycuc-salur-ruvin-kefeg-mobyg-nyxyx
This is my new key (RSA)
```

```
$ ssh-keygen -B -f ~/.ssh/id_rsa.pub
4096 xuked-dutis-hoper-berag-ducut-tycuc-salur-ruvin-kefeg-mobyg-nyxyx
This is my new key (RSA)
```

See Also

- <http://www.funtoo.org/Keychain>
- <http://www.ibm.com/developerworks/linux/library/l-keyc/index.html>
- <http://www.ibm.com/developerworks/linux/library/l-keyc2/>
- <http://www.ibm.com/developerworks/linux/library/l-keyc3/>

- *SSH, The Secure Shell: The Definitive Guide*, 2nd Edition, by Daniel J. Barrett, Richard Silverman, and Robert G. Byrnes (O'Reilly)
- *Linux Security Cookbook* by Daniel J. Barrett, Richard Silverman, and Robert G. Byrnes (O'Reilly)
- *Practical Cryptography* by Niels Ferguson and Bruce Schneier (Wiley)
- *Applied Cryptography* by Bruce Schneier (Wiley)
- [Recipe 8.15, "Doing More with less"](#)

14.22 Restricting SSH Commands

Problem

You'd like to restrict what an incoming SSH user or script can do.²

Solution

Edit the `~/.ssh/authorized_keys` file, use SSH *forced commands*, and optionally disable unnecessary SSH features. For example, suppose you want to allow an *rsync* process without also allowing interactive use.

First, you need to figure out exactly what command is being run on the remote side. Create a key ([Recipe 14.21](#)) and add a forced command to tell you. Edit the `~/.ssh/authorized_keys` file and add:

```
command="/bin/echo Command was: $SSH_ORIGINAL_COMMAND"
```

before the key. It will look something like this, all on one line:

```
command="/bin/echo Command was: $SSH_ORIGINAL_COMMAND" ssh-dss
AAAAB3NzaC1kc3MAAAEBANpgvvTslst2m0ZJA0ayhh1Mqa3aWwU3kfv0m9+myFZ9veFsxM7
IVxIjWfALqh3jplY+Q78fMzCTiG+ZrGZYn8adZ9yg5wAC03KXm2vkT8LFTx6I+qkMR7v15N
I7tZyhxGah5qHNehReFWLuk7JXCtRrZrVwMdsHcL2SA1Y4fJ9Y9FfVlBdE1Er+ZIuc5xI10
6D1HFjKjt3wjbAaL+oJxwZJaupZ0Q7N47uwMsLmc5ELQBRNDsaoqFRKlerZASPQ5P+AH/+C
xa/fCGYwsogXSJJ0H5S7+QJJHFze35YZI+A1D3BIa4JBf1KvtoaFr5bMdhVAKChdAdMjo96
xhbdEAAAAVAJSKzCEsrUo3KAvyU08KVD6e0B/NAAAA/3uAx2TIB/M9MmPqjeH67Mh5Y5NaV
WuMqwebDIXuvKQQDMUU4EPjRGmS89Hl8UKAN0Cq/C1T+OGzn4zrbE06C0S3SRMP24HyIbE
lhLwV49sflR05Qmh9fRl1s7ZdcUrxkDkr2J6on5cMVB9M2nIL90IhRVLd5Rxp01u81yqvhv
E610RdA6IMjzXcQ8ebuD2R733037oGFD7e207DaabKkKHZIduL/zFbQkzMDK6uAMP8yLRJN
0fUsqIhHhtc/160T2H6nMU09MccxZTFufqF8xIOndELP6um4jXYk5Q30i/CtU3TZyvNeWVw
yGwDi4wg2jeVe0YHU2RhZcZpwAAAEAv2086701U9sIuRi.jp8s04h13eZrsE5rdn6auL/mk
m+xA10+wQeDXRONm9BwVsrNemIJB74tEJL3qQTMEFoCoN9Kp00Ya7Qt8n4gZ0vcZLI5u+cg
```

² We thank Daniel Barrett, Richard Silverman, and Robert G. Byrnes for their inspiration and excellent work in *SSH, The Secure Shell: The Definitive Guide* (especially Chapters 2, 6, and 11) and *Linux Security Cookbook*, without which this recipe would be a mere shadow of itself.

```
yd1mKaggS2SnoorsR1b2LhHpe6mXus8pUTf5QT8apgXM3TgFsLDT+3rCt40IdGCZLaP+UDB
uNUSKfFwCru6uGoXEwxal08Nv1wZ0c19qrc0Yzp7i33m6i3a0Z9Pu+TPHYC74QmBbWq8U9
DAo+7yhRIhqfDjzk3vIKSLbCxg4PbMwx2Qfh4dLk+L7w0asKnL5//W+RWBUR0laZ1ZP1/az
sK0Ncygno/0F1ew== This is my new key
```

Now execute your command and see what the result is:

```
$ ssh remote_host 'ls -l /etc'
Command was: ls -l /etc
$
```

Now, the problem with this approach is that it will break a program like *rsync* that depends on having the STDOUT/STDIN channel all to itself:

```
$ rsync -avzL -e ssh remote_host:/etc .
protocol version mismatch -- is your shell clean?
(see the rsync manpage for an explanation)
rsync error: protocol incompatibility (code 2) at compat.c(64)
$
```

But we can work around that by modifying our forced command as follows:

```
command="/bin/echo Command was: $SSH_ORIGINAL_COMMAND >> ~/ssh_command"
```

On the client side we try again:

```
$ rsync -avzL -e ssh 192.168.99.56:/etc .
rsync: connection unexpectedly closed (0 bytes received so far) [receiver]
rsync error: error in rsync protocol data stream (code 12) at io.c(420)
$
```

And on the remote host side we now have:

```
$ cat ../ssh_command
Command was: rsync --server --sender -vLlogDtpz . /etc
$
```

So we can update our forced command as necessary.

Two other things we can do are set a *from host restriction* and disable SSH commands. The host restriction specifies the hostname or IP address of the source host. Disabling commands is also pretty intuitive:

```
no-port-forwarding,no-X11-forwarding,no-agent-forwarding,no-pty
```

When we put it all together, it looks like this (still all on one giant line):

```
no-port-forwarding,no-X11-forwarding,no-agent-forwarding,no-pty,from="local_
client",command="rsync --server --sender -vLlogDtpz . /etc" ssh-dss
AAAAB3NzaC1kc3MAAAEBANpgvvTslst2m0ZJA0ayhh1Mqa3aWwU3kfv0m9+myFZ9veFsxM7
IVxIjWfAlQh3jplY+Q78fMzCTiG+ZrGZYn8adZ9yg5wAC03KXm2vKt8LFTx6I+qkMR7v15N
I7tZyhxGah5qHNehReFWLuk7JXCtRrZrVwMdsHcL2SA1Y4fJ9Y9FfVlBdE1Er+ZIuc5xI10
6D1HFjKjt3wjbaal+oJxwZJaupZ0Q7N47uwMslmc5ELQBRNDsaoqFRKlerZASPQ5P+AH/+C
xa/fCGYwsogXSJJ0H5S7+QJHfze35YZI+A1D3BIa4JBf1KvtoaFr5bMdhVAKChdAdMjo96
xhbdEAAAAVAJSKzCEsrUo3KAvyU08KVD6e0B/NAAAA/3uAx2TIB/M9MmPqjeH67Mh5Y5NaV
WuMqwebDIXuvKQDMUU4EPjRGmS89Hl8UKAN0Cq/C1T+OGzn4zrbe06COSm3SRMP24HyIbE
```



```
Lh1wW49sfLR05Qmh9fRl1s7ZdcUrXkDkr2J6on5cMVB9M2nIL90IhRVLd5RXP01u81yqvhw
E61ORdA6IMjzXcQ8ebuD2R733037oGFD7e207DaabKkKHZIduL/zFbQkzMDK6uAMP8yLRJN
0fUsqIhHhtc/160T2H6nMU09MccxZTFUfqF8xIOndELP6um4jXYk5Q30i/CtU3TZyvNeWVw
yGwDi4wg2jeVe0YHU2RhZcZpwAAAQEAv2086701U9sIuRi_jp8s04h13eZrsE5rdn6aul/mk
m+xA10+wQeDXRONm9BwVsrNemIJB74tEJL3qQTMEFoCoN9Kp00Ya7Qt8n4gZ0vcZLI5u+cg
yd1mKaggS2SnoorsR1b2LhHpe6mXus8pUTf5QT8apgXM3TgFsLDT+3rCt40IdGCZLaP+UDB
uNUSKfFwCru6uGoXEwaL08Nv1wZoc19qrc0Yzp7i33m6i3a0Z9Pu+TPHqYC74QmBbWq8U9
DAo+7yhRIhqfDjzk3vIKSLbCxg4PbMwx2Qfh4dLk+L7w0asKnL5//W+RWBUR0laZ1ZP1/az
sK0Ncygno/0F1ew== This is my new key
```

Discussion

If you have any problems with `ssh`, the `-v` option is very helpful. `ssh -v` or `ssh -v -v` will almost always give you at least a clue about what's going wrong. Give them a try when things are working to get an idea of what their output looks like.

If you'd like to be a little more open about what the key can and can't do, look into the OpenSSH restricted shell, `rsch`, which supports `scp`, `sftp`, `rdist`, `rsync`, and `cvs`.

You'd think restrictions like these would be easy, but it turns out they are not. The problem has to do with the way SSH (and the r-commands before it) actually works. It's a brilliant idea and it works very well, except that it's hard to limit. To vastly oversimplify it, you can think of SSH as connecting your local STDOUT to STDIN on the remote side and the remote STDOUT to your local STDIN, so all things like `scp` or `rsync` do is stream bytes from the local machine to the remote machine as if over a pipe. But that very flexibility precludes SSH from being able to restrict interactive access while allowing `scp`. There's no difference. And that's why you can't put lots of `echo` and debugging statements in your `bash` configuration files (see [Recipe 16.21](#)); that output will intermingle with the byte stream and cause havoc.

So how does `rsch` work? It provides a wrapper that you use instead of a default login shell (like `bash`) in `/etc/passwd`. That wrapper determines what it will and will not allow, but with much more flexibility than a plain old SSH-restricted command.

See Also

- *SSH, The Secure Shell: The Definitive Guide*, 2nd Edition, by Daniel J. Barrett, Richard Silverman, and Robert G. Byrnes (O'Reilly)
- *Linux Security Cookbook* by Daniel J. Barrett, Richard Silverman, and Robert G. Byrnes (O'Reilly)
- [Recipe 14.21](#), "Using SSH Without a Password"
- [Recipe 16.21](#), "Creating Self-Contained, Portable rc Files"

14.23 Disconnecting Inactive Sessions

Problem

You'd like to be able to automatically log out inactive users, especially *root*.

Solution

Set the `$TMOUT` environment variable in `/etc/bashrc` or `~/.bashrc` to the number of seconds of inactivity before ending the session. In interactive mode, once a prompt is issued, if the user does not enter a command in `$TMOUT` seconds, *bash* will exit.

Discussion

`$TMOUT` is also used in the *read* builtin and the *select* command in scripts.

Don't forget to set this as a read-only variable in a system-level file such as `/etc/profile` or `/etc/bashrc` to which users have no write access if you don't want them to be able to change it:

```
declare -r TMOUT=3600
```

Or:

```
readonly TMOUT=3600
```



Since users have control over their own environments, you cannot totally rely on `$TMOUT`, even if you set it as read-only: the user could just run a different shell, or even a different instance of *bash* itself! Think of it as a helpful reminder to cooperative users, especially knowledgeable and interrupt-driven system administrators who may get distracted (constantly).

See Also

- [Recipe 16.21, “Creating Self-Contained, Portable rc Files”](#)

Advanced Scripting

Unix and POSIX have long promised compatibility and portability, and long struggled to deliver it. Thus, one of the biggest problems for advanced scripters is writing scripts that are *portable*; i.e., that can work on any machine that has *bash* installed. Writing scripts that run well on a wide variety of platforms is much more difficult than we wish it were. There are many variations from one system to another that can get in the way; for example, *bash* itself isn't always installed in the same place, and many common Unix commands have slightly different options (or give slightly different output) depending on the operating system. In this chapter, we'll look at several of those problems and show you how to solve them with *bash*.

Many of the other things that are periodically needed are not as simple as we'd like them to be, either. So, we'll also cover solutions for additional advanced scripting tasks, such as automating processes using phases, sending email from your script, logging to *syslog*, using your network resources, and a few tricks for getting input and redirecting output.

Although this chapter is about advanced scripting, we'd like to stress the need for clear code, written as simply as possible and documented. Brian Kernighan, one of the first Unix developers, put it well:

Debugging is twice as hard as writing the code in the first place. Therefore, if you write the code as cleverly as possible, you are, by definition, not smart enough to debug it.

It's easy to write very clever shell scripts that are very difficult, if not impossible, to understand. The more clever you think you're being now, as you solve the *problem de jour*, the more you'll regret it 6, 12, or 18 months from now when you (or worse yet, someone else) have to figure out what you did and why it broke. If you have to be clever, at least document how the script works! (See [Recipe 5.1](#).)

15.1 Finding `bash` Portably for `#!`

Problem

You need to run a `bash` script on several machines, but `bash` is not always in the same place (see [Recipe 1.14](#)).

Solution

Use the `/usr/bin/env` command in the shebang line, as in `#!/usr/bin/env bash`. If your system doesn't have `env` in `/usr/bin`, ask your system administrator to install it, move it, or create a symbolic link because this is the required location.

You could also create symbolic links for `bash` itself, but using `env` is the canonical and correct solution.

Discussion

`env`'s purpose is to “run a program in a modified environment,” but since it will search the path for the command it is given to run, it works very well for this use.

You may be tempted to use `!/bin/sh` instead. Don't. If you are using `bash`-specific features in your script, they will not work on machines that do not use `bash` in Bourne shell mode for `/bin/sh` (e.g., BSD, Solaris, Ubuntu 6.10+). And even if you aren't using `bash`-specific features now, you may forget about that in the future. If you are committed to using only POSIX features, by all means use `!/bin/sh` (and don't develop on Linux; see [Recipe 15.3](#)), but otherwise be specific.

You may sometimes see a space between `#!` and `/bin/whatever`. Historically there were some systems that required the space, though in practice we haven't seen one in a long time. It's very unlikely any system running `bash` will require the space, and leaving it out seems to be the most common usage now. But for the utmost historical compatibility, use the space.

We have chosen to use `#!/usr/bin/env bash` in the longer scripts and functions we've made available to download (see the end of the [Preface](#) for details), because that will run unchanged on most systems. However, since `env` uses the `$PATH` to find `bash`, this is arguably a security issue (see [Recipe 14.2](#)), albeit a minor one in our opinion.



Ironically, since we're trying to use *env* for portability, shebang line processing is not consistent across systems. Many systems, including Linux, allow only a single argument to the interpreter. Thus, `#!/usr/bin/env bash -` will result in the error:

```
/usr/bin/env: bash -: No such file or directory
```

This is because the interpreter is `/usr/bin/env` and the single allowed argument is `bash -`. Other systems, such as BSD and Solaris, don't have this restriction.

Since the trailing `-` is a common security practice (see [Recipe 14.2](#)) and since this is supported on some systems but not others, this is a security and portability problem.

You can use the trailing `-` for a tiny bit more security at the cost of portability, or omit it for portability at the cost of a tiny potential security risk. Since *env* is searching the path anyway, using it should probably be avoided if you have security concerns; thus, the inability to portably use the trailing `-` is tolerable.

Therefore, our advice is to omit the `-` when using *env* for portability, and to hardcode the interpreter and trailing `-` when security is critical.

See Also

- For information on the shebang line (`/usr/bin/env`):
 - <http://srfi.schemers.org/srfi-22/mail-archive/msg00069.html>
 - <http://www.in-ulm.de/~mascheck/various/shebang/>
 - <http://homepages.cwi.nl/~aeb/std/hashexclam-1.html>
 - Section 3.16 of the [Unix FAQs](#)
- [Recipe 1.14](#), “Getting bash for xBSD”
- [Recipe 15.2](#), “Setting a POSIX \$PATH”
- [Recipe 15.3](#), “Developing Portable Shell Scripts”
- [Recipe 15.6](#), “Using echo Portably”

15.2 Setting a POSIX \$PATH

Problem

You are on a machine that provides older or proprietary tools (e.g., Solaris) and you need to set your path so that you get POSIX-compliant tools.

Solution

Use the *getconf* utility:

```
PATH=$(PATH=/bin:/usr/bin getconf PATH)
```

Here are some default and POSIX paths on several systems:

```
# Red Hat Enterprise Linux (RHEL) 4.3
$ echo $PATH
/usr/kerberos/bin:/usr/local/bin:/bin:/usr/bin:/usr/X11R6/bin:/home/$USER/bin

$ getconf PATH
/bin:/usr/bin

# Debian Sarge
$ echo $PATH
/usr/local/bin:/usr/bin:/bin:/usr/bin/X11:/usr/games

$ getconf PATH
/bin:/usr/bin

# Solaris 10
$ echo $PATH
/usr/bin:

$ getconf PATH
/usr/xpg4/bin:/usr/ccs/bin:/usr/bin:/opt/SUNWspro/bin

# OpenBSD 3.7
$ echo $PATH
/home/$USER/bin:/bin:/sbin:/usr/bin:/usr/sbin:/usr/X11R6/bin:/usr/local/bin:/usr/local/sbin:/usr/games

$ getconf PATH
/usr/bin:/bin:/usr/sbin:/sbin:/usr/X11R6/bin:/usr/local/bin
```

Discussion

getconf reports various system configuration variables, so you can use it to set a default path. However, unless *getconf* itself is a builtin, you will need a minimal path to find it, hence the `PATH=/bin:/usr/bin` part of the solution.

In theory, the variable you use should be `CS_PATH`. In practice, `PATH` worked everywhere we tested while `CS_PATH` failed on the BSDs.

See Also

- “Shell Corner: Processing Command-line Arguments with `my_getopts`” in the January 2003 issue of *Unix Review*
- Recipe 9.11, “Finding a File Using a List of Possible Locations”
- Recipe 14.3, “Setting a Secure `$PATH`”
- Recipe 14.9, “Finding World-Writable Directories in Your `$PATH`”
- Recipe 14.10, “Adding the Current Directory to the `$PATH`”
- Recipe 16.4, “Changing Your `$PATH` Permanently”
- Recipe 16.5, “Changing Your `$PATH` Temporarily”
- Recipe 19.3, “Forgetting That the Current Directory Is Not in the `$PATH`”

15.3 Developing Portable Shell Scripts

Problem

You are writing a shell script that will need to run on multiple versions of multiple Unix or POSIX operating systems.

Solution

First, try using the `command` builtin with its `-p` option to find the POSIX version of `program`. For example, in `/usr/xpg4` or `/usr/xpg6` on Solaris:

```
command -p program args
```

Then, if possible, find the oldest or least capable Unix machine you have access to and develop the script on that platform. If you aren't sure what the least capable platform is, use a BSD variant or Solaris (and the older a version you can find, the better).

Discussion

`command -p` uses a default path that is guaranteed to find all of the POSIX-standard utilities. If you're sure your script will only ever run on Linux (famous last words), then don't worry about it; otherwise, avoid developing cross-platform scripts on Linux or Windows (e.g., via Cygwin).

The problems with writing cross-platform shell scripts on Linux are:

1. `/bin/sh` is not the Bourne shell; it's really `/bin/bash` in POSIX mode, except when it's `/bin/dash` (for example, Ubuntu 6.10+). Both are very good, but not perfect, and none of the three work exactly the same, which can be very confusing. In particular, the behavior of `echo` can change.
2. Linux uses the GNU tools instead of the original Unix tools.

Don't get us wrong, we love Linux and use it every day. But it isn't really Unix: it does some things differently, and it has the GNU tools. The GNU tools are great, and that's the problem. They have a lot of switches and features that aren't present on other platforms, and your script *will* break in odd ways no matter how careful you are about that. Conversely, Linux is so compatible with everything that scripts written for any other Unix-like systems will almost always run on it. They may not be perfect (e.g., `echo`'s default behavior is to display `\n` instead of printing a newline), but they're often good enough.

There is an ironic Catch-22 here—the more shell features you use, the less you have to depend on external programs that may or may not be there or work as expected. While `bash` is far more capable than `sh`, it's also one of the tools that may or may not be there. Some form of `sh` will be on virtually any Unix or Unix-like system, but it isn't always quite what you think it is.

Another Catch-22 is that the GNU long options are much more readable in shell code, but are often not present on other systems. So instead of being able to say `sort --field-separator=, unsorted_file > sorted_file`, you have to use `sort -t, unsorted_file>sorted_file` for portability.

But take heart: developing on a non-Linux system is easier than it's ever been. If you already have and use such systems, then this is obviously a nonissue. But if you don't have such systems in-house, it's now trivial to get them for free. Solaris and the BSDs all run in virtual environments (see [Recipe 15.4](#)).

If you have a Mac running macOS (previously OS X), then you already have `bash` and BSD so you're all set. You might want to make sure you have a recent version, though; see [Recipe 1.15](#).

You can also easily test scripts using a virtualization environment (see [Recipe 15.4](#)). The flaw in this solution is the systems such as AIX and HP-UX that don't run on an x86 architecture, and thus don't run under x86 virtualization. Again, if you have these systems, use them. If not, see [Recipe 1.18](#).



Debian and Ubuntu users should install the *devscripts* package (`aptitude install devscripts`), which provides a *checkbashisms* script to help find “bashisms” that will not work in *dash*. Users of other operating systems and/or Linux distributions should see if that is available for their system.

See Also

- `help` command
- http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Debian_Almquist_shell
- <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bash>
- http://partnerweb.vmware.com/GOSIG/Solaris_11.html
- <http://www.polarhome.com/>
- `comp.sys.hp.hpux` FAQ
- History of Unix
- Unix History repo
- Recipe 1.18, “Getting bash Without Getting bash”
- Recipe 15.4, “Testing Scripts Using Virtual Machines”
- Recipe 15.6, “Using echo Portably”
- “echo Options and Escape Sequences” on page 603 in Appendix A

15.4 Testing Scripts Using Virtual Machines

Problem

You need to develop cross-platform scripts but do not have the appropriate systems or hardware.

Solution

If the target platforms run on the x86 architecture, use one of the many free and commercial virtualization solutions and build your own test virtual machine (VM) or search for prebuilt virtual machines on the OS vendor or distributor’s site, or the internet. Or use a free (for a trial period) or low-cost VM from a cloud vendor.

The flaw in this solution is the systems such as AIX and HP-UX that don’t run on an x86 architecture, and thus don’t run under x86 virtualization. Again, if you have these systems, use them. If not, see [Recipe 1.18](#).

Discussion

Testing shell scripts is usually not very resource-intensive, so even moderate hardware capable of running **VirtualBox** or a similar virtualization package should be fine. We mention VirtualBox specifically because it's without cost, runs on Linux, macOS, and Windows, is used in countless examples around the web and tools such as Vagrant, and is flexible and easy to use; but there are certainly other alternatives available.

Minimal virtual machines with 128 MB of RAM, or sometimes even less, should be more than enough for a shell environment for testing. Set up an NFS share to store your test scripts and data, and then simply SSH to the test system. **Debian** is a good place to start if you are building your own; just remember to uncheck everything you can during the install.

There are a great many pre-built VMs available on the internet, but quality and security will vary. If you are testing at work, be sure to check your corporate policies; many companies prohibit bringing “random internet downloads” into the corporate network. On the other hand, your company may build or provide its own VM images for internal use. You will probably want only a very minimal VM for testing shell scripts, but the definition of “minimal” will also vary greatly among different sources. You'll need to do a little research to find a fit for your needs. Some good places to start are:

- **TurnKey Linux**
- **VMware**
- **OSBoxes**
- **KVM**
- **Parallels**

Depending on your needs and corporate policy, you may also be able to get a free or low-cost VM in the cloud. See **Recipe 1.18** for details about getting an almost free shell account from <http://polarhome.com>, which has a tiny, symbolic one-time fee, or **another vendor**.

Amazon has a “**free tier**” offering that may be useful, and it and many other vendors like **Linode** and **Digital Ocean** have very inexpensive pay-as-you-go options.

Don't forget about just booting a LiveCD/LiveDVD either, as we mentioned in **Recipe 1.18**.

Finally, if all that is not enough, the initiator of the **QEMU emulator**, Fabrice Bellard, has written a **PC emulator** in JavaScript that lets you boot VM images with just a web browser!

No matter what option you choose, there will be a lot more information, documentation, and how-to guides available on the internet than we can fit in this recipe. Our main goal here is just to get you thinking about some possibilities.



Be sure to check your corporate policies before doing anything in this recipe!

See Also

- <https://www.virtualbox.org/>
- <https://www.debian.org/distrib/netinst>
- <https://www.turnkeylinux.org/core> (bash 4.3 or newer)
- <http://www.vmware.com/> (commercial)
 - https://solutionexchange.vmware.com/store/category_groups/virtual-appliances
- <https://www.osboxes.org/>
- <http://www.linux-kvm.org>
 - <http://xmodulo.com/use-kvm-command-line-debian-ubuntu.html>
 - <http://www.thegeekstuff.com/2014/10/linux-kvm-create-guest-vm/>
- <http://polarhome.com>
- <https://shells.red-pill.eu/>
- <https://aws.amazon.com/free/>
- <https://www.linode.com/pricing>
- <https://www.digitalocean.com/pricing/>
- <http://wiki.qemu.org>
- <http://copy.sh/v86/>
- Recipe 1.14, “Getting bash for xBSD”
- Recipe 1.18, “Getting bash Without Getting bash”

15.5 Using for Loops Portably

Problem

You need to do a for loop but want it to work on older versions of *bash*.

Solution

This method is portable back to *bash* 2.04+:

```
$ for ((i=0; i<10; i++)); do echo $i; done
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
```

Discussion

There are nicer ways of writing this loop in newer versions of *bash*, but they are not backward compatible. As of *bash* 3.0+ you can use the syntax for `{x..y}`, as in:

```
$ for i in {1..10}; do echo $i; done
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
```

If your system has the *seq* command, you could also do this:

```
$ for i in $(seq 1 10); do echo $i; done
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
```

See Also

- `help for`
- `man seq`

- [Recipe 6.12, “Looping with a Count”](#)
- [Recipe 6.13, “Looping with Floating-Point Values”](#)
- [Recipe 17.24, “Writing Sequences”](#)

15.6 Using echo Portably

Problem

You are writing a script that will run on multiple versions of Unix and Linux and you need *echo* to behave consistently even if it is not running on *bash*.

Solution

Use `printf "%b" whatever`, or test for the system and set `xpg_echo` using `shopt -s xpg_echo` as needed.

If you omit the `"%b"` format string (for example, `printf whatever`), then *printf* will try to interpret any `%` characters in *whatever*, which is probably not what you want. The `"%b"` format is an addition to the standard *printf* format that will prevent that misinterpretation and also expand backslash escape sequences in *whatever*.

Setting `xpg_echo` is less consistent since it only works on *bash*. It can be effective if you are sure that you'll only every run under *bash*, and not under *sh* or another similar shell that doesn't use `xpg_echo`.

Using *printf* requires changes to how you write *echo* statements, but it's defined by POSIX and should be consistent across any POSIX shell anywhere. Specifically, you have to write `printf "%b"` instead of just *echo*.



If you automatically type `$b` instead of `%b` you will be unhappy because that will print a blank line, since you have specified a null format—that is, unless `$b` is actually defined, in which case the results depend on the value of `$b`. Either way, this can be a very difficult bug to find since `$b` and `%b` look very similar:

```
$ printf "%b" "Works"
Works
$ printf "$b" "Broken"
$
```

Discussion

In some shells, the builtin *echo* behaves differently than the external *echo* used on other systems. This is not always obvious when running on Linux since `/bin/sh` is

actually *bash* (usually; it could also be *dash* on Ubuntu 6.10+), and there are similar circumstances on some BSDs. The difference is in how *echo* does or does not expand backslash-escape sequences. Shell builtin versions tend not to expand, while external versions (e.g., */bin/echo* and */usr/bin/echo*) tend to expand; but again, that can change from system to system.

Typical Linux (*/bin/bash*):

```
$ type -a echo
echo is a shell builtin
echo is /bin/echo

$ builtin echo "one\ttwo\nthree"
one\ttwo\nthree\n

$ /bin/echo "one\ttwo\nthree"
one\ttwo\nthree\n

$ echo -e "one\ttwo\nthree"
one → two
three

$ /bin/echo -e "one\ttwo\nthree"
one → two
three

$ shopt -s xpg_echo

$ builtin echo "one\ttwo\nthree"
one → two
three

$ shopt -u xpg_echo

$ builtin echo "one\ttwo\nthree"
one\ttwo\nthree\n
```

Typical BSD (*/bin/csh*, then */bin/sh*):

```
$ which echo
echo: shell builtin command.

$ echo "one\ttwo\nthree"
one\ttwo\nthree\n

$ /bin/echo "one\ttwo\nthree"
one\ttwo\nthree\n

$ echo -e "one\ttwo\nthree"
-e one\ttwo\nthree\n

$ /bin/echo -e "one\ttwo\nthree"
```

```
-e one\ttwo\nthree\n\n$ printf "%b" "one\ttwo\nthree"\none → two\n\n$ /bin/sh\n\n$ echo "one\ttwo\nthree"\none\ttwo\nthree\n\n$ echo -e "one\ttwo\nthree"\none → two\nthree\n\n$ printf "%b" "one\ttwo\nthree"\none → two\nthree
```

Solaris 10 (*/bin/sh*):

```
$ which echo\n/usr/bin/echo\n\n$ type echo\necho is a shell builtin\n\n$ echo "one\ttwo\nthree"\none → two\nthree\n\n$ echo -e "one\ttwo\nthree"\n-e one → two\nthree\n\n$ printf "%b" "one\ttwo\nthree"\none → two\nthree
```

See Also

- `help printf`
- `man 1 printf`
- <http://pubs.opengroup.org/onlinepubs/9699919799/utilities/echo.html>
- <http://pubs.opengroup.org/onlinepubs/9699919799/utilities/printf.html>
- Recipe 2.3, “Writing Output with More Formatting Control”
- Recipe 2.4, “Writing Output Without the Newline”
- Recipe 15.1, “Finding `bash` Portably for `#!`”
- Recipe 15.3, “Developing Portable Shell Scripts”

- Recipe 19.11, “Seeing Odd Behavior from printf”
- “printf” on page 604 in Appendix A

15.7 Splitting Output Only When Necessary

Problem

You want to split output only if the input exceeds your limit, but the *split* command always creates at least one new file.

Solution

Example 15-1 illustrates a way to break up input into fixed sizes only if the input exceeds the size limit.

Example 15-1. ch15/func_split

```
# cookbook filename: func_split

#####
# Output fixed-size pieces of input ONLY if the limit is exceeded
# Called like: Split <file> <prefix> <limit option> <limit argument>
# e.g. Split $output ${output}_ --lines 100
# See split(1) and wc(1) for option details
function Split {
    local file=$1
    local prefix=$2
    local limit_type=$3
    local limit_size=$4
    local wc_option

    # Sanity checks
    if [ -z "$file" ]; then
        printf "%b" "Split: requires a file name!\n"
        return 1
    fi
    if [ -z "$prefix" ]; then
        printf "%b" "Split: requires an output file prefix!\n"
        return 1
    fi
    if [ -z "$limit_type" ]; then
        printf "%b" \
            "Split: requires a limit option (e.g. --lines), see 'man split'!\n"
        return 1
    fi
    if [ -z "$limit_size" ]; then
        printf "%b" "Split: requires a limit size (e.g. 100), see 'man split'!\n"
        return 1
    fi
}
```



```

fi

# Convert split options to wc options. Sigh.
# Not all options supported by all wc/splits on all systems
case $limit_type in
  -b|--bytes)      wc_option='-c';;
  -C|--line-bytes) wc_option='-L';;
  -l|--lines)     wc_option='-l';;
esac

# If whatever limit is exceeded
if [ "$(wc $wc_option $file | awk '{print $1}')" -gt $limit_size ]; then
  # Actually do something
  split --verbose $limit_type $limit_size $file $prefix
fi
} # end of function Split

```

Discussion

Depending on your system, some options (e.g., -C) may not be available in *split* or *wc*.

See Also

- [Recipe 8.13, “Counting Lines, Words, or Characters in a File”](#)

15.8 Viewing Output in Hex

Problem

You need to see output in hex mode to verify that a certain whitespace or unprintable character is as expected.

Solution

Pipe the output through *hexdump* using the -C option for canonical output:

```

$ hexdump -C filename
00000000  4c 69 6e 65 20 31 0a 4c 69 6e 65 20 32 0a 0a 4c |Line 1.Line 2..L|
00000010  69 6e 65 20 34 0a 4c 69 6e 65 20 35 0a 0a      |line 4.Line 5..|
0000001e
$

```

For example, *nl* uses spaces (ASCII 20), then the line number, then a tab (ASCII 09) in its output:

```

$ nl -ba filename | hexdump -C
00000000  20 20 20 20 20 31 09 4c 69 6e 65 20 31 0a 20 20 | 1.Line 1. |
00000010  20 20 20 32 09 4c 69 6e 65 20 32 0a 20 20 20 20 | 2.Line 2. |

```

```

00000020 20 33 09 0a 20 20 20 20 20 34 09 4c 69 6e 65 20 | 3..    4.Line |
00000030 34 0a 20 20 20 20 20 35 09 4c 69 6e 65 20 35 0a |4.    5.Line 5.|
00000040 20 20 20 20 20 36 09 0a                                |    6..|
00000048
$

```

Discussion

hexdump is a BSD utility that also comes with many Linux distributions. Other systems, notably Solaris, do not have it by default. You can use the octal dump command *od*, but its output is only one format at a time, and its addresses (lefthand column) are in octal, not hex:

```

$ nl -ba filename | od -x
0000000 2020 2020 3120 4c09 6e69 2065 0a31 2020
0000020 2020 3220 4c09 6e69 2065 0a32 2020 2020
0000040 3320 0a09 2020 2020 3420 4c09 6e69 2065
0000060 0a34 2020 2020 3520 4c09 6e69 2065 0a35
0000100 2020 2020 3620 0a09
0000110

$ nl -ba filename | od -tx1
0000000 20 20 20 20 20 31 09 4c 69 6e 65 20 31 0a 20 20
0000020 20 20 20 32 09 4c 69 6e 65 20 32 0a 20 20 20 20
0000040 20 33 09 0a 20 20 20 20 20 34 09 4c 69 6e 65 20
0000060 34 0a 20 20 20 20 20 35 09 4c 69 6e 65 20 35 0a
0000100 20 20 20 20 20 36 09 0a
0000110

$ nl -ba filename | od -c
0000000                                1 \t L i n e      1 \n
0000020                                2 \t L i n e      2 \n
0000040          3 \t \n                                4 \t L i n e
0000060 4 \n                                5 \t L i n e      5 \n
0000100                                6 \t \n
0000110

```

There is also a simple [Perl script](#) that might work:

```

$ ./hexdump.pl filename

      /0 /1 /2 /3 /4 /5 /6 /7 /8 /9/ A /B /C /D /E /F 0123456789ABCDEF
0000 : 4C 69 6E 65 20 31 0A 4C 69 6E 65 20 32 0A 0A 4C Line 1.Line 2..L
0010 : 69 6E 65 20 34 0A 4C 69 6E 65 20 35 0A 0A      ine 4.Line 5..

```

See Also

- `man hexdump`
- `man od`
- <http://www.khngai.com/perl/bin/hexdump.txt>

- <http://gnuwin32.sourceforge.net/packages/hextools.htm>
- “Table of ASCII Values” on page 619 in Appendix A

15.9 Using bash Net-Redirection

Problem

You need to send or receive very simple network traffic but you do not have a tool such as Netcat installed.

Solution

If you have *bash* version 2.04+ compiled with `--enable-net-redirections` (default), you can use *bash* itself. The following example is also used in [Recipe 15.10](#):

```
$ exec 3<> /dev/tcp/checkip.dyndns.org/80
$ echo -e "GET / HTTP/1.0\n" >&3
$ cat <&3
HTTP/1.1 200 OK
Content-Type: text/html
Server: DynDNS-CheckIP/1.0
Connection: close
Cache-Control: no-cache
Pragma: no-cache
Content-Length: 105

<html><head><title>Current IP Check</title></head>
<body>Current IP Address: 72.NN.NN.225</body></html>

$ exec 3<> /dev/tcp/checkip.dyndns.org/80
$ echo -e "GET / HTTP/1.0\n" >&3
$ egrep --only-matching 'Current IP Address: [0-9.]+' <&3
Current IP Address: 72.NN.NN.225
$
```



Debian and derivatives such as Ubuntu expressly compiled with `--disable-net-redirections` until *bash* version 4, so this recipe will not work on those versions.

Discussion

As noted in [Recipe 15.12](#), it is possible to use *exec* to permanently redirect file handles within the current shell session, so the first command sets up input and output on file handle 3. The second line sends a trivial command to a path on the web server defined in the first command. Note that the user agent will appear as “-” on the web

server side, which is what is causing the “flagged User Agent” warning. The third command simply displays the results.

Both TCP and UDP are supported. Here is a trivial way to send *syslog* messages to a remote server (although in production we recommend using the *logger* utility, which is much more user-friendly and robust):

```
echo "<133>${0##*/}[$$]: Test syslog message from bash" \  
> /dev/udp/loghost.example.com/514
```

Since UDP is connectionless, this is actually much easier to use than the previous TCP example. `<133>` is the *syslog priority* value for *local0.notice*, calculated according to [RFC 3164](#). See section 4.1.1 of the RFC and the *logger* manpage for details. `$0` is the name, so `${0##*/}` is the “basename” and `$$` is the process ID of the current program. The name will be `-bash` for a login shell.

See Also

- `man logger`
- [RFC 3164](#)
- [Recipe 15.10, “Finding My IP Address”](#)
- [Recipe 15.12, “Redirecting Output for the Life of a Script”](#)
- [Recipe 15.14, “Logging to syslog from Your Script”](#)
- [The *bash* documentation](#)
- <https://bugs.launchpad.net/ubuntu/+source/bash/+bug/215034>

15.10 Finding My IP Address

Problem

You need to know the IP address of the machine you are running on.

Solution

There is no good way to do this that will work on all systems in all situations, so we will present several possible solutions.

First, you can parse output from *ifconfig* to look for IP addresses. The commands in [Example 15-2](#) will either return the first IP address that is not a *loopback* or nothing if there are no interfaces configured or up.

Example 15-2. ch15/finding_ipas

```
# cookbook filename: finding_ipas

# IPv4 Using awk, cut, and head
$ /sbin/ifconfig -a | awk '/(cast)/ { print $2 }' | cut -d':' -f2 | head -1

# IPv4 Using Perl, just for fun
$ /sbin/ifconfig -a | perl -ne 'if ( m/^\s*inet (?:(addr:)?([\d.]+).*?cast/ )
> { print qq($1\n); exit 0; }'

# IPv6 Using awk, cut, and head
$ /sbin/ifconfig -a | egrep 'inet6 addr: |address: ' | cut -d':' -f2- \
  | cut -d'/' -f1 | head -1 | tr -d ' '

# IPv6 Using Perl, just for fun
$ /sbin/ifconfig -a | perl -ne 'if
> ( m/^\s*(?:inet6)? \s*addr(?:ess)?: ([@-9A-Fa-f:]+)/ ) { print qq($1\n);
> exit 0; }'
```

Second, you can get your hostname and resolve it back to an IP address. This is often unreliable because today's systems (especially workstations) might have incomplete or incorrect hostnames and/or might be on a dynamic network that lacks proper reverse lookup. Use at your own risk and test well:

```
host $(hostname)
```

Third, you may be more interested in your host's external, routable address than its internal RFC 1918 address. In that case you can use an external host such as <http://whatismyip.akamai.com>, <http://checkip.amazonaws.com/>, <http://ipinfo.io/>, or others to learn the address of your firewall or NAT device. The catch here is that non-Linux systems often have no command-line tool like *wget* installed by default. *lynx* or *curl* will also work, but they aren't usually installed by default either (although macOS 10.4+ has *curl*). Note the IP address and other information is deliberately obscured in the following examples:

```
$ wget -q0 - http://ipinfo.io/
{
  "ip": "8.8.8.8",
  "hostname": "google-public-dns-a.google.com",
  "city": "Mountain View",
  "region": "California",
  "country": "US",
  "loc": "37.3860,-122.0840",
  "org": "AS15169 Google Inc.",
  "postal": "94035",
  "phone": "650"
}

$ wget -q0 - http://ipinfo.io/ip/
72.NN.NN.225
```

```
$ lynx -dump http://ipinfo.io/ip/
72.NN.NN.225
```

```
$ curl whatismyip.akamai.com
72.NN.NN.225
```

```
$ curl http://checkip.amazonaws.com
72.NN.NN.225
```

If you do not have any of the programs used here, but you do have *bash* version 2.04+ compiled with `--enable-net-redirections` (it isn't compiled this way prior to *bash* 4 in Debian and derivatives), you can use *bash* itself (see [Recipe 15.9](#) for details).

```
$ exec 3<> /dev/tcp/checkip.dyndns.org/80
$ echo -e "GET / HTTP/1.0\n" >&3
$ cat <&3
HTTP/1.1 200 OK
Content-Type: text/html
Server: DynDNS-CheckIP/1.0
Connection: close
Cache-Control: no-cache
Pragma: no-cache
Content-Length: 105

<html><head><title>Current IP Check</title></head>
<body>Current IP Address: 96.245.41.129</body></html>
```

```
$ exec 3<> /dev/tcp/checkip.dyndns.org/80
$ echo -e "GET / HTTP/1.0\n" >&3
$ egrep --only-matching 'Current IP Address: [0-9.]+' <&3
Current IP Address: 72.NN.NN.225
$
```

Discussion

The *awk* and Perl code in the first solution is interesting because of the operating system variations we will note here. But it turns out that the lines we're interested in all contain either `Bcast` or `broadcast` (or `inet6addr:` or `address:`), so once we get those lines it's just a matter of parsing out the field we want. Of course Linux makes that harder by using a different format, but we've dealt with that too.

Not all systems require the path (if you aren't *root*) or `-a` argument to *ifconfig*, but all accept it, so it's best to use `/sbin/ifconfig -a` and be done with it.

Here are some *ifconfig* output examples from different machines:

```
# Linux
$ /sbin/ifconfig
eth0      Link encap:Ethernet HWaddr 00:C0:9F:0B:8F:F6
          inet addr:192.168.99.11 Bcast:192.168.99.255 Mask:255.255.255.0
```

```

UP BROADCAST RUNNING MULTICAST MTU:1500 Metric:1
RX packets:33073511 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 frame:827
TX packets:52865023 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:1 carrier:7
collisions:12922745 txqueuelen:100
RX bytes:2224430163 (2121.3 Mb) TX bytes:51266497 (48.8 Mb)
Interrupt:11 Base address:0xd000

lo        Link encap:Local Loopback
          inet addr:127.0.0.1 Mask:255.0.0.0
          UP LOOPBACK RUNNING MTU:16436 Metric:1
          RX packets:659102 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 frame:0
          TX packets:659102 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 carrier:0
          collisions:0 txqueuelen:0
          RX bytes:89603190 (85.4 Mb) TX bytes:89603190 (85.4 Mb)

$ /sbin/ifconfig
eth0      Link encap:Ethernet HWaddr 00:06:29:33:4D:42
          inet addr:192.168.99.144 Bcast:192.168.99.255 Mask:255.255.255.0
          inet6 addr: fe80::206:29ff:fe33:4d42/64 Scope:Link
          UP BROADCAST RUNNING MULTICAST MTU:1500 Metric:1
          RX packets:1246774 errors:14 dropped:0 overruns:0 frame:14
          TX packets:1063160 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 carrier:5
          collisions:65476 txqueuelen:1000
          RX bytes:731714472 (697.8 MiB) TX bytes:942695735 (899.0 MiB)

lo        Link encap:Local Loopback
          inet addr:127.0.0.1 Mask:255.0.0.0
          inet6 addr: ::1/128 Scope:Host
          UP LOOPBACK RUNNING MTU:16436 Metric:1
          RX packets:144664 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 frame:0
          TX packets:144664 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 carrier:0
          collisions:0 txqueuelen:0
          RX bytes:152181602 (145.1 MiB) TX bytes:152181602 (145.1 MiB)

sit0      Link encap:IPv6-in-IPv4
          inet6 addr: ::127.0.0.1/96 Scope:Unknown
          UP RUNNING NOARP MTU:1480 Metric:1
          RX packets:0 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 frame:0
          TX packets:0 errors:101910 dropped:0 overruns:0 carrier:0
          collisions:0 txqueuelen:0
          RX bytes:0 (0.0 b) TX bytes:0 (0.0 b)

# NetBSD
$ /sbin/ifconfig -a
pcn0: flags=8843<UP,BROADCAST,RUNNING,SIMPLEX,MULTICAST> mtu 1500
      address: 00:0c:29:31:eb:19
      media: Ethernet autoselect (autoselect)
      inet 192.168.99.56 netmask 0xfffff00 broadcast 192.168.99.255
      inet6 fe80::20c:29ff:fe31:eb19%pcn0 prefixlen 64 scopeid 0x1
lo0: flags=8009<UP,LOOPBACK,MULTICAST> mtu 33196
      inet 127.0.0.1 netmask 0xff000000
      inet6 ::1 prefixlen 128

```

```

        inet6 fe80::1%lo0 prefixlen 64 scopeid 0x2
ppp0: flags=8010<POINTOPOINT,MULTICAST> mtu 1500
ppp1: flags=8010<POINTOPOINT,MULTICAST> mtu 1500
sl0: flags=c010<POINTOPOINT,LINK2,MULTICAST> mtu 296
sl1: flags=c010<POINTOPOINT,LINK2,MULTICAST> mtu 296
strip0: flags=0 mtu 1100
strip1: flags=0 mtu 1100

# OpenBSD, FreeBSD
$ /sbin/ifconfig
lo0: flags=8049<UP,LOOPBACK,RUNNING,MULTICAST> mtu 33224
    inet 127.0.0.1 netmask 0xff000000
    inet6 ::1 prefixlen 128
    inet6 fe80::1%lo0 prefixlen 64 scopeid 0x5
le1: flags=8863<UP,BROADCAST,NOTRAILERS,RUNNING,SIMPLEX,MULTICAST> mtu 1500
    address: 00:0c:29:25:df:00
    inet6 fe80::20c:29ff:fe25:df00%le1 prefixlen 64 scopeid 0x1
    inet 192.168.99.193 netmask 0xfffff00 broadcast 192.168.99.255
pflog0: flags=0<> mtu 33224
pfsync0: flags=0<> mtu 2020

# Solaris
$ /sbin/ifconfig -a
lo0: flags=1000849<UP,LOOPBACK,RUNNING,MULTICAST,IPv4> mtu 8232 index 1
    inet 127.0.0.1 netmask ff000000
pcn0: flags=1004843<UP,BROADCAST,RUNNING,MULTICAST,DHCP,IPv4> mtu 1500 index 2
    inet 192.168.99.159 netmask fffffff0 broadcast 192.168.99.255

# Mac
$ /sbin/ifconfig
lo0: flags=8049<UP,LOOPBACK,RUNNING,MULTICAST> mtu 16384
    inet 127.0.0.1 netmask 0xff000000
    inet6 ::1 prefixlen 128
    inet6 fe80::1%lo0 prefixlen 64 scopeid 0x1
gif0: flags=8010<POINTOPOINT,MULTICAST> mtu 1280
stf0: flags=0<> mtu 1280

en0: flags=8863<UP,BROADCAST,SMART,RUNNING,SIMPLEX,MULTICAST> mtu 1500
    inet6 fe80::20d:93ff:fe65:f720%en0 prefixlen 64 scopeid 0x4
    inet 192.168.99.155 netmask 0xfffff00 broadcast 192.168.99.255
    ether 00:0d:93:65:f7:20
    media: autoselect (100baseTX <half-duplex>) status: active
    supported media: none autoselect 10baseT/UTP <half-duplex> 10baseT/UTP <full-
duplex>10baseT/UTP <full-duplex,hw-loopback> 100baseTX <half-duplex> 100baseTX
<full-duplex> 100baseTX <full-duplex,hw-loopback>
fw0: flags=8863<UP,BROADCAST,SMART,RUNNING,SIMPLEX,MULTICAST> mtu 2030
    lladdr 00:0d:93:ff:fe:65:f7:20
    media: autoselect <full-duplex> status: inactive
    supported media: autoselect <full-duplex>

```


See Also

- `man awk`
- `man curl`
- `man cut`
- `man head`
- `man lynx`
- `man perl`
- `man wget`
- <http://checkip.amazonaws.com>
- <http://checkip.dyndns.org>
- <http://whatismyip.akamai.com>
- <http://ipinfo.io>
- <http://xmodulo.com/how-to-find-the-public-ip-address-from-command-line.html>
- <http://www.faqs.org/rfcs/rfc1918.html>
- Recipe 15.9, “Using bash Net-Redirection”
- Recipe 15.12, “Redirecting Output for the Life of a Script”

15.11 Getting Input from Another Machine

Problem

Your script needs to get input from another machine, perhaps to check if a file exists or a process is running.

Solution

Use SSH with public keys and command substitution. To do this, set up SSH so that you do not need a password, as described in [Recipe 14.21](#). Next, tailor the command that SSH runs to output exactly what your script needs as input. Then simply use command substitution (see [Example 15-3](#)).

Example 15-3. ch15/command_substitution

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: command_substitution

REMOTE_HOST='host.example.com' # Required
```

```

REMOTE_FILE='/etc/passwd'      # Required
SSH_USER='user@'              # Optional, set to '' to not use
#SSH_ID='-i ~/.ssh/foo.id'    # Optional, set to '' to not use
SSH_ID=''

result=$(
  ssh $SSH_ID $SSH_USER$REMOTE_HOST \
    "[ -r $REMOTE_FILE ] && echo 1 || echo 0"
) || { echo "SSH command failed!" >&2; exit 1; }

if [ $result = 1 ]; then
  echo "$REMOTE_FILE present on $REMOTE_HOST"
else
  echo "$REMOTE_FILE not present on $REMOTE_HOST"
fi

```

Discussion

We do a few interesting things here. First, notice how both `SSH_USER` and `SSH_ID` work. They have an effect when they have a value, but when they are empty they interpolate to the empty set and are ignored. This allows us to abstract the values in the code, which lends itself to putting those values in a configuration file, putting the code into a function, or both:

```

# Interpolated line of the variables have values:
ssh -i ~/.ssh/foo.id user@host.example.com [...]

# No values:
ssh host.example.com [...]

```

Next, we set up the command that SSH runs so that there is always output (0 or 1), then check that `$result` is not empty. That's one way to make sure that the SSH command runs (see also [Recipe 4.4](#)). If `$result` is empty, we group commands using a `{ }` code block to issue an error message and exit. But since we're always getting output from the SSH command, we have to test the value; we can't just use `if [$result]`; then.

If we didn't use the code block, we'd only issue the warning if the SSH command returned an empty `$result`, but we'd *always* exit. Read the code again until you understand why, because this is an easy way to get bitten. Likewise, if we'd tried to use a `()` subshell instead of the `{ }` code block, our intent would fail because the `exit 1` would exit the subshell, not the script. The script would then continue even after the SSH command had failed—but the code would look *almost* correct, so this might be tricky to debug.

We could have written the last test case as follows:

```

[ $result = 1 ] && echo "$REMOTE_FILE present on $REMOTE_HOST" \
|| echo "$REMOTE_FILE not present on $REMOTE_HOST"

```

Which form to use depends on your style and the number of statements to execute in each situation. In this case it doesn't matter.

Finally, we've also been careful about formatting so that no lines are too long, but the code is still readable and our intent is clear.

See Also

- Recipe 2.14, "Saving or Grouping Output from Several Commands"
- Recipe 4.4, "Telling Whether a Command Succeeded or Not"
- Recipe 14.21, "Using SSH Without a Password"
- Recipe 17.20, "Grep'ing ps Output Without Also Getting the grep Process Itself"
- Recipe 17.21, "Finding Out Whether a Process Is Running"

15.12 Redirecting Output for the Life of a Script

Problem

You'd like to redirect output for an entire script, and you'd rather not have to edit every `echo` or `printf` statement.

Solution

Use a little-known feature of the `exec` command to redirect `STDOUT` or `STDERR`:

```
# Optional, save the "old" STDERR
exec 3>&2

# Redirect any output to STDERR to an error logfile instead
exec 2> /path/to/error_log

# Script with "globally" redirected STDERR goes here

# Turn off redirect by reverting STDERR and closing FH3
exec 2>&3-
```

Discussion

Usually `exec` replaces the running shell with the command supplied in its arguments, destroying the original shell. However, if no command is given, it can manipulate redirection in the current shell. You are not limited to redirecting `STDOUT` or `STDERR`, but they are the most common targets for redirection in this case.

See Also

- `help exec`
- [Recipe 15.9, “Using bash Net-Redirection”](#)

15.13 Working Around “Argument list too long” Errors

Problem

You get an “Argument list too long” error while trying to do an operation involving shell wildcard expansion.

Solution

Use the `xargs` command, possibly in conjunction with `find`, to break up your argument list.

For simple cases, just use a for loop or `find` instead of `ls`:

```
$ ls /path/with/many/many/files/*e*
/bin/bash: /bin/ls: Argument list too long

# Short demo, surrounding ~ are for illustration only
$ for i in ./some_files/*e*; do echo "$i~"; done
~/some_files/A file with (parens)~
~/some_files/A file with [brackets]~
~/some_files/File with embedded
newline~
~/some_files/file with = sign~
~/some_files/file with spaces~
~/some_files/file with |~
~/some_files/file with:~
~/some_files/file with;~
~/some_files/regular_file~

$ find ./some_files -name '*e*' -exec echo ~{}~ \;
~/some_files~
~/some_files/A file with [brackets]~
~/some_files/A file with (parens)~
~/some_files/regular_file~
~/some_files/file with spaces~
~/some_files/file with = sign~
~/some_files/File with embedded
newline~
~/some_files/file with;~
~/some_files/file with:~
~/some_files/file with |~
```

```
$ for i in /path/with/many/many/files/*e*; do echo "$i"; done
[This works, but the output is too long to list]
```

```
$ find /path/with/many/many/files/ -name '*e*'
[This works, but the output is too long to list]
```

This example works correctly with the *echo* command, but when you feed that "\$i" into other programs, especially other shell constructs, *\$IFS* and other parsing may come into play. The GNU *find* and *xargs* take that into account with `find -print0` and `xargs -0`. (No, we don't know why it's `-print0` and `-0` instead of being consistent.) These arguments cause *find* to use the null character (which can't appear in a filename) instead of whitespace as an output record separator, and *xargs* to use null as its input record separator. That will correctly parse files containing odd characters:

```
find /path/with/many/many/files/ -name '*e*' -print0 | xargs -0 proggy
```

Discussion

Note that the default behavior of *bash* (and *sh*) is to return unmatched patterns unchanged. That means you could end up with your `for` loop setting `$i` to `./some_files/*e*` if no files match the wildcard pattern. You can set the `shopt -s nullglob` option to cause filename patterns that match no files to expand to a null string, rather than expanding to themselves.

You might assume that the `for` loop solution in the simple case would run into the same problem as the *ls* command, but it doesn't. Chet Ramey tells us:

ARG_MAX bounds the total space requirement of the *exec** family of system calls, so the kernel knows the largest buffer it will have to allocate. This is all three arguments to *execve*: program name, argument vector, and environment.

The [*ls* command] fails because the total bytes taken up by the arguments to *execve* exceeds *ARG_MAX*. The [`for` loop] succeeds because everything is done internally: though the entire list is generated and stored, *execve* is never called.

Be careful that *find* doesn't find too many files, since it will recursively descend into all subdirectories by default while *ls* will not. Some versions of *find* have a `-maxdepth` option to control how deep it goes. Using the `for` loop may be easier.

Use the `getconf ARG_MAX` command to see what the limit is on your system. It varies wildly (see also `getconf LINE_MAX`;). [Table 15-1](#) lists some examples.



Per the [GNU Core Utilities FAQ](#), Linux 2.6.23+ removes this limit, though it may still be reported, or it may not yet be removed in your particular distribution's kernel.

Table 15-1. System limits

System	ARG_MAX limits (bytes)
HP-UX 11	2,048,000
Solaris (8, 9, 10)	1,048,320
NetBSD 2.0.2, OpenBSD 3.7, macOS	262,144
Linux (Red Hat, Debian, Ubuntu)	131,072
FreeBSD 5.4	65,536

See Also

- [Question 19 in the GNU Core Utilities FAQ](#)
- [Recipe 9.2, “Handling Filenames Containing Odd Characters”](#)

15.14 Logging to syslog from Your Script

Problem

You'd like your script to be able to log to *syslog*.

Solution

Use *logger*, *Netcat*, or *bash*'s built-in network redirection features.

logger is installed by default on most systems and is an easy way to send messages to the local *syslog* service:

```
logger -p local0.notice -t ${0##*/}[$$] test message
```

However, it does not send *syslog* to remote hosts by itself. If you need to do that, you can use *bash*:

```
echo "<133>${0##*/}[$$]: Test syslog message from bash" \  
> /dev/udp/loghost.example.com/514
```

or *Netcat*:

```
echo "<133>${0##*/}[$$]: Test syslog message from Netcat" | nc -w1 -u loghost 514
```

Netcat is known as the “TCP/IP Swiss Army knife” and is usually not installed by default. It may also be prohibited as a hacking tool by some security policies, though

bash's net-redirection features do pretty much the same thing. See the discussion in [Recipe 15.9](#) for details on the `<133>${0##*/}[$$]` part.

Discussion

`logger` and Netcat have many more features than we include here. See the respective manpages for details.

See Also

- `man logger`
- `man nc`
- [Recipe 15.9, “Using bash Net-Redirection”](#)

15.15 Using logger Correctly

Problem

You want to use the `logger` tool so your script can send `syslog` messages, but the defaults do not provide enough useful information.

Solution

Use `logger` as follows:

```
logger -t "${0##*/}[$$]" 'Your message here'
```

Discussion

In our opinion, failing to use the `-t` option to `logger` should at least trigger a warning, if not a fatal error. The `t` is for “tag,” and as the manpage says it will “[mark] every line to be logged with the specified tag.” In other words, without `-t` you will have a hard time telling where your message came from!

The tag of `${0##*/}[$$]` may look like gibberish, but it’s actually what you usually see when you look at `syslog` lines. It is just the basename of your script and the process ID (`$$`) in square brackets. Compare the command with and without the `-t` option:

```
$ logger -t "${0##*/}[$$]" 'Your message here'
$ tail -1 /var/log/syslog
Oct 26 12:16:01 hostname yourscript[977]: Your message here
$ logger 'Your message here'
$ tail -1 /var/log/syslog
Oct 26 12:16:01 hostname Your message here
$
```

logger has other interesting options and it's well worth reading the manpage, but be aware that some options may vary by age, version, and distribution, so you need to consider that if your script will run in the wild. For example, CentOS 5 and 6 versions of *logger* do not have the very useful `-n` option that the Debian/Ubuntu version has:

```
-n, --server server
    Write to the specified remote syslog server using UDP instead of
    to the builtin syslog routines.
```

See Also

- [Recipe 5.20, “Using bash for basename”](#)
- [Recipe 11.10, “Logging with Dates”](#)
- [Recipe 15.14, “Logging to syslog from Your Script”](#)
- `man logger`

15.16 Sending Email from Your Script

Problem

You'd like your script to be able to send email, optionally with attachments.

Solution

These solutions depend on your system having a compatible mailer (such as *mail*, *mailx*, or *mailto*), a message transfer agent (MTA) being installed and running, and proper configuration of your email environment. Unfortunately, you can't always count on all of that, so these solutions must be well tested in your intended environment.

The first way to send mail from your script is to write some code to generate and send a message, as follows:

```
# Simple
cat email_body | \
mail -s "Message subject" recipient1@example.com recipient2@example.com
```

or:

```
# Attachment only
uencode /path/to/attachment_file attachment_name | \
mail -s "Message Subject" recipient1@example.com recipient2@example.com
```

or:


```
# Attachment and body
(cat email_body ; uuencode /path/to/attachment_file attachment_name) | \
mail -s "Message Subject" recipient1@example.com recipient2@example.com
```

In practice, it's not always that easy. For one thing, while *uuencode* will probably be there, *mail* and friends may or may not, and their capabilities may vary. In some cases *mail* and *mailx* are even the same program, hard- or soft-linked together. In production, you will want to use some abstraction to allow for portability. For example, *mail* works on Linux and the BSDs, but *mailx* is required for Solaris since its *mail* lacks support for *-s*. *mailx* works on some Linux distributions (e.g., Debian), but not others. We choose the mailer based on hostname in [Example 15-4](#), but depending on your environment using `uname -o` might make more sense.

Example 15-4. ch15/email_sample

```
# cookbook filename: email_sample

# Define some mail settings. Use a case statement with uname or hostname
# to tweak settings as required for your environment.
case $HOSTNAME in
*.company.com      ) MAILER='mail'   ;; # Linux and BSD
host1.*            ) MAILER='mailx'  ;; # Solaris, BSD, and some Linuxes
host2.*            ) MAILER='mailto' ;; # Handy, if installed
esac
RECIPIENTS='recipient1@example.com recipient2@example.com'
SUBJECT="Data from $@"

[...]
# Create the body as a file or variable using echo, printf, or a here-document
# Create or modify $SUBJECT and/or $RECIPIENTS as needed
[...]

( echo $email_body ; uuencode $attachment $(basename $attachment) ) \
| $MAILER -s "$SUBJECT" "$RECIPIENTS"
```

We should also note that sending attachments in this way depends somewhat on the client you use to read the resulting message. Modern clients like Thunderbird (and Outlook) will detect a uuencoded message and present it as an attachment. Other clients may not. You can always save the message and *uudecode* it (*uudecode* is smart enough to skip the message part and just handle the attachment part), but that's a pain.

The second way to send mail from your scripts is to outsource the task to *cron*. While the exact feature set of *cron* varies from system to system, one thing in common is that any output from a *cron* job is mailed to the job's owner or the user defined using the MAILTO variable. You can take advantage of that fact to get emailing for free, assuming that your email infrastructure works.

The proper way to design a script intended to run from *cron* (and, many would argue, any script or Unix tool at all) is to make it silent unless it encounters a warning or error. If necessary, use a `-v` argument to optionally allow a more verbose mode, but don't run it that way from *cron*, at least after you've finished testing. The reason for this is as noted: *cron* emails you all the output. If you get an email message from *cron* every time your script runs, you'll soon start ignoring them. But if your script is silent except when there's a problem, you'll only get a notification when there is a problem, which is ideal.

Discussion

Note that *mailto* is intended to be a multimedia- and MIME-aware update to *mail*, and thus you could avoid using *uuencode* for sending attachments, but it's not as widely available as *mail* or *mailx*. If all else fails, *elm* or *mutt* may be used in place of *mail*, *mailx*, or *mailto*, though they are even less likely to be installed by default than *mail**. Also, some versions of these programs support a `-r` option to supply a return address in case you want to supply one. *mutt* also has a `-a` option that makes sending attachments a breeze:

```
cat "$message_body" | mutt -s "$subject" -a "$attachment_file" "$recipients"
```

mpack is another tool worth looking into, but it is very unlikely to be installed by default. Check your system's software repository or [download the source](#). From the manpage:

```
The mpack program encodes the named file in one or more MIME messages. The resulting messages are mailed to one or more recipients, written to a named file or set of files, or posted to a set of newsgroups.
```

Another way to handle the various names and locations of mail clients is shown in Chapter 8 of *Classic Shell Scripting* by Nelson H. F. Beebe and Arnold Robbins (O'Reilly), reprinted here as [Example 15-5](#).

Example 15-5. ch15/email_sample_css

```
# cookbook filename: email_sample_css
# From Chapter 8 of Classic Shell Scripting

for MAIL in /bin/mailx /usr/bin/mailx /usr/sbin/mailx /usr/ucb/mailx /bin/mail \
/usr/bin/mail; do
    [ -x $MAIL ] && break
done
[ -x $MAIL ] || { echo 'Cannot find a mailer!' >&2; exit 1; }
```

uuencode is an old method for translating binary data into ASCII text for transmission over links that could not support binary, which is to say most of the internet before it became *the internet* and the web. We have it on good authority that at least

some such links still remain, but even if you never encounter one it's still useful to be able to convert an attachment into an otherwise ASCII medium in such a way that modern mail clients will recognize it. See also *uuencode* and *mimeencode*. Note that uuencoded files are about one-third larger than their binary equivalent, so you probably want to compress the file before uuencoding it.

The problem with email, aside from the differing frontend mail user agent (MUA) programs like *mail* and *mailx*, is that there are a lot of moving parts that must all work together. This is exacerbated by the spam problem: mail administrators have had to so severely lock down mail servers that it can easily affect your scripts. All we can say here is to fully test your solution, and talk to your system and mail administrators if necessary.

One other problem you might see is that some workstation-oriented Linux distributions, such as Ubuntu, don't install or run an MTA by default since they assume you will be using a full-featured GUI client such as Evolution or Thunderbird. If that's the case, command-line MUAs and email from *cron* won't work either. Consult your distribution's support groups for help with this as needed.

Just Enough MTA for Cron

We can make a good argument, for security attack surface, spam and general maintainability reasons, that the only servers that should be running full MTAs are dedicated mail servers. So how do you send mail from all the other nodes that are not mail servers? You install a package like *nullmailer* for Debian and derivatives or *SSMTP* for Red Hat and derivatives.

While the configuration and implementation of those packages differ, the idea is the same: "just enough MTA for *cron*." We encourage everyone to install one of these or a similar package, because it's amazing how often you can catch mistakes and misconfigurations through *cron* messages. Even if you think you have full monitoring, the ability for your nodes to send email is very useful.

A trivial *nullmailer* configuration looks like this:

```
/etc/nullmailer/adminaddr
```

```
it@example.com
```

```
/etc/nullmailer/defaultdomain
```

```
example.com
```

```
Optional: /etc/nullmailer/pausetime
```

```
3600
```

```
/etc/nullmailer/remotes
```

```
mail.example.com smtp --port=587
```

A trivial SSMTP `/etc/ssmtp/ssmtp.conf` configuration looks like this:

```
root=it@example.com
mailhub=mail.example.com:587
```



Despite what we just said in the previous tip, you do not want to allow all your nodes to send email all over the place! That's just asking for trouble. We're assuming that you have proper firewall rules, including egress rules that only allow email out to the world from dedicated email servers. You also need to log those rules and monitor those logs—a node that suddenly starts sending a lot of email *anywhere* definitely needs to be carefully looked at, because it has some kind of problem or infection. And that's not always the kind of thing your regular monitoring for CPU use, disk space, etc. is likely to catch.

See Also

- `man mail`
- `man mailx`
- `man mailto`
- `man mutt`
- `man uuencode`
- `man cron`
- `man 5 crontab`

15.17 Automating a Process Using Phases

Problem

You have a long job or process you need to automate, but it may require manual intervention and you need to be able to restart at various points in the progress. You might use a `GOTO` to jump around, but `bash` doesn't have that.

Solution

Use a case statement to break your script up into sections or *phases*.

First, we'll define a standardized way to get answers from the user using [Example 15-6](#), from [Recipe 3.6](#).

Example 15-6. *ch03/func_choice.1*

```
# cookbook filename: func_choice.1

# Let the user make a choice about something and return a standardized
# answer. How the default is handled and what happens next is up to
# the if/then after the choice in main.
# Called like: choice <prompt>
# e.g. choice "Do you want to play a game?"
# Returns: global variable CHOICE
function choice {

    CHOICE=''
    local prompt="$*"
    local answer

    read -p "$prompt" answer
    case "$answer" in
        [yY1] ) CHOICE='y';;
        [nN0] ) CHOICE='n';;
        *      ) CHOICE="$answer";;
    esac
} # end of function choice
```

Then, we'll set up our phases as shown in [Example 15-7](#).

Example 15-7. *ch15/using_phases*

```
# cookbook filename: using_phases

# Main loop
until [ "$phase" = "Finished." ]; do

    case $phase in

        phase0 )
            ThisPhase=0
            NextPhase="$(( $ThisPhase + 1 ))"
            echo '#####'
            echo "Phase$ThisPhase = Initialization of FooBarBaz build"
            # Things that should only be initialized at the beginning of a
            # new build cycle go here

        # ...

            echo "Phase${ThisPhase}=Ending"
            phase="phase$NextPhase"

        ;;

        # ...

        phase20 )
```

```

ThisPhase=20
NextPhase=$(( $ThisPhase + 1 ))"
echo '#####'
echo "Phase$ThisPhase = Main processing for FooBarBaz build"

# ...

choice "[P$ThisPhase] Do we need to stop and fix anything? [y/N]: "
if [ "$choice" = "y" ]; then
    echo "Re-run '$MYNAME phase${ThisPhase}' after handling this."
    exit $ThisPhase
fi

echo "Phase${ThisPhase}=Ending"
phase="phase$NextPhase"
;;

# ...

* )
    echo "What the heck!?!? We should never get HERE! Gonna croak!"
    echo "Try $0 -h"
    exit 99
    phase="Finished."
;;
esac
printf "%b" "\a"      # Ring the bell
done

```

Discussion

Since exit codes only go up to 255, the `exit $ThisPhase` line limits you to that many phases. And our `exit 99` line limits you even more, although that one is easily adjusted. If you require more than 254 phases (plus 255 as the *error* code), you have our sympathy. You can either come up with a different exit code scheme, or chain several scripts together.

You should probably set up a usage and/or summary routine that lists the various phases:

```

Phase0 = Initialization of FooBarBaz build
...
Phase20 = Main processing for FooBarBaz build
...
Phase28 ...

```

You can probably *grep* most of the text out of the code with something like `grep 'Phase$ThisPhase' my_script`.

You may also want to log to a local flat file, *syslog*, or some other mechanism. In that case, define a function like `logmsg` and use it as appropriate in the code. It could be as simple as:

```
function logmsg {
    # Write a timestamped log message to the screen and logfile
    # Note tee -a to append
    # printf "%b" "$(date '+%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S'): $*" | tee -a $LOGFILE
    printf "%(%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S)T: %b\n" -1 "$*" | tee -a $LOGFILE
} # end of function logmsg
```

This function uses the newer *printf* format that supports time and date values. If you are using an older shell (before version 4), switch the *printf* with the commented *printf* line in this function.

You may note that this larger script violates our usual standard of being silent unless it encounters a problem. Since it is designed to be interactive, we're OK with that.

See Also

- [Recipe 3.5, “Getting User Input”](#)
- [Recipe 3.6, “Getting Yes or No Input”](#)
- [Recipe 11.10, “Logging with Dates”](#)
- [Recipe 15.14, “Logging to syslog from Your Script”](#)

15.18 Doing Two Things at Once

Problem

A pipeline of commands goes only one way, each process writing to the next in line. Can two processes converse with each other, each reading as its input the output of the other command?

Solution

Yes! As of version 4 of *bash*, the *coproc* command can do just that.

Example 15-8 is a simple example that uses the *bc* program, an arbitrary-precision calculator language, as a coprocess, allowing *bash* to send calculations to *bc* and read back the results. It's one way of giving *bash* the ability to do floating-point calculations, though we're only using it here as an example of the *coproc* command.



Note that *bash* must be compiled with `--enable-coprocesses` for this to work. That is the default, but some packages may not have it.

Example 15-8. *ch15/fpmath*

```
# cookbook filename: fpmath
# using coproc for floating-point math

# initialize the coprocess
# call this first
# before attempting any calls to fpmath
function fpinit ()
{
    coproc /usr/bin/bc

    bcin=${COPROC[1]}
    bcout=${COPROC[0]}
    echo "scale=5" >& ${bcin}
}

# compute with floating-point numbers
# by sending the args to bc
# then reading its response
function fpmath()
{
    echo "$@" >& ${bcin}
    if read -t 0.25 -u ${bcout} respnz
    then
        echo "$respnz"
    fi
}

#####
# main

fpinit

while read aline
do
    answer=$(fpmath "$aline")
    if [[ -n $answer ]]
    then
        echo $answer
    fi
done
```


Discussion

For our example we define two functions, `fpinit` and `fpmath`. The purpose of `fpinit` is to set up the coprocess. The purpose of `fpmath` is to get a floating-point calculation done by sending the request to the coprocess and reading back the result. To demonstrate these functions we wrote a `while` loop that prompts the user for input, then sends that input to the coprocess and reads back the result.

`coproc` will execute a command (or pipeline of commands) alongside the current shell process. In our case we gave it `/usr/bin/bc` (though a full path is not required; the shell will search `$PATH` as with any command). Furthermore, it creates two pipes, one connected to the standard output of the command and one connected to its standard input. These connections are stored in a shell array called `COPROC` by default. Index 0 of that array holds the output file descriptor of that process; index 1 holds the input file descriptor of that process.

That may seem backward to a systems programmer, but remember that the output of the coprocess can act as the input to the calling process (the shell script), and vice versa. To keep their usage clearer we assigned them to variables that describe how we will use them. We chose `$bcin` to hold the file descriptor to be used to send input to the `bc` command and `$bcout` to hold the file descriptor to be used to read its output.

We use these file descriptors in our `fpmath` function. To send a calculation to the `bc` process we echo the text of a calculation (for example, `"3.4 * 7.52"`) and redirect that output to the input file descriptor. In our example, that means that we redirect to `bcin`. To get the result back from `bc` we use the `read` command, which has an option (`-u`) that lets us specify the file descriptor from which to read. In our case we use `$bcout`.

We've also used the `-t` option on the `read` command. That option sets a timeout value after which the `read` will return, possibly empty-handed. We use that here since not every valid command to `bc` will result in output. (For example, `"x=5"` will store the value 5 in the variable `x` but will generate no output.) Versions of `bash` that are new enough to have the `coproc` command are also new enough to support a fractional value for the timeout value. Older versions only allowed integers.

See Also

- `man bash`
- `help coproc`

15.19 Running an SSH command on multiple hosts

Problem

You need to run a Command over SSH on Multiple Hosts.

Solution

Wrap your SSH command in a for loop:

```
$ for host in host1 host2 host3; do echo -n "On $host, I am: " ;
> ssh $host 'whoami' ; done
On host1, I am: root
On host2, I am: jp
On host3, I am: jp
$
```

Discussion

This looks very easy, and it is when everything works, but there are a few points to keep in mind.

First, all of the underlying networking and the firewall, DNS, and similar aspects have to already be working.

Second, while not strictly necessary, it's much more convenient to do this when using SSH keys, so you'll want to read [Recipe 14.21](#).

Third, you can quickly run into quoting issues in the SSH command. For example, consider:

```
$ for host in host{1..3};
> do echo "$host:" ;
> ssh $host 'grep "$HOSTNAME" /etc/hosts' ;
> done
```

That's straightforward—we enclose the *ssh* command in single quotes so that our local *bash* shell will not interpolate it, and we enclose our *grep* argument in double quotes for clarity, since that is not strictly needed. But what if we have some variables that our local *bash* needs to interpolate and others that the remote *bash* must handle? Or what if we actually need to *grep* for single quotes?

We can handle those problems by enclosing the *ssh* command in double quotes, then escaping any variables and/or double quotes needed on the remote side, but it gets ugly fast:

```
$ for host in host{1..3};
> do ssh $host "echo \"Local '$host' is remote '\$HOSTNAME'\";" ;
> done
Local 'host1' is remote 'host1'
```

```
Local 'host2' is remote 'host2'  
Local 'host3' is remote 'host3'  
$
```

We would like to point out that you can do amazing things in the OpenSSH configuration file, and it's well worth spending some time learning about, but unfortunately that is well beyond the scope of this book.

We should also point out that while this can be a handy technique, you are better off learning and using a real configuration management system (CMS) for these kinds of tasks. We really like [Ansible](#), but there are many options, including at least one written in *bash* itself: <https://github.com/wffls/waffles>.

See Also

- [Recipe 14.21, “Using SSH Without a Password”](#)
- [Recipe 14.22, “Restricting SSH Commands”](#)
- `man ssh`
- `man ssh_config`
- <https://github.com/wffls/waffles>
- <https://www.ansible.com/>

Configuring and Customizing *bash*

Would you want to work in an environment where you couldn't adjust things to your liking? Imagine not being able to adjust the height of your chair, or being forced to walk the long way to the lunchroom, just because someone else thought that was the "right way." That sort of inflexibility wouldn't be acceptable for long; however, that's what most users expect, and accept, from their computing environments. But if you're used to thinking of your user interface as something inflexible and unchangeable, relax—the user interface is not carved in stone. *bash* lets you customize it so that it works with you, rather than against you.

bash gives you a very powerful and flexible environment. Part of that flexibility is the extent to which it can be customized. If you're a casual Unix user, or if you're used to a less flexible environment, you might not be aware of what's possible. This chapter shows you how to configure *bash* to suit your individual needs and style. If you think the Unix *cat* command has a ridiculous name (most non-Unix people would agree), you can define an alias that renames it. If you use a few commands all the time, you can assign abbreviations to them, too—or even misspellings that correspond to your favorite typing errors (e.g., "mroe" for the *more* command). You can create your own commands, which can be used the same way as standard Unix commands. You can alter the prompt so that it contains useful information (like the current directory). And you can alter the way *bash* behaves; for example, you can make it case-insensitive, so that it doesn't care about the difference between upper- and lowercase. You will be surprised and pleased at how much you can improve your productivity with a few simple *bash* tweaks, especially to *readline*.

For more information about customizing and configuring *bash*, see Chapter 3 of *Learning the bash Shell*, 3rd Edition, by Cameron Newham (O'Reilly).

16.1 bash Startup Options

Problem

You'd like to understand the various options you can use when starting *bash*, but `bash --help` is not helping you.

Solution

In addition to `bash --help`, try `bash -c "help set"` and `bash -c help`, or just `help set` and `help` if you are already running in a *bash* shell.

Discussion

bash sometimes has several different ways to set the same option, and this is an example of that. You can set an option on startup (for example, `bash -x`), then later turn the same option off interactively using `set +x`.

See Also

- [Appendix A](#)
- [Recipe 19.12, “Testing bash Script Syntax”](#)

16.2 Customizing Your Prompt

Problem

The default *bash* prompt is usually something uninformative that ends with `$` and doesn't tell you much. You would like to customize it to show information you find useful.

Solution

Customize the `$PS1` and `$PS2` variables as you desire.

The default prompt varies depending on your system. *bash* itself will show its major and minor version (`\s-\v\`); for example, `bash-3.00$`. However, your operating system may have its own default, such as `[user@host~]$ ([\u@\h\W]\)` for some versions of Fedora. Our solution presents eight basic prompts and three fancier prompts.

Basic prompts

Here are eight examples of more useful prompts that will work with *bash* 1.14.7 or newer. The trailing `\$` displays `#` if the effective UID is zero (i.e., you are *root*) and `$` otherwise:

1. Username@hostname, the date and time, and the current working directory:

```
$ export PS1='[\u@\h \d \A] \w \$ '
[jp@freebsd Wed Dec 28 19:32] ~ $ cd /usr/local/bin/
[jp@freebsd Wed Dec 28 19:32] /usr/local/bin $
```

2. Username@long-hostname, the date and time in ISO 8601 format, and the base-name of the current working directory (`\w`):

```
$ export PS1='[\u@\H \D{%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S%z}] \W \$ '
[jp@freebsd.jpdomain.org 2005-12-28 19:33:03-0500] ~ $ cd /usr/local/
[jp@freebsd.jpdomain.org 2005-12-28 19:33:06-0500] local $
```

3. Username@hostname, the *bash* version, and the current working directory (`\w`):

```
$ export PS1='[\u@\h \V \w] \$ '
[jp@freebsd 3.00.16] ~ $ cd /usr/local/bin/
[jp@freebsd 3.00.16] /usr/local/bin $
```

4. Newline, username@hostname, base PTY, shell level, history number, newline, and full working directory name (`$PWD`):

```
$ export PS1='\n[\u@\h \l:$SHLVL:~]\n$PWD\$ '

[jp@freebsd tty0:3:21]
/home/jp$ cd /usr/local/bin/

[jp@freebsd tty0:3:22]
/usr/local/bin$
```

PTY is the number of the pseudoterminal (in Linux terms) to which you are connected. This is useful when you have more than one session and are trying to keep track of which is which. Shell level is the depth of subshells you are in. When you first log in it's 1, and as you run subprocesses (for example, *screen*) it increments, so after running *screen* it would normally be 2. The history line is the number of the current command in the command history.

5. Username@hostname, the exit status of the last command, and the current working directory. Note the exit status will be reset (and thus useless) if you execute any commands from the prompt:

```
$ export PS1='[\u@\h $? \w \$ '
[jp@freebsd 0 ~ $ cd /usr/local/bin/
[jp@freebsd 0 /usr/local/bin $ true
[jp@freebsd 0 /usr/local/bin $ false
```

```
[jp@freebsd 1 /usr/local/bin $ true
[jp@freebsd 0 /usr/local/bin $
```

6. Newline, username@hostname, and the number of jobs the shell is currently managing. This can be useful if you run a lot of background jobs and forget that they are there:

```
$ export PS1='\n[\u@\h jobs:\j]\n$PWD\$ '

[jp@freebsd jobs:0]
/tmp$ ls -lar /etc > /dev/null &
[1] 96461

[jp@freebsd jobs:1]
/tmp$
[1]+ Exit 1          ls -lar /etc >/dev/null

[jp@freebsd jobs:0]
/tmp$
```

This example goes really crazy and shows everything.

7. Newline, username@hostname, terminal, shell, level, history, number of jobs, *bash* version, and full working directory:

```
$ export PS1='\n[\u@\h t:\l l:$SHLVL h:!\ j:\j v:\V]\n$PWD\$ '

[jp@freebsd t:ttyp1 l:2 h:91 j:0 v:3.00.16]
/home/jp$
```

8. Newline, username@hostname, T for terminal, L for shell level, C for command number, and date and time in ISO 8601 format:

```
$ PS1='\n[\u@\h:T\L:L$SHLVL:C\!:\D{%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S_%Z}]\n$PWD\$ '

[jp@freebsd:Tttyp1:L1:C337:2006-08-13_03:47:11_EDT]
/home/jp$ cd /usr/local/bin/

[jp@freebsd:Tttyp1:L1:C338:2006-08-13_03:47:16_EDT]
/usr/local/bin$
```

This prompt is one you will either love or hate. It shows very clearly who did what, when, and where and is great for documenting steps you took for some task via a simple copy and paste from a scrollback buffer—but some people find it much too cluttered and distracting.

Fancy prompts

Here are three fancy prompts that use ANSI escape sequences for colors, or to set the contents of the title bar in an xterm—but be aware that these will not always work.

There are a bewildering array of variables in system settings, xterm emulation, and SSH and Telnet clients, all of which can affect these prompts.

Also, note that such escape sequences should be surrounded by `\[` and `\]`, which tells *bash* that the enclosed characters are nonprinting. Otherwise, *bash* (technically, really *readline*) will be confused about line lengths and wrap lines in the wrong place:

1. Username@hostname, and the current working directory in light blue (color not shown in print):

```
$ export PS1='\[\033[1;34m\][\u@\h:\w]\$\[\033[0m\] '
[jp@freebsd:~]$
[jp@freebsd:~]$ cd /tmp
[jp@freebsd:/tmp]$
```

2. Username@hostname, and the current working directory in both the xterm title bar and the prompt itself. If you are not running in an xterm this may produce garbage in your prompt:

```
$ export PS1='\[\033]0;\u@\h:\w\007\][\u@\h:\w]\$ '
[jp@ubuntu:~]$
[jp@ubuntu:~]$ cd /tmp
[jp@ubuntu:/tmp]$
```

3. Both color and xterm updates:

```
$ PS1='\[\033]0;\u@\h:\w\007\][\033[1;34m\][\u@\h:\w]\$\[\033[0m\] '
[jp@ubuntu:~]$
[jp@ubuntu:~]$ cd /tmp
[jp@ubuntu:/tmp]$
```

To save you some tedious typing if you want to try them out, all of these prompts are available in the file `./ch16/prompts` in this book's GitHub repository. The contents of that file are shown in [Example 16-1](#).

Example 16-1. ch16/prompts

```
# cookbook filename: prompts

# Username @ short hostname, the date and time, and the current working
# directory (CWD):
export PS1='\[\u@\h \d \A] \w \|$ '

# Username @ long hostname, the date and time in ISO 8601 format, and the
# basename of the current working directory (\W):
export PS1='\[\u@\H \D{%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S%Z}] \W \|$ '

# Username @ short hostname, bash version, and the current working
# directory (\w):
export PS1='\[\u@\h \V \w] \|$ '
```

```

# Newline, username @ short hostname, base PTY, shell level, history number,
# newline, and full working directory name ($PWD):
export PS1='\n[\u@\h \l:$SHLVL:!\]\n$PWD\$ '

# Username @ short hostname, the exit status of the last command, and the
# current working directory:
export PS1='[\u@\h $? \w \$ '

# Newline, username @ short hostname, and the number of jobs
# in the background:
export PS1='\n[\u@\h jobs:\j]\n$PWD\$ '

# Newline, username @ short hostname, terminal, shell, level, history, jobs,
# version and full working directory name:
export PS1='\n[\u@\h t:\l \l:$SHLVL h:\! j:\j v:\V]\n$PWD\$ '

# Newline, username @ short hostname, T for terminal, L for shell level, C
# command number, and the date and time in ISO 8601 format:
export PS1='\n[\u@\h:T\l:L$SHLVL:C\!:\D{%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S_%Z}]\n$PWD\$ '

# Username @ short hostname, and the current working directory in light
# blue:
export PS1='\[\033[1;34m\][\u@\h:\w]\$[\033[0m] '

# Username @ short hostname, and the current working directory in both the
# xterm title bar and the prompt itself:
export PS1='\[\033]0;\u@\h:\w\007\[\u@\h:\w]\$ '

# Both color and xterm updates:
export PS1='\[\033]0;\u@\h:\w\007\[\033[1;34m\][\u@\h:\w]\$[\033[0m] '

```

Discussion

Note that the `export` command need only be used once to flag a variable to be exported to child processes.

Assuming the `promptvars` shell option is set, which it is by default, prompt strings are decoded and expanded (via parameter expansion, command substitution, and arithmetic expansion), quotes are removed, and they are finally displayed. Prompt strings are `$PS0`, `$PS1`, `$PS2`, `$PS3`, and `$PS4`.

- `$PS0` is only available in `bash` version 4.4 or newer. For more on this “pre-execution” prompt, see the next recipe.
- The command prompt is `$PS1`.

- The \$PS2 prompt is the secondary prompt displayed when *bash* needs more information to complete a command. It defaults to > but you may use anything you like.
- \$PS3 is the select prompt (see [Recipe 3.7, “Selecting from a List of Options”](#) and [Recipe 6.16, “Creating Simple Menus”](#)), which defaults to #?.
- \$PS4 is the *xtrace* (debugging) prompt, with a default of +. Note that the first character of \$PS4 is replicated as many times as needed to denote levels of indentation in the currently executing command:

```
$ export PS2='Secondary> '

$ for i in *
Secondary> do
Secondary> echo $i
Secondary> done
cheesy_app
data_file
hard_to_kill
mcd
mode

$ export PS3='Pick me: '

$ select item in 'one two three'; do echo $item; done
1) one two three
Pick me: ^C

$ export PS4='+ debugging> '

$ set -x

$ echo $( echo $( for i in *; do echo $i; done ) )
+++ debugging> for i in '*'
+++ debugging> echo cheesy_app
+++ debugging> for i in '*'
+++ debugging> echo data_file
+++ debugging> for i in '*'
+++ debugging> echo hard_to_kill
+++ debugging> for i in '*'
+++ debugging> echo mcd
+++ debugging> for i in '*'
+++ debugging> echo mode
++ debugging> echo cheesy_app data_file hard_to_kill mcd mode
+ debugging> echo cheesy_app data_file hard_to_kill mcd mode
cheesy_app data_file hard_to_kill mcd mode
```

Since the \$PS1 prompt is only useful when you are running *bash* interactively, the best place to set it is either globally in */etc/bashrc* or locally in *~/.bashrc*.

As a style note, we recommend putting a space character as the last character in the `$PS1` string. It makes it easier to read what is on your screen by separating the prompt string from the commands that you type. For this reason, and because your string may contain other spaces or special characters, it is a good idea to use double or even single quotes to quote the string when you assign it to `$PS1`.

There are at least three easy ways to display your current working directory (CWD) in your prompt: `\w`, `\W`, and `$PWD`. `\w` will print the *basename*, or last part of the directory path, while `\W` will print the entire path. Note that both will print `~` instead of whatever `$HOME` is set to when you are in your home directory. That drives some people crazy, so to print the entire CWD, use `$PWD`. Printing the entire CWD will cause the prompt to change length, and it can even wrap in deep directory structures. That can drive other people crazy. If you have *bash* 4 or newer, just use `$PROMPT_DIRTRIM` with `\w` or `\W` (it does not affect `$PWD`). The [Bash Reference Manual](#) describes this variable as follows:

If set to a number greater than zero, the value is used as the number of trailing directory components to retain when expanding the `\w` and `\W` prompt string escapes.... Characters removed are replaced with an ellipsis.

If you can use `$PROMPT_DIRTRIM` you should, but if you can't, [Example 16-2](#) provides a function to truncate the working directory and a prompt to use the function.

Example 16-2. ch16/func_trunc_PWD

```
# cookbook filename: func_trunc_PWD
```

```
function trunc_PWD {  
    # $PWD truncation code adapted from The Bash Prompt HOWTO:  
    # 11.10. Controlling the Size and Appearance of $PWD  
    # http://www.tldp.org/HOWTO/Bash-Prompt-HOWTO/x783.html  
  
    # How many characters of the $PWD should be kept  
    local pwdmaxlen=30  
    # Indicator that there has been directory truncation:  
    local trunc_symbol='...'  
    # Temp variable for PWD  
    local myPWD=$PWD  
  
    # Replace any leading part of $PWD that matches $HOME with '~'  
    # OPTIONAL, comment out if you want the full path!  
    myPWD=${PWD/$HOME/~}  
  
    if [ ${#myPWD} -gt $pwdmaxlen ]; then  
        local pwdoffset=$(( ${#myPWD} - $pwdmaxlen ))  
        echo "${trunc_symbol}${myPWD:pwdoffset:$pwdmaxlen}"  
    else  
        echo "$myPWD"  
    fi
```

```
fi
}
```

Here's a demonstration:

```
$ source file/containing/trunc_PWD

[jp@freebsd tty0:3:60]
~/this is a bunch/of really/really/really/long directories/did I mention really/
really/long$export PS1='\n[\u@\h \l:$SHLVL:!\]\n$(trunc_PWD)\$ '

[jp@freebsd tty0:3:61]
...d I mention really/really/long$
```

You will notice that the prompts here are single-quoted so that \$ and other special characters are taken literally. The prompt string is evaluated at display time, so the variables are expanded as expected. Double quotes may also be used, though in that case you must escape shell metacharacters, e.g., by using \ \$ instead of \$.

The command number and the history number are usually different: the history number of a command is its position in the history list, which may include commands restored from the history file, while the command number is the position in the sequence of commands executed during the current shell session.

There is also a special variable called \$PROMPT_COMMAND, which if set is interpreted as a command to execute before the evaluation and display of \$PS1. The issue with that, and with using command substitution from within the \$PS1 prompt, is that these commands are executed every time the prompt is displayed, which is often. For example, you could embed a command substitution such as \$(ls -1 | wc -l) in your prompt to give you a count of files in the current working directory. But on an old or heavily utilized system in a large directory, that may result in significant delays before the prompt is presented and you can get on with your work. Prompts are best left short and simple (notwithstanding some of the monsters shown in the Solution section). Define functions or aliases to easily run on demand instead of cluttering up and slowing down your prompt.

To work around ANSI or xterm escapes that produce garbage in your prompt if they are not supported, you can use something like this in your rc file:

```
case $TERM in
  xterm*) export \
PS1='\[\033]0;\u@\h:\w\007\][\033[1;34m][\u@\h:\w]\$[\033[0m\]' ;;
  *) export PS1='\u@\h:\w\$ ' ;;
esac
```

See the section “Prompt String Customizations” on page 586 in Appendix A for more on this topic.

Colors

In the ANSI example we just discussed, `1;34m` means “set the character attribute to light, and the character color to blue.” `0m` means “clear all attributes and set no color.” See “ANSI Color Escape Sequences” on page 588 in Appendix A for the codes. The trailing `m` indicates a color escape sequence.

Example 16-3 is a script that displays all the possible combinations. If this does not display colors on your terminal, then ANSI color is not enabled or supported.

Example 16-3. `ch16/colors`

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: colors
#
# Daniel Crisman's ANSI color chart script from
# The Bash Prompt HOWTO: 6.1. Colours
# http://www.tldp.org/HOWTO/Bash-Prompt-HOWTO/x329.html.
#
# This file echoes a bunch of color codes to the
# terminal to demonstrate what's available. Each
# line is the color code of one foreground color,
# out of 17 (default + 16 escapes), followed by a
# test use of that color on all nine background
# colors (default + 8 escapes).
#

T='gYw' # The test text

echo -e "\n          40m    41m    42m    43m\
         44m    45m    46m    47m";

for FGs in '    m' '  1m' ' 30m' '1;30m' ' 31m' '1;31m' ' 32m' \
          '1;32m' ' 33m' '1;33m' ' 34m' '1;34m' ' 35m' '1;35m' \
          ' 36m' '1;36m' ' 37m' '1;37m'; do
    FG=${FGs// /}
    echo -en " $FGs \033[$FG $T "
    for BG in 40m 41m 42m 43m 44m 45m 46m 47m; do
        echo -en "$EINS \033[$FG\033[$BG $T \033[0m";
    done
done
echo;
```



If you'd like a simple way to try out some colorful themes for your terminal, check out [Bashish](#).

See Also

- The Bash Reference Manual
- `./examples/scripts.noah/prompt.bash` in the *bash* source tarball
- <http://www.tldp.org/HOWTO/Bash-Prompt-HOWTO/index.html>
- <http://sourceforge.net/projects/bashish>
- Recipe 1.3, “Decoding the Prompt”
- Recipe 3.7, “Selecting from a List of Options”
- Recipe 6.16, “Creating Simple Menus”
- Recipe 6.17, “Changing the Prompt on Simple Menus”
- Recipe 16.3, “A Prompt Before Your Program Runs”
- Recipe 16.12, “Using Secondary Prompts: \$PS2, \$PS3, \$PS4”
- Recipe 16.20, “Using Initialization Files Correctly”
- Recipe 16.21, “Creating Self-Contained, Portable rc Files”
- Recipe 16.22, “Getting Started with a Custom Configuration”
- “Prompt String Customizations” on page 586 in Appendix A
- “ANSI Color Escape Sequences” on page 588 in Appendix A

16.3 A Prompt Before Your Program Runs

Problem

You want to have a prompt print before the program runs, not just after it completes. It would be a handy way to timestamp start and finish times.

Solution

This solution is only for *bash* 4.4 or newer. That version of *bash* introduced the `$PS0` prompt. If set, the prompt string will be evaluated and printed prior to the execution of any command that you have typed.

Here’s a way to use both `$PS0` and `$PS1` to display start and end timestamps of commands that you run:

```
PS0='                               |t\n'  
PS1='-----|t\n|! \\$ '
```

Discussion

The pre-execution prompt is `$PS0`. It will be displayed just before the shell begins to execute your command. The leading blanks are there to move the output more to the right; feel free to add more blanks to move it farther to the right, or fewer to move it more to the left. Similarly, the dashes in `$PS1` move the timestamp to the right, and also delineate between commands, for easier visual scanning. Again, feel free to add more (or replace them with spaces) to taste.

The key element of both of these prompts is the `\t`. It will be translated into the timestamp. The `\n` is just a newline for proper formatting. If you set both prompts, as shown in the solution, and then run a command that may take a bit of time, like `sleep 5`, then you can see the resulting timestamps:

```
1037 $ echo 'sleep...' ; sleep 5; echo 'awake!'
                                     21:36:59
sleep...
awake!
----- 21:37:04
1038 $
```



If you'd like the `$PS0` prompt to print on the same line as the command that you typed, put an `\e[A` just before the `\t`. You'll probably want to add more spaces, too, to get the timestamp farther to the right.

To try out the prompt string before setting it, you can use another feature that is only for *bash* version 4.4 or newer. Assign the string to some variable and echo its value with the `@P` operator. For example:

```
$ MYTRY='    \! \h \t\n'
$ echo "${MYTRY}"
    \! \h \t\n
$ echo "${MYTRY@P}"
1015 monarch 14:07:45
```

```
$
```

Without the `@P` it will echo the characters as you typed them; with the `@P` it will interpret the special sequences as if it were a prompt string. When you have the variable showing what you want, then assign it to `$PS0`.

The timestamp resolution is only in seconds, so it is not meant for precise performance measurements, but it can be very useful in looking back over a series of commands (especially if you walked away from your screen to get coffee) to see what transpired and which commands took a long time to run.

See Also

- [Recipe 16.2, “Customizing Your Prompt”](#)

16.4 Changing Your \$PATH Permanently

Problem

You need to permanently change your path.

Solution

First you need to discover where the path is set, and then update it. For your local account, it's probably set in `~/.profile` or `~/.bash_profile`. Find the file with `grep -l PATH ~/.[^\.]*` and edit it with your favorite editor; then source the file to have the change take effect immediately.

If you are *root* and you need to set the path for the entire system, the basic procedure is the same, but there are different files in */etc* where the `$PATH` may be set, depending on your operating system and version. The most likely file is `/etc/profile`, but `/etc/bashrc`, `/etc/rc`, `/etc/default/login`, `~/.ssh/environment`, and the PAM `/etc/environment` files are also possible.

On some systems there is a directory called `/etc/profile.d` which contains shell scripts to be run on startup. You can modify an existing script or add a new script to this directory to accomplish your change. The various scripts in this directory are just there as a way to organize or modularize the various settings rather than having them all in one big file.

Discussion

The `grep -l PATH ~/.[^\.]*` command is interesting because of the nature of shell wildcard expansion and the existence of the `.` and `..` directories. See [Recipe 1.7](#) for details.

The locations listed in the `$PATH` have security implications, especially when you are *root*. If a world-writable directory is in *root's* path before the typical directories (i.e., `/bin`, `/sbin`), then a local user can create files that *root* might execute, doing arbitrary things to the system. This is the reason that the current directory (`.`) should not be in *root's* path either.

To avoid this issue:

- Make *root*'s path as short as possible, and never use relative paths.
- Avoid having world-writable directories in *root*'s path.
- Consider setting explicit paths in shell scripts run by *root*.
- Consider hardcoding absolute paths to utilities used in shell scripts run by *root*.
- Put user or application directories last in the `$PATH`, and then only for unprivileged users.

See Also

- [Recipe 1.7, “Showing All Hidden \(Dot\) Files in the Current Directory”](#)
- [Recipe 4.1, “Running Any Executable”](#)
- [Recipe 14.3, “Setting a Secure `\$PATH`”](#)
- [Recipe 14.9, “Finding World-Writable Directories in Your `\$PATH`”](#)
- [Recipe 14.10, “Adding the Current Directory to the `\$PATH`”](#)
- [Recipe 16.5, “Changing Your `\$PATH` Temporarily”](#)

16.5 Changing Your `$PATH` Temporarily

Problem

You want to add a directory to your `$PATH` (or remove one) for this session only.

Solution

There are several ways to handle this problem.

You can prepend or append a new directory using `PATH="newdir:$PATH"` or `PATH="$PATH:newdir"`, though you should make sure the directory isn't already in the `$PATH` first.

If you need to edit something in the middle of the path, you can *echo* the path to the screen, then use your terminal's kill and yank (copy and paste) facility to duplicate it on a new line and edit it. Or, you can add the “[m]acros that are convenient for shell interaction” from the *readline* documentation. Specifically:

```
# edit the path
"\C-xp": "PATH=${PATH}\e\C-e\C-a\ef\C-f"
# [...]
```

```
# Edit variable on current line.
"\M-\C-v": "\C-a\C-k\C-y\M-\C-e\C-a\C-y="
```

Then pressing Ctrl-X P will display the \$PATH on the current line for you to edit, while typing any variable name and pressing Meta-Ctrl-V will display that variable for editing. Very handy.

For simple cases you can also use the function in [Example 16-4](#) (adapted slightly from Red Hat Linux's */etc/profile*).

Example 16-4. ch16/func_pathmunge

```
# cookbook filename: func_pathmunge
# Adapted from Red Hat Linux

function pathmunge {
    if ! echo $PATH | /bin/egrep -q "(^|:)$1($|:)" ; then
        if [ "$2" = "after" ] ; then
            PATH="$PATH:$1"
        else
            PATH="$1:$PATH"
        fi
    fi
}
```

The *egrep* pattern looks for the value in \$1 between two pipe characters (|) or colons (:), at the beginning (^) or end (\$) of the \$PATH string. We chose to use a case statement in our function, and to force a leading and trailing : to do the same thing. It's theoretically faster since it uses a shell builtin, but the Red Hat version is more concise. Our version is also an excellent illustration of the fact that the *if* command works on *exit codes*, so the first *if* works by using the exit code set by *grep*, while the second requires the use of the test operator ([]).

For more complicated cases when you'd like a lot of error checking, you can source and then use the more generic functions in [Example 16-5](#).

Example 16-5. ch16/func_tweak_path

```
# cookbook filename: func_tweak_path

#####
# Add a directory to the beginning or end of your path as long as it's not
# already present. Does not take into account symbolic links!
# Returns: 1 or sets the new $PATH
# Called like: add_to_path <directory> (pre|post)
function add_to_path {
    local location=$1
    local directory=$2
```

```

# Make sure we have something to work with
if [ -z "$location" -o -z "$directory" ]; then
    echo "$0:$FUNCNAME: requires a location and a directory to add" >&2
    echo "e.g. add_to_path pre /bin" >&2
    return 1
fi

# Make sure the directory is not relative
if [ $(echo $directory | grep '^/') ]; then
    :echo "$0:$FUNCNAME: '$directory' is absolute" >&2
else
    echo "$0:$FUNCNAME: can't add relative directory '$directory' to \$PATH" >&2
    return 1
fi

# Make sure the directory to add actually exists
if [ -d "$directory" ]; then
    :echo "$0:$FUNCNAME: directory exists" >&2
else
    echo "$0:$FUNCNAME: '$directory' does not exist--aborting" >&2
    return 1
fi

# Make sure it's not already in the $PATH
if [ $(contains "$PATH" "$directory") ]; then
    echo "$0:$FUNCNAME: '$directory' already in \$PATH--aborting" >&2
else
    :echo "$0:$FUNCNAME: adding directory to \$PATH" >&2
fi

# Figure out what to do
case $location in
    pre* ) PATH="$directory:$PATH" ;;
    post* ) PATH="$PATH:$directory" ;;
    * ) PATH="$PATH:$directory" ;;
esac

# Clean up the new path, then set it
PATH=$(clean_path $PATH)
} # end of function add_to_path

#####
# Remove a directory from your path, if present.
# Returns: sets the new $PATH
# Called like: rm_from_path <directory>
function rm_from_path {
    local directory=$1

    # Remove all instances of $directory from $PATH

```

```

PATH=${PATH//${directory}/}

# Clean up the new path, then set it
PATH=$(clean_path $PATH)

} # end of function rm_from_path

#####
# Remove leading/trailing or duplicate ':', remove duplicate entries
# Returns: echoes the "cleaned up" path
# Called like: cleaned_path=$(clean_path $PATH)
function clean_path {
    local path=$1
    local newpath
    local directory

    # Make sure we have something to work with
    [ -z "$path" ] && return 1

    # Remove duplicate directories, if any
    for directory in ${path//:/ }; do
        contains "$newpath" "$directory" && newpath="${newpath}:${directory}"
    done

    # Remove any leading ':' separators
    # Remove any trailing ':' separators
    # Remove any duplicate ':' separators
    newpath=$(echo $newpath | sed 's/^:*//; s/:*$//; s/:*//g')

    # Return the new path
    echo $newpath
} # end of function clean_path

#####
# Determine if the path contains a given directory
# Return 1 if target is contained within pattern, 0 otherwise
# Called like: contains $PATH $dir
function contains {
    local pattern=":$1:"
    local target=$2

    # This will be a case-sensitive comparison unless nocasematch is set
    case $pattern in
        *:$target:* ) return 1;;
        * ) return 0;;
    esac
} # end of function contains

```

Use them as follows:

```

$ source chpath

$ echo $PATH
/bin:/usr/bin:/usr/local/bin:/usr/bin/X11:/usr/X11R6/bin:/home/jp/bin

$ add_to_path pre foo
-bash:add_to_path: can't add relative directory 'foo' to the $PATH

$ add_to_path post ~/foo
-bash:add_to_path: '/home/jp/foo' does not exist--aborting

$ add_to_path post '~/foo'
-bash:add_to_path: can't add relative directory '~/foo' to the $PATH

$ rm_from_path /home/jp/bin

$ echo $PATH
/bin:/usr/bin:/usr/local/bin:/usr/bin/X11:/usr/X11R6/bin

$ add_to_path /home/jp/bin
-bash:add_to_path: requires a location and a directory to add
e.g. add_to_path pre /bin

$ add_to_path post /home/jp/bin

$ echo $PATH
/bin:/usr/bin:/usr/local/bin:/usr/bin/X11:/usr/X11R6/bin:/home/jp/bin

$ rm_from_path /home/jp/bin

$ add_to_path pre /home/jp/bin

$ echo $PATH
/home/jp/bin:/bin:/usr/bin:/usr/local/bin:/usr/bin/X11:/usr/X11R6/bin

```

Discussion

There are four interesting things about this problem and the functions presented in [Example 16-5](#) in the Solution.

First, if you try to modify your `$PATH` or other environment variables in a shell script, it won't work because scripts run in subshells that go away when the scripts terminate, taking any modified environment variables with them. So instead, we source the functions into the current shell and run them from there.

Second, you may notice that `add_to_path post ~/foo` returns “does not exist” while `add_to_path post '~/foo'` returns “can't add relative directory.” That's because `~/foo` is expanded by the shell to `/home/jp/foo` before the function ever sees it. Not accounting for shell expansion is a common mistake. Use the `echo` command to see what the shell will actually pass to your scripts and functions.

Next, you may note the use of lines such as `echo "$0:$FUNCNAME:requires a location and a directory to add" >&2`. `$0:$FUNCNAME` is a handy way to identify exactly where an error message is coming from. `$0` is always the name of the current program (`-bash` in the usage examples, and the name of your script or program in other cases). Adding the function name makes it easier to track down problems when debugging. Echoing to `>&2` sends the output to `STDERR`, where runtime user feedback, especially including warnings or errors, should go.

Finally, you can argue that the functions have inconsistent interfaces, since `add_to_path` and `remove_from_path` actually set `$PATH`, while `clean_path` displays the cleaned-up path and `contains` returns true or false. We might not do it that way in production either, but it makes this example more interesting and shows different ways to do things. And we might argue that the interfaces make sense given what the functions do.

See Also

- [Recipe 10.5, “Using Functions: Parameters and Return Values”](#)
- [Recipe 14.3, “Setting a Secure \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 14.9, “Finding World-Writable Directories in Your \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 14.10, “Adding the Current Directory to the \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 16.4, “Changing Your \\$PATH Permanently”](#)
- [Recipe 16.22, “Getting Started with a Custom Configuration”](#)
- [Appendix B](#)

16.6 Setting Your \$CDPATH

Problem

You want to make it easier to switch between several directories in various locations.

Solution

Set your `$CDPATH` appropriately. Your commonly used directories will likely be unique, so for a contrived example, suppose you spend a lot of time working with *init*'s `rc` directories:

```
/home/jp$ cd rc3.d
bash: cd: rc3.d: No such file or directory

/home/jp$ export CDPATH='./etc'
```

```

/home/jp$ cd rc3.d
/etc/rc3.d

/etc/rc3.d$ cd rc5.d
/etc/rc5.d

/etc/rc5.d$ cd games
bash: cd: games: No such file or directory

/etc/rc5.d$ export CDPATH='.:/etc:/usr'

/etc/rc5.d$ cd games
/usr/games

/usr/games$

```

Discussion

According to the [Bash Reference Manual](#), `$CDPATH` is “a colon-separated list of directories used as a search path for the `cd` builtin command.” Think of it as `$PATH` for `cd`. It’s a little subtle, but can be very handy.

If the argument to `cd` begins with a slash, `$CDPATH` will not be used. If `$CDPATH` is used, the absolute pathname to the new directory is printed to `STDOUT`, as in our example.



Watch out when running `bash` in POSIX mode (e.g., as `/bin/sh` or with `--posix`). As the Bash Reference Manual notes:

If a non-empty directory name from `$CDPATH` is used, or if `-` is the first argument, and the directory change is successful, the absolute pathname of the new working directory is written to the standard output.

In other words, pretty much every time you use `cd` it will echo the new path to `STDOUT`, which is not the standard behavior.

Common directories to include in `$CDPATH` are:

- The current directory (optional because this is implied)
- ~/
Your home directory
- ..
The parent directory

It is important that your function return a nonzero value to indicate that the invocation of the command did not succeed. Other parts of your script, or other callers of your script, may be depending on that information.

Some administrators put a definition for the `command_not_found_handle` function in a system-wide `bashrc` file like `/etc/profile` or similar. In it, they look in `/usr/lib` or `/usr/share` for a Python script called `command-not-found` (note the dashes, not underscores). That script looks in packages for the command that just failed, to see if it can suggest installing a package to provide the missing command. While helpful in some situations, it is just noise for those cases where the command was simply mistyped.

See Also

- [Recipe 10.4, “Defining Functions”](#)
- [Recipe 10.5, “Using Functions: Parameters and Return Values”](#)
- [Recipe 19.14, “Avoiding “command not found” When Using Functions”](#)

16.8 Shortening or Changing Command Names

Problem

You’d like to shorten a long or complex command you use often, or you’d like to rename a command you can’t remember or find awkward to type.

Solution

Do not manually rename or move executable files, as many aspects of Unix and Linux depend on certain commands existing in certain places; instead, you should use aliases, functions, and possibly symbolic links.

According to the [Bash Reference Manual](#), “*Aliases* allow a string to be substituted for a word when it is used as the first word of a simple command. The shell maintains a list of aliases that may be set and unset with the `alias` and `unalias` builtin commands.” This means that you can rename commands, or create a macro, by listing many commands in one alias; for example, `alias copy='cp'` or `alias ll.='ls -ld .*'`.

Aliases are only expanded once, so you can change how a command works, as with `alias ls='ls -F'`, without going into an endless loop. In most cases only the first word of the command line is checked for alias expansion, and aliases are strictly text substitutions; they *cannot use arguments* to themselves. In other words, you can’t do `alias='mkdir $1 && cd $1'` because that doesn’t work.

Functions are used in two different ways. First, they can be sourced into your interactive shell, where they become, in effect, shell scripts that are always held in memory. They are usually small, and are very fast since they are already in memory and are executed in the current process, not in a spawned subshell. Second, they may be used within a script as subroutines. Functions do allow arguments. For example, as seen in [Example 16-6](#) (from [Recipe 6.19](#)):

Example 16-6. ch06/func_calc

```
# cookbook filename: func_calc

# Trivial command-line calculator
function calc {
    # INTEGER ONLY! --> echo The answer is: $(( $* ))
    # Floating point
    awk "BEGIN {print \"The answer is: \" $* }";
} # end of calc
```

For personal or system-wide use, you are probably better off using aliases or functions to rename or tweak commands, but symbolic links are very useful in allowing a command to be in more than one place at a time. For example, Linux systems almost always use `/bin/bash` while other systems may use `/usr/bin/bash`, `/usr/local/bin/bash`, or `/usr/pkg/bin/bash`. While there is a better way to handle this particular issue (using `env`; see [Recipe 15.1](#)), in general symbolic links may be used as a workaround. We do not recommend using hard links, as they are harder to see if you are not looking for them, and they are more easily disrupted by badly behaved editors and such. Symbolic links are just more obvious and intuitive.

Discussion

Usually, only the first word of a command line is checked for alias expansion. However, if the last character of the value of that alias is a space, the next word will be checked as well. In practice, this is rarely an issue.

Since in `bash` aliases can't use arguments (unlike in `csh`), you'll need to use a function if you need to pass in arguments. Because both aliases and functions reside in memory, this is not a big difference.

Unless the `expand_aliases` shell option is set, aliases are not expanded when the shell is not interactive. Best practices for writing scripts dictate that you not use aliases, since they may not be present on another system. You also need to define functions inside your script, or explicitly source them before use (see [Recipe 19.14](#)). Thus, the best place to define them is in your global `/etc/bashrc` or your local `~/.bashrc`.

See Also

- Recipe 6.19, “Creating a Command-Line Calculator”
- Recipe 10.4, “Defining Functions”
- Recipe 10.5, “Using Functions: Parameters and Return Values”
- Recipe 10.7, “Redefining Commands with alias”
- Recipe 14.4, “Clearing All Aliases”
- Recipe 15.1, “Finding bash Portably for #!”
- Recipe 16.20, “Using Initialization Files Correctly”
- Recipe 16.21, “Creating Self-Contained, Portable rc Files”
- Recipe 16.22, “Getting Started with a Custom Configuration”
- Recipe 19.14, “Avoiding “command not found” When Using Functions”

16.9 Adjusting Shell Behavior and Environment

Problem

You want to adjust your shell environment to account for the way you work, your physical location, your language, and more.

Solution

See the tables in the sections “Builtin Shell Variables” on page 591, “set Options” on page 596, and “shopt Options” on page 597 in Appendix A.

Discussion

There are three ways to adjust various aspects of your environment. *set* is standardized in POSIX and uses one-letter options. *shopt* is specifically for *bash* shell options. And there are many environment variables in use for historical reasons, as well as for compatibility with many third-party applications. How you adjust what, and where, can be very confusing. The tables in Appendix A will help you sort it out, but they’re too big to duplicate here.

See Also

- `help set`
- `help shopt`
- The *bash* documentation (see <http://www.bashcookbook.com>)

- “Builtin Shell Variables” on page 591 in Appendix A
- “set Options” on page 596 in Appendix A
- “shopt Options” on page 597 in Appendix A

16.10 Adjusting readline Behavior Using `.inputrc`

Problem

You’d like to adjust the way `bash` handles input, especially command completion. For example, you’d like it to be case-insensitive.

Solution

Edit or create a `~/.inputrc` or `/etc/inputrc` file, as appropriate. There are many parameters you can adjust to your liking. To have `readline` use your file when it initializes, set `$INPUTRC`; for example, use `INPUTRC=~/.inputrc`. To reread the file and apply or test after making changes, use `bind -f filename`.

We recommend you explore the `readline` documentation and the `bind` command—especially `bind -v`, `bind -l`, `bind -s`, and `bind -p`, though the last one is rather long and cryptic.

For more on configuring `readline`, see “[readline Init File Syntax](#)” on page 612 in [Appendix A](#). Some useful settings for users from other environments, notably Windows, are:

```
# This is a SUBSET of interesting inputrc settings, see Chapter 16:
# "Getting Started with a Custom Configuration" for a longer example
# To reread (and implement changes to this file) use:
# bind -f $SETTINGS/inputrc

# First, include any system-wide bindings and variable
# assignments from /etc/inputrc
# (fails silently if file doesn't exist)
$include /etc/inputrc

$if Bash
# Ignore case when doing completion
set completion-ignore-case on
# Completed dir names have a slash appended
set mark-directories on
# Completed names which are symlinks to dirs have a slash appended
set mark-symlinked-directories on
# List ls -F for completion
set visible-stats on
# Cycle through ambiguous completions instead of list
"\C-i": menu-complete
```

```

# Set bell to audible
set bell-style audible
# List possible completions instead of ringing bell
set show-all-if-ambiguous on

# From the readline documentation at
# https://cnswww.cns.cwru.edu/php/chet/readline/readline.html#SEC12
# Macros that are convenient for shell interaction
# edit the path
"\C-xp": "PATH=${PATH}\e\C-e\C-a\ef\C-f"
# prepare to type a quoted word -- insert open and close double quotes
# and move to just after the open quote
"\C-x\"": "\"\\"\C-b"
# insert a backslash (testing backslash escapes in sequences and macros)
"\C-x\|": "\\|"
# Quote the current or previous word
"\C-xq": "\eb"\ef\"
# Add a binding to refresh the line, which is unbound
"\C-xr": redraw-current-line
# Edit variable on current line.
#"M-|C-v": "|C-a|C-k$|C-y|M-|C-e|C-a|C-y="
"\C-xe": "\C-a\C-k$|C-y|M-|C-e\C-a\C-y="
$endif

```

You will want to experiment with these and other settings. Also note the `$include` to use the system settings, but make sure you can change them if you like. See [Recipe 16.22](#) for the downloadable file.

Discussion

Many people are not aware of how customizable, not to mention powerful and flexible, the GNU *Readline* library is. Having said that, there is no “one size fits all” approach. You should work out a configuration that suits your needs and habits.

Note the first time *readline* is called it performs its normal startup file processing, including looking at `$INPUTRC`, or defaulting to `~/.inputrc` if that’s not set.

See Also

- `help bind`
- The *readline* docs (see <http://www.bashcookbook.com/bashinfo/#readline>)
- [Recipe 16.21](#), “Creating Self-Contained, Portable rc Files”
- [Recipe 16.22](#), “Getting Started with a Custom Configuration”
- “*readline* Init File Syntax” on page 612 in [Appendix A](#)

16.11 Keeping a Private Stash of Utilities by Adding `~/bin`

Problem

You have a stash of personal utilities you like to use, but you are not *root* on the system and can't place them into the normal locations like `/bin` or `/usr/local/bin`, or there is some other reason to separate them.

Solution

Create a `~/bin` directory, place your utilities in it, and add it to your path:

```
PATH="$PATH:~/bin"
```

You'll want to make this change in one of your shell initialization files, such as `~/.bashrc`. Some systems already add `$HOME/bin` as the last directory in a nonprivileged user account by default, so check first.

Discussion

As a fully qualified shell user (well, you bought this book), you'll certainly be creating lots of scripts. It's inconvenient to invoke scripts with their full pathname. By collecting your scripts in a `~/bin` directory, you can make your scripts look like regular Unix programs—at least to you.

For security reasons, don't put your `bin` directory at the start of your path. Starting your path with `~/bin` makes it easy to override system commands, which is inconvenient if it happens accidentally (we've all done it), and dangerous if it's done maliciously.

See Also

- [Recipe 14.9, “Finding World-Writable Directories in Your \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 14.10, “Adding the Current Directory to the \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 16.4, “Changing Your \\$PATH Permanently”](#)
- [Recipe 16.5, “Changing Your \\$PATH Temporarily”](#)
- [Recipe 16.8, “Shortening or Changing Command Names”](#)
- [Recipe 19.4, “Naming Your Script “test””](#)

16.12 Using Secondary Prompts: \$PS2, \$PS3, \$PS4

Problem

You'd like to understand what the \$PS2, \$PS3, and \$PS4 prompts do.

Solution

\$PS2 is called the *secondary prompt string* and is used when you are interactively entering a command that you have not completed yet. It is usually set to `>`, but you can redefine it. For example:

```
$ export PS2='Secondary: '  
  
$ for i in $(ls)  
Secondary: do  
Secondary: echo $i  
Secondary: done  
colors  
deepdir  
trunc_PWD
```

\$PS3 is the *select prompt*, and is used by the `select` statement to prompt the user for a value. It defaults to `#?`, which isn't very intuitive. You should change it before using the `select` command; for example:

```
$ select i in $(ls)  
Secondary: do  
Secondary: echo $i  
Secondary: done  
1) colors  
2) deepdir  
3) trunc_PWD  
#? 1  
colors  
#? ^C  
  
$ export PS3='Choose a directory to echo: '  
  
$ select i in $(ls); do echo $i; done  
1) colors  
2) deepdir  
3) trunc_PWD  
Choose a directory to echo: 2  
deepdir  
Choose a directory to echo: ^C
```

\$PS4 is displayed during trace output. Its first character is shown as many times as necessary to denote the nesting depth. The default is `+`. For example:


```

$ cat demo
#!/usr/bin/env bash

set -o xtrace

alice=girl
echo "$alice"

ls -l $(type -path vi)

echo line 10
ech0 line 11
echo line 12

$ ./demo
+ alice=girl
+ echo girl
girl
++ type -path vi
+ ls -l /usr/bin/vi
-r-xr-xr-x 6 root wheel 285108 May 8 2005 /usr/bin/vi
+ echo line 10
line 10
+ ech0 line 11
./demo: line 11: ech0: command not found
+ echo line 12
line 12

$ export PS4='+xtrace $LINENO: '

$ ./demo
+xtrace 5: alice=girl
+xtrace 6: echo girl
girl
++xtrace 8: type -path vi
+xtrace 8: ls -l /usr/bin/vi
-r-xr-xr-x 6 root wheel 285108 May 8 2005 /usr/bin/vi
+xtrace 10: echo line 10
line 10
+xtrace 11: ech0 line 11
./demo: line 11: ech0: command not found
+xtrace 12: echo line 12
line 12

```

Discussion

The `$PS4` prompt uses the `$LINENO` variable, which returns the line number in the function. Also note the single quotes, which defer expansion of the variable until display time.

See Also

- [Recipe 1.3, “Decoding the Prompt”](#)
- [Recipe 3.7, “Selecting from a List of Options”](#)
- [Recipe 6.16, “Creating Simple Menus”](#)
- [Recipe 6.17, “Changing the Prompt on Simple Menus”](#)
- [Recipe 16.2, “Customizing Your Prompt”](#)
- [Recipe 19.13, “Debugging Scripts”](#)

16.13 Synchronizing Shell History Between Sessions

Problem

You run more than one *bash* session at a time and you would like to have a shared history between them. You'd also like to prevent the last session closed from clobbering the history from any other sessions.

Solution

Use the *history* command to synchronize your history between sessions manually or automatically.

Discussion

Using the default settings, the last shell to gracefully exit will overwrite your history file, so unless it is synchronized with any other shells you had open at the same time, it will clobber their histories. Using the shell option shown in [Recipe 16.14](#) to append rather than overwrite the history file helps, but keeping your history in sync across sessions may offer additional benefits.

Manually synchronizing history involves writing an alias to append the current history to the history file (`history -a`), then rereading anything new in that file into the current shell's history (`history -n`):

```
alias hs='history -a ; history -n'
```

The disadvantage to this approach is that you must manually run the commands in each shell when you want to synchronize your history.

To automate that approach, you could use the `$PROMPT_COMMAND` variable:

```
PROMPT_COMMAND='history -a ; history -n'
```

The value of `$PROMPT_COMMAND` is interpreted as a command to execute each time the default interactive prompt, `$PS1`, is displayed. The disadvantage to that approach is that it runs those commands *every time* `$PS1` is displayed. That is very often, and on a heavily loaded or slower system that can cause a significant slowdown in your shell, especially if you have a large history.

See Also

- `help history`
- [Recipe 16.14, “Setting Shell History Options”](#)

16.14 Setting Shell History Options

Problem

You’d like more control over your command-line history.

Solution

Set the `$HIST*` variables and shell options as desired.

Discussion

The `$HISTFILESIZE` variable sets the number of lines permitted in the `$HISTFILE`. The default for `$HISTFILESIZE` is 500 lines, and `$HISTFILE` is `~/.bash_history` unless you are in POSIX mode, in which case it’s `~/.sh_history`. Increasing `$HISTFILESIZE` may be useful, and unsetting it causes the `$HISTFILE` length to be unlimited. Changing `$HISTFILE` probably isn’t necessary, except that if it is not set or the file is not writable, no history will be written to disk. The `$HISTSIZE` variable sets the number of lines permitted in the history stack in memory.

`$HISTIGNORE` and `$HISTCONTROL` control what goes into your history in the first place. `$HISTIGNORE` is more flexible since it allows you to specify patterns to decide what command lines to save to the history. `$HISTCONTROL` is more limited in that it supports only the few keywords listed here (any other value is ignored):

`ignorespace`

Command lines that begin with a space character are not saved in the history list.

`ignoredups`

Command lines that match the previous history entry are not saved in the history list.

ignoreboth

Shorthand for both ignorespace and ignoredups.

erasedups

All previous command lines that match the current line are removed from the history list before that line is saved.

If `$HISTCONTROL` is not set, or does not contain any of these keywords, all commands are saved to the history list, subject to processing `$HISTIGNORE`. The second and subsequent lines of a multiline compound command are not tested, and are added to the history regardless of the value of `$HISTCONTROL`.

(Material in the preceding paragraphs has been adapted from [the Bash Reference Manual](#).)

If set and non-null, the `$HISTTIMEFORMAT` variable available in *bash* 3 and later specifies an *strftime* format string to use when displaying or writing the history. If you don't have *bash* version 3, but you do use a terminal with a scroll-back buffer, adding a date and timestamp to your prompt can also be very helpful (see [Recipe 16.2](#)). Watch out because stock *bash* does not put a trailing space after the format, but some systems (e.g., Debian) have patched it to do so:

```
$ history
 1 ls -la
 2 help history
 3 help fc
 4 history

# Ugly
$ export HISTTIMEFORMAT='%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S'

$ history
 1 2006-10-25_20:48:04ls -la
 2 2006-10-25_20:48:11help history
 3 2006-10-25_20:48:14help fc
 4 2006-10-25_20:48:18history
 5 2006-10-25_20:48:39export HISTTIMEFORMAT='%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S'
 6 2006-10-25_20:48:41history

# Better
$ HISTTIMEFORMAT='%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S; '

$ history
 1 2006-10-25_20:48:04; ls -la
 2 2006-10-25_20:48:11; help history
 3 2006-10-25_20:48:14; help fc
 4 2006-10-25_20:48:18; history
 5 2006-10-25_20:48:39; export HISTTIMEFORMAT='%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S'
 6 2006-10-25_20:48:41; history
 7 2006-10-25_20:48:47; HISTTIMEFORMAT='%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S; '
```

```

8 2006-10-25_20:48:48; history

# Getting tricky now
$ HISTTIMEFORMAT='%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S; '

$ history
1 : 2006-10-25_20:48:04; ls -la
2 : 2006-10-25_20:48:11; help history
3 : 2006-10-25_20:48:14; help fc
4 : 2006-10-25_20:48:18; history
5 : 2006-10-25_20:48:39; export HISTTIMEFORMAT='%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S'
6 : 2006-10-25_20:48:41; history
7 : 2006-10-25_20:48:47; HISTTIMEFORMAT='%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S; '
8 : 2006-10-25_20:48:48; history

```

The last example uses the `:` builtin with the `;` metacharacter to encapsulate the date stamp into a “do nothing” command (e.g., `: 2006-10-25_20:48:48;`). This allows you to reuse a literal line from the history file without having to bother parsing out the date stamp. Note the space after the `:` is required.

There are also shell options to configure history file handling. If `histappend` is set, the shell appends to the history file; otherwise, it overwrites the history file. Note that it is still truncated to `$HISTFILESIZE`. If `cmdhist` is set, multiline commands are saved as a single line, with semicolons added as needed. If `lithist` is set, multiline commands are saved with embedded newlines.

See Also

- `help history`
- `help fc`
- [Recipe 6.11, “Looping with a read”](#)
- [Recipe 16.2, “Customizing Your Prompt”](#)
- [Recipe 16.9, “Adjusting Shell Behavior and Environment”](#)

16.15 Creating a Better `cd` Command

Problem

You `cd` into a lot of deep directories and would like to be able to type `cd ...` instead of `cd ../../../../` to move up four levels.

Solution

Use the function in [Example 16-7](#).

Example 16-7. ch16/func_cd

```
# cookbook filename: func_cd

# Allow use of 'cd ...' to cd up 2 levels, 'cd ....' up 3, etc. (like 4NT/4DOS)
# Usage: cd ..., etc.
function cd {

    local option= length= count= cdpath= i= # Local scope and start clean

    # If we have a -L or -P symlink option, save then remove it
    if [ "$1" = "-P" -o "$1" = "-L" ]; then
        option="$1"
        shift
    fi

    # Are we using the special syntax? Make sure $1 isn't empty, then
    # match the first 3 characters of $1 to see if they are '...', then
    # make sure there isn't a slash by trying a substitution; if it fails,
    # there's no slash.
    if [ -n "$1" -a "${1:0:3}" = '...' -a "$1" = "${1%/*}" ]; then
        # We are using special syntax
        length=${#1} # Assume that $1 has nothing but dots and count them
        count=2     # 'cd ..' still means up one level, so ignore first two

        # While we haven't run out of dots, keep cd'ing up 1 level
        for ((i=$count;i<=$length;i++)); do
            cdpath="${cdpath}../" # Build the cd path
        done

        # Actually do the cd
        builtin cd $option "$cdpath"
    elif [ -n "$1" ]; then
        # We are NOT using special syntax; just plain old cd by itself
        builtin cd $option "$*"
    else
        # We are NOT using special syntax; plain old cd by itself to home dir
        builtin cd $option
    fi
} # end of cd
```

Discussion

The `cd` command takes an optional `-L` or `-P` argument that, respectively, follows symbolic links or the physical directory structure. Either way, we have to take them into account if we want to redefine how `cd` works.

Then, we make sure `$1` isn't empty and match the first three characters of `$1` to see if they are `...`. We then make sure there isn't a slash by trying a substitution; if it fails, there's no slash. Both of these string routines require *bash* version 2.0+. After that, we build the actual `cd` command using a portable `for` loop and finally use the *builtin*

command to use the shell `cd` and not create an endless loop by recursively calling our `cd` function. We also pass in the `-L` or `-P` argument if present.

See Also

- `help cd`
- <http://jpssoft.com> for the 4NT shell, which is the source of this idea
- Recipe 15.5, “Using for Loops Portably”
- Recipe 16.6, “Setting Your `$CDPATH`”
- Recipe 16.16, “Creating and Changing Into a New Directory in One Step”
- Recipe 16.17, “Getting to the Bottom of Things”
- Recipe 16.22, “Getting Started with a Custom Configuration”
- Recipe 18.1, “Moving Quickly Among Arbitrary Directories”

16.16 Creating and Changing Into a New Directory in One Step

Problem

You often create new directories and immediately change into them for some operation, and all that typing is tedious.

Solution

Add the function in [Example 16-8](#) to an appropriate configuration file, such as your `~/.bashrc` file, and source it.

Example 16-8. ch16/func_mcd

```
# cookbook filename: func_mcd

# mkdir newdir then cd into it
# usage: mcd (<mode>) <dir>
function mcd {
    local newdir='_mcd_command_failed_'
    if [ -d "$1" ]; then          # Dir exists, mention that...
        echo "$1 exists..."
        newdir="$1"
    else
        if [ -n "$2" ]; then      # We've specified a mode
            command mkdir -p -m $1 "$2" && newdir="$2"
        else
            # Plain old mkdir

```

```

        command mkdir -p "$1" && newdir="$1"
    fi
fi
builtin cd "$newdir"      # No matter what, cd into it
} # end of mcd

```

For example:

```

$ source mcd

$ pwd
/home/jp

$ mcd 0700 junk

$ pwd
/home/jp/junk

$ ls -ld .
drwx----- 2 jp users 512 Dec 6 01:03 .

```

Discussion

This function allows you to optionally specify a mode for the *mkdir* command to use when creating the directory. If the directory already exists, it will mention that fact but still *cd* into it. We use the *command* command to make sure that we ignore any shell functions for *mkdir*, and the *builtin* command to make sure we only use the shell *cd*.

We also assign `_mcd_command_failed_` to a local variable in case the *mkdir* fails. If it works, the correct new directory is assigned. If it fails, when the *cd* tries to execute it will display a reasonably useful message, assuming you don't have a lot of `_mcd_command_failed_` directories lying around:

```

$ mcd /etc/junk
mkdir: /etc/junk: Permission denied
-bash: cd: _mcd_command_failed_: No such file or directory
$

```

You might think that we could easily improve this using *break* or *exit* if the *mkdir* fails. However, *break* only works in a *for*, *while*, or *until* loop, and *exit* will actually exit our shell, since a sourced function runs in the same process as the shell (we could use *return*, but we will leave that as an exercise for the reader):

```

command mkdir -p "$1" && newdir="$1" || exit 1 # This will exit our shell
command mkdir -p "$1" && newdir="$1" || break # This will fail

```

You could also place the following in a trivial function, but we obviously prefer the more robust version given in the solution:

```

function mcd { mkdir "$1" && cd "$1"; }

```


See Also

- `man mkdir`
- `help cd`
- `help function`
- [Recipe 16.15, “Creating a Better `cd` Command”](#)
- [Recipe 16.20, “Using Initialization Files Correctly”](#)
- [Recipe 16.21, “Creating Self-Contained, Portable `rc` Files”](#)
- [Recipe 16.22, “Getting Started with a Custom Configuration”](#)

16.17 Getting to the Bottom of Things

Problem

You work in a lot of narrow but deep directory structures, where all the content is at the bottom, and you’re tired of having to manually `cd` so many levels.

Solution

Here is an *alias* you can use to get to the bottom of things:

```
alias bot='cd $(dirname $(find . | tail -n 1))'
```

Discussion

This use of *find* in a large directory structure such as */usr* could take a while and isn’t recommended.

Depending on how your directory structure is set up, this may not work for you; you’ll have to try it and see. The `find .` will simply list all the files and directories in the current directory and below, the `tail -n 1` will grab the last line, `dirname` will extract just the path, and `cd` will take you there. It may be possible for you to tweak the command to get it to put you in the right place. For example:

```
alias bot='cd $(dirname $(find . | sort -r | tail -n 5 | head -1))'
```

or:

```
alias bot='cd $(dirname $(find . | sort -r | grep -v 'X11' | tail -n 3 \
| head -1))'
```

Keep trying the part in the innermost parentheses, especially tweaking the *find* command, until you get the results you need. Perhaps there is a key file or directory at the bottom of the structure, in which case the following function might work:

```
function bot { cd $(dirname $(find . | grep -e "$1" | head -1)); }
```

Note that aliases can't use arguments, so this must be a function. We use *grep* rather than a *-name* argument to *find* because *grep* is much more flexible. Depending on your structure, you might want to use *tail* instead of *head*. Again, test the *find* command first.

See Also

- `man find`
- `man dirname`
- `man head`
- `man tail`
- `man grep`
- `man sort`
- [Recipe 16.15, “Creating a Better cd Command”](#)
- [Recipe 16.16, “Creating and Changing Into a New Directory in One Step”](#)

16.18 Adding New Features to bash Using Loadable Builtins

The material in this recipe also appears in *Learning the bash Shell*, 3rd Edition, by Cameron Newham (O'Reilly).

Problem

You have something that you'd like *bash* to do, but there's no built-in command for it. For efficiency reasons, you want it to be built into the shell rather than an external program. Or, you already have the code in C and don't want to or can't rewrite it.

Solution

Use the dynamically loadable builtins introduced in *bash* version 2.0. The *bash* archive contains a number of prewritten builtins in the directory *./examples/loadables/*, especially the canonical *hello.c*. You can build them by uncommenting the lines in the file *Makefile* that are relevant to your system, and typing `make`. We'll take one of these builtins, *tty*, and use it as a case study for builtins in general.

The following is a list of the builtins provided in *bash* version 4.4's *./examples/loadables/* directory:

```

basename.c  id.c      necho.c    printenv.c  strftime.c  uname.c
cat.c       ln.c      pathchk.c  push.c      sync.c      unlink.c
dirname.c   loadables.h  perl      realpath.c  tee.c       whoami.c
finfo.c     logname.c  perl/bperl.c  rmdir.c    template.c  head.c
mkdir.c     perl/iperl.c  setpgid.c  truefalse.c  hello.c     mypid.c

```

Discussion

On systems that support dynamic loading, you can write your own builtins in C, compile them into shared objects, and load them at any time from within the shell with the *enable* builtin.

We will discuss briefly how to go about writing a builtin and loading it in *bash*. This discussion assumes that you have experience with writing, compiling, and linking C programs.

tty will mimic the standard Unix command *tty*. It will print the name of the terminal that is connected to standard input. The builtin will, like the command, return true if the device is a TTY and false if it isn't. In addition, it will take an option, *-s*, which specifies that it should work silently (i.e., print nothing and just return a result).

The C code for a builtin can be divided into three distinct sections: the code that implements the functionality of the builtin, a help text message definition, and a structure describing the builtin so that *bash* can access it.

The description structure is quite straightforward and takes the form:

```

struct builtin builtin_name_struct = {
    "builtin_name",
    function_name,
    BUILTIN_ENABLED,
    help_array,
    "usage",
    0
};

```

The trailing *_struct* is required on the first line to give the *enable* builtin a way to find the symbol name. *builtin_name* is the name of the builtin as it appears in *bash*. The next field, *function_name*, is the name of the C function that implements the builtin. We'll look at this in a moment. BUILTIN_ENABLED is the initial state of the builtin, whether it is enabled or not. This field should always be set to BUILTIN_ENABLED. *help_array* is an array of strings that are printed when *help* is used on the builtin. *usage* is the shorter form of help: the command and its options. The last field in the structure should be set to 0.

In our example we'll call the builtin `tty`, the C function `tty_builtin`, and the help array `tty_doc`. The usage string will be `tty [-s]`. The resulting structure looks like this:

```
struct builtin tty_struct =
    "tty",
    tty_builtin,
    BUILTIN_ENABLED,
    tty_doc,
    "tty [-s]",
    0
};
```

The next section is the code that does the work. It looks like this:

```
tty_builtin (list) WORD_LIST *list;
{
    int opt, sflag;
    char *t;

    reset_internal_getopt ( );
    sflag = 0;
    while ((opt = internal_getopt (list, "s")) != -1)
    {
        switch (opt)
        {
            case 's':
                sflag = 1;
                break;
            default:
                builtin_usage ( );
                return (EX_USAGE);
        }
    }
    list = loptend;

    t = ttyname (0);
    if (sflag == 0)
        puts (t ? t : "not a tty");
    return (t ? EXECUTION_SUCCESS : EXECUTION_FAILURE);
}
```

builtin functions are always given a pointer to a list of type `WORD_LIST`. If the builtin doesn't actually take any options, you must call `no_options(list)` and check its return value before any further processing. If the return value is nonzero, your function should immediately return with the value `EX_USAGE`.

You must always use `internal_getopt` rather than the standard C library `getopt` to process the built-in options. Also, you must reset the option processing first by calling `reset_internal_getopt`.

Option processing is performed in the standard way, except if the options are incorrect, in which case you should return `EX_USAGE`. Any arguments left after option processing are pointed to by `loptend`. Once the function is finished, it should return the value `EXECUTION_SUCCESS` or `EXECUTION_FAILURE`.

In the case of our `tty` builtin, we then just call the standard C library routine `ttyname` and, if the `-s` option wasn't given, print out the name of the TTY (or "not a tty" if the device wasn't). The function then returns success or failure, depending upon the result from the call to `ttyname`.

The last major section is the help definition. This is simply an array of strings, the last element of the array being `NULL`. Each string is printed to standard output when `help` is run on the builtin. You should, therefore, keep the strings to 76 characters or less (an 80-character standard display minus a 4-character margin). In the case of `tty`, our help text looks like this:

```
char *tty_doc[] = {
    "tty writes the name of the terminal that is opened for standard",
    "input to standard output. If the '-s' option is supplied, nothing",
    "is written; the exit status determines whether or not the standard",
    "input is connected to a tty.",
    (char *)NULL
};
```

The last things to add to our code are the necessary C header files. These are `stdio.h` and the `bash` header files `config.h`, `builtins.h`, `shell.h`, and `bashgetopt.h`.

Example 16-9 shows the C program in its entirety.

Example 16-9. ch16/builtin_tty.c

```
# cookbook filename: builtin_tty.c
```

```
#include "config.h"
#include <stdio.h>
#include "builtins.h"
#include "shell.h"
#include "bashgetopt.h"
```

```
extern char *ttyname ( );
```

```
tty_builtin (list)
    WORD_LIST *list;
{
    int opt, sflag;
    char *t;

    reset_internal_getopt ( );
    sflag = 0;
```

```

while ((opt = internal_getopt (list, "s")) != -1)
{
    switch (opt)
    {
        case 's':
            sflag = 1;
            break;
        default:
            builtin_usage ( );
            return (EX_USAGE);
    }
}
list = loptend;

t = ttyname (0);
if (sflag == 0)
    puts (t ? t : "not a tty");
return (t ? EXECUTION_SUCCESS : EXECUTION_FAILURE);
}

char *tty_doc[] = {
    "tty writes the name of the terminal that is opened for standard",
    "input to standard output. If the '-s' option is supplied, nothing",
    "is written; the exit status determines whether or not the standard",
    "input is connected to a tty.",
    (char *)NULL
};

struct builtin tty_struct = {
    "tty",
    tty_builtin,
    BUILTIN_ENABLED,
    tty_doc,
    "tty [-s]",
    0
};

```

We now need to compile and link this as a dynamic shared object. Unfortunately, different systems have different ways to specify how to compile dynamic shared objects.

The *configure* script should put the correct commands into the *Makefile* automatically. If for some reason it doesn't, [Table 16-1](#) lists some common systems and the commands needed to compile and link *tty.c*. Replace *archive* with the path of the top level of the *bash* archive.

Table 16-1. Common systems and commands to compile and link tty.c

System	Command
SunOS 4	cc -pic -Iarchive -Iarchive/builtins -Iarchive/lib -c tty.c ld -assert pure-text -o tty tty.o

System	Command
SunOS 5	<code>cc -K pic -Iarchive -Iarchive/builtins -Iarchive/lib -c tty.c cc -dy -z text -G -i -h tty -o tty tty.o</code>
SVR4, SVR4.2, Irix	<code>cc -K PIC -Iarchive -Iarchive/builtins -Iarchive/lib -c tty.c ld -dy -z text -G -h tty -o tty tty.o</code>
AIX	<code>cc -K -Iarchive -Iarchive/builtins -Iarchive/lib -c tty.c ld -bdynamic -bnoentry -bexpall -G -o tty tty.o</code>
Linux	<code>cc -fPIC -Iarchive -Iarchive/builtins -Iarchive/lib -c tty.c ld -shared -o tty tty.o</code>
NetBSD, FreeBSD	<code>cc -fpic -Iarchive -Iarchive/builtins -Iarchive/lib -c tty.c ld -x -Bshareable -o tty tty.o</code>

After you have compiled and linked the program, you should have a shared object called `tty`. To load this into `bash`, just type `enable -f tty tty`. You can remove a loaded builtin at any time with the `-d` option; e.g., `enable -d tty`.

You can put as many builtins as you like into one shared object as long as the three main sections for each builtin are in the same C file. However, `bash` loads a shared object as a whole, so if you ask it to load one builtin from a shared object that has 20 builtins, it will load all 20 (but only one will be enabled). It's best to keep the number of builtins small to save loading memory with unnecessary things, and to group similar builtins (e.g., `pushd`, `popd`, `dirs`) so that if the user enables one of them, all of them will be loaded and ready in memory for enabling.

See Also

- `./examples/loadables` in any `bash` tarball newer than 2.0

16.19 Improving Programmable Completion

This recipe was adapted directly from *Learning the bash Shell*, 3rd Edition, by Cameron Newham (O'Reilly).

Problem

You love `bash`'s programmable completion but wish it could be more aware of context, especially for commands that you use often.

Solution

Find and install additional programmable completion libraries, or write your own. Some examples are provided in the `bash` tarball, in `./examples/complete`. Some distri-

butions (e.g., SUSE) have their own version in `/etc/profile.d/complete.bash`. However, the largest and most well known of the third-party libraries is certainly Ian Macdonald's, which you may download as a tarball or RPM from <http://www.caliban.org/bash/index.shtml#completion> or <https://github.com/scop/bash-completion/>. This library is already included in Debian (and derivatives like Ubuntu and Mint), and it is present in Fedora Extras as well as other third-party repositories.



According to Ian's *README*: "Many of the completion functions assume GNU versions of the various text utilities that they call (e.g., *grep*, *sed*, and *awk*). Your mileage may vary."

At the time of this writing there are 103 modules provided by the *bash-completion-20060301.tar.gz* library. The following is an excerpted list:

- *bash* alias completion
- *bash* export completion
- *bash* shell function completion
- *chown(1)* completion
- *chgrp(1)* completion
- Red Hat & Debian GNU/Linux `if{up,down}` completion
- *cvs(1)* completion
- *rpm(8)* completion
- *chsh(1)* completion
- *chkconfig(8)* completion
- *ssh(1)* completion
- GNU *make(1)* completion
- GNU *tar(1)* completion
- *jar(1)* completion
- Linux *iptables(8)* completion
- *tcpdump(8)* completion
- *ncftp(1)* bookmark completion
- Debian *dpkg(8)* completion
- Java completion
- PINE address-book completion
- *mutt* completion

- Python completion
- Perl completion
- FreeBSD package management tool completion
- *mplayer(1)* completion
- *gpg(1)* completion
- *dict(1)* completion
- *cdrecord(1)* completion
- *yum(8)* completion
- *smartctl(8)* completion
- *vncviewer(1)* completion
- *svn* completion

Discussion

Programmable completion is a feature that was introduced in *bash* version 2.04. It extends the built-in textual completion by providing hooks into the completion mechanism. This means that it is possible to write virtually any form of completion desired. For instance, if you were typing the *man* command, wouldn't it be nice to be able to hit Tab and have the manual sections listed for you? Programmable completion allows you to do this and much more.

This recipe will only look at the basics of programmable completion. If you need to delve into the inner depths and actually write your own completion code, first check the libraries of completion commands developed by other people to see if what you want has already been done or is available for use as an example. We'll just outline the basic commands and procedures needed to use the completion mechanism, should you ever need to work on it yourself.

To do textual completion in a particular way, you first have to tell the shell how to do it when you press the Tab key. This is done via the *complete* command.

The main argument of *complete* is a name that can be the name of a command or anything else that you want textual completion to work with. As an example, we will look at the *gunzip* utility that allows compressed archives of various types to be uncompressed. Normally, if you were to type:

```
gunzip [TAB][TAB]
```

you would get a list of filenames from which to complete. This list would include all kinds of things that are unsuitable for *gunzip*. What you would really like is the subset of those files that are suitable for the utility to work on. You can set this up by using *complete*:

```
complete -A file -X '!*.(Z|gz|tgz)' gunzip
```

Note that in order for `@(Z|gz|tgz)` to work, you will need extended pattern matching switched on via `shopt -s extglob`.

Here we are telling the completion mechanism that when the *gunzip* command is typed in we want it to do something special. The `-A` flag is an action and takes a variety of arguments. In this case we provide `file` as the argument, which asks the mechanism to provide a list of files as possible completions. The next step is to cut this down by selecting only the files that we know will work with *gunzip*. We've done this with the `-X` option, which takes as its argument a filter pattern. When applied to the completion list, the filter removes anything matching the pattern—i.e., the result is everything that *doesn't* match the pattern. *gunzip* can uncompress a number of file types, including those with the extensions `.Z`, `.gz`, and `.tgz`. We want to match all filenames with extensions that have one of these three patterns. We then have to negate this with a `!` (remember, the filter removes the patterns that match).

We can actually try this out first and see what completions would be returned without having to use *complete* to install the completion. We can do this via the *compgen* command:

```
compgen -A file -X '!*.(Z|gz|tgz)'
```

This produces a list of completion strings (assuming you have some files in the current directory with these extensions). *compgen* is useful for trying out filters to see what completion strings are produced. It is also needed when more complex completion is required. We'll see an example of this later in the recipe.

Once we install the preceding *complete* command, either by sourcing a script that contains it or by executing it on the command line, we can use the augmented completion mechanism with the *gunzip* command:

```
$ gunzip [TAB][TAB]
archive.tgz archive1.tgz file.Z
$ gunzip
```

You can probably see that there are other things we could do. What about providing a list of possible arguments for specific options to a command? For instance, the *kill* command takes a process ID, but can optionally take a signal name preceded by a dash (`-`) or a signal name following the option `-n`. We could complete with PIDs, but if there is a dash or a `-n`, it'll have to be done with signal names.

This is slightly more complex than the previous one-line example. Here we will need some code to distinguish what has already been typed in. We'll also need to get the PIDs and the signal names. We'll put the code in a function and call the function via the completion mechanism. Here's the code to call our function, which we'll name `_kill`:

```
complete -F _kill kill
```

The `-F` option to `complete` tells it to call the function named `_kill` when it is performing textual completion for the `kill` command. The next step is to code the function, as seen in [Example 16-10](#).

Example 16-10. ch16/func_kill

```
# cookbook filename: func_kill
```

```
_kill() {
    local cur
    local sign

    COMPREPLY=( )
    cur=${COMP_WORDS[COMP_CWORD]}

    if (( $COMP_CWORD == 2 )) && [[ ${COMP_WORDS[1]} == -n ]]; then
        # return list of available signals
        _signals
    elif (( $COMP_CWORD == 1 )) && [[ "$cur" == -* ]]; then
        # return list of available signals
        sign="-"
        _signals
    else
        # return list of available PIDs
        COMPREPLY=( $( compgen -W '$( command ps axo pid | sed 1d )' $cur ) )
    fi
}
```

The code is fairly standard, apart from the use of some special environment variables and a call to a function called `_signals`, which we'll come to shortly.

The variable `$COMPREPLY` is used to hold the result that is returned to the completion mechanism. It is an array that holds a set of completion strings. Initially this is set to an empty array.

The local variable `$cur` is a convenience variable to make the code more readable because the value is used in several places. Its value is derived from an element in the array `$COMP_WORDS`. This array holds the individual words on the current command line. `$COMP_CWORD` is an index into the array; it gives the word containing the current cursor position. The value of `$cur` is the word currently containing the cursor.

The first `if` statement tests for the condition where the `kill` command is followed by the `-n` option. If the first word was `-n` and we are on the second word, then we need to provide a list of signal names for the completion mechanism.

The second `if` statement is similar, except this time we are looking to complete on the current word, which starts with a dash and is followed by anything else. The body of

this `if` again calls `_signals`, but this time it sets the `sign` variable to a dash. The reason for this will become obvious when we look at the `_signals` function.

The remaining part in the `else` block returns a list of process IDs. It uses the `compgen` command to help create the array of completion strings. First it runs the `ps` command to obtain a list of PIDs, and then it pipes the result through `sed` to remove the first line (which is the heading “PID”). This is then given as an argument to the `-W` option of `compgen`, which takes a word list. `compgen` returns all the completion strings that match the value of the variable `$cur`, and the resulting array is assigned to `$COMPAREPLY`.

`compgen` is important here because we can’t just return the complete list of PIDs provided by `ps`. The user may have already typed part of a PID and then attempted completion. As the partial PID will be in the variable `$cur`, `compgen` restricts the results to those that match or partially match that value. For example if `$cur` had the value 5, then `compgen` would return only values beginning with a 5, such as 5, 59, or 562.

The last piece of the puzzle is the `_signals` function (Example 16-11).

Example 16-11. ch16/func_signals

```
# cookbook filename: func_signals

_signals() {
    local i

    COMPAREPLY=( $( compgen -A signal SIG${cur#-} ) )

    for (( i=0; i < ${#COMPAREPLY[@]}; i++ )); do
        COMPAREPLY[i]=$sign${COMPAREPLY[i]#SIG}
    done
}
```

While we can get a list of signal names by using `complete’s -A signal`, the names are unfortunately not in a form that is very usable, so we can’t use this to directly generate the array of names. The names generated begin with the letters “SIG”, while the names needed by the `kill` command don’t. The `_signals` function should assign an array of signal names to `$COMPAREPLY`, optionally preceded by a dash.

First we generate the list of signal names with `compgen`. Each name starts with the letters “SIG”. In order to get `complete` to provide the correct subset if the user has begun to type a name, we add “SIG” to the beginning of the value in `$cur`. We also take the opportunity to remove any preceding dash that the value has so it will match.

We then loop on the array, removing the letters “SIG” and adding a dash if needed (the value of the variable `sign`) to each entry.

Both *complete* and *compgen* have many other options and actions; far more than we can cover here. If you are interested in taking programmable completion further, we recommend looking in the Bash Reference Manual and downloading some of the many examples that are available on the internet or in the *bash* tarball, in *./examples/complete*.

See Also

- `help complete`
- `help compgen`
- *./examples/complete* in any *bash* tarball newer than 2.04
- <http://www.caliban.org/bash/index.shtml#completion>
- <https://github.com/scop/bash-completion/>

16.20 Using Initialization Files Correctly

Problem

You'd like to know just what the heck is with all the initialization, or *rc*, files.

Solution

Here's a cheat sheet for these files and what do with them. Some or all of these files may be missing from your system, depending on how it is set up. Systems that use *bash* by default (e.g., Linux) tend to have a complete set, while systems that use some other shell by default are usually missing at least some of them:

/etc/profile

Global login environment file for Bourne and similar login shells. We recommend you leave this alone unless you are the system administrator and know what you are doing.

/etc/bashrc (Red Hat) or */etc/bash.bashrc* (Debian)

Global environment file for interactive *bash* subshells. We recommend you leave this alone unless you are the system administrator and know what you are doing.

/etc/bash_completion

If this exists, it's almost certainly the configuration file for Ian Macdonald's programmable completion library (see [Recipe 16.19](#)). We recommend looking into it—it's pretty cool.

/etc/profile.d/bash_completion.sh and /etc/bash_completion.d

Other possible distribution-specific *bash* completion files. Common in Fedora these days, but may be on other systems.

/etc/inputrc

Global GNU *readline* configuration. We recommend tweaking this as desired for the entire system (if you are the administrator), or tweaking *~/.inputrc* for just you (see [Recipe 16.22](#)). This is not executed or sourced but read in via *readline* and `$INPUTRC`, and `$include` (or `bind -f`). Note that it may contain `include` statements to other *readline* files.

~/.bashrc

Personal environment file for interactive *bash* subshells. We recommend that you place your aliases, functions, and fancy prompts here.

~/.bash_profile

Personal profile file for *bash* login shells. We recommend that you make sure this sources *~/.bashrc*, then ignore it.

~/.bash_login

Personal profile file for Bourne login shells; only used by *bash* if *~/.bash_profile* is not present. We recommend you ignore this.

~/.profile

Personal profile file for Bourne login shells; only used by *bash* if *~/.bash_profile* and *~/.bash_login* are not present. We recommend you ignore this unless you also use other shells that use it.

~/.bash_history

Default storage file for your shell command history. We recommend you use the history tools ([Recipe 16.14](#)) to manipulate it instead of trying to directly edit it. This is not executed or sourced; it's just a datafile.

~/.bash_logout

Executed when you log out. We recommend you place any cleanup routines (see [Recipe 17.7](#)) here. This is only executed on a clean logout (i.e., not if your session dies due to a dropped WAN link).

~/.inputrc

Personal customizations for GNU *readline*. We recommend tweaking this as desired (see [Recipe 16.22](#)). This is not executed or sourced but read in via *readline* and `$INPUTRC`, and `$include` (or `bind -f`). Note that it may contain `include` statements to other *readline* files.

We realize this list is a bit tricky to follow; however, each OS or distribution may differ, since it's up to the vendor exactly how these files are written. To really understand how your system works, read each of the files listed here. You can also

temporarily add `echo name_of_file>&2` to the very first line of any of them that are executed or sourced (i.e., skip `/etc/inputrc`, `~/.inputrc`, and `~/.bash_history`). Note that may interfere with some programs (notably `scp` and `rsync`) that are confused by extra output on `STDOUT` or `STDERR`, so remove these statements when you are finished. See the warning in [Recipe 16.21](#) for more details.

Use [Table 16-2](#) as a guideline only, since it's not necessarily how your system will work. (In addition to the login-related `rc` files listed in [Table 16-2](#), the `~/.bash_logout` `rc` file is used when you log out cleanly from an interactive session.)

Table 16-2. `bash` login `rc` files on Ubuntu 6.10 and Fedora Core 5

Interactive login shell	Interactive non-login shell (bash)	Noninteractive shell (script) (bash /dev/null)	Noninteractive (bash -c ':')
Ubuntu 6.10:	Ubuntu 6.10:	Ubuntu 6.10:	Ubuntu 6.10:
<code>/etc/profile</code>		<i>N/A</i>	<i>N/A</i>
<code>/etc/bash.bashrc</code>	<code>/etc/bash.bashrc</code>		
<code>~/.bash_profile^a</code>			
<code>~/.bashrc</code>	<code>~/.bashrc</code>		
<code>/etc/bash_completion</code>	<code>/etc/bash_completion</code>		
Fedora Core 5:	Fedora Core 5:	Fedora Core 5:	Fedora Core 5:
<code>/etc/profile^{b c}</code>		<i>N/A</i>	<i>N/A</i>
<code>/etc/profile.d/colorls.sh</code>			
<code>/etc/profile.d/glib2.sh</code>			
<code>/etc/profile.d/krb5.sh</code>			
<code>/etc/profile.d/lang.sh</code>			
<code>/etc/profile.d/less.sh</code>			
<code>/etc/profile.d/vim.sh</code>			
<code>/etc/profile.d/which-2.sh</code>			
<code>~/.bash_profile^d</code>			
<code>~/.bashrc</code>	<code>~/.bashrc</code>		
<code>/etc/bashrc</code>	<code>/etc/bashrc</code>		

^a If `~/.bash_profile` is not found, then `~/.bash_login` or `~/.profile` will be attempted, in that order.

^b If `$INPUTRC` is not set and `~/.inputrc` does not exist, set `$INPUTRC` to `/etc/inputrc`.

^c Red Hat's `/etc/profile` also sources `/etc/profile.d/*.sh` files; see [Recipe 4.10](#) for details.

^d If `~/.bash_profile` is not found, then `~/.bash_login` or `~/.profile` will be attempted, in that order.

For more detail see the “Bash Startup Files” section in the [Bash Reference Manual](#).

Discussion

One of the tricky things in Unix or Linux is figuring out where to change something like the `$PATH` or prompt on the rare occasions when you do want to do it for the whole system. Different operating systems and even versions can put things in different places. This command has a pretty good chance of finding out where your system `$PATH` is set, for example:

```
grep 'PATH=' /etc/{profile,*bash*,*csh*,rc*}
```

If that doesn't work, the only thing you can really do is *grep* all of */etc* to find it, as in:

```
find /etc -type f | xargs grep 'PATH='
```

Note that unlike most of the code in this book, this is better run as *root*. You can run it as a regular user and get some results, but you may miss something and you'll almost certainly get some "Permission denied" errors.

One of the other tricky things is figuring out what you can tweak and where to do that for your personal account. We hope this chapter has given you a lot of great ideas in that regard.

See Also

- `man grep`
- `man find`
- `man xargs`
- The "Bash Startup Files" section in the [Bash Reference Manual](#)
- [Recipe 16.4, "Changing Your \\$PATH Permanently"](#)
- [Recipe 16.14, "Setting Shell History Options"](#)
- [Recipe 16.19, "Improving Programmable Completion"](#)
- [Recipe 16.21, "Creating Self-Contained, Portable rc Files"](#)
- [Recipe 16.22, "Getting Started with a Custom Configuration"](#)
- [Recipe 17.7, "Clearing the Screen When You Log Out"](#)

16.21 Creating Self-Contained, Portable rc Files

Problem

You work on a number of machines, some of which you have limited or full *root* control over and some of which you do not, and you want to replicate a consistent *bash*

environment while still allowing custom settings by operating system, machine, or other (e.g., work, home) criteria.

Solution

Put all of your customizations in files in a *settings* subdirectory, copy or *rsync* that directory to a location such as *~/* or */etc*, and use includes and symbolic links (e.g., `ln -s ~/settings/screenrc ~/.screenrc`) as necessary. Use logic in your customization files to account for criteria such as operating system, location, etc.

You may also choose not to use leading dots in the filenames to make it a little easier to manage the files. As you saw in [Recipe 1.7](#), the leading dot causes *ls* not to show the files by default, thus eliminating some clutter in your home directory listing. But since we'll be using a directory that exists only to hold configuration files, using the dot is not necessary. Note that dot files are usually not used in */etc* either, for the same reason.

See [Recipe 16.22](#) for a sample to get you started.

Discussion

Let's take a look at the assumptions and criteria we used in developing this solution. First, the assumptions:

- You have a complex environment in which you control some, but not all, of the machines you use.
- For machines you control, one machine exports */opt/bin* and all other machines NFS-mount it, so all configuration files reside there. We used */opt/bin* because it's short and less likely to collide with existing directories than */usr/local/bin*, but feel free to use whatever makes sense.
- For some machines with partial control, a system-wide configuration in */etc* is used.
- For machines on which you have no administrative control, dot files are used in *~/*.
- You have settings that will vary from machine to machine, and in different environments (e.g., home or work).

The criteria were as follows:

- Require as few changes as possible when moving configuration files between operating systems and environments.
- Supplement, but do not replace, operating system default or system administrator-supplied configurations.

- Provide enough flexibility to handle the demands made by conflicting settings (e.g., work and home CVS).



While it may be tempting to put echo statements in your configuration files to see what's going on, be careful. If you do that, *scp*, *rsync*, and probably any other *rsh*-like programs will fail with mysterious errors such as:

```
# scp
# protocol error: bad mode

# rsync
# protocol version mismatch - is your shell clean?
# (see the rsync manpage for an explanation)
# rsync error: protocol incompatibility (code 2) at compat.
# c(62)
```

ssh itself works since it is actually interactive and the output is displayed on the screen rather than confusing the data stream. See the discussion in [Recipe 14.22](#) for details on why this happens.

For debugging, put these two lines near the top of */etc/profile* or *~/.bash_profile*, but see the warning we just gave about confusing the data stream:

```
export PS4='+xtrace $LINENO: '
set -x
```

As an alternative (or in addition) to using `set -x`, you can add lines such as the following to any or all of your configuration files:

```
# E.g. in ~/.bash_profile
case "$-" in
  *i*) echo "$(date '+%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S_%Z') Interactive" \
    "$HOME/.bash_profile ssh=$SSH_CONNECTION" >> ~/rc.log ;;
  * ) echo "$(date '+%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S_%Z') Noninteractive" \
    "$HOME/.bash_profile ssh=$SSH_CONNECTION" >> ~/rc.log ;;

esac

# In ~/.bashrc
case "$-" in
  *i*) echo "$(date '+%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S_%Z') Interactive" \
    "$HOME/.bashrc ssh=$SSH_CONNECTION" >> ~/rc.log ;;
  * ) echo "$(date '+%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S_%Z') Noninteractive" \
    "$HOME/.bashrc ssh=$SSH_CONNECTION" >> ~/rc.log ;;

esac
```

Since there is no output to the terminal this will not interfere with commands, as we noted in the warning. Run a `tail -f ~/rc.log` command in one session and run

your troublesome command (e.g., *scp*, *cvs*) from elsewhere to determine which configuration files are in use. You can then more easily track down the problem.

When making any changes to your configuration files, we *strongly* advise that you open two sessions. Make all your changes in one session and then log out and back in. If you broke something so that you can't log back in, fix it from the second session and then try again from the first one. Do not log out of both terminals until you are absolutely sure you can log back in again. This goes triple if any changes you're making could affect *root*.



You really do need to log out and back in again. Sourcing the changed files is a help, but leftovers from the previous environment may allow things to work temporarily, until you start clean—and then things are broken. Make changes to the running environment as necessary, but don't change the files until you are ready to test; otherwise you're likely to forget and possibly be locked out if something is wrong.

See Also

- [Recipe 1.7, “Showing All Hidden \(Dot\) Files in the Current Directory”](#)
- [Recipe 14.23, “Disconnecting Inactive Sessions”](#)
- [Recipe 16.20, “Using Initialization Files Correctly”](#)
- [Recipe 16.22, “Getting Started with a Custom Configuration”](#)

16.22 Getting Started with a Custom Configuration

Problem

You'd like to tweak your environment but aren't quite sure where to start.

Solution

Here are some samples to give you an idea of what you can do. We follow the suggestion in [Recipe 16.21](#) to keep customizations separate for easy backouts and portability between systems.

For system-wide profile settings, add the contents on [Example 16-12](#) to */etc/profile*. Since that file is also used by the true Bourne shell, be careful not to use any *bash*-only features (e.g., *source* instead of *.*) if you do this on a non-Linux system. Linux uses *bash* as the default shell for both */bin/sh* and */bin/bash* (except when it doesn't, as

in Ubuntu 6.10+, which uses *dash*). For user-only settings, add it to only one of `~/.bash_profile`, `~/.bash_login`, or `~/.profile`, in that order (whichever exists first.)

Example 16-12. ch16/add_to_bash_profile

```
# cookbook filename: add_to_bash_profile
# Add this code to your ~/.bash_profile

# If we're running in bash, search for then source our settings
# You can also just hardcode $SETTINGS, but this is more flexible
if [ -n "$BASH_VERSION" ]; then
    for path in /opt/bin /etc ~ ; do
        # Use the first one found
        if [ -d "$path/settings" -a -r "$path/settings" -a -x "$path/settings" ]
        then
            export SETTINGS="$path/settings"
        fi
    done
    source "$SETTINGS/bash_profile"
    #source "$SETTINGS/bashrc"      # If necessary
fi
```

For system-wide environment settings, add the contents in [Example 16-13](#) to `/etc/bashrc` (or `/etc/bash.bashrc`).

Example 16-13. ch16/add_to_bashrc

```
# cookbook filename: add_to_bashrc
# Add this code to your ~/.bashrc

# If we're running in bash, and it isn't already set,
# search for then source our settings
# You can also just hard code $SETTINGS, but this is more flexible
if [ -n "$BASH_VERSION" ]; then
    if [ -z "$SETTINGS" ]; then
        for path in /opt/bin /etc ~ ; do
            # Use the first one found
            if [ -d "$path/settings" -a -r "$path/settings" -a -x "$path/settings" ]
            then
                export SETTINGS="$path/settings"
            fi
        done
    fi
    source "$SETTINGS/bashrc"
fi
```

[Example 16-14](#) is a `bash_profile`.

Example 16-14. ch16/bash_profile

```
# cookbook filename: bash_profile

# settings/bash_profile: Login shell environment settings
# To reread (and implement changes to this file) use:
# source $SETTINGS/bash_profile

# Only if interactive bash with a terminal!
[ -t 1 -a -n "$BASH_VERSION" ] || return

# Failsafe. This should be set when we're called, but if not, the
# "not found" error messages should be pretty clear.
# Use leading ':' to prevent this from being run as a program after
# it is expanded.
: ${SETTINGS:='SETTINGS_variable_not_set'}

# DEBUGGING only--will break scp, rsync
# echo "Sourcing $SETTINGS/bash_profile..."
# export PS4='+xtrace $LINENO: '
# set -x

# Debugging/logging--will not break scp, rsync
#case "$-" in
#   *i*) echo "$(date '+%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S_%Z') Interactive" \
#           "$SETTINGS/bash_profile ssh=$SSH_CONNECTION" >> ~/rc.log ;;
#   * ) echo "$(date '+%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S_%Z') Noninteractive" \
#           "$SETTINGS/bash_profile ssh=$SSH_CONNECTION" >> ~/rc.log ;;
#esac

# Use the keychain (http://www.funtoo.org/Keychain/) shell script
# to manage ssh-agent, if it's available. If it's not, you should look
# into adding it.
for path in $SETTINGS ${PATH//:/ }; do
    if [ -x "$path/keychain" ]; then
        # Load default id_rsa and/or id_dsa keys, add others here as needed
        # See also --clear --ignore-missing --noask --quiet --time-out
        $path/keychain ~/.ssh/id_?sa ~/.ssh/${USER}_?sa
        break
    fi
done

# Apply interactive subshell customizations to login shells too.
# The system profile file in /etc probably already does this.
# If not, it's probably better to do it manually in wherever you:
# source "$SETTINGS/bash_profile"
# But just in case...
# for file in /etc/bash.bashrc /etc/bashrc ~/.bashrc; do
#   [ -r "$file" ] && source $file && break # Use the first one found
#done
```

```

# Do site- or host-specific things here
case $HOSTNAME in
  *.company.com      ) # source $SETTINGS/company.com
                      ;;
  host1.*            ) # host1 stuff
                      ;;
  host2.company.com ) # source .bashrc.host2
                      ;;
  drake.*            ) # echo DRAKE in bash_profile.jp!
                      ;;
esac

# Do this last because we basically fork off from here. If we exit screen
# we return to a fully configured session. The screen session gets configured
# as well, and if we never leave it, well, this session isn't that bloated.

# Only run if we are interactive and not already running screen
# AND '~/.use_screen' exists.
if [ "$PS1" -a $TERM != "screen" -a "$USING_SCREEN" != "YES" -a -f ~/.use_screen ]; \
then
  # We'd rather use 'type -P' here, but that was added in bash-2.05b and we
  # use systems we don't control with versions older than that. We can't
  # easily use 'which' since on some systems that produces output whether
  # the file is found or not.
  for path in ${PATH//:/ }; do
    if [ -x "$path/screen" ]; then
      # If screen(1) exists and is executable, run our wrapper
      [ -x "$SETTINGS/run_screen" ] && $SETTINGS/run_screen
    fi
  done
fi

```

Example 16-15 is a sample *bashrc* (we know this is long, but read it for ideas).

Example 16-15. *ch16/bashrc*

```

# cookbook filename: bashrc

# settings/bash_profile: subshell environment settings
# To reread (and implement changes to this file) use:
# source $SETTINGS/bashrc

# Only if interactive bash with a terminal!
[ -t 1 -a -n "$BASH_VERSION" ] || return

# Failsafe. This should be set when we're called, but if not, the
# "not found" error messages should be pretty clear.
# Use leading ':' to prevent this from being run as a program after
# it is expanded.
: ${SETTINGS:='SETTINGS_variable_not_set'}

```

```

# DEBUGGING only--will break scp, rsync
# echo "Sourcing $SETTINGS/bash_profile..."
# export PS4='+xtrace $LINENO: '
# set -x

# Debugging/logging--will not break scp, rsync
# case "$-" in
#   *i*) echo "$(date '+%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S_%Z') Interactive" \
#           "$SETTINGS/bashrc ssh=$SSH_CONNECTION" >> ~/rc.log ;;
#   * ) echo "$(date '+%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S_%Z') Noninteractive" \
#           "$SETTINGS/bashrc ssh=$SSH_CONNECTION" >> ~/rc.log ;;
#esac

# In theory this is also sourced from /etc/bashrc (/etc/bash.bashrc)
# or ~/.bashrc to apply all these settings to login shells too. In practice
# if these settings only work sometimes (like in subshells), verify that.

# Source keychain file (if it exists) for SSH and GPG agents
[ -r "$HOME/.keychain/${HOSTNAME}-sh" ] \
&& source "$HOME/.keychain/${HOSTNAME}-sh"
[ -r "$HOME/.keychain/${HOSTNAME}-sh-gpg" ] \
&& source "$HOME/.keychain/${HOSTNAME}-sh-gpg"

# Set some more useful prompts
# Interactive command-line prompt
# ONLY set one of these if we really are interactive, since lots of people
# (even us sometimes) test to see if a shell is interactive using
# something like: if [ "$PS1" ]; then
case "$-" in
  *i*)
    #export PS1='\n[\u@h t:l L:$SHLVL h:|! j:|j v:|V]\n$PWD|$ '
    #export PS1='\n[\u@h:T|l:L:$SHLVL:C|!:\D{%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S_%Z}]\n$PWD|$ '
    export PS1='\n[\u@h:T|l:L:$SHLVL:C|!:\j:\D{%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S_%Z}]\n$PWD|$ '
    #export PS2='>' # Secondary (i.e. continued) prompt

    #export PS3='Please make a choice: ' # Select prompt
    #export PS4='+xtrace $LINENO: ' # xtrace (debug) prompt
    export PS4='+xtrace $BASH_SOURCE::$FUNCNAME-$LINENO: ' # xtrace prompt

# If this is an xterm set the title to user@host:dir
case "$TERM" in
  xterm*|rxvt*)
    PROMPT_COMMAND='echo -ne "\033]0;${USER}@${HOSTNAME}:$PWD\007"'
    ;;
esac
;;
esac

# Make sure custom inputrc is handled, if we can find it; note different
# names. Also note different order, since for this one we probably want
# our custom settings to override the system file, if present.

```



```

# Set other less & editor prefs (overkill)
export LESS="--LONG-PROMPT --LINE-NUMBERS --ignore-case --QUIET --no-init"
export VISUAL='vi' # Set a default that should always work
# We'd rather use 'type -P' here, but that was added in bash-2.05b and we use
# systems we don't control with versions older than that. We can't easily
# use 'which' since that produces output whether the file is found or not.
#for path in ${PATH//:/ }; do
#   # Overwrite VISUAL if we can find nano
#   [ -x "$path/nano" ] \
#   && export VISUAL='nano --smooth --const --nowrap --suspend' && break
#done
# See above notes re: nano for why we're using this for loop
for path in ${PATH//:/ }; do
    # Alias vi to vim in binary mode if we can
    [ -x "$path/vim" ] && alias vi='vim -b' && break
done
export EDITOR="$VISUAL" # Yet Another Possibility
export SVN_EDITOR="$VISUAL" # Subversion
alias edit=$VISUAL # Provide a command to use on all systems

# Set ls options and aliases.
# Note all the colorizing may or may not work depending on your terminal
# emulation and settings, esp. ANSI color. But it shouldn't hurt to have.
# See above notes re: nano for why we're using this for loop.
for path in ${PATH//:/ }; do
    [ -r "$path/dircolors" ] && eval "$(dircolors)" \
    && LS_OPTIONS="--color=auto" && break
done
export LS_OPTIONS="$LS_OPTIONS -F -h"
# Using dircolors may cause csh scripts to fail with an
# "Unknown colorls variable 'do.'" error. The culprit is the ":do=01;35:"
# part in the LS_COLORS environment variable. For a possible solution see
# http://forums.macintoshhints.com/showthread.php?t=7287
# eval "$(dircolors)"
alias ls="ls $LS_OPTIONS"
alias ll="ls $LS_OPTIONS -l"
alias ll.="ls $LS_OPTIONS -ld" # Usage: ll. ~/.*
alias la="ls $LS_OPTIONS -la"
alias lrt="ls $LS_OPTIONS -alrt"

# Useful aliases
# Moved to a function: alias bot='cd $(dirname $(find . | tail -1))'
#alias clip='xsel -b' # pipe stuff into right "X" clipboard
alias gc='xsel -b' # "GetClip" get stuff from right "X" clipboard
alias pc='xsel -bi' # "PutClip" put stuff to right "X" clipboard
alias clr='cd ~/ && clear' # Clear and return $HOME
alias cls='clear' # DOS-ish for clear
alias cal='cal -M' # Start calendars on Monday
alias copy='cp' # DOS-ish for cp
#alias cp='cp -i' # Annoying Red Hat default from /root/.bashrc
alias cvsst='cvs -qn update' # Hack to get concise CVS status (like svn st)

```

```

alias del='rm' # DOS-ish for rm
alias df='df --print-type --exclude-type=tmpfs --exclude-type=devtmpfs'
alias diff='diff -u' # Make unified diffs the default
alias jdiff="\diff --side-by-side --ignore-case --ignore-blank-lines\
--ignore-all-space --suppress-common-lines" # Useful GNU diff command
alias dir='ls' # DOS-ish for ls
alias hu='history -n && history -a' # Read new hist. lines; append current lines
alias hr='hu' # "History update" backward compat to 'hr'
alias inxi='inxi -c19' # (Ubuntu) system information script
alias ipconfig='ifconfig' # Windows-ish for ifconfig
alias lesss='less -S' # Don't wrap lines
alias locate='locate -i' # Case-insensitive locate
alias man='LANG=C man' # Display manpages properly
alias md='mkdir' # DOS-ish for mkdir
alias move='mv' # DOS-ish for mv
#alias mv='mv -i' # Annoying Red Hat default from /root/.bashrc
alias ntsysv='rcconf' # Debian rcconf is pretty close to Red Hat ntsysv
#alias open='gnome-open' # Open files & URLs using GNOME handlers; see run below
alias pathping='mtr' # mtr - a network diagnostic tool
alias ping='ping -c4' # Only 4 pings by default
alias r='fc -s' # Recall and execute 'command' starting with...
alias rd='rmdir' # DOS-ish for rmdir
# Tweaked from http://bit.ly/2fc4e8Z
alias randomwords="shuf -n102 /usr/share/dict/words \
| perl -ne 'print qq(\u\$_);' | column"
alias ren='mv' # DOS-ish for mv/rename
#alias rm='rm -i' # Annoying Red Hat default from /root/.bashrc
alias reloadbind='rndc -k /etc/bind/rndc.key freeze \
&& rndc -k /etc/bind/rndc.key reload && rndc -k /etc/bind/rndc.key thaw'
# Reload dynamic BIND zones after editing db.* files
alias svndiff='meld' # Cool GUI diff, similar to TortoiseMerge
alias svnpropfix='svn propset svn:keywords "id url date"'
alias svnkey='svn propset svn:keywords "id url"'
alias svneol='svn propset svn:eol-style' # One of 'native', 'LF', 'CR', 'CRLF'
alias svnexe='svn propset svn:executable on'
alias top10='sort | uniq -c | sort -rn | head'
alias tracert='traceroute' # DOS-ish for traceroute
alias vzip='unzip -lvM' # View contents of ZIP file
alias wgetdir="wget --no-verbose --recursive --no-parent --no-directories \
--level=1" # Grab a whole directory using wget
alias wgetsdire="wget --no-verbose --recursive --timestamping --no-parent \
--no-host-directories --reject 'index.*'" # Grab a dir and subdirs
alias zonex='host -l' # Extract (dump) DNS zone

# Date/time
alias iso8601="date +%Y-%m-%dT%H:%M:%S%z" # ISO 8601 time
alias now="date +%F %T %Z(%z)" # More readable ISO 8601 local
alias utc="date --utc +%F %T %Z(%z)" # More readable ISO 8601 UTC

# Neat stuff from http://xmodulo.com/useful-bash-aliases-functions.html
alias meminfo='free -m -l -t' # See how much memory you have left
alias whatpid='ps auxx | grep' # Get PID and process info

```

```

alias port='netstat -tulnp'    # Show which apps are connecting to the network

# If the script exists and is executable, create an alias to get
# web server headers
for path in ${PATH//:/ }; do
    [ -x "$path/lwp-request" ] && alias httpdinfo='lwp-request -eUd' && break
done

# Useful functions

# Use 'gnome-open' to "run" things
function run {
    [ -r "$*" ] && {
        gnome-open "$*" >& /dev/null
    } || {
        echo "'$*' not found or not readable!"
    }
}

# Python version of 'perl -c'
function python-c {
    python -m py_compile "$1" && rm -f "${1}c"
}

# cd to the bottom of a narrow but deep dir tree
function bot {
    local dir=${1:-.}
    #cd $(dirname $(find $dir | tail -1))
    \cd $(find . -name CVS -prune -o -type d -print | tail -1)
}

# mkdir newdir then cd into it
# usage: mcd (<mode>) <dir>
function mcd {
    local newdir='_mcd_command_failed_'
    if [ -d "$1" ]; then        # Dir exists, mention that...
        echo "$1 exists..."
        newdir="$1"
    else
        if [ -n "$2" ]; then    # We've specified a mode
            command mkdir -p -m $1 "$2" && newdir="$2"
        else                    # Plain old mkdir
            command mkdir -p "$1" && newdir="$1"
        fi
    fi
    builtin cd "$newdir"        # No matter what, cd into it
} # end of mcd

```

```

# Trivial command-line calculator
function calc {
    # INTEGER ONLY! --> echo The answer is: $(( $* ))
    # Floating point
    awk "BEGIN {print \"$* = \" $* }";
    #awk "BEGIN {printf \"$* = %f\\", $* }";
} # end of calc
function addup {
    awk '{sum += $1} END {print sum}'
}

# Allow use of 'cd ...' to cd up 2 levels, 'cd ....' up 3, etc. (like 4NT/4DOS)
# Usage: cd ..., etc.
function cd {

    local option= length= count= cdpath= i= # Local scope and start clean

    # If we have a -L or -P symlink option, save then remove it
    if [ "$1" = "-P" -o "$1" = "-L" ]; then
        option="$1"
        shift
    fi

    # Are we using the special syntax? Make sure $1 isn't empty, then
    # match the first 3 characters of $1 to see if they are '...', then
    # make sure there isn't a slash by trying a substitution; if it fails,
    # there's no slash.
    if [ -n "$1" -a "${1:0:3}" = '...' -a "$1" = "${1%/*}" ]; then
        # We are using special syntax
        length=${#1} # Assume that $1 has nothing but dots and count them
        count=2     # 'cd ..' still means up one level, so ignore first two

        # While we haven't run out of dots, keep cd'ing up 1 level
        for ((i=$count;i<=$length;i++)); do
            cdpath="${cdpath}../" # Build the cd path
        done

        # Actually do the cd
        builtin cd $option "$cdpath"
    elif [ -n "$1" ]; then
        # We are NOT using special syntax; just plain old cd by itself
        builtin cd $option "$*"
    else
        # We are NOT using special syntax; plain old cd by itself to home dir
        builtin cd $option
    fi
} # end of cd

# Do site- or host-specific things here

```

```

case $HOSTNAME in
*.company.com ) # source $SETTINGS/company.com
                ;;
host1.*       ) # host1 stuff
                ;;
host2.company.com ) # source .bashrc.host2
                ;;
drake.*       ) # echo DRAKE in bashrc.jp!
                export TAPE=/dev/tape
                ;;
esac

```

Example 16-16 is a sample *inputrc*.

Example 16-16. *ch16/inputrc*

```

# cookbook filename: inputrc
# settings/inputrc: # readline settings
# To reread (and implement changes to this file) use:
# bind -f $SETTINGS/inputrc

# First, include any system-wide bindings and variable
# assignments from /etc/inputrc
# (fails silently if file doesn't exist)
$include /etc/inputrc

$if Bash
# Ignore case when doing completion
set completion-ignore-case on
# Completed dir names have a slash appended
set mark-directories on
# Completed names which are symlinks to dirs have a slash appended
set mark-symlinked-directories on
# List ls -F for completion
set visible-stats on
# Cycle through ambiguous completions instead of list
"\C-i": menu-complete
# Set bell to audible
set bell-style audible
# List possible completions instead of ringing bell
set show-all-if-ambiguous on

# From the readline documentation at
# https://cnswww.cns.cwru.edu/php/chet/readline/readline.html#SEC12
# Macros that are convenient for shell interaction
# edit the path
"\C-xp": "PATH=${PATH}|e\C-e\C-a|ef\C-f"
# prepare to type a quoted word -- insert open and close double quotes
# and move to just after the open quote
"\C-x|": "|"|C-b"
# insert a backslash (testing backslash escapes in sequences and macros)
"\C-x\\": "\\|"

```

```

# Quote the current or previous word
"\C-xq": "\eb"\\ef\"
# Add a binding to refresh the line, which is unbound
"\C-xr": redraw-current-line
# Edit variable on current line.
#"|M-|C-v": "|C-a|C-k$|C-y|M-|C-e|C-a|C-y="
"\C-xe": "\C-a|C-k$|C-y|M-|C-e|C-a|C-y="
$endif

# some defaults / modifications for the emacs mode
$if mode=emacs

# allow the use of the Home/End keys
"\e[1~": beginning-of-line
"\e[4~": end-of-line

# allow the use of the Delete/Insert keys
"\e[3~": delete-char
"\e[2~": quoted-insert

# mappings for "page up" and "page down" to step to beginning/end of the history
# "\e[5~": beginning-of-history
# "\e[6~": end-of-history

# alternate mappings for "page up" and "page down" to search the history
# "\e[5~": history-search-backward
# "\e[6~": history-search-forward

# MUCH nicer up-arrow search behavior!
"\e[A": history-search-backward ## up-arrow
"\e[B": history-search-forward  ## down-arrow

# mappings for Ctrl-left-arrow and Ctrl-right-arrow for word moving
### These were/are broken, and /etc/inputrc has better anyway
# "\e[5C": forward-word
# "\e[5D": backward-word
# "\e|e[C": forward-word
# "\e|e[D": backward-word

# for non RH/Debian xterm, can't hurt for RH/Debian xterm
"\eOH": beginning-of-line
"\eOF": end-of-line

# for FreeBSD console
"\e[H": beginning-of-line
"\e[F": end-of-line

$endif

```

Example 16-17 is a sample `bash_logout`.

Example 16-17. *ch16/bash_logout*

```
# cookbook filename: bash_logout

# settings/bash_logout: execute on shell logout

# Clear the screen on logout to prevent information leaks, if not already
# set as an exit trap elsewhere
[ -n "$PS1" ] && clear
```

Finally, **Example 16-18** is a sample *run_screen* (for GNU *screen*, which you may need to install).

Example 16-18. *ch16/run_screen*

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: run_screen
# run_screen--Wrapper script intended to run from a "profile" file to run
# screen at login time with a friendly menu.

# Sanity check
if [ "$TERM" == "screen" -o "$TERM" == "screen-256color" ]; then
    printf "%b" "According to \$TERM = '$TERM' we're *already* using" \
        " screen.\nAborting...\n"
    exit 1
elif [ "$USING_SCREEN" == "YES" ]; then
    printf "%b" "According to \$USING_SCREEN = '$USING_SCREEN' we're"
        " *already* using screen.\nAborting...\n"
    exit 1
fi

# The "$USING_SCREEN" variable is for the rare cases when screen does NOT set
# $TERM=screen. This can happen when 'screen' is not in TERMCAP or friends,
# as is the case on a Solaris 9 box we use but don't control. If we don't
# have some way to tell when we're inside screen, this wrapper goes into an
# ugly and confusing endless loop.

# Seed list with Exit and New options and see what screens are already running.
# The select list is whitespace-delimited, and we only want actual screen
# sessions, so use perl to remove whitespace, filter for sessions, and show
# only useful info from 'screen -ls' output.
available_screens="Exit New $(screen -ls \
    | perl -ne 's/\s+//g; print if s/^(\\d+\\.\\.?)?(?:\\(\\.??\\))?(\\(\\.??\\))$/\$1\$2\\n/;')"

# Print a warning if using runtime feedback
run_time_feedback=0
[ "$run_time_feedback" == 1 ] && printf "%b" "
+++++
'screen' Notes:

1) Sessions marked 'unreachable' or 'dead' should be investigated and
```

removed with the `-wipe` option if appropriate.`\n\n"`

```
# Present a list of choices
PS3='Choose a screen for this session: '
select selection in $available_screens; do
    if [ "$selection" == "Exit" ]; then
        break
    elif [ "$selection" == "New" ]; then
        export USING_SCREEN=YES
        exec screen -c $SETTINGS/screenrc -a \
            -S $USER.$(date '+%Y-%m-%d_%H:%M:%S%z')
        break
    elif [ "$selection" ]; then
        # Pull out just the part we need using cut
        # We'd rather use a 'here string' [$(cut -d'(' -f1 <<< $selection)]
        # than this echo, but they are only in bash-2.05b+
        screen_to_use=$(echo $selection | cut -d'(' -f1)"
        # Old: exec screen -dr $screen_to_use
        # Alt: exec screen -x $USER/$screen_to_use
        exec screen -r $USER/$screen_to_use
        break
    else
        printf "%b" "Invalid selection.\n"
    fi
done
```

Discussion

See the code and the code's comments for details.

Something interesting happens if you set `$PS1` at inappropriate times, or if you set traps using `clear`. Many people use code like this to test to see if the current shell is interactive:

```
if [ -n "$PS1" ]; then
    : Interactive code here
fi
```

If you arbitrarily set `$PS1` if the shell isn't interactive, or if you set a trap using just `clear` instead of `["$PS1"]&&clear`, you'll get errors like this when using `scp` or `ssh` noninteractively:

```
# e.g. from tput
No value for $TERM and no -T specified

# e.g. from clear
TERM environment variable not set.
```


See Also

- Chapter 17, Chapter 18, Chapter 19
- Recipe 16.20, “Using Initialization Files Correctly”
- Recipe 16.21, “Creating Self-Contained, Portable rc Files”
- Recipe 17.5, “Sharing a Single bash Session”
- Appendix C

Housekeeping and Administrative Tasks

These recipes cover tasks that come up in the course of using or administering computers. They are presented here because they don't fit well anywhere else in the book.

17.1 Renaming Many Files

Problem

You want to rename many files, but `mv *.foo *.bar` doesn't work. Or, you want to rename a group of files in arbitrary ways.

Solution

We presented a simple loop to change file extensions in [Recipe 5.18](#); see that recipe for more details. Here is a `for` loop example:

```
for FN in *.bad
do
    mv "${FN}" "${FN%bad}bash"
done
```

What about more arbitrary changes? For example, say you are writing a book and want the chapter filenames to follow a certain format, but the publisher has a conflicting format. You could name the files like `chNN=Title=Author.odt`, then use a simple `for` loop and `cut` in a command substitution to rename them:

```
for i in *.odt; do mv "$i" "$(echo "$i" | cut -d'=' -f1,3)"; done
```

Discussion

You should always use quotes around file arguments in case there's a space. While testing the code in the solution we also used *echo* and angle brackets to make it very clear what the arguments are (using `set -x` is also helpful). Once we were very sure our command worked, we removed the angle brackets and replaced *echo* with *mv*:

```
# Testing
$ for i in *.odt; do echo "<$i>" "<$(echo "$i" | cut -d=' ' -f1,3)>"; done
<ch01=Beginning Shell Scripting=JP.odt><ch01=JP.odt>
<ch02=Standard Output=CA.odt><ch02=CA.odt>
<ch03=Standard Input=CA.odt><ch03=CA.odt>
<ch04=Executing Commands=CA.odt><ch04=CA.odt>
[...]

# Even more testing
$ set -x

$ for i in *.odt; do echo "<$i>" "<$(echo "$i" | cut -d=' ' -f1,3)>"; done
++xtrace 1: echo ch01=Beginning Shell Scripting=JP.odt
++xtrace 1: cut -d= -f1,3
+xtrace 535: echo '<ch01=Beginning Shell Scripting=JP.odt>' '<ch01=JP.odt>'
<ch01=Beginning Shell Scripting=JP.odt><ch01=JP.odt>
++xtrace 1: echo ch02=Standard Output=CA.odt
++xtrace 1: cut -d= -f1,3
+xtrace 535: echo '<ch02=Standard Output=CA.odt>' '<ch02=CA.odt>'
<ch02=Standard Output=CA.odt><ch02=CA.odt>
++xtrace 1: echo ch03=Standard Input=CA.odt
++xtrace 1: cut -d= -f1,3
+xtrace 535: echo '<ch03=Standard Input=CA.odt>' '<ch03=CA.odt>'
<ch03=Standard Input=CA.odt><ch03=CA.odt>
++xtrace 1: echo ch04=Executing Commands=CA.odt
++xtrace 1: cut -d= -f1,3
+xtrace 535: echo '<ch04=Executing Commands=CA.odt>' '<ch04=CA.odt>'
<ch04=Executing Commands=CA.odt><ch04=CA.odt>

$ set +x
+xtrace 536: set +x
```

We have `for` loops like this throughout the book since they're so handy. The trick here is plugging the right values into the arguments to *mv*, or *cp*, or whatever. In this case we'd already used the `=` as a delimiter, and all we cared about was the first field, so it was pretty easy.

To figure out the values you need, use the *ls* (or *find*) command to list the files you are working on and pipe them into whatever toolchain seems appropriate—often *cut*, *awk*, or *sed*. *bash* parameter expansion ([Recipe 5.18](#)) is also very handy here:

```
ls *.odt | cut -d=' ' -f1
```

Hopefully, a recipe somewhere in the book will give you the details you need to come up with the right values for the arguments; then you can just plug all the pieces in and go. Be sure to test using *echo* first and watch out for spaces or other odd characters in filenames: they'll get you every time.



Don't name your script *rename*. We are aware of at least two different *rename* commands in major Linux flavors, and there are certainly many others. Red Hat's *util-linux* package includes a *rename from_string to_string file_name* tool. Debian and derivatives include Larry Wall's Perl-based *rename* in their Perl packages, and have a related *renameutils* package. And Solaris, HP-UX, and some BSDs document a *rename* system call, though that is not easily end user-accessible. Try the *rename* manpage on your system and see what you get.

See Also

- `man mv`
- `man rename`
- `help for`
- [Recipe 5.18, “Changing Pieces of a String”](#)
- [Recipe 9.2, “Handling Filenames Containing Odd Characters”](#)
- [Recipe 17.12, “Removing or Renaming Files Named with Special Characters”](#)
- [Recipe 19.13, “Debugging Scripts”](#)

17.2 Using GNU Texinfo and info on Linux

Problem

You are having trouble accessing documentation because much of the documentation for GNU tools on Linux is in Texinfo documents, the traditional manpages are just stubs, and the default *info* program is user-hostile (and you don't feel like learning yet another single-use program).

Solution

Pipe the *info* command into a useful pager, such as *less*, but note you will lose *info*'s link navigation features:

```
info bash | less
```

Discussion

info is basically a standalone version of the Emacs info reader, so if you are an Emacs fan, maybe it will make sense to you. However, piping it into *less* is a quick and simple way to view the documentation using a tool with which you're already familiar.

The idea behind Texinfo is good: generate various output formats from a single source. It's not new, since many other markup languages exist to do the same thing; we even talk about one in [Recipe 5.2](#). But if that's the case, why isn't there a TeX to *man* output filter? Perhaps because manpages follow a standard, structured, and time-tested format while Texinfo is more free-form.

There are other Texinfo viewers and converters if you don't like *info*, such as *pinfo*, *info2www*, *tkman*, and even *info2man* (which cheats and converts to POD and then to manpage format).

See Also

- `man info`
- `man man`
- <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Texinfo>
- [Recipe 5.2, "Embedding Documentation in Shell Scripts"](#)

17.3 Unzipping Many ZIP Files

Problem

You want to unzip many ZIP files in a directory, but `unzip *.zip` doesn't work.

Solution

Put the pattern in single quotes, because unlike most other Unix commands, *unzip* handles file globbing patterns itself:

```
unzip '*.zip'
```

You could also use a loop to unzip each file:

```
for x in /path/to/date*/name/*.zip; do unzip "$x"; done
```

or:

```
for x in $(ls /path/to/date*/name/*.zip 2>/dev/null); do unzip $x; done
```

Discussion

Unlike many Unix commands (e.g., *gzip* and *bzip2*), the last argument to *unzip* isn't an arbitrarily long list of files. To process the command `unzip *.zip`, the shell expands the wildcard, so (assuming you have files named *zipfile1.zip* to *zipfile4.zip*) `unzip *.zip` expands to `unzip zipfile1.zip zipfile2.zip zipfile3.zip zipfile4.zip`. This command attempts to extract *zipfile2.zip*, *zipfile3.zip*, and *zipfile4.zip* from *zipfile1.zip*. The command will fail unless *zipfile1.zip* actually contains files with those names.

The first method in the Solution section prevents the shell from expanding the wildcard by using single quotes. However, that only works if there is only one wildcard. The second and third methods work around that by running an explicit *unzip* command for each ZIP file found when the shell expands the wildcards, or returns the result of the *ls* command.

The *ls* version is used because the default behavior of *bash* (and *sh*) is to return unmatched patterns unchanged. That means you would be trying to unzip a file called `/path/to/date*/name/*.zip` if no files matched the wildcard pattern. *ls* will simply return null on STDOUT, and an error that we throw away on STDERR. You can set the `shopt -s nullglob` option to cause filename patterns that match no files to expand to a null string, rather than themselves.

See Also

- `man unzip`
- <http://www.info-zip.org>
- Recipe 15.13, “Working Around “Argument list too long” Errors”

17.4 Recovering Disconnected Sessions Using *screen*

Problem

You run long processes over SSH, perhaps over the WAN, and when you get disconnected you lose a lot of work. Or perhaps you started a long job from work, but need to go home and be able to check on the job later; you could run your process using *nohup*, but then you won't be able to reattach to it when your connection comes back or you get home.

Solution

Install and use GNU *screen*.

Using *screen* is very simple. Type `screen` or `screen -a`. The `-a` option includes all of *screen*'s capabilities, at the expense of some redraw (thus bandwidth) efficiency. Honestly, we use `-a` but have never noticed a difference.

When you do this, it will look like nothing happened, but you are now running inside a screen. `echo $SHLVL` should return a number greater than one if this worked (see also `$SHLVL` in [Recipe 16.2](#)). To test it, do an `ls -la`, then *kill* your terminal (do not exit cleanly, as you will exit *screen* as well). Log back into the machine and type `screen -r` to reconnect to *screen*. If that doesn't put you back where you left off, try `screen -d -r`. If that doesn't work, try `ps auwx | grep [s]creen` to see if *screen* is still running, and then try `man screen` for troubleshooting information—but it should just work. If you run into problems with that `ps` command on a system other than Linux, see [Recipe 17.21](#).

Starting *screen* with something like the following will make it easier to figure out what session to reattach to later if necessary:

```
screen -aS "$(whoami).$(date$$'$$ $$+$$%Y-%m-%d$$_$$%H:%M:%S%z$$'$$)
```

See the `run_screen` script in [Recipe 16.22](#).

To exit out of *screen* and your session, keep typing `exit` until all the sessions are gone. You can also type `Ctrl-A Ctrl-\` or `Ctrl-A quit` to exit *screen* itself (assuming you haven't changed the default meta key of `Ctrl-A` yet).

Discussion

According to the [screen website](#):

Screen is a full-screen window manager that multiplexes a physical terminal between several processes (typically interactive shells). Each virtual terminal provides the functions of the DEC VT100 terminal and, in addition, several control functions from the ANSI X3.64 (ISO 6429) and ISO 2022 standards (e.g., insert/delete line and support for multiple character sets). There is a scrollback history buffer for each virtual terminal and a copy-and-paste mechanism that allows the user to move text regions between windows.

That means you can have more than one session in a single SSH terminal (think DeskView on i286/386). But it also allows you to SSH into a machine, start a process, disconnect your terminal and go home, then reconnect and pick up—not where you left off, but where the process has continued to. And it allows multiple people to share a single session for training, troubleshooting, or collaboration (see [Recipe 17.5](#)).

Caveats

screen is often installed by default on Linux, but rarely on other systems. The *screen* binary must run as SUID *root* so it can write to the appropriate `/usr/dev` pseudotermini-

nals (PTYs). If *screen* doesn't work, this is a likely reason why (to fix it, run the command `chmod u+s /usr/bin/screen` as *root*).

Also, *screen* interferes with inline transfer protocols like *zmodem*. Newer versions of *screen* have configuration settings that deal with this; see the manpages.

Configuration

The default Emacs mode of *bash* command-line editing uses Ctrl-A to go to the start of the line. That's also the *screen* command mode, or meta key, so if you use Ctrl-A a lot (like we do), you may want to add the following to your `~/.screenrc` file:

```
# Sample settings for ~/.screenrc
# Change the C-a default to C-n (use C-n n to send literal ^N)
escape ^Nn

# Yes annoying audible bell, please
vbell off

# Detach on hangup
autodetach on

# Make the shell in every window a login shell
shell -$SHELL
```

See Also

- `screen` manpage
- <http://www.gnu.org/software/screen>
- http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/GNU_Screen
- <http://aperiodic.net/screen>
- Recipe 16.2, “Customizing Your Prompt”
- Recipe 16.22, “Getting Started with a Custom Configuration”
- Recipe 17.5, “Sharing a Single bash Session”
- Recipe 17.6, “Logging an Entire Session or Batch Job”
- Recipe 17.9, “Creating an Index of Many Files”
- Recipe 17.20, “Greping ps Output Without Also Getting the grep Process Itself”

17.5 Sharing a Single bash Session

Problem

You need to share a single *bash* session for training or troubleshooting purposes, and there are too many people for “over the shoulder” to work. Or you need to help someone who’s located somewhere else, and you need to share a session across a network.

Solution

Use GNU *screen* in multiuser mode. The following assumes that you have not changed the default meta key from Ctrl-A, as described in [Recipe 17.4](#). If you have, then use your new meta key (e.g., Ctrl-N) instead.

As the host, do the following:

- Enter `screen -S session_name` (no spaces allowed); e.g., `screen -S training`.
- Type Ctrl-A `addacl usernames`, listing the accounts (comma-delimited, no spaces!) that may access the display; e.g., Ctrl-A `addacl alice,bob,carol`. Note this allows full read/write access.
- Use the Ctrl-A `chacl usernames permbits list` command to refine permissions if needed.
- Turn on multiuser mode with Ctrl-A `multiuser on`.

As the viewer, do this:

- Use `screen -x user/name` to connect to a shared screen; e.g., `screen -x host/training`.
- Hit Ctrl-A K to kill the window and end the session.

Discussion

See [Recipe 17.4](#) for necessary details.

For multiuser mode, `/tmp/screens` must exist and be world-readable and executable.

screen versions 3.9.15-8 to 4.0.1-1 from Red Hat (i.e., RHEL3) are broken and should not be used if you want multiuser mode to work. Version 4.0.2-5 or later should work; for example, <http://bit.ly/2y9ufL4> (or later) works even on RHEL3. Once you start using the new version of *screen*, existing *screen* sockets in `$HOME/.screen` are not found and are thus orphaned and unusable. Log out of all sessions, and use the new version to create new sockets in `/tmp/screens/S-$USER`, then remove the `$HOME/.screen` directory.

See Also

- `man screen`
- <http://www.gnu.org/software/screen>
- Recipe 9.11, “Finding a File Using a List of Possible Locations”
- Recipe 16.22, “Getting Started with a Custom Configuration”
- Recipe 17.4, “Recovering Disconnected Sessions Using `screen`”
- Recipe 17.6, “Logging an Entire Session or Batch Job”

17.6 Logging an Entire Session or Batch Job

Problem

You need to capture all the output from an entire session or a long batch job.

Solution

There are many ways to solve this problem, depending on your needs and environment.

The simplest solution is to turn on logging to memory or disk in your terminal program. The problems with that are that your terminal program may not allow it, and when it gets disconnected you lose your log.

The next simplest solution is to modify the job to log itself, or redirect the entire thing to `tee` or a file. For example, one of the following might work:

```
long_noisy_job >& log_file
long_noisy_job 2>&1 | tee log_file

( long_noisy_job ) >& log_file
( long_noisy_job ) 2>&1 | tee log_file
```

The problems here are that you may not be able to modify the job, or the job itself may do something that precludes these solutions (e.g., if it requires user input, it could get stuck asking for the input before the prompt is actually displayed). That can happen because `STDOUT` is buffered, so the prompt could be in the buffer waiting to be displayed when more data comes in, but no more data will come in since the program is waiting for input.

The third solution is to use an interesting program called *script* that exists for this very purpose, and its probably already on your system. You run *script*, and it logs everything that happens to the logfile (called a *typescript*) you've given it, which is OK if you want to log the entire session—just start *script*, then run your job. But if you

only want to capture part of the session, there is no way to have your code start *script*, run something to log it, then stop *script* again. You can't script *script* because once you run it, you're in a subshell at a prompt (i.e., you can't do something like *script file_to_log_to some_command_to_run*).

Our final solution uses the terminal multiplexer *screen*. With *screen*, you can turn whole session logging on or off from inside your script. Once you are already running *screen*, do the following in your script:

```
# Set a logfile and turn on logging
screen -X logfile /path/to/logfile && screen -X log on

# Your commands here

# Turn logging back off
screen -X logfile 1 # Set buffer to 1 sec
sleep 3 # Wait to avoid file truncation...
screen -X log off
```

Discussion

We suggest you try the solutions in order, and use the first one that meets your needs. Unless you have very specific needs, *script* will probably work. But just in case, it can be handy to know about the *screen* option.

See Also

- `man script`
- `man screen`
- [Recipe 17.5, “Sharing a Single bash Session”](#)

17.7 Clearing the Screen When You Log Out

Problem

You use or administer some systems that do not clear the screen when you log out, and you'd rather not leave the tail end of whatever you were working on visible, since that could be an information leak.

Solution

Put the *clear* command in your `~/.bash_logout` ([Example 17-1](#), reproduced from [Recipe 16.22](#)).

Example 17-1. ch16/bash_logout

```
# cookbook filename: bash_logout

# settings/bash_logout: execute on shell logout

# Clear the screen on logout to prevent information leaks, if not already
# set as an exit trap elsewhere
[ -n "$PS1" ] && clear
```

Or set a trap to run *clear* on shell termination:

```
# Trap to clear the screen on exit from the shell to prevent
# information leaks, if not already set in ~/.bash_logout
trap ' [ -n "$PS1" ] && clear ' 0
```

Note that if you are connecting remotely and your client has a scrollback buffer, whatever you were working on may still be in there. *clear* also has no effect on your shell's command history.

Discussion

Setting a trap to clear the screen is probably overkill, but could conceivably cover an error situation in which *~/.bash_logout* is not executed. If you are really paranoid you can set both, but in that case you may also wish to look into TEMPEST and Faraday cages.

If you skip the test to determine whether the shell is interactive, you'll get errors like these under some circumstances:

```
# e.g., from tput
No value for $TERM and no -T specified

# e.g., from clear
TERM environment variable not set.
```

See Also

- <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/TEMPEST>
- http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Faraday_cage
- Recipe 16.22, “Getting Started with a Custom Configuration”

17.8 Capturing File Metadata for Recovery

Problem

You want to create a list of files and details about them for archive purposes; for example, to verify backups, recreate directories, etc. Or maybe you are about to do a large `chmod -R` and need a backout plan, or perhaps you keep `/etc/*` in a revision control system that does not preserve permissions or ownership.

Solution

Use GNU `find` with some `printf` formats, as seen in [Example 17-2](#).

Example 17-2. ch17/archive_meta-data

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: archive_meta-data

printf "%b" "Mode\tUser\tGroup\tBytes\tModified\tFileSpec\n" > archive_file
find / \(\ -path /proc -o -path /mnt -o -path /tmp -o -path /var/tmp \
-o -path /var/cache -o -path /var/spool \) -prune \
-o -type d -printf 'd%m\tu\tg\t%s\t%\t%p/\n' \
-o -type l -printf 'l%m\tu\tg\t%s\t%\t%p -> %l\n' \
-o -printf 'm\tu\tg\t%s\t%\t%p\n' >> archive_file
```



Note that the `-printf` expression is in the GNU version of `find`.

Discussion

The `(-path /proc -o -path...)` `-prune` part removes various directories you probably don't want to bother with. `-type d` is for directories. The `printf` format is prefixed with a `d`, then uses an octal mode, user, group, and so forth. `-type l` is for symbolic links and also shows you where each link points. With the contents of this file and some additional scripting, you can determine at a high level if anything has changed, or recreate mangled ownership or permissions. Note that this does not take the place of more security-oriented programs like Tripwire, AIDE, or Samhain.

See Also

- `man find`
- [Chapter 9](#)

- <https://www.tripwire.com/>
- <http://aide.sourceforge.net/>
- <http://la-samhna.de/samhain/index.html>

17.9 Creating an Index of Many Files

Problem

You have a number of files for which you'd like to create an index.

Solution

Use the *find* command in conjunction with *head*, *grep*, or other commands that can parse out comments or summary information from each file.

For example, if the second line of all your shell scripts follows the format “name—description” then this example will create a nice index:

```
for i in $(grep -EL '#![[:space:]]?/bin/sh' *); do head -2 $i | tail -1; done
```

Discussion

As noted, this technique depends on each file having some kind of summary information, such as comments, that may be parsed out. We then look for a way to identify the type of file, in this case a shell script, and grab the second line of each file.

If the files do not have easily parsed summary information, you can try something like this and manually work through the output to create an index:

```
for dir in $(find . -type d); do head -15 $dir/*; done
```



Watch out for binary files!

See Also

- `man find`
- `man grep`
- `man head`
- `man tail`

17.10 Using diff and patch

Problem

You can never remember how to use *diff* to create patches that may later be applied using *patch*.

Solution

If you are creating a simple patch for a single file, use:

```
$ diff -u original_file modified_file > your_patch
$
```

If you are creating a patch for multiple files in parallel directory structures, use:

```
$ cp -pR original_dirs/ modified_dirs/
$

# Make changes here

$ diff -Nru original_dirs/ modified_dirs/ > your_comprehensive_patch
$
```

To be especially careful, force *diff* to treat all files as ASCII using *-a*, and set your language and time zone to the universal defaults as shown:

```
$ LC_ALL=C TZ=UTC diff -aNru original_dirs/ modified_dirs/ \
> > your_comprehensive_patch
$

$ LC_ALL=C TZ=UTC diff -aNru original_dirs/ modified_dirs/
diff -aNru original_dirs/changed_file modified_dirs/changed_file
--- original_dirs/changed_file 2006-11-23 01:04:07.000000000 +0000
+++ modified_dirs/changed_file 2006-11-23 01:04:35.000000000 +0000
@@ -1,2 +1,2 @@
  This file is common to both dirs.
  -But it changes from one to the other.
  +But it changes from 1 to the other.
diff -aNru original_dirs/only_in_mods modified_dirs/only_in_mods
--- original_dirs/only_in_mods 1970-01-01 00:00:00.000000000 +0000
+++ modified_dirs/only_in_mods 2006-11-23 01:05:58.000000000 +0000
@@ -0,0 +1,2 @@
  +While this file is only in the modified dirs.
  +It also has two lines, this is the last.
diff -aNru original_dirs/only_in_orig modified_dirs/only_in_orig
--- original_dirs/only_in_orig 2006-11-23 01:05:18.000000000 +0000
+++ modified_dirs/only_in_orig 1970-01-01 00:00:00.000000000 +0000
@@ -1,2 +0,0 @@
  -This file is only in the original dirs.
  -It has two lines, this is the last.
```


To apply a patch file, *cd* to the directory of the single file or to the parent of the directory tree and use the *patch* command:

```
$ cd /path/to/files
$ patch -Np1 < your_patch
```

The *-N* argument to *patch* prevents it from reversing patches or reapplying patches that have already been made. *-p number* removes *number* of leading directories to allow for differences in directory structure between whoever created the patch and whoever is applying it. Using *-p1* will often work; if not, experiment with *-p0*, then *-p2*, etc. It'll either work or complain and ask you what to do, in which case you cancel and try something else unless you really know what you are doing.



The *patch* command supports an option called *--dry-run* that will, in the words of the manpage, “print the results of applying the patches without actually changing any files”—worth doing before you run the command for real.

Discussion

diff can produce output in various forms, some of which are more useful than others. Unified output, using *-u*, is generally considered the best because it is both reasonably human-readable and very robust when used with *patch*. It provides three lines of context around the change, which allows a human reader to get oriented, and allows the *patch* command to work correctly even if the file to be patched is different from the one used to create the patch. As long as the context lines are intact, *patch* can usually figure it out. Context output, using *-c*, is similar to *-u* output but is more redundant and not quite as easy to read. The *ed* format, using *-e*, produces a script suitable for use with the ancient *ed* editor. Finally, the default output is similar to the *ed* output, with a little more human-readable context:

```
# Unified format (preferred)
$ diff -u original_file modified_file
--- original_file      2006-11-22 19:29:07.000000000 -0500
+++ modified_file     2006-11-22 19:29:47.000000000 -0500
@@ -1,9 +1,9 @@
-This is original_file, and this line is different.
+This is modified_file, and this line is different.
  This line is the same.
  So is this one.
  And this one.
  Ditto.
-But this one is different.
+But this 1 is different.
  However, not this line.
  And this is the last same, same, same.
```

```

# Context format
$ diff -c original_file modified_file
*** original_file      Wed Nov 22 19:29:07 2006
--- modified_file      Wed Nov 22 19:29:47 2006
*****
*** 1,9 ****
! This is original_file, and this line is different.
  This line is the same.
  So is this one.
  And this one.
  Ditto.
! But this one is different.
  However, not this line.
  And this is the last same, same, same.

--- 1,9 ---
! This is modified_file, and this line is different.
  This line is the same.
  So is this one.
  And this one.
  Ditto.
! But this 1 is different.
  However,

# 'ed' format
$ diff -e original_file modified_file
6c
But this 1 is different.
.
1c
This is modified_file, and this line is different.
.

# Normal format
$ diff original_file modified_file
1c1
< This is original_file, and this line is different.
---
> This is modified_file, and this line is different.
6c6
< But this one is different.
---
> But this 1 is different.

```

The `-r` and `-N` arguments to *diff* are simple yet powerful. `-r` means, as usual, recursive operation through the directory structure, while `-N` causes *diff* to pretend that any file found in one directory structure also exists in the other as an empty file. In theory, that has the effect of creating or removing files as needed; however, in practice `-N` is

not supported on all systems (notably Solaris) and it may end up leaving zero-byte files lying around on others. Some versions of *patch* default to using `-b`, which leaves lots of *.orig* files laying around, and some versions (notably Linux) are less chatty than others (notably BSD). Many versions (not Solaris) of *diff* also support the `-p` argument, which tries to show which C function the patch affects.

Resist the urge to do something like `diff -u prog.c.orig prog.c`. This has the potential to cause all kinds of confusion since *patch* may also create *.orig* files. Also resist the urge to do something like `diff -u prog/orig.c new/orig/orig.c`, since *patch* will get very confused about the unequal number of directory names in the paths.

wdiff

There is another little-known tool called *wdiff* that is also of interest here. *wdiff* compares files to detect changes in words, as defined by surrounding whitespace. It can handle differing line breaks and tries to use termcap strings to produce more readable output. It can be handy when comparing line-by-line is not granular enough, and it is similar to the *word diff* feature of Emacs and `git diff --word-diff`. Note that it is rarely installed on a system by default. You can get it from the [Free Software Directory](#) or via your system's packaging manager. Here is an example of *wdiff*'s output:

```
$ wdiff original_file modified_file
This is [-original_file,-] {+modified_file,+} and this line is different.
This line is the same.
So is this one.
And this one.
Ditto.
But this [-one-] {+1+} is different.
However, not this line.
And this is the last same, same, same.
$
```

See Also

- `man diff`
- `man patch`
- `man cmp`
- <https://directory.fsf.org/wiki/Wdiff>
- <http://furius.ca/xxdiff/> for a great GUI *diff* (and more) tool

17.11 Counting Differences in Files

Problem

You have two files and need to know about how many differences exist between them.

Solution

Count the *hunks* (i.e., sections of changed data) in *diff*'s output:

```
$ diff -C0 original_file modified_file | grep -c "^\\*\\*\\*\\*\\*"
2
```

```
$ diff -C0 original_file modified_file
*** original_file      Fri Nov 24 12:48:35 2006
--- modified_file     Fri Nov 24 12:48:43 2006
*****
*** 1 ****
! This is original_file, and this line is different.
--- 1 ---
! This is modified_file, and this line is different.
*****
*** 6 ****
! But this one is different.
--- 6 ---
! But this 1 is different.
```

If you only need to know whether the files are different and not how many differences there are, use *cmp*. It will exit at the first difference, which can save time on large files. Like *diff*, it is silent if the files are identical, but it reports the location of the first difference if not:

```
$ cmp original_file modified_file
original_file modified_file differ: char 9, line 1
```

Discussion

Hunk is actually the technical term, though we've also seen hunks referred to as *chunks* in some places. Note that it is possible, in theory, to get slightly different results for the same files across different machines or versions of *diff*, since the number of hunks is a result of the algorithm *diff* uses. You will certainly get different answers when using different *diff* output formats, as demonstrated in the following examples.

We find a zero-context contextual *diff* to be the easiest to use for this purpose, and using *-C0* instead of *-c* creates fewer lines for *grep* to have to search. A unified *diff* tends to combine more changes than expected into one hunk, leading to fewer differences being reported:

```

$ diff -u original_file modified_file | grep -c "^@@"
1

$ diff -u original_file modified_file
--- original_file      2006-11-24 12:48:35.000000000 -0500
+++ modified_file     2006-11-24 12:48:43.000000000 -0500
@@ -1,8 +1,8 @@
-This is original_file, and this line is different.
+This is modified_file, and this line is different.
  This line is the same.
  So is this one.
  And this one.
  Ditto.
-But this one is different.
+But this 1 is different.
  However, not this line.
  And this is the last same, same, same.

```

A normal or *ed*-style *diff* works too, but the *grep* pattern is more complicated. Though not shown in this example, a multiline change in normal *grep* output might look like 2,3c2,3, thus requiring character classes and more typing than is the case using *-C0*:

```

$ diff -e original_file modified_file | egrep -c '^[[:digit:],]+[[:alpha:]]+'
2

$ diff original_file modified_file | egrep -c '^[[:digit:],]+[[:alpha:]]+'
2

$ diff original_file modified_file
1c1
< This is original_file, and this line is different.
---
> This is modified_file, and this line is different.
6c6
< But this one is different.
---
> But this 1 is different.

```

See Also

- `man diff`
- `man cmp`
- `man grep`
- <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Diff>

17.12 Removing or Renaming Files Named with Special Characters

Problem

You need to remove or rename a file that was created with a special character that causes *rm* or *mv* to behave in unexpected ways. The canonical example of this is any file starting with a dash, such as *-f* or *--help*, which will cause any command you try to use to interpret the filename as an argument.

Solution

If the filename begins with a dash, use *--* to signal the end of arguments to the command, or use a full (*/tmp/-f*) or relative (*./-f*) path. If the file contains other special characters that are interpreted by the shell, such as a space or asterisk, use shell quoting. If you use filename completion (the Tab key by default), it will automatically quote special characters for you. You can also use single quotes around the troublesome name:

```
$ ls
--help                this is a *crazy* file name!

$ mv --help help
mv: unknown option -- -
usage: mv [-fiv] source target
        mv [-fiv] source ... directory

$ mv -- --help my_help

$ mv this\ is\ a\ \*crazy*\ file\ name!\ this_is_a_better_name

$ ls
my_help                this_is_a_better_name
```

Discussion

To understand what is actually being executed after shell expansion, preface your command with *echo*:

```
$ rm *
rm: unknown option -- -
usage: rm [-f|-i] [-dPRrvW] file ...

$ echo rm *
rm --help this is a *crazy* file name!
```

You can also create a file named *-i* in a directory to prevent *rm ** from deleting all the files without asking first:

```

$ mkdir del-test ; cd $_

$ > -i

$ touch important_file

$ ll
total 0
-rw-r--r-- 1 jp jp 0 Jun 12 22:28 -i
-rw-r--r-- 1 jp jp 0 Jun 12 22:28 important_file

$ rm *
rm: remove regular empty file 'important_file'? n

```

See Also

- Question 11 in the [GNU Core Utilities FAQ](#)
- Sections 2.1 and 2.2 of the [Unix FAQs](#)
- [Recipe 1.8, “Using Shell Quoting”](#)

17.13 Prepending Data to a File

Problem

You want to prepend data to an existing file, for example to add a header after sorting.

Solution

Use *cat* in a subshell:

```

temp_file="temp.$RANDOM$RANDOM$$"
(echo 'static header line1'; cat data_file) > $temp_file \
  && cat $temp_file > data_file
rm $temp_file
unset temp_file

```

You could also use *sed*, the streaming editor. To prepend static text, note that backslash escape sequences are expanded in GNU *sed* but not in some other versions. Also, under some shells the trailing backslashes may need to be doubled:

```

# Any sed, e.g., Solaris 10 /usr/bin/sed
$ sed -e '1\
> static header line1
> ' data_file
static header line1
1 foo
2 bar
3 baz

```

```

$ sed -e '1i\
> static header line1\
> static header line2
> ' data_file
static header line1
static header line2
1 foo
2 bar
3 baz

# GNU sed
$ sed -e '1static header line1\nstatic header line2' data_file
static header line1
static header line2
1 foo
2 bar
3 baz

```

To prepend an existing file:

```

$ sed -e '$r data_file' header_file
Header Line1
Header Line2
1 foo
2 bar
3 baz

```

Discussion

This one seems to be a love/hate kind of thing. People either love the *cat* solution or love the *sed* solution, but not both. The *cat* version is probably faster and simpler; the *sed* solution is arguably more flexible.

You can also store a *sed* script in a file, instead of leaving it on the command line. Of course, you would usually redirect the output into a new file, like `sed -e '$r data' header > new_file`, but note that will change the file's inode and may change other attributes, such as permissions or ownership. To preserve everything but the inode, use `-i` for in-place editing if your version of *sed* supports that. Don't use `-i` with the reversed header file prepend form shown previously, though, or you will edit your header file! Also note that Perl has a similar `-i` option that also writes a new file, though Perl itself works rather differently than *sed* for this example:

```

# Show inode
$ ls -li data_file
509951 data_file

$ sed -i -e '1static header line1\nstatic header line2' data_file

$ cat data_file

```



```

static header line1
static header line2
1 foo
2 bar
3 baz
# Verify inode has changed
$ ls -i data_file
509954 data_file

```

To preserve everything (or if your *sed* does not have *-i* or you want to use the prepend file method mentioned earlier):

```

# Show inode
$ ls -i data_file
509951 data_file

# $RANDOM is bash-only; you can use mktemp on other systems
$ temp_file=$RANDOM$RANDOM

$ sed -e '$r data_file' header_file > $temp_file

# Only cat if the source exists and is not empty!
$ [ -s "$temp_file" ] && cat $temp_file > data

$ unset temp_file

$ cat data_file
Header Line1
Header Line2
1 foo
2 bar
3 baz

# Verify inode has NOT changed
$ ls -i data_file
509951 data

```

Prepending a header file to a datafile is interesting because it's rather counterintuitive. If you try to read the *header_file* file into the *data_file* file at line one, you get this:

```

$ sed -e '1r header_file' data_file
1 foo
Header Line1
Header Line2
2 bar
3 baz

```

So instead, we simply append the data to the header file and write the output to another file. Again, don't try to use *sed -i* or you will edit your header file.

Another way to prepend data is to use *cat* reading from STDIN with a here-document or a here-string. Note that here-strings are only available in *bash* 2.05b or newer, and

they don't do backslash escape sequence expansion, but they avoid all the *sed* version issues:

```
# Using a here-document
$ cat - data_file <<EoH
> Header line1
> Header line2
> EoH
Header line1
Header line2
1 foo
2 bar
3 baz
```

```
# Using a here-string in bash-2.05b+, no backslash escape sequence expansion
$ cat - data_file <<<'Header Line1'
Header Line1
1 foo
2 bar
3 baz
```

See Also

- `man cat`
- `man sed`
- <http://sed.sourceforge.net/sedfaq.html>
- <http://sed.sourceforge.net/sed1line.txt>
- <http://tldp.org/LDP/abs/html/x23170.html>
- Recipe 14.11, “Using Secure Temporary Files”
- Recipe 17.14, “Editing a File in Place”

17.14 Editing a File in Place

Problem

You want to edit an existing file without affecting the inode or permissions.

Solution

This is trickier than it sounds because many tools you might ordinarily use, such as *sed*, will write to a new file (thus changing the inode) even if they go out of their way to preserve other attributes.

The obvious solution is to simply edit the file and make your updates. However, we admit that that may be of limited use in a scripting situation. Or is it?

In [Recipe 17.13](#), you saw that *sed* writes a brand new file one way or another; however, there is an ancestor of *sed* that doesn't do that. It's called, anticlimactically, *ed*, and it is just as ubiquitous as its other famous descendant, *vi*. And interestingly, *ed* is scriptable. So here is our "prepend a header" example again, this time using *ed*:

```
# Show inode
$ ls -i data_file
306189 data_file

# Use printf "%b" to avoid issues with 'echo -e' or not
$ printf "%b" 'i\nHeader Line1\nHeader Line2\n.\nw\nq\n' | ed -s data_file
1 foo

$ cat data_file
Header Line1
Header Line2
1 foo
2 bar
3 baz

# Verify inode has NOT changed
$ ls -i data_file
306189 data_file
```

Discussion

Of course you can store an *ed* script in a file, just as you can with *sed*. In this case, it might be useful to see what that file looks like, to explain the mechanics of the *ed* script:

```
$ cat ed_script
i
Header Line1
Header Line2
.
w
q

$ ed -s data_file < ed_script
1 foo

$ cat data_file
Header Line1
Header Line2
1 foo
2 bar
3 baz
```

The `1i` in the `ed` script means to go to the first line and then go into insert mode, and the next two lines are literal. A single `.` all by itself on a line exits insert mode, `w` writes the file, and `q` quits. The `-s` suppresses diagnostic output, specifically for use in scripts.

One disadvantage to `ed` is that there isn't that much documentation for it anymore. It's been around since the beginning of Unix, but it's not commonly used anymore even though it exists on every system we checked. Since both `vi` (via `ex`) and `sed` (spiritually at least¹) are descended from `ed`, however, you should be able to figure out anything you might want to do. Note that `ex` is a symbolic link to `vi` or a variant on many systems, while `ed` is just `ed`.

Another way to accomplish the same effect is to use `sed` or some other tool, write the changed file into a new file, then `cat` it back into the original file. This is obviously inefficient. It is also easier to say than to do safely because if the change fails for any reason you could end up writing nothing back over the original file (see the example in [Recipe 17.13](#)).

See Also

- `man ed`
- `man ex`
- `ls -l which ex`
- <http://sed.sourceforge.net/sedfaq.html>
- [Recipe 17.13](#), “Prepending Data to a File”

17.15 Using `sudo` on a Group of Commands

Problem

You are running as a regular user and need to `sudo` several commands at once, or you need to use redirection that applies to the commands and not to `sudo`.

Solution

Use `sudo` to run a subshell in which you may group your commands and use pipelines and redirection:

```
sudo bash -c 'command1 && command2 || command3'
```

¹ See <http://www.columbia.edu/~rh120/ch106.x09>.

This requires the ability to run a shell as *root*. If you can't, have your system administrator write a quick script and add it to your *sudo* privilege specification.

Discussion

If you try something like `sudo command1 && command2 || command3` you'll find that *command2* and *command3* are running as you, not as *root*. That's because *sudo*'s influence only extends to the first command and *your* shell is doing the rest. That is, the *sudo* command only extends as far as the ampersands; the shell sees them as the separator between commands.

Note the use of the `-c` argument to *bash*, which causes it to just execute the given commands and exit. Without that you will just end up running a new interactive *root* shell, which is probably not what you wanted. With `-c` you are still running a non-interactive *root* shell, and you need to have the *sudo* rights to do that. macOS and some Linux distributions, such as Ubuntu, actually disable the *root* user to encourage you to only log in as a normal user and *sudo* as needed (the Mac hides this better) for administration. If you are using an OS like that, or have rolled your own *sudo* setup, you should be fine. However, if you are running a locked-down environment, this recipe may not work for you.

To learn whether you may use *sudo* and what you are and are not allowed to do, use `sudo -l`. Almost any other use of *sudo* will probably trigger a security message to your administrator tattling on you. You can try using `sudo sudo -V | less` as a regular user or just `sudo -V | less` if you are already *root* to get a lot of information about how *sudo* is compiled and configured on your system.

su and sudo

It's always been a best practice to run as a regular user and only use *root* privileges when absolutely necessary. While the *su* command is handy, many argue that *sudo* is better, for reasons such as the following:

- It takes more work to get *sudo* working properly (in other words, locked down rather than just "ALL=(ALL) ALL") and it can be slightly less convenient to use, but it can also foster more secure work practices.
- You can forget that you have *su'd* to *root* and do something unfortunate.
- Having to type `sudo` all the time makes you think about what you are doing a little more.
- *sudo* allows delegation of individual commands to other users without sharing *root*'s password.
- *sudo* can do everything *su* can, while the reverse is not true.

Both commands can incorporate logging, and there are some tricks that can make each command work very much like the other; however, there are still some significant differences. One of the most important is that with *sudo* you enter your own password to confirm your identity before being allowed to execute a command. Thus, *root*'s password is not shared if more than one person needs some *root* privileges. This brings us to the second difference: *sudo* can be very specific about what commands a given user can and cannot execute. That restriction can be tricky, since many applications allow you to shell out and do something else (so, if you are able to *sudo* into *vi*, you can shell out and have an unrestricted *root* prompt). Still, used carefully *sudo* is an excellent tool.

See Also

- `man su`
- `man sudo`
- `man sudoers`
- `man visudo`
- `sudo`
- <https://help.ubuntu.com/community/RootSudo>
- Recipe 14.15, “Writing setuid or setgid Scripts”
- Recipe 14.18, “Running as a Non-root User”
- Recipe 14.19, “Using sudo More Securely”
- Recipe 14.20, “Using Passwords in Scripts”

17.16 Finding Lines That Appear in One File but Not in Another

Problem

You have two datafiles and you need to compare them and find lines that exist in one file but not in the other.

Solution

Sort the files and isolate the data of interest using *cut* or *awk* if necessary, and then use *comm*, *diff*, *grep*, or *uniq* depending on your needs.

comm is designed for just this type of problem:

```
$ cat left
record_01
record_02.left only
record_03
record_05.differ
record_06
record_07
record_08
record_09
record_10

$ cat right
record_01
record_02
record_04
record_05
record_06.differ
record_07
record_08
record_09.right only
record_10
# Only show lines in the left file
$ comm -23 left right
record_02.left only
record_03
record_05.differ
record_06
record_09

# Only show lines in the right file
$ comm -13 left right
record_02
record_04
record_05
record_06.differ
record_09.right only

# Only show lines common to both files
$ comm -12 left right
record_01
record_07
record_08
record_10
```

diff will quickly show you all the differences from both files, but its output is not terribly pretty and you may not need to know all the differences. GNU *diffs* *-y* and *-W* options can be handy for readability, but you can get used to the regular output as well:

```
$ diff -y -W 60 left right
record_01                record_01
record_02.left only      | record_02
record_03                | record_04
record_05.differ         | record_05
record_06                | record_06.differ
record_07                record_07
record_08                record_08
record_09                | record_09.right only
record_10                record_10
```

```
$ diff -y -W 60 --suppress-common-lines left right
record_02.left only      | record_02
record_03                | record_04
record_05.differ         | record_05
record_06                | record_06.differ
record_09                | record_09.right only
```

```
$ diff left right
2,5c2,5
< record_02.left only
< record_03
< record_05.differ
< record_06
---
> record_02
> record_04
> record_05
> record_06.differ
8c8
< record_09
---
> record_09.right only
```

Some systems (e.g., Solaris) may use *sdiff* instead of `diff -y` or have a separate binary such as *bdiff* to process very large files.

grep can show you when lines exist only in one file and not the other, and you can figure out which file if necessary. But since it's doing regular expression matches, it will not be able to handle differences within the line unless you edit the file that becomes the pattern file, and it will also get very slow as the file sizes grow.

This example shows all the lines that exist in the file *left* but not in the file *right*:

```
$ grep -vf right left
record_03
record_06
record_09
```

Note that only “record_03” is really missing; the other two lines are simply different. If you need to detect such variations, you'll need to use *diff*. If you need to ignore them, use *cut* or *awk* as necessary to isolate the parts you need into temporary files.

`uniq -u` can show you only lines that are unique in the files, but it will not tell you which file the line came from (if you need to know that, use one of the previous solutions). `uniq -d` will show you only lines that exist in both files:

```
$ sort right left | uniq -u
record_02
record_02.left only
record_03
record_04
record_05
record_05.differ
record_06
record_06.differ
record_09
record_09.right only

$ sort right left | uniq -d
record_01
record_07
record_08
record_10
```

Discussion

`comm` is your best choice if it's available and you don't need the power of `diff`.

You may need to `sort` and/or `cut` or `awk` into temporary files and work from those if you can't disrupt the original files.

See Also

- `man cmp`
- `man diff`
- `man grep`
- `man uniq`

17.17 Keeping the Most Recent N Objects

Problem

You need to keep the most recent *N* logfiles or backup directories, and purge the remainder, no matter how many there are.

Solution

Create an ordered list of the objects, pass them as arguments to a function, shift the arguments by *N*, and return the remainder, as shown in [Example 17-3](#).

Example 17-3. *ch17/func_shift_by*

```
# cookbook filename: func_shift_by

# Pop a given number of items from the top of a stack,
# such that you can then perform an action on whatever is left.
# Called like: shift_by <# to keep> <ls command, or whatever>
# Returns: the remainder of the stack or list
#
# For example, list some objects, then keep only the top 10.
#
# It is CRITICAL that you pass the items in order with the objects to
# be removed at the top (or front) of the list, since all this function
# does is remove (pop) the number of entries you specify from the top
# of the list.
#
# You should experiment with echo before using rm!
#
# For example:
#     rm -rf $(shift_by $MAX_BUILD_DIRS_TO_KEEP $(ls -rd backup.2006*))
#
function shift_by {

# If $1 is zero or greater than $#, the positional parameters are
# not changed. In this case that is a BAD THING!
if (( $1 == 0 || $1 > ( $# - 1 ) )); then
    echo ''
else
    # Remove the given number of objects (plus 1) from the list.
    shift $(( $1 + 1 ))
    # Return whatever is left.
    echo "$*"
fi
}
```



If you try to shift the positional parameters by zero or by more than the total number of positional parameters (*\$#*), *shift* will do nothing. If you are using *shift* to process a list then delete what it returns, that will result in you deleting everything. Make sure to test the argument to *shift* to make sure that it's not zero and it is greater than the number of positional parameters. Our *shift_by* function does this.

For example:

```

$ source shift_by

$ touch {1..9}

$ ls ?
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

$ shift_by 3 $(ls ?)
4 5 6 7 8 9

$ shift_by 5 $(ls ?)
6 7 8 9

$ shift_by 5 $(ls -r ?)
4 3 2 1

$ shift_by 7 $(ls ?)
8 9

$ shift_by 9 $(ls ?)

# Keep only the last 5 objects
$ echo "rm -rf $(shift_by 5 $(ls ?))"
rm -rf 6 7 8 9

# In production we'd test this first! See discussion.
$ rm -rf $(shift_by 5 $(ls ?))

$ ls ?
1 2 3 4 5

```

Discussion

Make sure you fully test both the argument returned and what you intend to do with it. For example, if you are deleting old data, use *echo* to test the command that would be performed before doing it live. Also test that you have a value at all, or else you could end up doing `rm -rf` and getting an error. Never do something like `rm -rf / $variable`, because if *\$variable* is ever null you will start deleting the root directory, which is particularly bad if you are running as *root*!

Using the function in the solution to delete files in production might look like this:

```

$files_to_nuke=$(shift_by 5 $(ls ?))
[ -n $files_to_nuke ] && rm -rf "$files_to_nuke"

```

This recipe takes advantage of the fact that arguments to a function are affected by the *shift* command inside that function, which makes it trivial to pop objects off the stack (otherwise we'd have to do some fancy substring or for loop operations). We must shift by $n+1$ because the first argument ($$1$) is actually the count of the items to

shift, leaving \$2..N as the number of objects in the stack. We could also write it more verbosely this way:

```
function shift_by {
    shift_count=$1
    shift

    shift $shift_count

    echo "$*"
}
```

It's possible you may run afoul of your system's ARG_MAX (see [Recipe 15.13](#) for details) if the paths to the objects are very long or you have a very large number of objects to handle. In the former case, you may be able to create some breathing room by changing directories closer to the objects to shorten the paths, or by using symbolic links. In the latter case, you can use this more complicated for loop:

```
objects_to_keep=5
counter=1

for file in /path/with/many/many/files/**; do
    if [ $counter -gt $objects_to_keep ]; then
        remainder="$remainder $file"
    fi
    (( counter++ ))
done

[ -n "$remainder" ] && echo "rm -rf $remainder"
```

A common method of doing a similar operation is a trickle-down scheme such as the following:

```
rm -rf backup.3/
mv backup.2/ backup.3/
mv backup.1/ backup.2/
cp -al backup.0/ backup.1/
```

This works very well in many cases, especially when combined with hard links to conserve space while allowing multiple backups—see Hack #42 in Rob Flickenger's *Linux Server Hacks* (O'Reilly). However, if the number of existing objects fluctuates or is not known in advance, this method won't work.

See Also

- help for
- help shift
- *Linux Server Hacks* by Rob Flickenger (O'Reilly), Hack #42
- [Recipe 13.5, "Parsing Output with a Function Call"](#)

- Recipe 15.13, “Working Around “Argument list too long” Errors”
- Recipe 17.18, “Writing to a Circular Log”

17.18 Writing to a Circular Log

Problem

You need to write datafiles and/or logs but you don't want to spend too much effort purging them when they are obsolete.

Solution

Write the data into circular set of files or directories, such as days of the week or month, or months. You also need to have a way to clear the old data when you circle around again.

Discussion

This will only work if you have some well-defined series that can be circular, such as hours of the day, days of the week, days of the month, or months. But it turns out that those cover a lot of ground.

It helps to start with an example, so circular days of the week logfiles might look like this:

```
1_Mon.log
2_Tue.log
3_Wed.log
4_Thu.log
5_Fri.log
6_Sat.log
7_Sun.log
```

We use the slightly odd *strftime* format `%u_%a` to make the files sort in a human-readable way (yes, *sort* can handle days of the week, but *ls* can't). Then all of Monday's log messages go into `1_Mon.log`, and so on, and on Sunday at midnight we wrap around to Monday again.

Typical formats include:

```
$ printf "%(%u_%a)T" # day of week
2_Tue

$ printf "%(%d)T" # day of month
06
```

```
$ printf "%(m_%b)T" # month
12_Dec
```

The only tricky part is clearing out the data from last Monday before you start writing data for this Monday. If you have a log statement that is always the first to run on a new day, then have that statement truncate the output file using `>` instead of the `>>` you need to use to append everywhere else. But watch out for race conditions—it really has to be guaranteed to be the very first log line of the correct day. Perhaps a safer way is to use a *cron* job to delete tomorrow’s data a few minutes before midnight. There’s no race condition there, since you know the last time you wrote to that file was a week (or whatever period) ago, but there is a risk that if the *cron* job fails to run correctly that data will not be purged.

Another way to do it is to have every call to the logging function delete the data for tomorrow. This is robust but inefficient, since most of the time there will be nothing to delete. It also reduces the window to $N-1$, since “tomorrow” is always deleted.

For example:

```
function mylog {
    local today tomorrow

    # Log for today
    printf -v today "%(u_%a)T"
    echo "$*" >> $HOME/weekly_logs/$today.txt # e.g., 1_Mon

    # Purge data from tomorrow
    tomorrow=$(date -d 'tomorrow' '+u_%a')
    rm -f $HOME/weekly_logs/$tomorrow.txt
}
```

Note how we use both the *bash* builtin `printf %(strftime format)T` and the GNU *date* command with the very useful `-d` or `--date` argument of *tomorrow*. Using *printf* is more efficient since *bash* already knows what time it is and there is no need for a subshell and external program, but that can’t tell you what tomorrow will be.

Here are some example *cron* entries for a script that just keeps an eye on something:

```
# Keep an eye on whatever it is every hour...
06 * * * * /home/user/report/keep-an-eye-on-it.sh ❶

# Keep weekly reports
02 00 * * Mon ln -fs "queue-report_$(date '+\%F').txt"
/home/user/report/keep-an-eye-on-it.txt ❷

# Start the day fresh (which means rolling 6-7 days...)
03 00 * * * rm -f /home/user/report/$(date '+\%u_\%a')/* ❸
```

❶ Run the script every hour.

- ② Create a symlink like `keep-an-eye-on-it.txt → keep-an-eye-on-it_2017-10-09.txt` so when the script writes to `keep-an-eye-on-it.txt` output actually goes to a weekly `keep-an-eye-on-it_2017-10-09.txt` report you can archive. `%F` is a shortcut in some versions of *date* for `%Y-%m-%d`.
- ③ Remove the contents of “tomorrow’s” directory, just before midnight. Note that in some versions of *cron* (e.g., *Vixie-cron*) you must escape `%` signs or you will get an error like “Syntax error: EOF in backquote substitution.”

See Also

- `help printf`
- `man date`
- [Chapter 11](#)
 - [Recipe 11.10, “Logging with Dates”](#)
- [Recipe 17.19, “Circular Backups”](#)
- [Recipe 19.10, “Deleting Files Using an Empty Variable”](#)

17.19 Circular Backups

Problem

You need to back up some data but you don’t want to spend too much effort purging the backups when they are obsolete.

Solution

Write the backups into circular set of files or directories, such as days of the week or month, or months. You also need to have a way to clear the old data when you circle around again.

Discussion

We’ve found that every once in a while Firefox will lose its session restore feature, so we have a simple script to back up and restore that ([Example 17-4](#)).

Example 17-4. ch17/ff-sessions

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: ff-sessions
# Save/Restore FF sessions
```

```

# Run from cron like:
# 45 03,15 * * * opt/bin/ff-sess.sh qsave ❶

FF_DIR="$HOME/.mozilla/firefox"
date=$(date '+%u_%a_%H') # e.g.: 3_Wed_15 ❷

case "$1" in
  qsave ) # Quiet save
    cd $FF_DIR
    rm -f ff_sessions_$date.zip ❸
    zip -9qr ff_sessions_$date.zip */session* ❹
    ;;

  save ) # Noisy save (calls qsave)
    echo "SAVING '$FF_DIR/*/session*' data into '$date' file" ❺
    $0 qsave ❻
    ;;

  restore )
    [ -z "$2" ] && { echo "Need a date to restore from!"; exit 1; } ❼
    date="$2" ❽
    echo "Restoring session data from '$date' file"
    cd $FF_DIR
    unzip -o ff_sessions_$date.zip ❾
    ;;

  * ) ❿
    echo 'Save/Restore FF sessions'
    echo "$0 save"
    echo "$0 restore <date>"
    echo "    e.g., $0 restore 3_Wed_15"
    ;;
esac

```

- ❶ Run from *cron* with a line like in the comment, in this case twice a day at 3:45 a.m. and 3:45 p.m.
- ❷ As in [Recipe 17.18](#), we prefix the human-readable day of the week with a number to make it sort correctly, then we add the hour at which the job ran.
- ❸ *zip* will normally append to a ZIP file, so we remove any existing file just in case you have added or removed a profile. The *-f* (force) option will prevent *rm* from generating an error if the file does not exist.
- ❹ We use *-9* for maximum compression, *-q* for quiet, and *-r* for recursive *zip* operation, then we back up anything in the Firefox profile directories that starts with *session*.

- ⑤ The “save” argument will display a message about what it’s doing.
- ⑥ Then it will call the “quiet” save. Normally for *cron* jobs you only want output if something went wrong; otherwise you get an email every time the job runs.
- ⑦ We’ve compressed what might otherwise be several lines into one line here because, while the sanity check is important, we don’t want to distract from the main point of the block.
- ⑧ We assign `$2` to `$date` for later code clarity. This may seem silly in so small a block, but it’s generally a good practice to follow and it’s better to be consistent and not waste time thinking, “Should I?”
- ⑨ We use `-o` for *unzip* to overwrite the existing files, if any, so we’re not prompted about that.
- ⑩ Finally, if we provide no options or the wrong ones, we get a helpful reminder about usage.

This script can easily be extended to save weekly, monthly, and yearly backups by either adding more options or changing the script to take an argument instead of hardcoding “now” as we did, then adding more *cron* jobs with the appropriate arguments. Note that in some versions of *cron* (e.g., Vixie-cron) you must escape % signs or you will get an error like “Syntax error: EOF in backquote substitution.”

See Also

- `man zip`
- `man unzip`
- <http://bit.ly/ZrLpRn>
- http://kb.mozillazine.org/Session_Restore (“Troubleshooting”)
- https://wiki.mozilla.org/Session_Restore
- Recipe 17.18, “Writing to a Circular Log”

17.20 Grepping `ps` Output Without Also Getting the `grep` Process Itself

Problem

You want to `grep` output from the `ps` command without also getting the `grep` process itself.

Solution

Change the pattern you are looking for so that it is a valid regular expression that will not match the literal text that `ps` will display:

```
$ ps aux | grep 'ssh'
root  366  0.0  1.2  340  1588 ??  Is   200ct06  0:00.68 /usr/sbin/sshd
root 25358 0.0  1.9  472  2404 ??  Ss   Wed07PM  0:02.16 sshd: root@tty0
jp   27579 0.0  0.4  152   540 p0  S+   3:24PM   0:00.04 grep ssh
$ ps aux | grep '[s]sh'
root  366  0.0  1.2  340  1588 ??  Is   200ct06  0:00.68 /usr/sbin/sshd
root 25358 0.0  1.9  472  2404 ??  Ss   Wed07PM  0:02.17 sshd: root@tty0
$
```

Discussion

This works because `[s]` is a regular expression character class containing a single lowercase letter `s`, meaning that `[s]sh` will match `ssh` but not the literal string `grep [s]sh` that `ps` will display.

The other (less efficient and more clunky) solution you might see is something like this:

```
ps aux | grep 'ssh' | grep -v grep
```

See Also

- `man ps`
- `man pgrep`
- `man grep`

17.21 Finding Out Whether a Process Is Running

Problem

You need to determine whether a process is running, and you might or might not already have a process ID (PID).

Solution

If you don't already have a PID, *grep* the output of the *ps* command to see if the program you are looking for is running (see [Recipe 17.20](#) for details on why our pattern is `[s]sh`):

```
ps -ef | grep -q 'bin/[s]shd' && echo 'ssh is running' || echo 'ssh not running'
```

That's nice, but you know it's not going to be that easy, right? Right. It's difficult because *ps* can be wildly different from system to system.

[Example 17-5](#) is a script you can use to find out if a process is running if you don't have a PID.

Example 17-5. ch17/is_process_running

```
# cookbook filename: is_process_running

# Can you believe this!?!?
case `uname` in
  Linux|AIX) PS_ARGS='-ewwo pid,args' ;;
  SunOS)    PS_ARGS='-eo pid,args'   ;;
  *BSD)     PS_ARGS='axwwo pid,args' ;;
  Darwin)   PS_ARGS='Awwwo pid,command' ;;
esac

if ps $PS_ARGS | grep -q 'bin/[s]shd'; then
  echo 'sshd is running'
else
  echo 'sshd not running'
fi
```

If you do have a PID, say from a lockfile or an environment variable, just search for it (be careful to match the PID up with some other recognizable string so that you don't have a collision where some other random process just happens to have a stale PID that matches the one you are using). Use the PID in the *grep* or in a `-p` argument to *ps*:

```
# Linux
$ ps -wwo pid,args -p 1394 | grep 'bin/sshd'
1394 /usr/sbin/sshd
```

```
# BSD
$ ps ww -p 366 | grep 'bin/sshd'
366 ?? Is 0:00.76 /usr/sbin/sshd
```

If your system has *pgrep* installed, you can use that too. It has many options, but we're only using *-f* to search the full command line instead of just the process name, and *-a* to display the full command line:

```
$ pgrep -fa 'bin/[s]shd' ; echo $?
1278 /usr/sbin/sshd -D
```

Discussion

The test and *grep* portion of the first solution requires a little explanation. You need the " " around the $\$()$ so that if *grep* outputs anything, the test is true. If the *grep* is silent because nothing matches, then the test is false. You just have to make sure your *ps* and *greps* do exactly what you want.

Unfortunately, the *ps* command is one of the most fragmented in all of Unix. It seems like every flavor of Unix and Linux has different arguments and processes them in different ways. All we can tell you is that you'll need to thoroughly test against all systems on which your script will be running.

You can easily search for anything you can express as a regular expression, but make sure your expressions are specific enough not to match anything else. That's why we used `bin/[s]shd` instead of just `[s]shd`, which would also match user connections (see [Recipe 17.20](#)). At the same time, `/usr/sbin/[s]shd` might be bad in case some crazy system doesn't use that location. There is often a fine line between too much and not enough specificity. For example, you may have a program that can run multiple instances using different configuration files, so make sure you search for the config file as well if you need to isolate the correct instance. The same thing may apply to users, if you are running with enough rights to see other users' processes.



In versions of Solaris older than 11.3 SRU 5, *ps* was hardcoded to limit arguments to only 80 characters. If you have long paths or commands and still need to check for a config filename, you may run into that limit.

See Also

- `man ps`
- `man grep`
- [Recipe 17.20, “Grepning ps Output Without Also Getting the grep Process Itself”](#)
- `man pgrep`

- `man pidof`
- `man killall`
- <https://blogs.oracle.com/casper/solaris-113-sru-56:-updates-in-ps1-and-procltpidgtcmldline,envirom,execname>

17.22 Adding a Prefix or Suffix to Output

Problem

You'd like to add a prefix or a suffix to each line of output from a given command for some reason. For example, you're collecting *last* statistics from many machines, and it's much easier to *grep* or otherwise parse the data you collect if each line contains the hostname.

Solution

Pipe the appropriate data into a `while read` loop and *printf* as needed. For example, this prints the `$HOSTNAME`, followed by a tab, followed by any nonblank lines of output from the *last* command:

```
last | while read i; do [[ -n "$i" ]] && printf "%b" "$HOSTNAME\t$i\n"; done
```

Or you can use *awk* to add text to each line:

```
last | awk "BEGIN { OFS=\"\\t\" } ! /^$/ { print \"$HOSTNAME\\\", \\$0}"
```

Or, to write a new logfile, use:

```
last | while read i; do [[ -n "$i" ]] && printf "%b" "$HOSTNAME\t$i\n"; \
done > last_${HOSTNAME}.log
```

or:

```
last | awk "BEGIN { OFS=\"\\t\" } ! /^$/ { print \"$HOSTNAME\\\", \\$0}" \
> last_${HOSTNAME}.log
```

Discussion

We use `[[-n "$i"]]` to remove any blank lines from the *last* output, and then we use *printf* to display the data. Quoting for this method is simpler, but it uses more steps (*last*, *while*, and *read*, as opposed to just *last* and *awk*). You may find one method easier to remember, more readable, or faster than the other, depending on your needs.

There is a trick to the *awk* command we used here. Often you will see single quotes surrounding *awk* commands to prevent the shell from interpreting *awk* variables as shell variables. However, in this case we *want* the shell to interpolate `$HOSTNAME`, so

we surround the command with double quotes. That requires us to use backslash escapes on the elements of the command that we do *not* want the shell to handle, namely the internal double quotes, the \$ end-of-line anchor, and the *awk* \$0 variable, which contains the current line.

For a suffix, simply move the \$0 variable:

```
last | while read i; do [[ -n "$i" ]] && printf "%b" "$i\t$HOSTNAME\n"; done
```

or with *awk*:

```
last | awk "BEGIN { OFS=\\t } ! /^$/ { print \\$0, \\$HOSTNAME\\}"
```

You could also use Perl:

```
last | perl -ne "print qq($HOSTNAME\t\\$_) if ! /^\\s*$/;"
```

or *sed* (note the → denotes a literal tab character, typed by pressing Ctrl-V then Ctrl-I):

```
last | sed "s/./$HOSTNAME → &/; /^$/d"
```

In the Perl command, we use qq() instead of double quotes to avoid having to escape the parts of the command we don't want the shell to interpret. The last part is a regular expression that matches a line containing either nothing or only whitespace, and \$_ is the Perl idiom for the current line. In the *sed* command we replace any line containing at least one character with the prefix and the character that matched (&), then delete any blank lines.

See Also

- *Effective awk Programming*, 4th Edition, by Arnold Robbins
- *sed & awk*, 2nd Edition, by Arnold Robbins and Dale Dougherty
- [Recipe 1.8, “Using Shell Quoting”](#)
- [Recipe 13.15, “Trimming Whitespace”](#)
- [Recipe 13.18, “Processing Files with No Line Breaks”](#)

17.23 Numbering Lines

Problem

You need to number the lines of a text file for reference or for use as an example.

Solution

Thanks to Michael Wang for contributing the following shell-only implementation and reminding us about `cat -n`. Note that our sample file named *lines* has a trailing blank line:

```
$ i=0; while IFS= read -r line; do (( i++ )); echo "$i $line"; done < lines
1 Line 1
2 Line 2
3
4 Line 4
5 Line 5
6
```

Or a useful use of *cat*:

```
$ cat -n lines
1 Line 1
2 Line 2
3
4 Line 4
5 Line 5
6
```

```
$ cat -b lines
1 Line 1
2 Line 2
3 Line 4
4 Line 5
```

Discussion

If you only need to display the line numbers on the screen, you can use `less -N`:

```
$ /usr/bin/less -N filename
1 Line 1
2 Line 2
3
4 Line 4
5 Line 5
6
lines (END)
```



Line numbers are broken in old versions of *less* on some obsolete Red Hat systems. Check your version with `less -V`. Version 358+iso254 (e.g., Red Hat 7.3 & 8.0) is known to be bad. Version 378+iso254 (e.g., RHEL3) and version 382 (RHEL4, Debian Sarge) are known to be good; we did not test other versions. The problem is subtle and may be related to an older iso256 patch. You can easily compare last line numbers as the *vi* and Perl examples are correct.

You can also use *vi* (or *view*, which is read-only *vi*) with the `:set nu!` command:

```
$ vi filename
  1 Line 1
  2 Line 2
  3
  4 Line 4
  5 Line 5
  6
~
:set nu!
```

vi has many options, so you can start *vi* by doing things like `vi +3 -c 'set nu!' filename` to turn on line numbering and place your cursor on line 3. If you'd like more control over how the numbers are displayed, you can also use *nl*, *awk*, or *perl*:

```
$ nl lines
  1 Line 1
  2 Line 2

  3 Line 4
  4 Line 5
```

```
$ nl -ba lines
  1 Line 1
  2 Line 2
  3
  4 Line 4
  5 Line 5
  6
```

```
$ awk '{ print NR, $0 }' filename
1 Line 1
2 Line 2
3
4 Line 4
5 Line 5
6
```

```
$ perl -ne 'print qq(.$\t$_);' filename
1 → Line 1
2 → Line 2
3 →
4 → Line 4
5 → Line 5
6 →
```

`NR` and `$.` are the line number in the current input file in *awk* and Perl respectively, so it's easy to use them to print the line number. Note that we are using a `→` to denote a tab character in the Perl output, while *awk* uses a space by default.

See Also

- `man cat`
- `man nl`
- `man awk`
- `man less`
- `man vi`
- [Recipe 8.15, “Doing More with less”](#)

17.24 Writing Sequences

Problem

You need to generate a sequence of numbers, possibly with other text, for testing or some other purpose.

Solution

Use *awk* because it should work everywhere no matter what:

```
$ awk 'END { for (i=1; i <= 5; i++) print i, "text"}' /dev/null
1 text
2 text
3 text
4 text
5 text
```

```
$ awk 'BEGIN { for (i=1; i <= 5; i+=.5) print i}' /dev/null
1
1.5
2
2.5
3
3.5
4
4.5
5
```

Discussion

On some systems, notably Solaris, *awk* will hang waiting for a file unless you give it one, such as */dev/null*. This has no effect on other systems, so it's fine to use everywhere.

Note that the variable in the `print` statement is `i`, not `$i`. If you accidentally use `$i` it will be interpolated as a field from the current line being processed. Since we're processing nothing, that's what you'll get if you use `$i` by accident (i.e., nothing).

The `BEGIN` and `END` patterns allow for startup or cleanup operations when actually processing files. Since we're not processing a file, we need to use one of them so that `awk` knows to actually do something even though it has no normal input. In this case, it doesn't matter which we use.

There is a GNU utility called `seq` that does exactly what this recipe calls for, but it does not exist by default on many systems (for example, Solaris and older macOS and BSDs). It offers some useful formatting options and is numeric only, but be aware that you may find differences between the BSD and GNU versions.

Thankfully, as of `bash` 2.04 and later, you can do integer arithmetic in `for` loops:

```
# Bash 2.04+ only, integer only
$ for ((i=1; i<=5; i++)); do echo "$i text"; done
1 text
2 text
3 text
4 text
5 text
```

As of `bash` 3.0 there is also the `{x..y}` brace expansion, which allows integers or single characters:

```
# Bash 3.0+ only, integer or single character only
$ printf "%s text\n" {1..5}
1 text
2 text
3 text
4 text
5 text

$ printf "%s text\n" {a..e}
a text
b text
c text
d text
e text
```

In `bash` 4.0 and later, you may use leading zeros in the `{x..y}` brace expansion:

```
# Bash 4.0+ only, optional leading zeros with integers
$ for num in {01..16}; do echo ssh server$num; done
ssh server01
ssh server02
ssh server03
...
ssh server14
```

```
ssh server15
ssh server16
```

See Also

- `man seq`
- `man awk`
- <http://www.faqs.org/faqs/computer-lang/awk/faq/>

17.25 Emulating the DOS Pause Command

Problem

You are migrating from DOS/Windows batch files and want to emulate the DOS *pause* command.

Solution

To do that, use the `read -n1 -p` command in a function:

```
pause ()
{
    read -n1 -p 'Press any key when ready...'
}
```



`-n` was introduced in *bash* 2.04. If you must omit the `-n1` (though really, if you're using a *bash* that old you should upgrade it), then the prompt as shown is not correct, because you must end the input by hitting the Enter key. You should use something like this instead: `read -p 'Press the ENTER key when ready....'`

Discussion

The `-nchars` option will return after reading *nchars*, or a newline. So, `-n1` returns after (wait for it...) any key. The `-p` option followed by a string argument prints the string before reading input. In this case the string is the same as the DOS *pause* command's output.

See Also

- `help read`
- [Recipe 1.12, “Keeping bash Updated”](#)

17.26 Commifying Numbers

Problem

You'd like to add a thousands-place separator to long numbers.

Solution

Depending on your system and configuration, you may be able to use *printf*'s format flag with a suitable locale. Thanks to Chet Ramey for this solution, which is by far the easiest if it works:

```
$ LC_NUMERIC=en_US.UTF-8 printf "%'d\n" 123456789
123,456,789
$ LC_NUMERIC=en_US.UTF-8 printf "%'f\n" 123456789.987
123,456,789.987000
$
```

Thanks to Michael Wang for contributing the shell-only implementation and the relevant discussion.

Example 17-6. ch17/func_commify

cookbook filename: func_commify

```
function commify {
    typeset text=${1}

    typeset bdot=${text%.*}
    typeset adot=${text#${bdot}}

    typeset i commified
    (( i = ${#bdot} - 1 ))

    while (( i >= 3 )) && [[ ${bdot:i-3:1} == [0-9] ]]; do
        commified=",$${bdot:i-2:3}${commified}"
        (( i -= 3 ))
    done
    echo "${bdot:0:i+1}${commified}${adot}"
}
```

Or you can try one of the *sed* solutions from the *sed* FAQ. For example:

```
sed ' :a; s/\B[0-9]\{3\}>/, & /; ta' /path/to/file # GNU sed
sed -e ' :a -e 's/\(.*[0-9]\)\([0-9]\{3\}\)/\1,\2/; ta' /path/to/file # other seds
```

Discussion

The shell function is written to follow the same logical process as a person using a pencil and paper. First you examine the string and find the decimal point, if any. You ignore everything after the dot, and work on the string before the dot.

The shell function saves the string before the dot in `$bdot`, and after the dot (including the dot) in `$adot`. If there is no dot, then everything is in `$bdot`, and `$adot` is empty. Next, a person would move from right to left in the part before the dot and insert a comma when these two conditions are met:

- There are four or more characters left.
- The character before the comma is a number.

The function implements this logic in the `while` loop.

Recipe 2.16 in Tom Christiansen and Nathan Torkington's *Perl Cookbook*, 2nd Edition (O'Reilly) also provides a string processing solution, reproduced in [Example 17-7](#).

Example 17-7. ch17/perl_sub_commify

```
# cookbook filename: perl_sub_commify

#####
# Add comma thousands separator to numbers
# Returns: input string, with any numbers commified
# From Perl Cookbook2 2.16, pg 84
sub commify {
    @_ == 1 or carp ('Sub usage: $withcomma = commify($somenumber);');

    # From _Perl_Cookbook_1 2.17, pg 64, or _Perl_Cookbook_2 2.16, pg 84
    my $text = reverse $_[0];
    $text =~ s/(\d\d\d\d)(?=\d)(?! \d*\.)/$1,/g;
    return scalar reverse $text;
}
```



The United States uses a comma as the thousands separator, but many other countries use a period.

See Also

- [Section 4.14 of the *sed* FAQ](#)
- [Perl Cookbook, 2nd Edition](#), Recipe 2.16, by Tom Christiansen and Nathan Torkington (O'Reilly)
- [Recipe 13.19, “Converting a Datafile to CSV”](#)

Working Faster by Typing Less

Despite all the improvements in processor speed, transmission rates, network speed, and I/O capabilities, there is still a limiting factor in many uses of *bash*—the typing speed of the user. Scripting has been our focus, of course, but interactive use of *bash* is still a significant part of its use and usefulness. Many of the scripting techniques we have described can be used interactively as well, but then you find yourself faced with a lot of typing, unless you know some shortcuts.

“Back in the day,” when Unix was first invented, there were teletype machines that could only crank out about 10 characters per second, and a good touch typist could type faster than the keyboard could handle it. It was in this milieu that Unix was developed, and some of its terseness is likely due to the fact that no one wanted to type more than absolutely necessary to get their commands across.

At the other end of the historical perspective (i.e., now), processors are so fast that they can be quite idle while waiting for user input, and can look back through histories of previous commands as well as in directories along your `$PATH` to find possible commands and valid arguments even before you finish typing them.

Combining techniques developed for each of these situations, we can greatly reduce the amount of typing required to issue shell commands—and not just out of sheer laziness. Rather, you’re likely to find these keystroke-saving measures useful because of the increased accuracy they provide, the mistakes they help you avoid, and the backups that you don’t need to reload.

18.1 Moving Quickly Among Arbitrary Directories

Problem

You find yourself moving frequently between two or more directories *cd*'ing here, then there, and then back again. The directories never seem to be close by, and you're tired of always typing long pathnames.

Solution

Use the *pushd* and *popd* builtin commands to manage a stack of directory locations, and to switch between them easily. Here is a simple example:

```
$ cd /tmp/tank

$ pwd
/tmp/tank

$ pushd /var/log/cups
/var/log/cups /tmp/tank

$ pwd
/var/log/cups

$ ls
access_log error_log page_log

$ popd
/tmp/tank

$ ls
empty full

$ pushd /var/log/cups
/var/log/cups /tmp/tank

$ pushd
/tmp/tank /var/log/cups

$ pushd
/var/log/cups /tmp/tank

$ pushd
/tmp/tank /var/log/cups

$ dirs
/tmp/tank /var/log/cups
```


Discussion

Stacks are *last in, first out* mechanisms, which is how these commands behave. When you *pushd* to a new directory, it keeps the previous directory on a stack. Then when you *popd*, it pops the current location off of the stack and puts you back in that first location. When you change locations using these commands, they will print the values on the stack, left to right, corresponding to the top-to-bottom ordering of the stack.

If you use *pushd* without specifying a directory, it swaps the top item on the stack with the next one down, so that you can alternate between two directories using repeated *pushd* commands with no arguments. You can do the same thing using the `cd -` command.

You can still *cd* to locations—that will change the current directory, which is also the top of the directory stack. If you can't remember what is on your stack of directories, use the *dirs* builtin command to echo the stack, left-to-right. For a more stack-like display, use the `-v` option:

```
$ dirs -v
0 /var/tmp
1 ~/part/me/scratch
2 /tmp
$
```

The tilde (`~`) is a shorthand for your home directory. The numbers can be used to reorder the stack. If you `pushd +2`, then *bash* will put the `#2` entry on the top of the stack (and *cd* you there) and push the others down:

```
$ pushd +2
/tmp /var/tmp ~/part/me/scratch
$ dirs -v
0 /tmp
1 /var/tmp
2 ~/part/me/scratch
$
```

If you want that stack-like listing of directories, but without the numbers, use the `-p` option:

```
$ dirs -p
/tmp
/var/tmp
~/part/me/scratch
$
```

Once you get a little practice with these commands, you will find it much faster and easier to move repeatedly between directories.

See Also

- [Recipe 1.4, “Showing Where You Are”](#)
- [Recipe 14.3, “Setting a Secure \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 16.6, “Setting Your \\$CDPATH”](#)
- [Recipe 16.15, “Creating a Better cd Command”](#)
- [Recipe 16.22, “Getting Started with a Custom Configuration”](#)

18.2 Repeating the Last Command

Problem

You just typed a long and difficult command line, one with long pathnames and complicated sets of arguments. Now you need to run it again. Do you have to type it all again?

Solution

There are two very different solutions to this problem. First, just type two exclamation marks at the prompt, and *bash* will *echo* and repeat the previous command. For example:

```
$ /usr/bin/somewhere/someprog -g -H -yknot -w /tmp/soforthandsoon
...
$ !!
/usr/bin/somewhere/someprog -g -H -yknot -w /tmp/soforthandsoon
...
$
```

The other (more modern) solution involves using the arrow keys. Pressing the up-arrow key will scroll back through the previous commands that you have issued. When you find the one you want, just press the Enter key and that command will be run (again).

Description

The command is echoed when you type `!!` (sometimes called *bang bang*) so that you can see what is running.



Chet tells us that the *cs**h*-style bang history may no longer be enabled by default in a future version of *bash* because he has had multiple requests to turn that off. It would still be available as an option, however.

See Also

- [Recipe 16.10, “Adjusting readline Behavior Using .inputrc”](#)
- [Recipe 16.14, “Setting Shell History Options”](#)
- [Recipe 18.3, “Running Almost the Same Command”](#)

18.3 Running Almost the Same Command

Problem

After running a long and difficult-to-type command, you got an error message indicating that you'd made one tiny little typo in the middle of that command line. Do you have to retype the whole line?

Solution

The `!!` command that we discussed in [Recipe 18.2](#) allows you to add an editing qualifier. How good are your *sed*-like skills? Add a colon after the bang bang and then a *sed*-like substitution expression, as in the following example:

```
$ /usr/bin/somewhere/someprog -g -H -yknot -w /tmp/soforthandsoon
Error: -H not recognized. Did you mean -A?
$ !!:s/H/A/
/usr/bin/somewhere/someprog -g -A -yknot -w /tmp/soforthandsoon
...
$
```

You can always just use the arrow keys to navigate your history and commands, as described in the previous recipe, but for long commands on slow links this syntax is great once you get used to it.

Discussion

If you're going to use this feature, be careful with your substitutions. If you had tried to change the `-g` option by typing `!!:s/g/h/` you would have ended up changing the first letter `g`, which is at the end of the command name, and you would be trying to run `/usr/bin/somewhere/someproh`.

If you want to change all occurrences of an expression in a command line, you need to precede the `s` with a `g` (for global substitution), as follows:

```
$ /usr/bin/somewhere/someprog -g -s -yknots -w /tmp/soforthandsoon
...
$ !!:gs/s/S/
/usr/bin/Somewhere/Someprog -g -S -yknotS -w /tmp/SoforthandSoon
```

```
...  
$
```

Why does this `g` have to appear before the `s` and not after it, like in *sed* syntax? Well, anything that appears after the closing slash will be considered new text to append to the command—which is quite handy if you want to add another argument to the command when you run it again.

See Also

- [Recipe 16.10, “Adjusting readline Behavior Using `.inputrc`”](#)
- [Recipe 16.14, “Setting Shell History Options”](#)
- [Recipe 18.2, “Repeating the Last Command”](#)

18.4 Quick Substitution

Problem

You’d like to know if there’s a simpler syntax for making substitutions in your previously executed command and running the modified result.

Solution

Use the caret (^) substitution mechanism:

```
$ /usr/bin/somewhere/someprog -g -A -yknot -w /tmp/soforthandsoon  
...  
$ ^-g -A^-gB^  
/usr/bin/somewhere/someprog -gB -yknot -w /tmp/soforthandsoon  
...
```

You can always just use the arrow keys to navigate your history and commands, but for long commands on slow links this syntax is great once you get used to it.

Discussion

Write the substitution on the command line by starting with a caret (^) and then the text you want replaced, then another caret and the new text. A trailing (third) caret is needed only if you want to add more text at the end of the line, as in:

```
$ /usr/bin/somewhere/someprog -g -A -yknot  
...  
$ ^-g -A^-gB^ /tmp^  
/usr/bin/somewhere/someprog -gB -yknot /tmp  
...
```

If you want to remove something, substitute an empty value; i.e., don't put anything for the new text. Here are two examples:

```
$ /usr/bin/somewhere/someprog -g -A -yknot /tmp
...
$ ^-g -A^^
/usr/bin/somewhere/someprog -yknot /tmp
...
$ ^knot^
/usr/bin/somewhere/someprog -gA -y /tmp
...
$
```

The first example uses all three carets. The second example leaves off the third caret; since we want to replace the “knot” with nothing, we just end the line with a newline (the Enter key).

The use of caret substitution is just plain handy. Many *bash* users find it easier to use than the `!!:s/.../...` syntax demonstrated in [Recipe 18.3](#). What do you think?

See Also

- [Recipe 16.10, “Adjusting readline Behavior Using .inputrc”](#)
- [Recipe 16.14, “Setting Shell History Options”](#)
- [Recipe 18.3, “Running Almost the Same Command”](#)

18.5 Reusing Arguments

Problem

Reusing the last command is easy with `!!`, but you don't always want the whole command. How can you reuse just the last argument?

Solution

Use `!$` to indicate the last argument of the preceding command. Use `!:1` for the first argument on the command line, `!:2` for the second, and so on.

Discussion

It is quite common to hand the same filename to a series of commands. One of the most common occurrences might be the way a programmer would edit and then compile, edit and then compile.... Here, the `!$` comes in quite handy:

```

$ vi /some/long/path/name/you/only/type/once
...
$ gcc !$
gcc /some/long/path/name/you/only/type/once
...
$ vi !$
vi /some/long/path/name/you/only/type/once
...
$ gcc !$
gcc /some/long/path/name/you/only/type/once
...
$

```

Get the idea? It saves a lot of typing, but it also avoids errors. If you mistype the file-name when you compile, then you are not compiling the file that you just edited. With !\$ you always get the name of the file on which you just worked. If the argument you want is buried in the middle of the command line, you can get at it with the numbered “bang-colon” commands. Here’s an example:

```

$ munge /opt/my/long/path/toa/file | more
...
$ vi !:1
vi /opt/my/long/path/toa/file
...
$

```

You might be tempted to try to use !\$, but in this instance it would yield `more`, which is not the name of the file that you want to edit.

See Also

- The *bash* manpage on “Word Designators”
- [Recipe 18.2, “Repeating the Last Command”](#)

18.6 Finishing Names for You

Problem

Sometimes pathnames get pretty long. This is a computer that *bash* is running on... can’t it help?

Solution

When in doubt, press the Tab key. *bash* will try to finish the pathname for you. If it does nothing, it may be because there are no matches, or because there is more than one. Press the Tab key a second time and it will list the choices and then repeat the

command up to where you stopped typing, so that you can continue. Type a bit more (to disambiguate), then press the Tab key again to have *bash* finish off the argument for you.

Discussion

bash is even smart enough to limit the selection to certain types of files. If you type `unzip` and then the beginning of a pathname, and then you press the Tab key, it will only finish off with files that end in `.zip` even if you have other files whose names match as much as you have typed. For example:

```
$ ls
myfile.c    myfile.o    myfile.zip
$ ls -lh myfile<tab><tab>
myfile.c    myfile.o    myfile.zip
$ ls -lh myfile.z<tab>ip
-rw-r--r--  1 me mygroup 1.9M 2006-06-06 23:26 myfile.zip
$ unzip -l myfile<tab>.zip
...
$
```



That last example for `unzip` requires the *bash-completion* package we discussed in [Recipe 16.19](#). If *bash* is not able to offer completion suggestions, make sure that package is installed.

See Also

- [Recipe 16.10, “Adjusting readline Behavior Using `.inputrc`”](#)
- [Recipe 16.19, “Improving Programmable Completion”](#)

18.7 Playing It Safe

Problem

It’s so easy to type the wrong character by mistake (see!). Even for simple *bash* commands this can be quite serious—you could move or remove the wrong files. When pattern matching is added to the mix, the results can be even more exciting, as a typo in the pattern can lead to wildly different-than-intended consequences. What’s a conscientious person to do?

Solution

You can use these history features and keyboard shortcuts to repeat arguments without retyping them, thereby reducing the chance of typos. If you need a tricky pattern match for files, try it out with *echo* to see that it works, and then when you've got it right use *!*\$ to use it for real. For example:

```
$ ls
ab1.txt ac1.txt jb1.txt wc3.txt
$ echo *1.txt
ab1.txt ac1.txt jb1.txt
$ echo [aj]?1.txt
ab1.txt ac1.txt jb1.txt
$ echo ?b1.txt
ab1.txt jb1.txt
$ rm !$
rm ?b1.txt
$
```

Discussion

echo is a way to see the results of your pattern match. Once you're convinced it gives you what you want, then you can use it for your intended command. Here we removed the named files—not something that one wants to get wrong.

Also, when you're using the history commands, you can add a *:p* modifier and it will cause *bash* to print but not execute the command—another handy way to see if you got your history substitutions right. At the end of the example in the Solution section, we could have done this:

```
$ echo ?b1.txt
ab1.txt jb1.txt
$ rm !$:p
rm ?b1.txt
$
```

The *:p* modifier causes *bash* to print but not execute the command—but notice that the argument is *?b1.txt* and is not expanded to the two filenames. This option shows you what will be run, but only when it is run will the shell expand that pattern to the two filenames. If you want to see how it will be expanded, use the *echo* command.

See Also

- The *bash* manpage on “Modifiers” for more colon (*:*) modifiers that can be used on history commands
- “Command-Line Processing Steps” on page 631 in Appendix C
- Recipe 18.5, “Reusing Arguments”

18.8 Big Changes, More Lines

Problem

What if the changes that need to be made are too complicated for a single substitution or span several command lines? Sometimes you find yourself running the `history` command and redirecting the output to a file, editing that file, and running those commands as a script after editing. Is there an easier way?

Solution

The `fc` command will put the most recent command (or a range of commands) in a temporary file, invoke your editor and let you edit the command(s) any way you see fit, and then *automatically rerun the edited version of the command(s) when you exit the editor*.

Discussion

Which editor will it invoke? It will use the one defined in the shell variable `FCEDIT`, if it is set. If that one is empty it will use the more general `EDITOR` variable, and if that is also empty it will use `vi`.

Which line(s) will appear in the editor? If you invoke `fc` with no arguments, it will use only the last line. You can also specify a particular line with a single argument: `fc 1004` will use line 1004 from your command history, whereas `fc -5` will use the line five previous from the most recent command. Similarly, you can specify a range of arguments, such as `fc 1001 1005`, which will let you edit lines 1001 through 1005 inclusive in your command history, or `fc -5 -1`, which allows you to edit the last five commands that you ran.



When the `fc` command has invoked the editor it will rerun whatever commands are left in the file when you exit—even if you exit *without making any changes*. What if you change your mind and don't want to execute any commands? Then you should delete all the lines in the file *and write that empty file out* before exiting. Don't try to suspend the editor, either. That will leave the shell and terminal in limbo.

See Also

- [Recipe 18.3, “Running Almost the Same Command”](#)
- [Recipe 18.4, “Quick Substitution”](#)
- [Recipe 18.5, “Reusing Arguments”](#)

- **Recipe 18.7, “Playing It Safe”**
- `man fc` for more options, including making multiline edits without invoking an editor

Tips and Traps: Common Goofs for Novices

Nobody's perfect. We all make mistakes, especially when we are first learning something new. We have all been there, done that. You know, the silly mistake that seems so obvious once you've had it explained, or the time you thought for sure that the system must be broken because you were doing it exactly right, only to find that you were off by one little character—one which made all the difference. Certain mistakes seem common, almost predictable, among beginners. We've all had to learn the hard way that scripts don't run unless you set execute permissions on them—a real newbie kind of error. Now that we're experienced, we never make those mistakes anymore. What, never? Well, hardly ever. After all, nobody's perfect.

19.1 Forgetting to Set Execute Permissions

Problem

You've got your script all written and want to try it out, but when you go to run the script you get an error message:

```
$ ./my.script
bash: ./my.script: Permission denied
$
```

Solution

You have two choices. First, you could invoke *bash* and give it the name of the script as a parameter:

```
bash my.script
```

Or second (and better still), you could set execute permissions on the script so that you can run it directly:

```
chmod a+x my.script
./my.script
```

Discussion

Either method will get the script running. You'll probably want to set execute permissions on the script if you intend to use it over and over. You only have to do this once, thereafter allowing you to invoke it directly. With the permissions set it feels more like a command, since you don't have to explicitly invoke *bash* (of course, behind the scenes *bash* is still being invoked, but you don't have to type it).

In setting the permissions here, we used `a+x` to give execute permissions to all. There's little reason to restrict execute permissions on the file unless it is in some directory where others might accidentally encounter your executable (e.g., if as a system admin you were putting something of your own in `/usr/bin`). Besides, if the file has read permissions for all, then others can still execute the script if they use our first form of invocation, with the explicit reference to *bash*. In octal mode, common permissions on shell scripts are `0700` for the suspicious/careful folk (giving read/write/execute permission to only the owner) and `0755` for the more open/carefree folk (giving read and execute permissions to all others).

See Also

- `man chmod`
- [Recipe 14.13, “Setting Permissions”](#)
- [Recipe 15.1, “Finding *bash* Portably for #!”](#)
- [Recipe 19.3, “Forgetting That the Current Directory Is Not in the `\$PATH`”](#)

19.2 Fixing “No such file or directory” Errors

Problem

You've set execute permissions as described in [Recipe 19.1](#), but when you run the script you get a “No such file or directory” error.

Solution

Try running the script using *bash* explicitly:

```
bash ./busted
```

If it works, you have some kind of permissions error, or a typo in your shebang line. If you get a bunch more errors, you probably have the wrong line endings. This can

happen if you've edited the file on Windows (perhaps via Samba), or if you've simply copied the file around.

If you run the *file* command on your suspect script, it can tell you if your line endings are wrong. It may say something like this:

```
$ file ./busted
./busted: Bourne-Again shell script, ASCII text executable, with CRLF line
terminators
$
```

To fix it, try the *dos2unix* program if you have it, or see [Recipe 8.11](#). Note that if you use *dos2unix* it will probably create a new file and delete the old one, which will change the permissions and might also change the owner or group and affect hard links. If you're not sure what any of that means, the key point is that you'll probably have to *chmod* it again ([Recipe 19.1](#)).

Discussion

If you really do have bad line endings (i.e., anything that isn't ASCII 10 or hex 0a), the error you get depends on your shebang line. Here are some examples for a script named *busted*:

```
$ cat busted
#!/bin/bash -
echo "Hello World!"

# This works
$ ./busted
Hello World!

# But if the file gets DOS line endings, we get:
$ ./busted
: invalid option
Usage: /bin/bash [GNU long option] [option] ...
[...]

# Different shebang line
$ cat ./busted
#!/usr/bin/env bash
echo "Hello World!"

$ ./busted
: No such file or directory
```

See Also

- [Recipe 8.11, “Converting DOS Files to Linux Format”](#)
- [Recipe 14.2, “Avoiding Interpreter Spoofing”](#)

- Recipe 15.1, “Finding bash Portably for #!”
- Recipe 19.1, “Forgetting to Set Execute Permissions”

19.3 Forgetting That the Current Directory Is Not in the \$PATH

Problem

You’ve got your script all written and want to try it out—you even remembered to add execute permissions to the script—but when you go to run it you get an error message:

```
$ my.script
bash: my.script: command not found
$
```

Solution

Either add the current directory to the \$PATH variable, which we do not recommend, or reference the script via the current directory with a leading `./` before the script name, as in:

```
./my.script
```

Discussion

It is a common mistake for beginners to forget to add the leading `./` to the name of the script that they want to execute. We have had a lot of discussion about the \$PATH variable, so we won’t repeat ourselves here except to remind you of a solution for frequently used scripts.

A common practice is to keep your useful and often-used scripts in a directory called *bin* inside of your home directory, and to add that *bin* directory to your \$PATH variable so that you can execute those scripts without needing the leading `./`.

The important part about adding your own *bin* directory to your \$PATH variable is to place the change that modifies your \$PATH variable in the right startup script. You don’t want it in the *.bashrc* script because that gets invoked by every interactive subshell, which would mean that your path would get added to every time you “shell out” of an editor, or run some other commands. You don’t need repeated copies of your *bin* directory in the \$PATH variable.

Instead, put it in the appropriate login profile for *bash*. According to the *bash* man-page, when you log in *bash* “looks for *~/.bash_profile*, *~/.bash_login*, and *~/.profile*, in

that order, and reads and executes commands from the first one that exists and is readable.” So, edit whichever one of those you already have in your home directory or, if none exists, create `~/.bash_profile` and put this line in at the bottom of the file (or elsewhere if you understand enough of what else the profile is doing):

```
PATH="${PATH}:/bin"
```

See Also

- [Recipe 4.1, “Running Any Executable”](#)
- [Recipe 14.3, “Setting a Secure \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 14.9, “Finding World-Writable Directories in Your \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 14.10, “Adding the Current Directory to the \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 15.2, “Setting a POSIX \\$PATH”](#)
- [Recipe 16.4, “Changing Your \\$PATH Permanently”](#)
- [Recipe 16.5, “Changing Your \\$PATH Temporarily”](#)
- [Recipe 16.11, “Keeping a Private Stash of Utilities by Adding ~/bin”](#)
- [Recipe 16.20, “Using Initialization Files Correctly”](#)
- [Recipe 19.1, “Forgetting to Set Execute Permissions”](#)

19.4 Naming Your Script “test”

Problem

You typed up a *bash* script to test out some of this interesting material that you’ve been reading about. You typed it exactly right, and you even remembered to set execute permissions on the file and put it in one of the directories in your `$PATH`, but when you try to run it, nothing happens.

Solution

Name it something other than *test*. That name is a shell builtin command.

Discussion

It is natural enough to want to name a file *test* when you just want a quick scratch file for trying out some small bit of code. The problem is that *test* is a shell builtin command, making it a kind of shell *reserved word*. You can see this with the *type* command:

```
$ type test
test is a shell builtin
$
```

Since it is a builtin, no adjusting of the path will override this. You would have to create an alias, but we strongly advise against it in this case. Just name your script something else, or invoke it with a pathname, as in: `./test` or `/home/path/test`.

See Also

- [Recipe 19.1, “Forgetting to Set Execute Permissions”](#)
- [Recipe 19.3, “Forgetting That the Current Directory Is Not in the \\$PATH”](#)
- [“Builtin Commands” on page 588 in Appendix A](#)
- [“bash Reserved Words” on page 590 in Appendix A](#)

19.5 Expecting to Change Exported Variables

Problem

You can’t get a subscript or script to pass an exported variable back to its parent shell or script. For example, the following script will set a value, invoke a second script, and then display the value after the second script completes, so as to show what (if anything) has changed:

```
$ cat first.sh
#
# a simple example of a common mistake
#
# set the value:
export VAL=5
printf "VAL=%d\n" $VAL
# invoke our other script:
./second.sh
#
# now see what changed (hint: nothing!)
printf "%b" "back in first\n"
printf "VAL=%d\n" $VAL
$
```

The second script messes with the variable named `$VAL`, too:

```
$ cat second.sh
printf "%b" "in second\n"
printf "initially VAL=%d\n" $VAL
VAL=12
printf "changed so VAL=%d\n" $VAL
$
```


When you run the first script (which invokes the second one) here's what you get:

```
$ ./first.sh
VAL=5
in second
initially VAL=5
changed so VAL=10
back in first
VAL=5
$
```

Solution

The old joke goes something like this:

Patient: "Doctor, it hurts when I do this."

Doctor: "Then don't do that."

The solution here is going to sound like the doctor's advice: *don't do that*. You will have to structure your shell scripts so that such a handoff is not necessary. One way to do that is by explicitly echoing the results of the second script so that the first script can invoke it with the `$()` operator (or `` `` for the old shell hands). In the first script, the line `./second.sh` becomes `VAL=$(./second.sh)`, and the second script has to echo the final value (and only the final value) to `STDOUT` (it could redirect its other messages to `STDERR`):

```
$ cat second.sh
printf "%b" "in second\n" >&2
printf "initially VAL=%d\n" $VAL >&2
VAL=12
printf "changed so VAL=%d\n" $VAL >&2
echo $VAL
$
```

Discussion

Exported environment variables are *not* globals that are shared between scripts. They are a one-way communication. All the exported environment variables are marshaled and passed together as part of the invocation of a Linux or Unix (sub)process (see the *fork(2)* manpage). There is no mechanism whereby these environment variables are passed back to the parent process. (Remember that a parent process can fork lots and lots of subprocesses...so if you could return values from a child process, *which* child's values would the parent get?)

See Also

- `man fork(2)`

- Recipe 5.5, “Exporting Variables”
- Recipe 10.4, “Defining Functions”
- Recipe 10.5, “Using Functions: Parameters and Return Values”

19.6 Forgetting Quotes Leads to “command not found” on Assignments

Problem

Your script is assigning some values to a variable, but when you run it, the shell reports “command not found” on part of what you thought you assigned to the variable:

```
$ cat goof1.sh
#!/bin/bash -
# common goof:
# X=$Y $Z
# isn't the same as
# X="$Y $Z"
#
OPT1=-l
OPT2=-h
ALLOPT=$OPT1 $OPT2
ls $ALLOPT .

$ ./goof1.sh
goof1.sh: line 9: -h: command not found
aaa.awk cdscrip.t.prev ifexpr.sh oldsrc xspin2.sh
$
```

Solution

You need quotes around the righthand side of the assignment to `$ALLOPT`. What is written in the script as:

```
ALLOPT=$OPT1 $OPT2
```

really should be:

```
ALLOPT="$OPT1 $OPT2"
```

Discussion

This problem arises because of the space between the arguments. If the arguments were separated by an intervening slash, for example, or if there were no space at all between them, this problem wouldn’t crop up—it would all be a single word, and thus a single assignment.

But that intervening space tells *bash* to parse this into two words. The first word is a variable assignment. Such assignments at the beginning of a command tell *bash* to set a variable to a given value just for the duration of the command—the command being the word that follows next on the command line. At the next line, the variable is back to its prior value (if any) or just not set.

The second word of our example statement is therefore seen as a command. That word is the command that is reported as “not found.” Of course, it is possible that the value for `$OPT2` might have been something that actually was the name of an executable (though that’s not likely in this case, with *ls*). Such a situation could lead to very undesirable results.

Did you notice, in our example, that when *ls* ran, it didn’t use the long-format output even though we had (tried to) set the `-l` option? That shows that `$ALLOPT` was no longer set. It had only been set for the duration of the previous command, which was the (nonexistent) `-h` command *bash* attempted to run.

An assignment on a line by itself sets a variable for the remainder of the script. An assignment at the beginning of a line, one that has an additional command invoked on that line, sets the variable only for the execution of that command.

It’s generally a good idea to quote your assignments to a shell variable. That way you are assured of getting only one assignment and not encountering this problem.

See Also

- [Recipe 5.9, “Handling Parameters with Spaces”](#)

19.7 Forgetting that Pattern Matching Alphabetizes

Problem

When you try to specify a character order in a character class in pattern matching, the result is not in the order you specified.

Solution

bash will alphabetize the data in a pattern match:

```
$ echo x.[ba]
x.a x.b
$
```

Discussion

Even though you specified `b` then `a` in the square brackets, when the pattern matching is done and the results found, they will be alphabetized before being given to the command to execute. That means that you don't want to do this:

```
mv x.[ba]
```

thinking that it will expand to:

```
mv x.b x.a
```

Rather, it will expand to:

```
mv x.a x.b
```

since `bash` alpha-sorts the results before putting them in the command line, which is exactly the opposite of what you intended!

However, if you use braces to enumerate your different values, it will keep them in the specified order. This will do what you intended and not change the order:

```
mv x.{b,a}
```

19.8 Forgetting that Pipelines Make Subshells

Problem

You have a script that works just fine, reading input in a `while` loop:

```
# This works as expected
COUNT=0
while read ALINE
do
    let COUNT++
done
echo $COUNT
```

And then you change it like this, to read from a file, with the name of that file specified as the first parameter to the script:

```
# Don't use; this does NOT work as expected!
COUNT=0
cat $1 | while read ALINE
do
    let COUNT++
done
echo $COUNT # $COUNT is always '0', which is useless
```

But now it no longer works; `$COUNT` keeps coming out as zero.

Solution

Pipelines create subshells. Changes in the `while` loop do not affect the variables in the outer part of the script, because this `while` loop, as with each command of a pipeline, is run in a subshell. (The `cat` command is run in a subshell, too, but it doesn't alter shell variables.)

One solution: don't do that (if you can help it). That is, don't use a pipeline. In this example, there was no need to use `cat` to pipe the file's content into the `while` statement—you could use I/O redirection rather than setting up a pipeline:

```
# Avoid the | and subshell; use "done < $1" instead
# It now works as expected
COUNT=0
while read ALINE
do
    let COUNT++
done < $1 # <<<< This is the line with the key difference
echo $COUNT
```

Such an easy rearrangement might not work for your problem, however, in which case you'll have to use another technique.

As of version 4 of *bash*, you can prevent this problem in a script simply by setting the shell option `lastpipe` early on in the script:

```
shopt -s lastpipe
```

If that still doesn't work or you're using a version of *bash* older than 4.0, see the discussion.

Discussion

If you add an `echo` statement inside the `while` loop of the example script, you can see `$COUNT` increasing, but once you exit the loop, `$COUNT` will be back to zero. The way that *bash* sets up the pipeline of commands means that each command in the pipeline will execute in its own subshell. So the `while` loop is in a subshell, not in the main shell. The `while` loop will begin with the same value that the main shell script was using for `$COUNT`, but since the `while` loop is executing in a subshell there is no way to get the value back up to the parent shell.

One approach to deal with this is to take all the additional work and make it part of the same subshell that includes the `while` loop. For example:

```
COUNT=0
cat $1 | { while read ALINE
do
    let COUNT++
done
echo $COUNT ; } # spaces are important here
```

The placement of the braces is crucial here. What we've done is explicitly delineate a section of the script to be run together in the same (sub)shell. It includes both the `while` loop and the other work that we want to do after the `while` loop completes (here all we're doing is echoing `$COUNT`). Since the `while` and `echo` statements are not connected via a pipeline, they will both run in the same subshell delineated by the braces. The `$COUNT` that was accumulated during the `while` loop will remain until the end of the subshell—that is, until the close brace is reached.

If you use this technique it might be good to format the statements a bit differently, to make the use of the bracketed subshell stand out more. Here's the example script reformatted:

```
COUNT=0
cat $1 |
{
    while read ALINE
    do
        let COUNT++
    done
    echo $COUNT
}
```

This issue can be avoided altogether if you are using version 4 of *bash*. In your script, simply set the shell option `lastpipe` (some sysadmins might even want to set this in their */etc/profile* or a related *.rc* file so no one else needs to set it):

```
shopt -s lastpipe
```

This option tells the shell to run the last command of a pipeline in the current shell, rather than a subshell, thereby making its variables available to the rest of the shell script that comes after the pipeline.

Here is an example similar to the previous example, though it uses *ls* rather than *cat* as the source of its data:

```
shopt -s lastpipe # as of ver. 4 bash
COUNT=0
ls | while read ALINE
do
    let COUNT++
done
echo $COUNT
```

Try it with and without the `shopt` statement and you can see the effect.



The `lastpipe` behavior only works if job control is disabled, which is the default condition for noninteractive shells (i.e., *bash* scripts). If you want to use `lastpipe` interactively, then you need to disable job control with `set +m`—but in doing so you lose the ability to interrupt (^C) or to suspend (^Z) a running command, and you cannot use the `fg` and `bg` commands. We recommend against doing so.

See Also

- Question E4 in the *bash* FAQ, version 4.14
- [Recipe 10.5, “Using Functions: Parameters and Return Values”](#)
- [Recipe 19.5, “Expecting to Change Exported Variables”](#)

19.9 Making Your Terminal Sane Again

Problem

You have aborted an SSH session and now you can't see what you are typing. Or perhaps you accidentally displayed a binary file and your terminal window is now full of gibberish.

Solution

Type `stty sane` and then press the Enter key, even if you can't see what you are typing, to restore sane terminal settings. You may want to hit Enter a few times first, to make sure you don't have anything else on your input line before you start typing the `stty` command.

If you do this a lot, you might consider creating an alias that's easier to type blind (see [Recipe 10.7](#)).

Discussion

Aborting some older versions of *ssh* at a password prompt may leave terminal echo (the displaying of characters as you type them, not the shell *echo* command) turned off so you can't see what you are typing. Depending on what kind of terminal emulation you are using, displaying a binary file can also accidentally change terminal settings. In either case, *stty*'s `sane` setting attempts to return all terminal settings to their default values. This includes restoring echo capability, so that what you type on the keyboard appears in your terminal window. It will also likely undo whatever strangeness has occurred with other terminal settings.

Your terminal application may have some kind of reset function too, so explore the menu options and documentation. You may also want to try the *reset* and *tset* commands, though in our testing *stty sane* worked as desired while *reset* and *tset* were more drastic in what they fixed.

See Also

- `man reset`
- `man stty`
- `man tset`
- [Recipe 10.7, “Redefining Commands with alias”](#)

19.10 Deleting Files Using an Empty Variable

Problem

You have a variable that you think contains a list of files to delete, perhaps to clean up after your script. But in fact, the variable is empty and Bad Things happen.

Solution

Never do:

```
rm -rf $files_to_delete
```

Never, ever, *ever* do:

```
rm -rf /$files_to_delete
```

Use this instead:

```
[ -n "$files_to_delete" ] && rm -rf $files_to_delete
```

Discussion

The first example isn't too bad; it'll just throw an error. The second one is pretty bad because it will try to delete your root directory. If you are running as a regular user (and you should be—see [Recipe 14.18](#)), it may not be too bad, but if you are running as *root* then you've just killed your system but good. (Yes, we've done this.)

The solution is easy. First, make sure that there is some value in the variable you're using, and second, never precede that variable with a `/`.

See Also

- [Recipe 14.18, “Running as a Non-root User”](#)
- [Recipe 18.7, “Playing It Safe”](#)

19.11 Seeing Odd Behavior from printf

Problem

Your script is giving you values that don't match what you expected. Consider this simple script and its output:

```
$ bash oddscript
good nodes: 0
bad nodes: 6
miss nodes: 0
GOOD=6 BAD=0 MISS=0

$ cat oddscript
#!/bin/bash -
badnode=6

printf "good nodes: %d\n" $goodnode
printf "bad nodes: %d\n" $badnode
printf "miss nodes: %d\n" $missnode
printf "GOOD=%d BAD=%d MISS=%d\n" $goodnode $badnode $missnode
```

Why is 6 showing up as the value for the good count, when it is supposed to be the value for the bad count?

Solution

Either give the variables an initial value (e.g., 0) or put quotes around the references to them on `printf` lines.

Discussion

What's happening here? `bash` does its substitutions on that last line, and when it evaluates `$goodnode` and `$missnode` they both come out null, empty, not there. So the line that is handed off to `printf` to execute looks like this:

```
printf "GOOD=%d BAD=%d MISS=%d\n" 6
```

When `printf` tries to print the three decimal values (the three `%d` formats), it has a value (i.e., 6) for the first one but doesn't have anything for the next two, so they come out as 0 and you get:

```
GOOD=6 BAD=0 MISS=0
```

You can't really blame *printf*, since it never saw the other arguments; *bash* had done its parameter substitution before *printf* ever got to run.

Even declaring them as integer values, like this:

```
declare -i goodnode badnode missnode
```

isn't enough. You need to actually assign them a value.

The other way to avoid this problem is to quote the arguments when they are used in the `printf` statement, like this:

```
printf "GOOD=%d BAD=%d MISS=%d\n" "$goodnode" "$badnode" "$missnode"
```

Then the first argument won't disappear, but an empty string will be put in its place, so that what *printf* gets is the three needed arguments:

```
printf "GOOD=%d BAD=%d MISS=%d\n" "" "6" ""
```

While we're on the subject of *printf*, it has one other odd behavior. We have just seen how it behaves when there are too few arguments; when there are too many arguments, *printf* will keep repeating and reusing the format line and it will look like you are getting multiple lines of output when you expected only one.

Of course, this can be put to good use, as in the following case:

```
$ dirs
/usr/bin /tmp ~/scratch/misc
$ printf "%s\n" $(dirs)
/usr/bin
/tmp
~/scratch/misc
$
```

Here, *printf* takes the directory stack (i.e., the output from the *dirs* command) and displays the directories one per line, repeating and reusing the format, as described earlier.

Let's summarize the best practices:

- Initialize your variables, especially if they are numbers and you want to use them in `printf` statements.
- Put quotes around your arguments if they could ever be null, and especially when used in `printf` statements.
- Make sure you have the correct number of arguments, especially considering what the line will look like after the shell substitutions have occurred.
- The safest way to display an arbitrary string is to use `printf '%s\n' "$string"`.

See Also

- <http://pubs.opengroup.org/onlinepubs/9699919799/utilities/printf.html>
- Recipe 2.3, “Writing Output with More Formatting Control”
- Recipe 2.4, “Writing Output Without the Newline”
- Recipe 15.6, “Using echo Portably”
- “printf” on page 604 in Appendix A

19.12 Testing bash Script Syntax

Problem

You are editing a *bash* script and want to make sure that your syntax is correct.

Solution

Use the `-n` argument to *bash* to test syntax often, ideally after every save, and certainly before committing any changes to a revision control system:

```
$ bash -n my_script

$ echo 'echo "Broken line' >> my_script

$ bash -n my_script
my_script: line 4: unexpected EOF while looking for matching `"'
my_script: line 5: syntax error: unexpected end of file
```

Discussion

The `-n` option is tricky to find in the *bash* manpage or other reference material since it's located under the *set* builtin. It is noted in passing in `bash --help` for `-D`, but it is never explained there. This flag tells *bash* to “read commands but do not execute them,” which of course will find *bash* syntax errors.

As with all syntax checkers, this will not catch logic errors or syntax errors in other commands called by the script.

See Also

- `man bash`
- `bash --help`
- `bash -c "help set"`

- [Recipe 16.1, “bash Startup Options”](#)

19.13 Debugging Scripts

Problem

You can't figure out what's happening in your script and why it doesn't work as expected.

Solution

Add `set -x` to the top of the script when you run it, or use `set -x` to turn on *xtrace* before a troublesome spot and `set +x` to turn it off after. You may also wish to experiment with the `$PS4` prompt ([Recipe 16.2](#)). *xtrace* also works on the interactive command line. [Example 19-1](#) is a script that we suspect is buggy.

Example 19-1. ch19/buggy

```
#!/usr/bin/env bash
# cookbook filename: buggy
#

set -x

result=$1

[ $result = 1 ] \
  && { echo "Result is 1; excellent." ; exit 0; } \
  || { echo "Uh-oh, ummm, RUN AWAY! " ; exit 120; }
```

Now we invoke this script, but first we set and export the value of the `$PS4` prompt. *bash* will print out the value of `$PS4` before each command that it displays during an execution trace (i.e., after a `set -x`):

```
$ export PS4='+xtrace $LINENO:'

$ echo $PS4
+xtrace $LINENO:

$ ./buggy
+xtrace 4: result=
+xtrace 6: '[' = 1 ']'
./buggy: line 6: [: =: unary operator expected
+xtrace 8: echo 'Uh-oh, ummm, RUN AWAY! '
Uh-oh, ummm, RUN AWAY!

$ ./buggy 1
```

```

+xttrace 4: result=1
+xttrace 6: '[' 1 = 1 ']'
+xttrace 7: echo 'Result is 1; excellent.'
Result is 1; excellent.

$ ./buggy 2
+xttrace 4: result=2
+xttrace 6: '[' 2 = 1 ']'
+xttrace 8: echo 'Uh-oh, ummm, RUN AWAY! '
Uh-oh, ummm, RUN AWAY!

$ /tmp/jp-test.sh 3
+xttrace 4: result=3
+xttrace 6: '[' 3 = 1 ']'
+xttrace 8: echo 'Uh-oh, ummm, RUN AWAY! '
Uh-oh, ummm, RUN AWAY!

```

Discussion

It may seem odd to turn something on using `-` and turn it off using `+`, but that's just the way it worked out. Many Unix tools use `-n` for options or flags, and since you need a way to turn `-x` off, `+x` seems natural.

As of *bash* 3.0 there are a number of new variables to better support debugging: `$BASH_ARGC`, `$BASH_ARGV`, `$BASH_SOURCE`, `$BASH_LINENO`, `$BASH_SUBSHELL`, `$BASH_EXECUTION_STRING`, and `$BASH_COMMAND`. There is also a new *extdebug* shell option. These are in addition to existing *bash* variables like `$LINENO` and the array variable `$FUNCNAME`.

From the [Bash Reference Manual](#):

If `[extdebug is]` set at shell invocation, arrange to execute the debugger profile before the shell starts, identical to the `--debugger` option. If set after invocation, behavior intended for use by debuggers is enabled:

- The `-F` option to the *declare* builtin...displays the source file name and line number corresponding to each function name supplied as an argument.
- If the command run by the `DEBUG` trap returns a nonzero value, the next command is skipped and not executed.
- If the command run by the `DEBUG` trap returns a value of 2, and the shell is executing in a subroutine (a shell function or a shell script executed by the `.` or `source` builtins), the shell simulates a call to `return`.
- `BASH_ARGC` and `BASH_ARGV` are updated...
- Function tracing is enabled: command substitution, shell functions, and subshells invoked with (*command*) inherit the `DEBUG` and `RETURN` traps.

- Error tracing is enabled: command substitution, shell functions, and subshells invoked with (*command*) inherit the ERR trap.

Using *xtrace* is a very handy debugging technique, but it is not the same as having a real debugger. For that, see the [Bash Debugger Project](#), which contains patched sources to *bash* that enable better debugging support as well as improved error reporting. In addition, this project contains, in the developer's words, "the most comprehensive source-code debugger for BASH that has been written."

See Also

- `help set`
- `man bash`
- Chapter 9 in Cameron Newham's *Learning the bash Shell*, 3rd Edition (O'Reilly), which includes a shell script for debugging other shell scripts
- [Recipe 16.1, "bash Startup Options"](#)
- [Recipe 16.2, "Customizing Your Prompt"](#)
- [Recipe 17.1, "Renaming Many Files"](#)
- https://www.gnu.org/software/bash/manual/html_node/The-Shopt-Builtin.html
- <http://bashdb.sourceforge.net/>

19.14 Avoiding "command not found" When Using Functions

Problem

You are used to other languages, such as Perl, which allow you to call a function in a section of your code that comes before the actual function definition.

Solution

Shell scripts are read and executed in a top-to-bottom linear way, so you must define any functions before you use them.

Discussion

Some other languages, such as Perl, go through intermediate steps during which the entire script is parsed as a unit. That allows you to write your code so that `main()` is at the top, and functions (or subroutines) are defined later. By contrast, a shell script is

read into memory and then executed one line at a time, so you can't use a function before you define it.

See Also

- [Recipe 10.4, “Defining Functions”](#)
- [Recipe 10.5, “Using Functions: Parameters and Return Values”](#)
- [Appendix C](#)

19.15 Confusing Shell Wildcards and Regular Expressions

Problem

Sometimes you see `.*` sometimes just `*`, and sometimes you see `[a-z]*` but it means something other than what you thought. You use regular expressions for `grep` and `sed` but not in some places in `bash`. You can't keep it all straight.

Solution

Relax; take a deep breath. You're probably confused because you're learning so much (or just using it too infrequently to remember it). Practice makes perfect, so keep trying.

The rules aren't that hard to remember for `bash` itself. After all, regular expression syntax is only used with the `=~` comparison operator in `bash`. All of the other expressions in `bash` use shell pattern matching.

Discussion

The pattern matching used by `bash` uses some of the same symbols as regular expressions, but with different meanings. But it is also the case that you often have calls in your shell scripts to commands that use regular expressions—commands like `grep` and `sed`.

We asked Chet Ramey, the current keeper of the `bash` source and all-around `bash` guru, if it was really the case that the `=~` was the only use of regular expressions in `bash`. He said yes. He also was kind enough to supply a list of the various parts of `bash` syntax that use shell pattern matching. We've covered most, but not all of these topics in various recipes in this book. We offer the list here for completeness.

Shell pattern matching is performed by:

- Filename globbing (pathname expansion)
- == and != operators for [[
- case statements
- \$GLOBIGNORE handling
- \$HISTIGNORE handling
- \${parameter#[#]word}
- \${parameter%[%]word}
- \${parameter/pattern/string}
- Several bindable *readline* commands (*glob-expand-word*, *glob-complete-word*, etc.)
- complete -G and compgen -G
- complete -X and compgen -X
- The *help* builtin's pattern argument

Thanks, Chet!



Learn to read the manpage for *bash* and refer to it often—it is long but precise. If you want an online version of the *bash* manpage or other *bash*-related documents, visit <http://www.bashcookbook.com> for the latest *bash* information. Keep this book handy for reference, too.

See Also

- man bash
- Recipe 5.18, “Changing Pieces of a String”
- Recipe 6.6, “Testing for Equality”
- Recipe 6.7, “Testing with Pattern Matches”
- Recipe 6.8, “Testing with Regular Expressions”
- Recipe 13.15, “Trimming Whitespace”

Reference Lists

This appendix collects many tables of values, settings, operators, commands, variables, and more in one place for easy reference.

bash Invocation

Here are the options you can use when invoking current versions of *bash*. The multi-character options must appear on the command line before the single-character options. Login shells usually have the options `-i` (interactive), `-s` (read from standard input), and `-m` (enable job control) set internally.

In addition to those listed in [Table A-1](#), any *set* option can be used on the command line; see “[set Options](#)” on page 596. In particular, the `-n` option is invaluable for syntax checking (see [Recipe 19.12](#)), and `-x` is used for debugging ([Recipe 19.13](#)).

For further reference, see <http://bit.ly/2wtEjA8>.

Table A-1. Command-line options to *bash*

Option	Meaning
<code>-c string</code>	Commands are read from <i>string</i> , if present. Any arguments after <i>string</i> are interpreted as positional parameters, starting with <code>\$0</code> .
<code>-D</code>	A list of all double-quoted strings preceded by <code>\$</code> is written to standard output. These are the strings that are subject to language translation when the current locale is not C or POSIX. This also turns on the <code>-n</code> option.
<code>-i</code>	Makes the shell an interactive shell. Ignores signals TERM, INT, and QUIT. With job control in effect, TTIN, TTOU, and TSTP are also ignored.
<code>-l</code>	Makes <i>bash</i> act as if it were invoked as a login shell.
<code>-o option</code>	Takes the same arguments as <code>set -o</code> (see “ set Options ” on page 596).

Option	Meaning
-O, +O <i>shopt-option</i>	<i>shopt-option</i> is one of the shell options accepted by the <i>shopt</i> builtin. If <i>shopt-option</i> is present, -O sets the value of that option; +O unsets it. If <i>shopt-option</i> is not supplied, the names and values of the shell options accepted by <i>shopt</i> are written to standard output. If the invocation option is +O, the output is displayed in a format that may be reused as input.
-s	Reads commands from standard input. If an argument is given to <i>bash</i> , this flag takes precedence (i.e., the argument won't be treated as a script name and standard input will be read).
-r	Makes the shell a restricted shell.
-v	Prints shell input lines as they're read.
-	Signals the end of options and disables further option processing. Any options after this are treated as filenames and arguments. -- is synonymous with -.
--debugger	Arranges for the debugger profile to be executed before the shell starts. Turns on extended debugging mode and shell function tracing in <i>bash</i> 3.0 or later.
--dump-strings	Does the same as -D.
--dump-po-strings	Does the same as -D, but the output is in the GNU <i>gettext</i> portable object (<i>.po</i>) file format.
--help	Displays a usage message and exits.
--login	Makes <i>bash</i> act as if it were invoked as a login shell. Same as -l.
--noediting	Does not use the GNU <i>readline</i> library to read command lines if the shell is interactive.
--noprofile	Does not read the startup file <i>/etc/profile</i> or any of the personal initialization files.
--norc	Does not read the initialization file <i>~/.bashrc</i> if the shell is interactive. This is on by default if the shell is invoked as <i>sh</i> .
--posix	Changes the behavior of <i>bash</i> to follow the POSIX standard more closely where the default operation of <i>bash</i> is different.
--rcfile <i>file</i> , --init-file <i>file</i>	Executes commands read from <i>file</i> instead of the initialization file <i>~/.bashrc</i> , if the shell is interactive.
--restricted	Equivalent to -r.
--verbose	Equivalent to -v.
--version	Shows the version number of this instance of <i>bash</i> and then exits.

Prompt String Customizations

Table A-2 shows a summary of the prompt customizations that are available. The customizations `\[` and `\]` are not available in *bash* versions prior to 1.14. `\a`, `\e`, `\H`, `\T`, `\@`, `\v`, and `\V` are not available in versions prior to 2.0. `\A`, `\D`, `\j`, `\l`, and `\r` are only available in later versions of *bash* 2.0 and in *bash* 3.0+.

See <http://bit.ly/2wlpQHf>.

Table A-2. Prompt string format codes

Command	Meaning
\a	The ASCII bell character (007).
\A	The current time in 24-hour HH:MM format.
\d	The date in “Weekday Month Day” format.
\D { <i>format</i> }	The <i>format</i> is passed to <i>strftime(3)</i> and the result is inserted into the prompt string; an empty format results in a locale-specific time representation. The braces are required.
\e	The ASCII escape character (033).
\H	The hostname.
\h	The hostname up to the first . .
\j	The number of jobs currently managed by the shell.
\l	The basename of the shell’s terminal device name.
\n	A carriage return and line feed.
\r	A carriage return.
\s	The name of the shell.
\T	The current time in 12-hour HH:MM:SS format.
\t	The current time in 24-hour HH:MM:SS format.
\@	The current time in 12-hour a.m./p.m. format.
\u	The username of the current user.
\v	The version of <i>bash</i> (e.g., 2.00).
\V	The release of <i>bash</i> (the version and patch level; e.g., 3.00.0).
\w	The current working directory, with \$HOME abbreviated with a tilde (uses the \$PROMPT_DIRTRIM variable).
\W	The basename of \$PWD, with \$HOME abbreviated with a tilde.
\#	The command number of the current command.
\!	The history number of the current command.
\\$	If the effective UID is 0, a #; otherwise, a \$.
\nnn	The character code in octal.
\\	A backslash.
\[Begin a sequence of nonprinting characters, such as a terminal control sequence.
\]	End a sequence of nonprinting characters.

ANSI Color Escape Sequences

Table A-3 shows the ANSI color escape sequences.

Table A-3. ANSI color escape sequences

Code	Character attribute	FG code	Foreground color	BG code	Background color
0	Reset all attributes	30	Black	40	Black
1	Bright	31	Red	41	Red
2	Dim	32	Green	42	Green
4	Underscore	33	Yellow	43	Yellow
5	Blink	34	Blue	44	Blue
7	Reverse	35	Magenta	45	Magenta
8	Hidden	36	Cyan	46	Cyan
		37	White	47	White

Builtin Commands

Table A-4 lists the builtin commands in current versions of *bash* (see <http://bit.ly/2wlut4o>).

Table A-4. Builtin commands

Command	Summary
.	Read a file and execute its contents in the current shell. See <i>source</i> .
:	Do nothing (just do expansions of any arguments).
[Evaluate a conditional expression. See <i>test</i> .
<i>alias</i>	Set up shorthand for a command or command line.
<i>bg</i>	Put a job in the background.
<i>bind</i>	Bind a key sequence to a <i>readline</i> function or macro.
<i>break</i>	Exit from the surrounding <i>for</i> , <i>select</i> , <i>while</i> , or <i>until</i> loop.
<i>builtin</i>	Execute the specified shell builtin.
<i>caller</i>	Return the context of any active subroutine call (a shell function or a script executed with the <i>.</i> or <i>source</i> builtins).
<i>cd</i>	Change the working directory.
<i>command</i>	Run a command, bypassing shell function lookup.
<i>compgen</i>	Generate possible completion matches.
<i>complete</i>	Specify how completion should be performed.
<i>compopt</i>	Modify completion options for each <i>name</i> according to the <i>options</i> , or for the currently executing completion if no <i>names</i> are supplied.
<i>continue</i>	Skip to the next iteration of the surrounding <i>for</i> , <i>select</i> , <i>while</i> , or <i>until</i> loop.

Command	Summary
<i>declare</i>	Declare variables and give them attributes. Same as <i>typeset</i> .
<i>dirs</i>	Display the list of currently remembered directories.
<i>disown</i>	Remove a job from the job table.
<i>echo</i>	Output arguments.
<i>enable</i>	Enable and disable (with <i>-n</i>) builtin shell commands.
<i>eval</i>	Run the given arguments through command-line processing.
<i>exec</i>	Replace the shell with the given program.
<i>exit</i>	Exit from the shell.
<i>export</i>	Create environment variables.
<i>fc</i>	Fix command (edit the history file).
<i>fg</i>	End a background job in the foreground.
<i>getopts</i>	Process command-line options.
<i>hash</i>	Remember full pathnames of the specified commands.
<i>help</i>	Display helpful information on builtin commands.
<i>history</i>	Display the command history.
<i>jobs</i>	List any background jobs.
<i>kill</i>	Send a signal to a process.
<i>let</i>	Arithmetic variable assignment.
<i>local</i>	Create a local variable.
<i>logout</i>	Exit a login shell.
<i>mapfile</i>	Read lines from standard input or a file descriptor into the indexed array variable <i>array</i> . See <i>readarray</i> .
<i>popd</i>	Remove a directory from the directory stack.
<i>printf</i>	Write the formatted <i>arguments</i> to standard output under the control of the <i>format</i> .
<i>pushd</i>	Add a directory to the directory stack.
<i>pwd</i>	Print the working directory.
<i>read</i>	Read a line from standard input.
<i>readarray</i>	Read lines from standard input or a file descriptor into the indexed array variable <i>array</i> . See <i>mapfile</i> .
<i>readonly</i>	Make variables read-only (unassignable).
<i>return</i>	Return from the surrounding function or script.
<i>set</i>	Set options.
<i>shift</i>	Shift command-line arguments.
<i>shopt</i>	Toggle the values of settings controlling optional shell behavior.
<i>source</i>	Read a file and execute its contents in the current shell. See <i>.</i> (<i>dot</i>).
<i>suspend</i>	Suspend execution of a shell.
<i>test</i>	Evaluate a conditional expression. See <i>[</i> .
<i>times</i>	Print the accumulated user and system times for processes run from the shell.
<i>trap</i>	Set up a signal-catching routine.

Command	Summary
<code>type</code>	Identify the source of a command.
<code>typeset</code>	Declare variables and give them attributes. Same as <i>declare</i> .
<code>ulimit</code>	Set/show process resource limits.
<code>umask</code>	Set/show thefile permission mask.
<code>unalias</code>	Remove alias definitions.
<code>unset</code>	Remove definitions of variables or functions.
<code>wait</code>	Wait for background job(s) to finish.

bash Reserved Words

Table A-5 lists the reserved words in current versions of *bash* (see <http://bit.ly/2wIxEZO>).

Table A-5. *bash* reserved words

Command	Summary
<code>!</code>	Logical NOT of a command's exit status.
<code>[[]]</code>	Return a status of 0 or 1 depending on the evaluation of the conditional expression.
<code>(())</code>	Evaluate the arithmetic expression according to the <i>bash shell arithmetic rules</i> .
<code>()</code>	Execute the list in a subshell.
<code>{ }</code>	Execute the list in the current shell context.
<code>case</code>	Multiway conditional construct.
<code>do</code>	Part of a <code>for</code> , <code>select</code> , <code>while</code> , or <code>until</code> looping construct.
<code>done</code>	Part of a <code>for</code> , <code>select</code> , <code>while</code> , or <code>until</code> looping construct.
<code>elif</code>	Part of an <code>if</code> construct.
<code>else</code>	Part of an <code>if</code> construct.
<code>esac</code>	End of a <code>case</code> construct.
<code>fi</code>	End of an <code>if</code> construct.
<code>for</code>	Looping construct.
<code>function</code>	Define a function.
<code>if</code>	Conditional construct.
<code>in</code>	Part of a <code>case</code> construct.
<code>select</code>	Menu-generation construct.
<code>then</code>	Part of an <code>if</code> construct.
<code>time</code>	Run the command pipeline and print execution times. The format of the output can be controlled with <code>TIME FORMAT</code> .
<code>until</code>	Looping construct.
<code>while</code>	Looping construct.

Builtin Shell Variables

Table A-6 shows a complete list of environment variables available in *bash* 4.4. The letters in the Type column of the table have the following meanings: A = array, L = colon-separated list, R = read-only, U = unsetting it causes it to lose its special meaning.

Note that the variables beginning BASH_ or COMP as well as the variables DIRSTACK, FUNCNAME, GLOBIGNORE, GROUPS, HISTIGNORE, HOSTNAME, HISTTIMEFORMAT, LANG, LC_ALL, LC_COLLATE, LC_MESSAGE, MACHTYPE, PIPESTATUS, SHELLOPTS, and TIMEFORMAT are not available in versions prior to 2.0. BASH_ENV replaces ENV, found in earlier versions.

See <http://bit.ly/2v2Xxcr>.

Table A-6. Builtin shell environment variables

Variable	Type	Description
*	R	The positional parameters given to the current script or function. If not double-quoted, each word is further split and expanded. If double-quoted, this returns a single string containing each argument separated by the first character of \$IFS (e.g., "arg1 arg2 arg3") or with no separator if \$IFS is null.
@	R	Each of the positional parameters given to the current script or function, given as a list of double-quoted strings (e.g., "arg1" "arg2" "arg3").
#	R	The number of arguments given to the current script or function.
?	R	The exit status of the previous command.
-	R	The options given to the shell on invocation.
\$	R	The process ID of the shell process.
!	R	The process ID of the last background command.
0	R	The name of the shell or shell script.
_	R	The last argument to the previous command.
auto_resume		Controls how job control works (values are exact, substring, or something other than those keywords).
BASH		The full pathname used to invoke this instance of <i>bash</i> .
BASHOPTS	L	A colon-separated list of enabled shell options.
BASHPID		Expands to the process ID of the current <i>bash</i> process.
BASH_ALIASES	A	An associative array variable whose members correspond to the internal list of aliases as maintained by the <i>alias</i> builtin.
BASH_ARGC	A	An array of values, which are the number of parameters in each frame of the current <i>bash</i> execution call stack. The number of parameters to the current subroutine (shell function or script executed with <i>.</i> or <i>source</i>) is at the top of the stack.

Variable	Type	Description
BASH_ARGV	A	All of the parameters in the current <i>bash</i> execution call stack. The final parameter of the last subroutine call is at the top of the stack; the first parameter of the initial call is at the bottom.
BASH_CMDS		An associative array variable whose members correspond to the internal hash table of commands as maintained by the <i>hash</i> builtin.
BASH_COMMAND		The command currently being executed or about to be executed, unless the shell is executing a command as the result of a trap, in which case it is the command executing at the time of the trap.
BASH_ENV		The name of a file to run as the environment file when the shell is invoked.
BASH_EXECUTION_STRING		The command argument to the <code>-c</code> invocation option.
BASH_LINENO	A	An array whose members are the line numbers in source files corresponding to each member of <code>@var{FUNCNAME}</code> . <code>\${BASH_LINENO[<i>i</i>]}</code> is the line number in the source file where <code>\${FUNCNAME[<i>i</i> + 1]}</code> was called. The corresponding source filename is <code>\${BASH_SOURCE[<i>i</i> + 1]}</code> .
BASH_LOADABLES_PATH	L	A colon-separated list of directories in which the shell looks for dynamically loadable builtins specified by the <i>enable</i> command.
BASH_REMATCH	AR	An array whose members are assigned by the <code>=~</code> binary operator to the <code>[[</code> conditional command. The element with index 0 is the portion of the string matching the entire regular expression. The element with index <i>n</i> is the portion of the string matching the <i>n</i> th parenthesized subexpression.
BASH_SOURCE	A	An array containing the source filenames corresponding to the elements in the <code>\$FUNCNAME</code> array variable.
BASH_SUBSHELL		Incremented by 1 each time a subshell or subshell environment is spawned. The initial value is 0. A subshell is a forked copy of the parent shell and shares its environment.
BASH_VERSIONINFO	AR	Version information for this instance of <i>bash</i> . Each element of the array holds parts of the version number.
BASH_VERSION		The version number of this instance of <i>bash</i> .
BASH_XTRACEFD		If set to an integer corresponding to a valid file descriptor, <i>bash</i> will write the trace output generated when <code>set -x</code> is enabled to that file descriptor.
CDPATH	L	A list of directories for the <i>cd</i> command to search.
CHILD_MAX		The number of exited child status values for the shell to remember.
COLUMNS		Used by the <i>select</i> command to determine the terminal width when printing selection lists.
COMP_CWORD		An index into <code>\${COMP_WORDS}</code> of the word containing the current cursor position. This variable is available only in shell functions invoked by the programmable completion facilities.
COMP_LINE		The current command line. This variable is available only in shell functions and external commands invoked by the programmable completion facilities.
COMP_POINT		The index of the current cursor position relative to the beginning of the current command. If the current cursor position is at the end of the current command, the value of this variable is equal to <code>\${#COMPLINE}</code> . This variable is available only in shell functions and external commands invoked by the programmable completion facilities.

Variable	Type	Description
COMP_WORDS	A	An array of the individual words in the current command line. This variable is available only in shell functions invoked by the programmable completion facilities.
COMPREPLY	A	The possible completions generated by a shell function invoked by the programmable completion facilities.
COMPREPLY	A	An array variable from which <i>bash</i> reads the possible completions generated by a shell function invoked by the programmable completion facilities.
COMP_KEY		The key (or final key of a key sequence) used to invoke the current completion function.
COMP_TYPE		An integer value corresponding to the type of completion attempted that caused a completion function to be called.
COPROC		An array variable created to hold the file descriptors for output from and input to an unnamed coprocess.
DIRSTACK	ARU	The current contents of the directory stack.
echo-control- characters		When set to on, on operating systems that indicate they support it, <i>readline</i> echoes a character corresponding to a signal generated from the keyboard.
editing-mode		Controls which default set of key bindings is used.
EMACS		If <i>bash</i> finds this variable in the environment when the shell starts with the value <code>t</code> , it assumes that the shell is running in an Emacs shell buffer and disables line editing.
ENV		Similar to <code>BASH_ENV</code> ; used when the shell is invoked in POSIX mode.
EUID	R	The effective user ID of the current user.
EXECIGNORE	L	A colon-separated list of shell patterns defining the list of filenames to be ignored by command search using <code>PATH</code> .
FCEDIT		The default editor for the <i>fc</i> command.
FIGORE	L	A list of names to ignore when doing filename completion.
FUNCNAME	ARU	An array containing the names of all shell functions currently in the execution call stack. The element with index 0 is the name of any currently executing shell function. The bottom-most element is "main." This variable exists only when a shell function is executing.
FUNCNEST		If set to a numeric value greater than 0, defines a maximum function nesting level.
GLOBIGNORE	L	A list of patterns defining filenames to ignore during pathname expansion.
GROUPS	AR	An array containing a list of groups of which the current user is a member.
histchars		Specifies what to use as the history control characters. Normally set to the string <code>!^#</code> .
HISTCMD	U	The history number of the current command.
HISTCONTROL	L	A list of patterns, separated by colons (:), which can have the following values: <code>ignorespace</code> : (lines beginning with a space are not entered into the history list), <code>ignoredups</code> : (lines matching the last history line are not saved in the history list), <code>erasedups</code> : (all previous lines matching the current line are removed from the history list before the line is saved), or <code>ignoreboth</code> : (enables both <code>ignorespace</code> and <code>ignoredups</code>).

Variable	Type	Description
HISTFILE		The name of the command history file.
HISTFILESIZE		The maximum number of lines to keep in the history file.
HISTIGNORE		A list of patterns used to determine what should be retained in the history list.
HISTSIZE		The maximum number of commands to keep in the command history.
HISTTIMEFORMAT		If set, timestamps are written to the history file so they may be preserved across shell sessions. If not null, this variable's value is used as a format string for <i>strftime(3)</i> to print the timestamp associated with each history entry displayed by the <i>history</i> builtin.
HOME		The home (login) directory.
HOSTFILE		The file to be used for hostname completion.
HOSTNAME		The name of the current host.
HOSTTYPE		The type of machine <i>bash</i> is running on.
IFS		The internal field separator: a list of characters that act as word separators. Normally set to space, tab, and newline.
IGNOREEOF		The number of EOF characters that can be received before exiting an interactive shell.
INPUTRC		The <i>readline</i> startup file.
LANG		Used to determine the locale category for any category where one is not specifically set with a variable starting with LC_.
LC_ALL		Overrides the value of LANG and any other LC_ variable specifying a locale category.
LC_COLLATE		Determines the collation order used when sorting the results of pathname expansion.
LC_CTYPE		Determines the interpretation of characters and the behavior of character classes within pathname expansion and pattern matching.
LC_MESSAGES		Determines the locale used to translate double-quoted strings preceded by a \$.
LC_NUMERIC		Determines the locale category used for number formatting.
LC_TIME		Determines the locale category used for date and time formatting.
LINENO	U	The number of the line that just ran in a script or function.
LINES		Used by the <i>select</i> command to determine the column length for printing selection lists.
MACHTYPE		A string describing the system on which <i>bash</i> is executing.
MAIL		The name of the file to check for new mail.
MAILCHECK		How often (in seconds) to check for new mail.
MAILPATH	L	A list of filenames to check for new mail, if MAIL is not set.
MAPFILE	A	An array variable created to hold the text read by the <i>mapfile</i> builtin when no variable name is supplied.
mark-directories		If set to on, completed directory names have a slash appended.
OLDPWD		The previous working directory.
OPTARG		The value of the last option argument processed by <i>getopts</i> .

Variable	Type	Description
OPTERR		If set to 1, display error messages from <i>getopts</i> .
OPTIND		The index of the last option argument processed by <i>getopts</i> .
OSTYPE		The operating system on which <i>bash</i> is executing.
PATH	L	The search path for commands.
PIPESTATUS	A	An array variable containing a list of exit status values from the processes in the most recently executed foreground pipeline.
POSI_XLY_CORRECT		If this is set in the environment when <i>bash</i> starts, the shell enters POSIX mode before reading the startup files, as if the <code>--posix</code> invocation option had been supplied. If it is set while the shell is running, <i>bash</i> enables POSIX mode, as if the command <code>set -o posix</code> had been executed.
PPID	R	The process ID of the shell's parent process.
PROMPT_COMMAND		The value is executed as a command before the primary prompt is issued.
PROMPT_DIRTRIM		If set to a number greater than 0, the value is used as the number of trailing directory components to retain when expanding the <code>\w</code> and <code>\W</code> prompt string escapes.
PS0		If set, the prompt string is displayed in an interactive shell after reading a command and before the command is executed. Only available in <i>bash</i> 4.4 and newer.
PS1		The primary command prompt string.
PS2		The prompt string for line continuations.
PS3		The prompt string for the <i>select</i> command.
PS4		The prompt string for the <i>xtrace</i> option.
PPID	R	The process ID of the parent process.
PWD		The current working directory as set by the <i>cd</i> builtin.
RANDOM	U	When referenced, generates a pseudorandom integer between 0 and 32,767.
READLINE_LINE		The contents of the <i>readline</i> line buffer, for use with <code>bind -x</code> .
READLINE_POINT		The position of the insertion point in the <i>readline</i> line buffer, for use with <code>bind -x</code> .
REPLY		The user's response to the <i>select</i> command; also, the result of the <i>read</i> command if no variable names are given.
SECONDS	U	The number of seconds since the shell was started.
SHELL		The full pathname of the shell.
SHELLOPTS	LR	A colon-separated list of enabled shell options.
SHLVL		Incremented by 1 each time a new instance (not a subshell) of <i>bash</i> is invoked. This is intended to be a count of how deeply your <i>bash</i> shells are nested.
TEXTDOMAIN		Indicates the location of the message catalog files if not using <code>LC_MESSAGES</code> .
TEXTDOMAINDIR		Indicates the location of the message catalog files if using <code>TEXTDOMAIN</code> .
TIMEFORMAT		Specifies the format for the output from using the <code>time</code> reserved word on a command pipeline.

Variable	Type	Description
TMOUT		If set to a positive integer, the number of seconds after which the shell automatically terminates if no input is received.
TMPDIR		If set, the name of the directory in which <i>bash</i> creates temporary files for the shell's use.
UID	R	The numeric real user ID of the current user.

set Options

The options in [Table A-7](#) can be turned on with the `set -arg` command. They are all initially off except where noted. Full names, where listed, are arguments to `set` that can be used with `set -o`. The full names `braceexpand`, `histexpand`, `history`, `key word`, and `onecmd` are not available in versions of *bash* prior to 2.0. Also, in those versions, hashing is switched with `-d`.

The mode string variables are only displayed when the `show-mode-in-prompt` *read-line* variable is enabled (see [Table A-22](#)).

For further reference, see <http://bit.ly/2uUXPpQ>.

Table A-7. set options

Option	Full name (-o)	Meaning
-a	<code>allexport</code>	Export all subsequently defined or modified variables.
-B	<code>braceexpand</code>	Perform brace expansion. This is on by default.
-b	<code>notify</code>	Report the status of terminating background jobs immediately.
-C	<code>noclobber</code>	Prevent output redirection using <code>></code> , <code>>&</code> , and <code><></code> from overwriting existing files.
-E	<code>errtrace</code>	If set, any trap on ERR is inherited by shell functions, command substitutions, and commands executed in a subshell environment.
-e	<code>errexit</code>	Exit the shell when a simple command exits with nonzero status. A simple command is a command not part of a <code>while</code> , <code>until</code> , or <code>if</code> ; nor part of a <code>&&</code> or <code> </code> list; nor a command whose return value is inverted by <code>!</code> .
	<code>emacs</code>	Use an Emacs-style line editing interface. This also affects the editing interface used for <code>read -e</code> .
-f	<code>noglob</code>	Disable filename expansion (globbing).
-H	<code>histexpand</code>	Enable <code>!</code> -style history substitution. This option is on by default for interactive shells.
	<code>history</code>	Enable command history. On by default in interactive shells.
-h	<code>hashall</code>	Locate and remember (hash) commands as they are looked up for execution. This option is enabled by default.
	<code>ignoreeof</code>	Prevent an interactive shell from exiting upon reading EOF (Ctrl-D).
-k	<code>keyword</code>	All arguments in the form of assignment statements are placed in the environment for a command, not just those that precede the command name.
-m	<code>monitor</code>	Enable job control. On by default in interactive shells.

Option	Full name (-o)	Meaning
-n	noexec	Read commands but do not execute them. This may be used to check a script for syntax errors. This option is ignored by interactive shells.
-P	physical	If set, do not resolve symbolic links when performing commands such as <i>cd</i> that change the current directory.
-p	privileged	Turn on privileged mode.
	pipefail	The return value of a pipeline is the value of the last (rightmost) command to exit with a nonzero status, or zero if all commands in the pipeline exit successfully. This option is disabled by default.
	posix	Change the behavior of <i>bash</i> where the default operation differs from the POSIX standard to match the standard.
-T	functrace	If set, any traps on DEBUG and RETURN are inherited by shell functions, command substitutions, and commands executed in a subshell environment.
-t	onecmd	Exit after reading and executing one command.
-u	nounset	Treat unset variables and parameters other than the special parameters @ or * as an error (not null) when performing parameter expansion.
-v	verbose	Print shell input lines before running them.
	vi	Use <i>vi</i> -style command-line editing.
-x	xtrace	Print commands (after expansions) before running them.
--		If no arguments follow this option, then the positional parameters are unset. Otherwise, the positional parameters are set to the arguments, even if some of them begin with a -.
-		Signals the end of options. All remaining arguments are assigned to the positional parameters. -x and -v are turned off. If there are no remaining arguments to set, the positional arguments remain unchanged.

shopt Options

The *shopt* options are set with `shopt -s arg` and unset with `shopt -u arg` (see [Table A-8](#)). Versions of *bash* prior to 2.0 had environment variables to perform some of these settings. Setting them equated to `shopt -s`. The variables (and corresponding *shopt* options) were `allow_null_glob_expansion` (`nullglob`), `cdable_vars` (`cdable_vars`), `command_oriented_history` (`cmdhist`), `glob_dot_filenames` (`dotglob`), and `no_exit_on_failed_exec` (`execfail`). These variables no longer exist.

The options `extdebug`, `failglob`, `force_ignore`, and `gnu_errfmt` are not available in versions of *bash* prior to 3.0.

For further reference, see <http://bit.ly/2vPjVsC>.

Table A-8. *shopt* options

Option	Meaning if set
<code>autocd</code>	A command name that is the name of a directory is executed as if it were the argument to the <code>cd</code> command.
<code>cdable_vars</code>	An argument to <code>cd</code> that is not a directory is assumed to be the name of a variable whose value is the directory to change to.
<code>cdspell</code>	Minor errors in the spelling of a directory name supplied to the <code>cd</code> command will be corrected if there is a suitable match. This correction includes missing letters, incorrect letters, and letter transposition. This option works for interactive shells only.
<code>checkhash</code>	Commands found in the hash table are checked for existence before being executed, and nonexistence forces a <code>\$PATH</code> search.
<code>checkjobs</code>	<code>bash</code> lists the status of any stopped and running jobs before exiting an interactive shell.
<code>checkwinsize</code>	<code>bash</code> checks the window size after each command and, if necessary, updates the values of <code>LINES</code> and <code>COLUMNS</code> .
<code>cmdhist</code>	<code>bash</code> attempts to save all lines of a multiline command in a single history entry.
<code>compat32</code>	<code>bash</code> changes its behavior to that of version 3.2 with respect to locale-specific string comparison when using certain commands and operators.
<code>compat40</code>	<code>bash</code> changes its behavior to that of version 4.0 with respect to locale-specific string comparison when using certain commands and operators.
<code>compat41</code>	<code>bash</code> , when in POSIX mode, treats a single quote in a double-quoted parameter expansion as a special character.
<code>compat42</code>	<code>bash</code> does not process the replacement string in the pattern substitution word expansion using quote removal.
<code>compat43</code>	<code>bash</code> changes its behavior to that of version 4.3 with respect to certain operations.
<code>complete_fullquote</code>	<code>bash</code> quotes all shell metacharacters in filenames and directory names when performing completion.
<code>direxand</code>	<code>bash</code> replaces directory names with the results of word expansion when performing filename completion.
<code>dirspell</code>	<code>bash</code> attempts spelling correction on directory names during word completion if the directory name initially supplied does not exist.
<code>dotglob</code>	<code>bash</code> includes filenames beginning with a dot in the results of filename expansion.
<code>execfail</code>	A noninteractive shell will not exit if it cannot execute the argument to an <code>exec</code> command. Interactive shells do not exit if an <code>exec</code> fails.
<code>expand_aliases</code>	Aliases are expanded.
<code>extdebug</code>	Behavior intended for use by debuggers is enabled. For example, the <code>-F</code> option of <code>declare</code> displays the source filename and line number corresponding to each function name supplied as an argument; if the command run by the <code>DEBUG</code> trap returns a nonzero value, the next command is skipped and not executed; and if the command run by the <code>DEBUG</code> trap returns a value of 2, and the shell is executing in a subroutine, a call to <code>return</code> is simulated.
<code>extglob</code>	Extended pattern-matching features are enabled.
<code>extquote</code>	If set, <code>\$string</code> and <code>"\$string"</code> quoting is performed within <code>\${parameter}</code> expansions enclosed in double quotes.

Option	Meaning if set
failglob	Patterns that fail to match filenames during pathname expansion result in an expansion error.
force_ignore	The suffixes specified by the \$FIGIGNORE shell variable cause words to be ignored when performing word completion even if the ignored words are the only possible completions.
globasciiranges	Range expressions used in pattern-matching bracket expressions behave as if in the traditional C locale when performing comparisons.
globstar	The pattern ** used in a filename expansion context will match all files and zero or more directories and subdirectories.
gnu_errfmt	Shell error messages are written in the standard GNU error message format.
histappend	The history list is appended to the file named by the value of the variable \$HISTFILE when the shell exits, rather than overwriting the file.
histreedit	If <i>readline</i> is being used, the opportunity is given for reediting a failed history substitution.
histverify	If <i>readline</i> is being used, the results of history substitution are not immediately passed to the shell parser. Instead, the resulting line is loaded into the <i>readline</i> editing buffer, allowing further modification.
hostcomplete	If <i>readline</i> is being used, an attempt will be made to perform hostname completion when a word beginning with @ is being completed.
huponexit	<i>bash</i> will send a SIGHUP signal to all jobs when an interactive login shell exits.
inherit_errexit	Command substitution inherits the value of the <i>errexit</i> option, instead of unsetting it in the subshell environment.
interactive_comments	Allows a word beginning with # and all subsequent characters on the line to be ignored in an interactive shell.
lastpipe	If job control is not active, the shell runs the last command of a pipeline not executed in the background in the current shell environment.
lithist	If the <i>cmdhist</i> option is enabled, multiline commands are saved to the history with embedded newlines rather than using semicolon separators where possible.
login_shell	<i>bash</i> was started as a login shell. This is a read-only value.
mailwarn	If the file being checked for mail has been accessed since the last time it was checked, the message "The mail in <i>mailfile</i> has been read" is displayed.
no_empty_cmd_completion	If <i>readline</i> is being used, no attempt will be made to search the \$PATH for possible completions when completion is attempted on an empty line.
nocaseglob	<i>bash</i> matches filenames in a case-insensitive fashion when performing pathname expansion.
nocasematch	<i>bash</i> matches patterns in a case-insensitive fashion when performing certain operations.
nullglob	Causes patterns that match no files to expand to null strings rather than to themselves.
progcomp	Programmable completion facilities are enabled. Default is on.
promptvars	Prompt strings undergo variable and parameter expansion after being expanded.
restricted_shell	The shell was started in restricted mode. This value cannot be changed.
shift_verbose	The <i>shift</i> builtin will print an error if it has shifted past the last positional parameter.

Option	Meaning if set
sourcepath	The <i>source</i> builtin will use the value of \$PATH to find the directory containing the file supplied as an argument.
xpg_echo	<i>echo</i> expands backslash escape sequences by default.

Test Operators

The operators in [Table A-9](#) are used with *test* and the [] and [[]] constructs. They can be logically combined with -a (“and”) and -o (“or”) and grouped with escaped parentheses (\(\)). The string comparisons < and > and the [[]] construct are not available in versions of *bash* prior to 2.0, and =~ is only available in *bash* version 3.0 and later, as noted.

See <http://bit.ly/2wloyMK>.

Table A-9. Test operators

Operator	True if
-a <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists; same as -e
-b <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists and is a block device file
-c <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists and is a character device file
-d <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists and is a directory
-e <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists; same as -a
-f <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists and is a regular file
-g <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists and has its <i>setgid</i> bit set
-G <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists and is owned by the effective group ID
-h <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists and is a symbolic link; same as -L
-k <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists and has its sticky bit set
-L <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists and is a symbolic link; same as -h
-n <i>string</i>	True if the length of <i>string</i> is nonzero
-N <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> was modified since it was last read
-O <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists and is owned by the effective user ID
-p <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists and is a pipe or named pipe (FIFO file)
-r <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists and is readable
-s <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists and is not empty
-S <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists and is a socket
-t <i>fd</i>	True if file descriptor <i>fd</i> is open and refers to a terminal.
-u <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists and has its <i>setuid</i> bit set
-w <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists and is writable
-x <i>file</i>	True if <i>file</i> exists and is executable, or <i>file</i> is a directory that can be searched

Operator	True if
<code>-z string</code>	True if the length of <i>string</i> is zero
<code>file1 -ef file2</code>	True if <i>file1</i> and <i>file2</i> refer to the same device and inode numbers
<code>file1 -nt file2</code>	True if <i>file1</i> 's modification date is newer than <i>file2</i> 's, or if <i>file1</i> exists and <i>file2</i> does not
<code>file1 -ot file2</code>	True if <i>file1</i> 's modification date is older than <i>file2</i> 's, or if <i>file2</i> exists and <i>file1</i> does not
<code>string1 = string2</code>	True if <i>string1</i> equals <i>string2</i> (POSIX version)
<code>string1 == string2</code>	True if <i>string1</i> equals <i>string2</i>
<code>string1 != string2</code>	True if the strings are not equal
<code>string1 < string2</code>	True if <i>string1</i> sorts before <i>string2</i> lexicographically
<code>string1 > string2</code>	True if <i>string1</i> sorts after <i>string2</i> lexicographically
<code>string1 =~ regexp</code>	True if <i>string1</i> matches the extended regular expression <i>regexp</i> ^a
<code>exprA -eq exprB</code>	True if arithmetic expressions <i>exprA</i> and <i>exprB</i> are equal
<code>exprA -ne exprB</code>	True if arithmetic expressions <i>exprA</i> and <i>exprB</i> are not equal
<code>exprA -lt exprB</code>	True if <i>exprA</i> is less than <i>exprB</i>
<code>exprA -le exprB</code>	True if <i>exprA</i> is less than or equal to <i>exprB</i>
<code>exprA -gt exprB</code>	True if <i>exprA</i> is greater than <i>exprB</i>
<code>exprA -ge exprB</code>	True if <i>exprA</i> is greater than or equal to <i>exprB</i>
<code>exprA -a exprB</code>	True if <i>exprA</i> is true and <i>exprB</i> is true
<code>exprA -o exprB</code>	True if <i>exprA</i> is true or <i>exprB</i> is true

^a Only available in *bash* version 3.0 and later. May only be used inside `[[]]`.

I/O Redirection

Table A-10 is a complete list of I/O redirectors. Note that there are two formats for specifying STDOUT and STDERR redirection: `&>file` and `>&file`. The second of these (which is the one used throughout this book) is the preferred way.

See <http://bit.ly/2xfqrqA>.

Table A-10. Input/output redirection

Redirector	Function
<code>cmd1 cmd2</code>	Pipe; send standard output of <i>cmd1</i> as standard input to <i>cmd2</i> .
<code>cmd1 & cmd2</code>	Pipe; send standard output and standard error of <i>cmd1</i> as standard input to <i>cmd2</i> (<i>bash</i> 4.0 or newer).
<code>> file</code>	Direct standard output to <i>file</i> .
<code>< file</code>	Take standard input from <i>file</i> .
<code>>> file</code>	Direct standard output to <i>file</i> ; append to <i>file</i> if it already exists.
<code>> file</code>	Force standard output to <i>file</i> even if <code>noclobber</code> is set.

Redirector	Function
<i>n> file</i>	Force output to <i>file</i> from file descriptor <i>n</i> even if <code>noclobber</code> is set.
<i><> file</i>	Use <i>file</i> as both standard input and standard output.
<i>&> file</i>	Direct standard output and standard error to <i>file</i> .
<i>&>> file</i>	Direct standard output and standard error to <i>file</i> ; append to <i>file</i> if it already exists (<i>bash</i> 4.0 or newer).
<i>n<> file</i>	Use <i>file</i> as both input and output for file descriptor <i>n</i> .
<i><< label</i>	Here-document.
<i><<< word</i>	Here-string.
<i>n> file</i>	Direct file descriptor <i>n</i> to <i>file</i> .
<i>n< file</i>	Take file descriptor <i>n</i> from <i>file</i> .
<i>n>> file</i>	Direct file descriptor <i>n</i> to <i>file</i> ; append to <i>file</i> if it already exists.
<i>n>&</i>	Duplicate standard output to file descriptor <i>n</i> .
<i>n<&</i>	Duplicate standard input from file descriptor <i>n</i> .
<i>n>&m</i>	File descriptor <i>n</i> is made to be a copy of the output file descriptor <i>m</i> .
<i>n<&m</i>	File descriptor <i>n</i> is made to be a copy of the input file descriptor <i>m</i> .
<i>&>file</i>	Direct standard output and standard error to <i>file</i> .
<i><&-</i>	Close the standard input.
<i>>&-</i>	Close the standard output.
<i>n>&-</i>	Close the output from file descriptor <i>n</i> .
<i>n<&-</i>	Close the input from file descriptor <i>n</i> .
<i>n>&word</i>	If <i>n</i> is not specified, the standard output (file descriptor 1) is used; if the digits in <i>word</i> do not specify a file descriptor open for output, a redirection error occurs. As a special case, if <i>n</i> is omitted, and <i>word</i> does not expand to one or more digits, the standard output and standard error are redirected as described previously.
<i>n<&word</i>	If <i>word</i> expands to one or more digits, the file descriptor denoted by <i>n</i> is made to be a copy of that file descriptor; if the digits in <i>word</i> do not specify a file descriptor open for input, a redirection error occurs. If <i>word</i> evaluates to -, file descriptor <i>n</i> is closed; if <i>n</i> is not specified, the standard input (file descriptor 0) is used.
<i>n>&digit-</i>	Moves the file descriptor <i>digit</i> to file descriptor <i>n</i> , or the standard output (file descriptor 1) if <i>n</i> is not specified.
<i>n<&digit-</i>	Moves the file descriptor <i>digit</i> to file descriptor <i>n</i> , or the standard input (file descriptor 0) if <i>n</i> is not specified; <i>digit</i> is closed after being duplicated to <i>n</i> .

echo Options and Escape Sequences

echo accepts three arguments (see [Table A-11](#)).

Table A-11. *echo* options

Option	Function
-e	Turns on the interpretation of backslash-escaped characters
-E	Turns off the interpretation of backslash-escaped characters on systems where this mode is the default
-n	Omits the final newline (same as the <code>\c</code> escape sequence; see Table A-12)

echo also accepts a number of escape sequences that start with a backslash ([Table A-12](#)). These sequences exhibit fairly predictable behavior, except for `\f`, which on some displays causes a screen clear while on others it causes a line feed, and it ejects the page on most printers. `\v` is somewhat obsolete; it usually causes a line feed.

See <http://bit.ly/2ii87KI>.

Table A-12. *echo* escape sequences

Sequence	Character printed
<code>\a</code>	Alert or Ctrl-G (bell)
<code>\b</code>	Backspace or Ctrl-H
<code>\c</code>	Suppress further output
<code>\e</code>	Escape character (same as <code>\E</code>)
<code>\E</code>	Escape character
<code>\f</code>	Form feed or Ctrl-L
<code>\n</code>	Newline (not at end of command) or Ctrl-J
<code>\r</code>	Return (Enter) or Ctrl-M
<code>\t</code>	Tab or Ctrl-I
<code>\v</code>	Vertical tab or Ctrl-K
<code>\\</code>	Single backslash
<code>\0nnn</code>	The eight-bit character whose value is the octal (base-8) value <i>nnn</i> (zero to three octal digits)
<code>\nnn</code>	Same as <code>\0nnn</code>
<code>\xHH</code>	The eight-bit character whose value is the hexadecimal (base-16) value <i>HH</i> (one or two hex digits)
<code>\uHHHH</code>	The Unicode (ISO/IEC 10646) character whose value is the hexadecimal value <i>HHHH</i> (one to four hex digits)
<code>\UHHHHHHHH</code>	The Unicode (ISO/IEC 10646) character whose value is the hexadecimal value <i>HHHHHHHH</i> (one to eight hex digits)

The `\n`, `\0`, and `\x` sequences are even more device-dependent and can be used for complex I/O, such as cursor control and special graphics characters.

printf

The `printf` command, available in `bash` since version 2.02, has three parts (beyond the command name):

```
printf [-v var] format-string [arguments]
```

`-v var` is optional and causes the output to be assigned to the variable `var` rather than being printed to standard output.

`format-string` describes the format specifications; this is best supplied as a string constant in quotes. `arguments` is a list, such as a list of strings or variable values that correspond to the format specifications.

The format is reused as necessary to use up all of the arguments. If the format requires more arguments than are supplied, the extra format specifications behave as if a zero value or null string, as appropriate, had been supplied.

A format specification is preceded by a percent sign (%), and the specifier is one of the characters described in [Table A-13](#). Two of the main format specifiers are `%s` for strings and `%d` for decimal integers.

See <http://bit.ly/2uUYkky>.

Table A-13. `printf` format specifiers

Format character	Meaning
<code>%b</code>	Causes <code>printf</code> to expand backslash escape sequences in the corresponding argument in the same way as <code>echo -e</code>
<code>%c</code>	ASCII character (prints first character of corresponding argument)
<code>%d</code> , <code>%i</code>	Decimal (base 10) integer
<code>%e</code>	Floating-point format <code>[-]d.precision[+-]dd</code> —see the text after the table for the meaning of <i>precision</i>
<code>%E</code>	Floating-point format <code>([-]d.precisionE[+-]dd)</code>
<code>%f</code>	Floating-point format <code>([-]ddd.precision)</code>
<code>%g</code>	<code>%e</code> or <code>%f</code> conversion, whichever is shorter, with trailing zeros removed
<code>%G</code>	<code>%E</code> or <code>%f</code> conversion, whichever is shortest, with trailing zeros removed
<code>%o</code>	Unsigned octal value
<code>%q</code>	Causes <code>printf</code> to output the corresponding argument in a format that can be reused as shell input
<code>%s</code>	String
<code>%u</code>	Unsigned decimal value

Format character	Meaning
%x	Unsigned hexadecimal number; uses a - f for 10 to 15
%X	Unsigned hexadecimal number; uses A - F for 10 to 15
%%	Literal %
%(datefmt)T	Causes <i>printf</i> to output the date-time string resulting from using <i>datefmt</i> as a format string for <i>strftime</i> (<i>bash</i> 4.2 or newer)

The *printf* command can be used to specify the width and alignment of output fields. A format expression can take three optional modifiers following the % and preceding the format specifier:

```
%<flags><width.precision> format-specifier>
```

The width of the output field is a numeric value. When you specify a field width, the contents of the field are right-justified by default. You must specify a flag of - to get left-justification (the rest of the flags are shown in the table). Thus, %-20s outputs a left-justified string in a field 20 characters wide. If the string is less than 20 characters, the field is padded with whitespace to fill it. In the following examples, we put our format specifier between a pair of | in our format string so you can see the width of the field in the output. The first example right-justifies the text:

```
printf "|%10s|\n" hello@
```

It produces:

```
|          hello|
```

The next example left-justifies the text:

```
printf "|%-10s|\n" hello
```

It produces:

```
|hello          |
```

The precision modifier, used for decimal or floating-point values, controls the number of digits that appear in the result. For string values, it controls the maximum number of characters from the string that will be printed.

You can even specify both the width and precision dynamically, via values in the *printf* argument list. You do this by specifying asterisks in the format expression, instead of literal values:

```
$ myvar=42.123456
$ mysig=6
$ printf "|%*. *G|\n" 5 $mysig $myvar
|42.1235|
$
```

In this example, the width is 5, the precision is 6, and the value to print comes from the value of `$myvar`. The precision is optional and its exact meaning varies by control letter, as shown in [Table A-14](#).

Table A-14. Meaning of “precision” based on `printf` format specifier

Format	What “precision” means
<code>%d, %I, %o, %u, %x, %X</code>	The minimum number of digits to print. When the value has fewer digits, it is padded with leading zeros. The default precision is 1.
<code>%e, %E</code>	The minimum number of digits to print. When the value has fewer digits, it is padded with zeros after the decimal point. The default precision is 10. A precision of 0 inhibits printing of the decimal point.
<code>%f</code>	The number of digits to the right of the decimal point.
<code>%g, %G</code>	The maximum number of significant digits.
<code>%s</code>	The maximum number of characters to print.
<code>%b</code>	[POSIX shell—may be nonportable to other versions of <code>printf</code> .] When used instead of <code>%s</code> , expands <i>echo</i> -style escape sequences in the argument string (see Table A-15).
<code>%q</code>	[POSIX shell—may be nonportable to other versions of <code>printf</code> .] When used instead of <code>%s</code> , prints the string argument in such a way that it can be used for shell input.

`%b` and `%q` are additions to `bash` (and other POSIX-compliant shells) that provide useful features at the expense of nonportability to versions of the `printf` command found in some other shells and in other places in Unix. Here are two examples to make their functions a little clearer.

`%q` shell quotes:

```
$ printf "%q\n" "greetings to the world"
greetings\ to\ the\ world
$
```

`%b` *echo*-style escapes:

```
$ printf "%s\n" 'hello\nworld'
hello\nworld
$ printf "%b\n" 'hello\nworld'
hello
world
$
```

[Table A-15](#) shows the escape sequences that will be translated in a string printed with the `%b` format.

Table A-15. *printf* escape sequences

Escape sequence	Meaning
<code>\e</code>	Escape character
<code>\a</code>	Bell character
<code>\b</code>	Backspace character
<code>\f</code>	Form feed character
<code>\n</code>	Newline character
<code>\r</code>	Carriage return character
<code>\t</code>	Tab character
<code>\v</code>	Vertical tab character
<code>\'</code>	Single-quote character
<code>\"</code>	Double-quote character
<code>\\</code>	Backslash character
<code>\nnn</code>	8-bit character whose ASCII value is the 1-, 2-, or 3-digit octal number <i>nnn</i>
<code>\xHH</code>	8-bit character whose ASCII value is the 1- or 2-digit hexadecimal number <i>HH</i>

Finally, one or more flags may precede the field width and the precision in a *printf* format specifier. We've already seen the `-` flag for left-justification. The rest of the flags are shown in [Table A-16](#).

Table A-16. *printf* flags

Character	Description
<code>-</code>	Left-justify the formatted value within the field.
Space	Prefix positive values with a space and negative values with a minus.
<code>+</code>	Always prefix numeric values with a sign, even if the value is positive.
<code>#</code>	Use an alternate form: <code>%o</code> has a preceding <code>0</code> ; <code>%x</code> and <code>%X</code> are prefixed with <code>0x</code> and <code>0X</code> , respectively; <code>%e</code> , <code>%E</code> , and <code>%f</code> always have a decimal point in the result; and <code>%g</code> and <code>%G</code> do not have trailing zeros removed.
<code>0</code>	Pad output with zeros, not spaces. This only happens when the field width is wider than the converted result. In the C language, this flag applies to all output formats, even nonnumeric ones. For <i>bash</i> , it only applies to the numeric formats.
<code>'</code>	Format with thousands grouping characters if the format specification includes <code>%i</code> , <code>%d</code> , <code>%u</code> , <code>%f</code> , <code>%F</code> , <code>%g</code> , or <code>%G</code> (although this is POSIX, it's still not always implemented).

Examples

These examples for *printf* use some shell variables, assigned as follows in [Table A-17](#):

```
PI=3.141592653589
```

Table A-17. *printf* examples

printf statement	Result	Comment
<code>printf '%f\n' \$PI</code>	3.141593	Note the default rounding.
<code># not what you want printf '%f.5\n' \$PI</code>	3.141593.5	A common mistake—the format specifier should be on the other side of the %f; since it isn't, the .5 is just appended like any text.
<code>printf '%.5f\n' \$PI</code>	3.14159	Gives five places to the right of the decimal point.
<code>printf '+%.2f\n' \$PI</code>	+3.14	Leading + sign, only two digits to the right of the decimal point.
<code>printf ' [%.4s]\n' s string</code>	[s] [stri]	Truncates to four characters; with only one character, we get only one-character-wide output. Note reuse of format string.
<code>printf ' [%4s]\n' s string</code>	[s] [string]	Assures us of a minimum four-character field width, right-justified; doesn't truncate, though.
<code>printf ' [%-4.4s]\n' s string</code>	[s] [stri]	Does it all—minimum width of four, maximum width of four, truncating if necessary, and left justifies (due to the minus sign) shorter than four.

Here is one more example that will not display well in the table. The traditional way to write `printf` statements is to embed all formatting, including things like newlines, in the format string. This is shown in the table. That is encouraged, but you don't have to do it that way, and sometimes it's easier if you don't. Note the `→` denotes a tab character in the output of this example:

```
$ printf "%b" "\aRing terminal bell, then tab\t then newline\nThen line 2.\n"
Ring terminal bell, then tab → then newline
Then line 2.
```

Finally, we really like the `%(datefmt)T` introduced in *bash* 4.2 because you can now often eliminate a subshell call to *date*, like so:

```
$ printf "%(%F)T\n" '-1'
2017-02-06

$ printf "%(%F_%T)T\n"
2017-02-06_20:31:25

$ printf "%(%F_%T%z)T: %s\n" '-1' 'Your log line here...'
2017-02-06_20:32:24-0500: Your log line here...
```



It took a few *bash* releases for `%(datefmt)T` behavior to stabilize! Sometimes you can omit the `-1` argument and sometimes you can't, depending on which version of *bash* you have and what you're doing. For maximum portability, do not omit the argument.

See Also

- <http://wiki.bash-hackers.org/commands/builtin/printf>
- <http://pubs.opengroup.org/onlinepubs/9699919799/utilities/printf.html>

Date and Time String Formatting with strftime

Table A-18 shows common date and time string formatting options. Consult your system's manpages for *date* and *strftime(3)*, as both the options and what they mean vary from system to system.

Table A-18. *strftime* format codes

Format	Description
%%	A literal %.
%a	The locale's abbreviated weekday name (Sun..Sat).
%A	The locale's full weekday name (Sunday..Saturday).
%B	The locale's full month name (January..December).
%b	The locale's abbreviated month name (Jan..Dec). See also %h.
%c	The locale's default/preferred date and time representation.
%C	The century (a year divided by 100 and truncated to an integer) as a decimal number (00..99).
%d	The day of the month as a decimal number (01..31).
%D	The date in the format %m/%d/%y (MM/DD/YY). Note that the United States uses MM/DD/YY while everyone else uses DD/MM/YY, so this format is ambiguous and should be avoided. Use %F instead, since it's a recognized standard and it sorts well.
%e	The day of the month as a blank-padded decimal number (1..31).
%F	The date in the format %Y-%m-%d (the ISO 8601 date format CCYY-MM-DD, except when it's the full month name, as on HP-UX).
%g	The two-digit year corresponding to the %V week number (YY).
%G	The four-digit year corresponding to the %V week number (CCYY).
%H	The hour (24-hour clock) as a decimal number (00..23).
%h	The locale's abbreviated month name (Jan..Dec). See also %b.
%I	The hour (12-hour clock) as a decimal number (01..12).
%j	The day of the year as a decimal number (001..366).
%k	The hour (24-hour clock) as a blank-padded decimal number (0..23).
%L	The hour (12-hour clock) as a blank-padded decimal number (1..12).
%m	The month as a decimal number (01..12).
%M	The minute as a decimal number (00..59).

Format	Description
%n	A literal newline.
%N	Nanoseconds (000000000..999999999). [GNU]
%p	The locale's equivalent of either "AM" or "PM".
%P	The locale's equivalent of either "am" or "pm". [GNU]
%r	The locale's representation of 12-hour clock time using AM/PM notation (HH:MM:SS AM/PM).
%R	The time in the format %H:%M (HH:MM).
%s	The number of seconds since the epoch, UTC (January 1, 1970 at 00:00:00).
%S	The second as a decimal number (00..61). The range of seconds is (00..61) instead of (00..59) to allow for the periodic occurrence of leap seconds and double leap seconds.
%t	A literal tab.
%T	The time in the format %H:%M:%S (HH:MM:SS).
%u	The weekday (Monday as the first day of the week) as a decimal number (1..7).
%U	The week number of the year (Sunday as the first day of the week) as a decimal number (00..53).
%v	The date in the format %e-%b-%Y (D-MMM-CCYY). [Not standard]
%V	The week number of the year (Monday as the first day of the week) as a decimal number (01..53). According to ISO 8601 the week containing January 1 is week 1 if it has four or more days in the new year; otherwise it is week 53 of the previous year, and the next week is week 1. The year is given by the %G conversion specification.
%w	The weekday (Sunday as the first day of the week) as a decimal number (0..6).
%W	The week number of the year (Monday as the first day of the week) as a decimal number (00..53).
%x	The locale's appropriate date representation.
%X	The locale's appropriate time representation.
%y	The year without the century as a decimal number (00..99).
%Y	The year with the century as a decimal number.
%z	The offset from UTC in the ISO 8601 format [-]hhmm.
%Z	The time zone name.

Pattern-Matching Characters

Table A-19 lists the pattern-matching characters in *bash*. The material in this section is adapted from the [Bash Reference Manual](#).

Table A-19. Pattern-matching characters

Character	Meaning
*	Matches any string, including the null string
?	Matches any single character
[]	Matches any one of the enclosed characters
[!] or [^]	Matches any character not enclosed

The following POSIX character classes may be used within brackets, as shown here (consult the *grep* or *egrep* manpage on your system for more details):

```
[[[:alnum:]]] [[[:alpha:]]] [[[:ascii:]]] [[[:blank:]]] [[[:cntrl:]]] [[[:digit:]]]
[[[:graph:]]] [[[:lower:]]] [[[:print:]]] [[[:punct:]]] [[[:space:]]] [[[:upper:]]]
[[[:word:]]] [[[:xdigit:]]]
```

The word character class matches letters, digits, and the character `_`.

`[=c=]` matches all characters with the same collation weight (as defined by the current locale) as the character `c`, while `[.symbol.]` matches the collating symbol *symbol*.

These character classes are affected by the locale setting. To get the traditional Unix values, use `LC_COLLATE=C` or `LC_ALL=C`.

extglob Extended Pattern-Matching Operators

The operators in [Table A-20](#) apply when using `shopt -s extglob`. Matches are case-sensitive, but you may use `shopt -s nocasematch` (*bash* 3.1+) to change that. This option affects case and `[]` commands.

Table A-20. *extglob* extended pattern-matching operators

Grouping	Meaning
@()	Only one occurrence
0()	Zero or more occurrences
1()	One or more occurrences
?()	Zero or one occurrence
!()	No occurrences of this, but anything else

tr Escape Sequences

[Table A-21](#) lists the *tr* escape sequences.

Table A-21. *tr* escape sequences

Sequence	Meaning
\ooo	Character with octal value ooo (one to three octal digits)
\\	A backslash character (i.e., escapes the backslash itself)
\a	“Audible” bell, the ASCII BEL character (since b was taken for backspace)
\b	Backspace
\f	Form feed
\n	Newline
\r	Return

Sequence	Meaning
\t	Tab (sometimes called a horizontal tab)
\v	Vertical tab

readline Init File Syntax

The GNU *readline* library provides the command line on which you type to communicate with *bash* and some other GNU utilities. It is amazingly configurable, but most people are not aware of this.

Tables A-22, A-23, and A-24 are a subset of what is available to work with. See the *readline* documentation for the full details.

The following is adapted directly from [Chet Ramey's documentation](#).

You can modify the runtime behavior of *readline* by altering the values of variables in *readline* using the *set* command within the *init* file. The syntax is simple:

```
set variable value
```

Here, for example, is how to change from the default Emacs-like key binding to use *vi* line-editing commands:

```
set editing-mode vi
```

Variable names and values, where appropriate, are recognized without regard to case. Unrecognized variable names are ignored.

Boolean variables (those that can be set to on or off) are set to on if the value is null or empty, on (case-insensitive), or 1. Any other value results in the variable being set to off.

Also, the mode string variables are only displayed when the `show-mode-in-prompt` *readline* variable is enabled (see also [Table A-7](#)).

See <http://bit.ly/2wLB9iV>.

Table A-22. *readline* configuration settings

Variable	Description
bell-style	Controls what happens when <i>readline</i> wants to ring the terminal bell. If set to <code>none</code> , <i>readline</i> never rings the bell. If set to <code>visible</code> , <i>readline</i> uses a visible bell if one is available. If set to <code>audible</code> (the default), <i>readline</i> attempts to ring the terminal's bell.
bind-tty-special-chars	If set to <code>on</code> , <i>readline</i> attempts to bind the control characters treated specially by the kernel's terminal driver to their <i>readline</i> equivalents. The default is <code>on</code> .
blink-matching-paren	If set to <code>on</code> , <i>readline</i> attempts to briefly move the cursor to an opening parenthesis when a closing parenthesis is inserted. The default is <code>off</code> .

Variable	Description
colored-completion-prefix	If set to <i>on</i> , when listing completions, <i>readline</i> displays the common prefix of the set of possible completions using a different color. The color definitions are taken from the value of the <code>LS_COLORS</code> environment variable. The default is <i>off</i> .
colored-stats	If set to <i>on</i> , <i>readline</i> displays possible completions using different colors to indicate their file type. The color definitions are taken from the value of the <code>LS_COLORS</code> environment variable. The default is <i>off</i> .
comment-begin	The string to insert at the beginning of the line when the <i>insert-comment</i> command is executed. The default value is <code>#</code> .
completion-display-width	The number of screen columns used to display possible matches when performing completion. The value is ignored if it is less than zero or greater than the terminal screen width. A value of <code>0</code> will cause matches to be displayed one per line. The default value is <code>-1</code> .
completion-ignore-case	If set to <i>on</i> , <i>readline</i> performs filename matching and completion in a case-insensitive fashion. The default is <i>off</i> .
completion-map-case	If set to <i>on</i> and <i>completion-ignore-case</i> is enabled, <i>readline</i> treats hyphens (<code>-</code>) and underscores (<code>_</code>) as equivalent when performing case-insensitive filename matching and completion.
completion-prefix-display-length	The length in characters of the common prefix of a list of possible completions that is displayed without modification. When set to a value greater than zero, common prefixes longer than this value are replaced with an ellipsis when displaying possible completions.
completion-query-items	The number of possible completions that determines when the user is asked whether the list of possibilities should be displayed. If the number of possible completions is greater than this value, <i>readline</i> will ask the user whether to display them; otherwise, they are simply listed. This variable must be set to an integer value greater than or equal to zero. A negative value means <i>readline</i> should never ask. The default limit is <code>100</code> .
convert-meta	If set to <i>on</i> , <i>readline</i> will convert characters with the eighth bit set to an ASCII key sequence by stripping the eighth bit and prefixing an Esc character, converting them to a meta-prefixed key sequence. The default is <i>on</i> .
disable-completion	If set to <i>on</i> , <i>readline</i> will inhibit word completion. Completion characters will be inserted into the line as if they had been mapped to <code>self-insert</code> . The default is <i>off</i> .
echo-control-characters	When set to <i>on</i> , on operating systems that indicate they support it, <i>readline</i> echoes a character corresponding to a signal generated from the keyboard. The default is <i>on</i> .
editing-mode	Controls which default set of key bindings is used. By default, <i>readline</i> starts up in Emacs editing mode, where the keystrokes are most similar to Emacs. This variable can be set to either <code>emacs</code> or <code>vi</code> .
emacs-mode-string	The string to display immediately before the last line of the primary prompt when Emacs editing mode is active. The value is expanded like a key binding, so the standard set of meta- and control prefixes and backslash escape sequences is available. Use the <code>\1</code> and <code>\2</code> escapes to begin and end sequences of nonprinting characters, which can be used to embed a terminal control sequence into the mode string. The default is <code>@</code> .
enable-bracketed-paste	When set to <i>on</i> , <i>readline</i> will configure the terminal in a way that will enable it to insert each paste into the editing buffer as a single string of characters, instead of treating each character as if it had been read from the keyboard. This can prevent pasted characters from being interpreted as editing commands. The default is <i>off</i> .
enable-keypad	When set to <i>on</i> , <i>readline</i> will try to enable the application keypad when it is called. Some systems need this to enable the arrow keys. The default is <i>off</i> .

Variable	Description
enable-meta-key	When set to <i>on</i> , <i>readline</i> will try to enable any meta modifier key the terminal claims to support when it is called. On many terminals, the meta key is used to send eight-bit characters. The default is <i>on</i> .
expand-tilde	If set to <i>on</i> , tilde (~) expansion is performed when <i>readline</i> attempts word completion. The default is <i>off</i> .
history-preserve-point	If set to <i>on</i> , the history code attempts to place the point (the current cursor position) at the same location on each history line retrieved with <i>previous-history</i> or <i>next-history</i> . The default is <i>off</i> .
history-size	The maximum number of history entries to save in the history list. If set to 0, any existing history entries are deleted and no new entries are saved. If set to a value less than zero, the number of history entries is not limited. By default, the number of history entries is not limited. If an attempt is made to set <i>history-size</i> to a nonnumeric value, the maximum number of history entries will be set to 500.
horizontal-scroll-mode	If set to <i>on</i> , the text of the lines being edited will scroll horizontally on a single screen line when they are longer than the width of the screen, instead of wrapping onto a new screen line. The default is <i>off</i> .
input-meta	If set to <i>on</i> , <i>readline</i> will enable eight-bit input (it will not clear the eighth bit in the characters it reads), regardless of what the terminal claims it can support. The default is <i>off</i> . The name <i>meta-flag</i> is a synonym for this variable.
isearch-terminators	The string of characters that should terminate an incremental search without subsequently executing the character as a command. If this variable has not been given a value, the characters Esc and C-J will terminate an incremental search.
keymap	Sets <i>readline's</i> idea of the current keymap for key binding commands. Acceptable keymap names are <i>emacs</i> , <i>emacs-standard</i> , <i>emacs-meta</i> , <i>emacs-ctlx</i> , <i>vi</i> , <i>vi-move</i> , <i>vi-command</i> , and <i>vi-insert</i> . <i>vi</i> is equivalent to <i>vi-command</i> ; <i>emacs</i> is equivalent to <i>emacs-standard</i> . The default value is <i>emacs</i> . The value of the <i>editing-mode</i> variable also affects the default keymap.
keyseq-timeout	Specifies the duration <i>readline</i> will wait for a character when reading an ambiguous key sequence (one that can form a complete key sequence using the input read so far, or can take additional input to complete a longer key sequence). If no input is received within the timeout, <i>readline</i> will use the shorter but complete key sequence. <i>readline</i> uses this value to determine whether or not input is available on the current input source (<i>rl_instream</i> by default). The value is specified in milliseconds, so a value of 1000 means that <i>readline</i> will wait one second for additional input. If this variable is set to a value less than or equal to zero, or to a nonnumeric value, <i>readline</i> will wait until another key is pressed to decide which key sequence to complete. The default value is 500.
mark-directories	If set to <i>on</i> , completed directory names have a slash appended. The default is <i>on</i> .
mark-modified-lines	If set to <i>on</i> , <i>readline</i> will display an asterisk (*) at the start of history lines that have been modified. The default is <i>off</i> .
mark-symlinked-directories	If set to <i>on</i> , completed names that are symbolic links to directories have a slash appended (subject to the value of <i>mark-directories</i>). The default is <i>off</i> .
match-hidden-files	If set to <i>on</i> , <i>readline</i> will match files whose names begin with a dot (hidden files) when performing filename completion, unless the leading . is supplied by the user in the filename to be completed. The default is <i>on</i> .
menu-complete-display-prefix	If set to <i>on</i> , menu completion displays the common prefix of the list of possible completions (which may be empty) before cycling through the list. The default is <i>off</i> .

Variable	Description
<code>output-meta</code>	If set to <code>on</code> , <i>readline</i> will display characters with the eighth bit set directly rather than as a meta-prefixed escape sequence. The default is <code>off</code> .
<code>page-completions</code>	If set to <code>on</code> , <i>readline</i> uses an internal <i>more</i> -like pager to display a screenful of possible completions at a time. The default is <code>on</code> .
<code>print-completions-horizontally</code>	If set to <code>on</code> , <i>readline</i> will display completions with matches sorted horizontally in alphabetical order, rather than down the screen. The default is <code>off</code> .
<code>revert-all-at-newline</code>	If set to <code>on</code> , <i>readline</i> will undo all changes to history lines before returning when <i>accept-line</i> is executed. By default, history lines may be modified and retain individual undo lists across calls to <i>readline</i> . The default is <code>off</code> .
<code>show-all-if-ambiguous</code>	Alters the default behavior of the completion functions. If set to <code>on</code> , words that have more than one possible completion cause the matches to be listed immediately instead of ringing the bell. The default is <code>off</code> .
<code>show-all-if-unmodified</code>	Alters the default behavior of the completion functions in a fashion similar to <code>show-all-if-ambiguous</code> . If set to <code>on</code> , words that have more than one possible completion without any possible partial completion (the possible completions don't share a common prefix) cause the matches to be listed immediately instead of ringing the bell. The default is <code>off</code> .
<code>show-mode-in-prompt</code>	If set to <code>on</code> , a character is added to the beginning of the prompt indicating the editing mode: <code>emacs</code> , <code>vi-command</code> , or <code>vi-insert</code> . The mode strings are user-settable. The default is <code>off</code> .
<code>skip-completed-text</code>	If set to <code>on</code> , this alters the default completion behavior when inserting a single match into the line. It's only active when performing completion in the middle of a word. If enabled, <i>readline</i> does not insert characters from the completion that match characters after point in the word being completed, so portions of the word following the cursor are not duplicated. For instance, if this is enabled, attempting completion when the cursor is after the first <i>e</i> in <i>Makefile</i> will result in <i>Makefile</i> rather than <i>Makefilefile</i> , assuming there is a single possible completion. The default is <code>off</code> .
<code>vi-cmd-mode-string</code>	The string to display immediately before the last line of the primary prompt when <i>vi</i> editing mode is active and in command mode. The value is expanded like a key binding, so the standard set of meta and control prefixes and backslash escape sequences is available. Use the <code>\1</code> and <code>\2</code> escapes to begin and end sequences of nonprinting characters, which can be used to embed a terminal control sequence into the mode string. The default is <code>(cmd)</code> .
<code>vi-ins-mode-string</code>	The string to display immediately before the last line of the primary prompt when <i>vi</i> editing mode is active and in insertion mode. The value is expanded like a key binding, so the standard set of meta and control prefixes and backslash escape sequences is available. Use the <code>\1</code> and <code>\2</code> escapes to begin and end sequences of nonprinting characters, which can be used to embed a terminal control sequence into the mode string. The default is <code>(ins)</code> .
<code>visible-stats</code>	If set to <code>on</code> , a character denoting a file's type is appended to the filename when listing possible completions. The default is <code>off</code> .

Emacs Mode Commands

The material in this section also appears in *Learning the bash Shell*, 3rd Edition, by Cameron Newham (O'Reilly).

Table A-23 is a complete list of *readline* Emacs editing mode commands.

Table A-23. Emacs mode commands

Command	Meaning
Ctrl-A	Move to beginning of line.
Ctrl-B	Move backward one character.
Ctrl-D	Delete one character forward.
Ctrl-E	Move to end of line.
Ctrl-F	Move forward one character.
Ctrl-G	Abort the current editing command and ring the terminal bell.
Ctrl-J	Same as Return.
Ctrl-K	Delete (kill) forward to end of line.
Ctrl-L	Clear screen and redisplay the line.
Ctrl-M	Same as Return.
Ctrl-N	Next line in command history.
Ctrl-O	Same as Return, then display next line in history file.
Ctrl-P	Previous line in command history.
Ctrl-R	Search backward.
Ctrl-S	Search forward.
Ctrl-T	Transpose two characters.
Ctrl-U	Kill backward from point to the beginning of line.
Ctrl-V	Make the next character typed verbatim.
Ctrl-V Tab	Insert a tab.
Ctrl-W	Kill the word behind the cursor, using whitespace as the boundary.
Ctrl-X/	List the possible filename completions of the current word.
Ctrl-X~	List the possible username completions of the current word.
Ctrl-X \$	List the possible shell variable completions of the current word.
Ctrl-X@	List the possible hostname completions of the current word.
Ctrl-X!	List the possible command name completions of the current word.
Ctrl-X(Begin saving characters into the current keyboard macro.
Ctrl-X)	Stop saving characters into the current keyboard macro.
Ctrl-Xe	Reexecute the last keyboard macro defined.
Ctrl-X Ctrl-R	Read in the contents of the <i>readline</i> initialization file.
Ctrl-X Ctrl-V	Display version information on this instance of <i>bash</i> .
Ctrl-Y	Retrieve (yank) last item killed.
Delete	Delete one character backward.
Ctrl-[Same as Esc (most keyboards).
Esc-B	Move one word backward.
Esc-C	Change word after point to all capital letters.

Command	Meaning
Esc-D	Delete one word forward.
Esc-F	Move one word forward.
Esc-L	Change word after point to all lowercase letters.
Esc-N	Nonincremental forward search.
Esc-P	Nonincremental reverse search.
Esc-R	Undo all the changes made to this line.
Esc-T	Transpose two words.
Esc-U	Change word after point to all uppercase letters.
Esc-Ctrl-E	Perform shell alias, history, and word expansion on the line.
Esc-Ctrl-H	Delete one word backward.
Esc-Ctrl-Y	Insert the first argument to the previous command (usually the second word) at point.
Esc-Delete	Delete one word backward.
Esc-^	Perform history expansion on the line.
Esc-<	Move to first line of history file.
Esc->	Move to last line of history file.
Esc-.	Insert last word in previous command line after point.
Esc- <u>_</u>	Same as above.
Tab	Attempt filename completion on current word.
Esc-?	List the possible completions of the text before point.
Esc-/	Attempt filename completion on current word.
Esc-~	Attempt username completion on current word.
Esc-\$	Attempt variable completion on current word.
Esc-@	Attempt hostname completion on current word.
Esc-!	Attempt command name completion on current word.
Esc-Tab	Attempt completion from text in the command history.
Esc-~	Attempt tilde expansion on the current word.
Esc-\	Delete all the spaces and tabs around point.
Esc-*	Insert all of the completions that would be generated by Esc= <u>=</u> before point.
Esc= <u>=</u>	List the possible completions before point.
Esc-{	Attempt filename completion and return the list to the shell enclosed within braces.

vi Control Mode Commands

The material in this section also appears in *Learning the bash Shell*, 3rd Edition, by Cameron Newham (O'Reilly).

Table A-24 shows a complete list of *readline vi* control mode commands.

Table A-24. *vi* mode commands

Command	Meaning
h	Move left one character.
l	Move right one character.
w	Move right one word.
b	Move left one word.
W	Move to beginning of next nonblank word.
B	Move to beginning of preceding nonblank word.
e	Move to end of current word.
E	Move to end of current nonblank word.
0	Move to beginning of line.
.	Repeat the last a insertion.
^	Move to first nonblank character in line.
\$	Move to end of line.
i	Insert text before current character.
a	Insert text after current character.
I	Insert text at beginning of line.
A	Insert text at end of line.
R	Overwrite existing text.
dh	Delete one character backward.
d \bar{l}	Delete one character forward.
db	Delete one word backward.
d \bar{w}	Delete one word forward.
dB	Delete one nonblank word backward.
d \bar{W}	Delete one nonblank word forward.
d\$	Delete to end of line.
d0	Delete to beginning of line.
D	Equivalent to d\$ (delete to end of line).
dd	Equivalent to 0d\$ (delete entire line).
C	Equivalent to c\$ (delete to end of line, enter input mode).
cc	Equivalent to 0c\$ (delete entire line, enter input mode).
x	Equivalent to d \bar{l} (delete one character forward).
X	Equivalent to dh (delete one character backward).
k or -	Move backward one line.
j or +	Move forward one line.
G	Move to line given by repeat count.
/string	Search forward for <i>string</i> .

Command	Meaning
? <i>string</i>	Search backward for <i>string</i> .
n	Repeat search forward.
N	Repeat search backward.
f <i>x</i>	Move right to next occurrence of <i>x</i> .
F <i>x</i>	Move left to previous occurrence of <i>x</i> .
t <i>x</i>	Move right to next occurrence of <i>x</i> , then back one space.
T <i>x</i>	Move left to previous occurrence of <i>x</i> , then forward one space.
;	Redo last character finding command.
,	Redo last character finding command in opposite direction.
\	Do filename completion.
*	Do wildcard expansion (onto command line).
\=	Do wildcard expansion (as printed list).
~	Invert (twiddle) case of current character(s).
\	Append last word of previous command, enter input mode.
Ctrl-L	Start a new line and redraw the current line on it.
#	Prepend # (comment character) to the line and send it to history.

Table of ASCII Values

Many of our favorite computer books have an ASCII chart ([Table A-25](#)). Even in the era of GUIs and web servers, you may be surprised to find that you still need to look up a character every now and then. It's certainly useful when working with *tr* or finding some special sequence of escape characters.

Table A-25. ASCII values

Int	Octal	Hex	ASCII	Int	Octal	Hex	ASCII	Int	Octal	Hex	ASCII	Int	Octal	Hex	ASCII
0	000	00	^@	36	044	24	\$	72	110	48	H	108	154	6c	l
1	001	01	^A	37	045	25	%	73	111	49	I	109	155	6d	m
2	002	02	^B	38	046	26	&	74	112	4a	J	110	156	6e	n
3	003	03	^C	39	047	27	'	75	113	4b	K	111	157	6f	o
4	004	04	^D	40	050	28	(76	114	4c	L	112	160	70	p
5	005	05	^E	41	051	29)	77	115	4d	M	113	161	71	q
6	006	06	^F	42	052	2a	*	78	116	4e	N	114	162	72	r
7	007	07	^G	43	053	2b	+	79	117	4f	O	115	163	73	s
8	010	08	^H	44	054	2c	,	80	120	50	P	116	164	74	t
9	011	09	^I	45	055	2d	-	81	121	51	Q	117	165	75	u
10	012	0a	^J	46	056	2e	.	82	122	52	R	118	166	76	v
11	013	0b	^K	47	057	2f	/	83	123	53	S	119	167	77	w
12	014	0c	^L	48	060	30	0	84	124	54	T	120	170	78	x
13	015	0d	^M	49	061	31	1	85	125	55	U	121	171	79	y
14	016	0e	^N	50	062	32	2	86	126	56	V	122	172	7a	z
15	017	0f	^O	51	063	33	3	87	127	57	W	123	173	7b	{
16	020	10	^P	52	064	34	4	88	130	58	X	124	174	7c	
17	021	11	^Q	53	065	35	5	89	131	59	Y	125	175	7d	}
18	022	12	^R	54	066	36	6	90	132	5a	Z	126	176	7e	~
19	023	13	^S	55	067	37	7	91	133	5b	[127	177	7f	^?
20	024	14	^T	56	070	38	8	92	134	5c	\				
21	025	15	^U	57	071	39	9	93	135	5d]				
22	026	16	^V	58	072	3a	:	94	136	5e	^				
23	027	17	^W	59	073	3b	;	95	137	5f	_				
24	030	18	^X	60	074	3c	<	96	140	60	`				
25	031	19	^Y	61	075	3d	=	97	141	61	a				
26	032	1a	^Z	62	076	3e	>	98	142	62	b				
27	033	1b	^[63	077	3f	?	99	143	63	c				
28	034	1c	^\	64	100	40	@	100	144	64	d				
29	035	1d	^]	65	101	41	A	101	145	65	e				
30	036	1e	^^	66	102	42	B	102	146	66	f				
31	037	1f	^_	67	103	43	C	103	147	67	g				
32	040	20		68	104	44	D	104	150	68	h				
33	041	21	!	69	105	45	E	105	151	69	i				
34	042	22	"	70	106	46	F	106	152	6a	j				
35	043	23	#	71	107	47	G	107	153	6b	k				

Examples Included with bash

The *bash* tarball includes a lot of material that is well worth exploring (after you've finished reading this book, of course). It includes sample code and examples, scripts, functions, and startup files. The easiest way to access this material is via our [up-to-date list](#) with hyperlinks, but we're including this appendix to provide a taste of what you'll find since few people actually access the tarball or build from source anymore.

bash Documentation and Examples

The *startup-files* directory provides many examples of what you can put in your own startup files. In particular, *bash_aliases* has many useful aliases. Bear in mind that if you copy these files wholesale, you'll have to edit them for your system because many of the paths will be different. Refer to [Chapter 16](#) for further information on changing these files to suit your needs.

The *functions* directory contains many function definitions that you might find useful. Among them are:

`basename`

The *basename* utility, missing from some systems.

`dirfuncs`

Directory manipulation facilities.

`dirname`

The *dirname* utility, missing from some systems.

`whatis`

An implementation of the Tenth Edition Bourne shell *whatis* builtin.

whence

An almost exact clone of the Korn shell *whence* builtin.

If you come from a Korn shell background, you may find *kshenv* especially helpful. This contains function definitions for some common Korn facilities such as *whence*, *print*, and the two-parameter *cd* builtins.

The *scripts* directory contains many examples of *bash* scripts. The two largest scripts are examples of the complex things you can do with shell scripts. The first is a (rather amusing) adventure game interpreter and the second is a C shell interpreter. The other scripts include examples of precedence rules, a scrolling text display, a “spinning wheel” progress display, and how to prompt the user for a particular type of answer.

Not only are the script and function examples useful for including in your environment, but they also provide many alternative examples that you can learn from in addition to reading this book. We encourage you to experiment with them.

Table B-1 is an index of what you will find as of *bash* 4.2.



At the request of the Free Software Foundation, Chet removed some examples from recent versions of *bash* because there is some question about the provenance of the code. If an example you are interested in is missing, look for it in older releases or check <http://www.bashcookbook.com/bashinfo/>.

Table B-1. bash 4.2 documentation and examples

Path	Description
<i>./bash/ABOUT-NLS</i>	Notes on the Free Translation Project
<i>./bash/AUTHORS</i>	Master author manifest for <i>bash</i>
<i>./bash/CHANGES</i>	DETAILED changes between versions
<i>./bash/COMPAT</i>	Incompatibilities between versions of <i>bash</i>
<i>./bash/COPYING</i>	GNU General Public License (various versions)
<i>./bash/INSTALL</i>	Basic installation instructions
<i>./bash/MANIFEST</i>	Master distribution manifest for <i>bash</i>
<i>./bash/NEWS</i>	A terse description of the new features added to <i>bash</i>
<i>./bash/NOTES</i>	Platform-specific configuration and operation notes
<i>./bash/POSIX</i>	Bash POSIX mode
<i>./bash/RBASH</i>	The restricted shell
<i>./bash/README</i>	<i>bash</i> high-level <i>README</i>
<i>./bash/Y2K</i>	Y2K notice
<i>./bash/FAQ</i>	The Bash FAQ
<i>./bash/INTRO</i>	A short introduction to <i>bash</i>

Path	Description
<code>./bash/Makefile</code>	<i>Makefile</i> for the Bash/documentation directory
<code>./bash/README</code>	<i>bash</i> documentation <i>README</i>
<code>./bash/aosa-bash</code>	Chapter 3: The Bourne-Again Shell from <i>The Architecture of Open Source Applications</i> , edited to trim length
<code>./bash/aosa-bash-full</code>	Chapter 3: The Bourne-Again Shell from <i>The Architecture of Open Source Applications</i>
<code>./bash/article</code>	An article Chet wrote about <i>bash</i> for <i>The Linux Journal</i>
<code>./bash/bash</code>	<i>bash</i> manpage
<code>./bash/bashbug</code>	<i>bashbug</i> manpage
<code>./bash/bashref</code>	The Bash Reference Manual
<code>./bash/bashref_toc</code>	Old Bash Reference Manual table of contents
<code>./bash/builtins</code>	<i>builtins</i> manpage, extracted from <i>bash.1</i>
<code>./bash/fdl</code>	GNU Free Documentation License
<code>./bash/rbash</code>	<i>bash</i> restricted shell manpage
<code>./bash/readline</code>	GNU <i>readline</i> manpage
<code>./bash/rose94</code>	Article: "Bash, the Bourne-Again Shell"
<code>./bash/version</code>	<i>bash</i> version info
<code>./INDEX/INDEX</code>	An index of <i>bash</i> examples (a subset of this)
<code>./complete/bash_completion</code>	Programmable completion functions
<code>./complete/bashcc-1.0.1.tar</code>	ClearCase completions from Richard Smith
<code>./complete/cdfunc</code>	An example completion function for <i>cd</i>
<code>./complete/complete</code>	Various completion files
<code>./complete/complete-examples</code>	Completion examples
<code>./complete/complete2</code>	Various completion files from Ian Macdonald
<code>./functions/array-stuff</code>	Various array functions (<i>ashift</i> , <i>array_sort</i> , <i>reverse</i>)
<code>./functions/array-to-string</code>	Converts an array to a string
<code>./functions/autoload</code>	An almost <i>ksh</i> -compatible <i>autoload</i>
<code>./functions/basename</code>	A replacement for <i>basename(1)</i>
<code>./functions/basename2</code>	Fast <i>basename(1)</i> and <i>dirname(1)</i> functions for <i>bash/sh</i>
<code>./functions/coproc</code>	Start, control, and end coprocesses
<code>./functions/coshell</code>	Control shell coprocesses (see <i>coprocess.bash</i>)
<code>./functions/csh-compat</code>	A C shell compatibility package
<code>./functions/dirfuncs</code>	Directory manipulation functions from the book <i>The Korn Shell</i>
<code>./functions/dirname</code>	A replacement for <i>dirname(1)</i>
<code>./functions/dirstack</code>	Another implementation of the directory manipulation functions from the book <i>The New KornShell Command and Programming Language</i>
<code>./functions/emptydir</code>	Finds out if a directory is empty
<code>./functions/exitstat</code>	Displays the exit status of processes
<code>./functions/external</code>	Like <i>command</i> but <i>FORCES</i> use of external command

Path	Description
<code>./functions/fact</code>	A recursive factorial function
<code>./functions/fstty</code>	Frontend to sync TERM changes to both <code>stty(1)</code> and <code>readline bind</code>
<code>./functions/func</code>	Prints out definitions for functions named by arguments
<code>./functions/gethtml</code>	Gets a web page from a remote server (<code>wget(1)</code> in <code>bash!</code>)
<code>./functions/getoptx</code>	<code>getopt</code> function that parses long-named options
<code>./functions/inetaddr</code>	Performs internet address conversion (<code>inet2hex</code> & <code>hex2inet</code>)
<code>./functions/inpath</code>	Returns zero if the argument is in the path and executable
<code>./functions/isnum</code>	Tests user input on numeric or character values
<code>./functions/isnum2</code>	Tests user input on numeric values, with floating point
<code>./functions/isvalidip</code>	Tests user input for valid IP addresses
<code>./functions/jdate</code>	A function for Julian date conversion
<code>./functions/jj</code>	Looks for running jobs
<code>./functions/keep</code>	Tries to keep some programs in the foreground and running
<code>./functions/ksh-cd</code>	<i>ksh</i> -like <code>cd [-LP] [dir [change]]</code>
<code>./functions/ksh-compat-test</code>	<i>ksh</i> -like arithmetic test replacements
<code>./functions/kshenv</code>	Functions and aliases to provide the beginnings of a <i>ksh</i> environment for <i>bash</i>
<code>./functions/login</code>	Replaces the <i>login</i> and <i>newgrp</i> builtins in old Bourne shells
<code>./functions/lowercase</code>	Renames files to lowercase
<code>./functions/manpage</code>	Finds and prints a manual page
<code>./functions/mhfold</code>	Prints MH folders; useful only because <i>folders(1)</i> doesn't print mod date/times
<code>./functions/notify</code>	Notifies when jobs change status
<code>./functions/pathfuncs</code>	Path-related functions (<code>no_path</code> , <code>add_path</code> , <code>pre_path</code> , <code>del_path</code>)
<code>./functions/recurse</code>	A recursive directory traverser
<code>./functions/repeat2</code>	A clone of C shell builtin <i>repeat</i>
<code>./functions/repeat3</code>	A clone of C shell builtin <i>repeat</i>
<code>./functions/seq</code>	Generates a sequence from <i>m</i> to <i>n</i> ; <i>m</i> defaults to 1
<code>./functions/seq2</code>	Generates a sequence from <i>m</i> to <i>n</i> ; <i>m</i> defaults to 1
<code>./functions/shcat</code>	A <i>readline</i> -based pager
<code>./functions/shcat2</code>	A <i>readline</i> -based pager
<code>./functions/sort-pos-params</code>	Sorts the positional parameters
<code>./functions/substr</code>	A function to emulate the ancient <i>ksh</i> builtin
<code>./functions/substr2</code>	A function to emulate the ancient <i>ksh</i> builtin
<code>./functions/term</code>	A shell function to set the terminal type interactively or not
<code>./functions/whatis</code>	An implementation of the 10th Edition Unix <i>sh</i> builtin <i>whatis(1)</i> command
<code>./functions/whence</code>	An almost- <i>ksh</i> -compatible <i>whence(1)</i> command
<code>./functions/which</code>	An emulation of <i>which(1)</i> as it appears in FreeBSD
<code>./functions/xalias</code>	Converts <i>csh</i> alias commands to <i>bash</i> functions

Path	Description
<code>./functions/xfind</code>	A <code>find(1)</code> clone
<code>./loadables/Makefile</code>	Simple <code>Makefile</code> for the sample loadable builtins
<code>./loadables/Makefile.inc</code>	Sample <code>Makefile</code> for <code>bash</code> loadable builtin development
<code>./loadables/README</code>	<code>README</code>
<code>./loadables/basename</code>	Returns the non-directory portion of a pathname
<code>./loadables/cat</code>	<code>cat(1)</code> replacement with no options—the way <code>cat</code> was intended
<code>./loadables/cut</code>	<code>cut(1)</code> replacement
<code>./loadables/dirname</code>	Returns the directory portion of a pathname
<code>./loadables/finfo</code>	Prints file info
<code>./loadables/getconf</code>	POSIX.2 <code>getconf</code> utility
<code>./loadables/head</code>	Copies the first part of a file
<code>./loadables/hello</code>	Obligatory "Hello World"/sample loadable
<code>./loadables/id</code>	POSIX.2 user identity
<code>./loadables/ln</code>	Makes links
<code>./loadables/loadables</code>	Includes files needed by all loadable builtins
<code>./loadables/logname</code>	Prints login name of current user
<code>./loadables/mkdir</code>	Makes directories
<code>./loadables/mypid</code>	Adds <code>\$MYPID</code> as a shell builtin
<code>./loadables/necho</code>	<code>echo</code> without options or argument interpretation
<code>./loadables/pathchk</code>	Checks pathnames for validity and portability
<code>./loadables/print</code>	Loadable <code>ksh-93</code> -style <code>print</code> builtin
<code>./loadables/printenv</code>	Minimal built-in clone of BSD <code>printenv(1)</code>
<code>./loadables/printf</code>	Old <code>printf</code>
<code>./loadables/push</code>	Anyone remember TOPS-20?
<code>./loadables/pushd</code>	Old <code>pushd</code>
<code>./loadables/realpath</code>	Canonicalizes pathnames, resolving symlinks
<code>./loadables/rmdir</code>	Removes directories
<code>./loadables/setpgid</code>	<code>bash</code> loadable wrapper for <code>setpgid</code> system call
<code>./loadables/sleep</code>	Sleeps for fractions of a second
<code>./loadables/sprintf</code>	Old <code>sprintf</code>
<code>./loadables/strftime</code>	Loadable built-in interface to <code>strftime(3)</code>
<code>./loadables/sync</code>	Syncs the disks by forcing pending filesystem writes to complete
<code>./loadables/tee</code>	Duplicates standard input
<code>./loadables/template</code>	Example template for loadable builtin
<code>./loadables/truefalse</code>	True and false builtins
<code>./loadables/tty</code>	Returns the terminal name
<code>./loadables/uname</code>	Prints system information

Path	Description
<code>./loadables/unlink</code>	Removes a directory entry
<code>./loadables/whoami</code>	Prints out username of current user
<code>./loadables/perl/Makefile</code>	<i>Makefile</i> for built-in Perl interpreter
<code>./loadables/perl/README</code>	Illustrates how to build a Perl interpreter into <i>bash</i>
<code>./loadables/perl/bperl</code>	<i>perl</i> builtin
<code>./loadables/perl/iperl</code>	The Perl interpreter
<code>./misc/aliasconv</code>	Converts <i>csh</i> aliases to <i>bash</i> aliases and functions
<code>./misc/csh2obash</code>	Converts <i>csh</i> aliases, environment variables, and variables to <i>bash</i> equivalents
<code>./misc/suncmd</code>	SunView TERMCAP string
<code>./obashdb/PERMISSION</code>	Permission to use and distribute
<code>./obashdb/README</code>	Deprecated sample implementation of a <i>bash</i> debugger; see http://bashdb.sourceforge.net/ instead
<code>./obashdb/bashdb</code>	Deprecated <i>bashdb</i> (<i>bash</i> shell debugger); see http://bashdb.sourceforge.net/ instead
<code>./scripts/adventure</code>	Text adventure game in <i>bash</i> !
<code>./scripts/bash-hexdump</code>	<i>hexdump(1)</i> in <i>bash</i>
<code>./scripts/bcsh</code>	Bourne shell <i>csh</i> emulator
<code>./scripts/cat</code>	<i>readline</i> -based pager
<code>./scripts/center</code>	Centers a group of lines
<code>./scripts/dd-ex</code>	Line editor using only <code>/bin/sh</code> , <code>/bin/dd</code> , and <code>/bin/rm</code>
<code>./scripts/fixfiles</code>	Recurses a tree and fixes files containing various “bad” characters
<code>./scripts/hanoi</code>	The inevitable Towers of Hanoi in <i>bash</i>
<code>./scripts/inpath</code>	Searches \$PATH for a file with the same name as \$1; returns <i>TRUE</i> if found
<code>./scripts/krand</code>	Produces a random number within integer limits
<code>./scripts/line-input</code>	Line input routine for GNU Bourne Again shell plus terminal-control primitives
<code>./scripts/nohup</code>	<i>bash</i> version of <i>nohup</i> command
<code>./scripts/precedence</code>	Tests relative precedences for <code>&&</code> and <code> </code> operators
<code>./scripts/randomcard</code>	Prints a random card from a card deck
<code>./scripts/scrollbar</code>	Displays scrolling text
<code>./scripts/scrollbar2</code>	Displays scrolling text
<code>./scripts/self-repro</code>	A self-reproducing script (careful!)
<code>./scripts/showperm</code>	Converts <i>ls(1)</i> symbolic permissions into octal mode
<code>./scripts/shprompt</code>	Displays a prompt and gets an answer satisfying certain criteria
<code>./scripts/spin</code>	Displays a <i>spinning wheel</i> to show progress
<code>./scripts/timeout</code>	Gives <i>rsh(1)</i> a shorter timeout
<code>./scripts/timeout2</code>	Executes a given command with a timeout
<code>./scripts/timeout3</code>	Executes a given command with a timeout
<code>./scripts/vtree2</code>	Displays a tree printout of <code>dir</code> in 1k blocks
<code>./scripts/vtree3</code>	Displays a graphical tree printout of a directory

Path	Description
<code>./scripts/vtree3a</code>	Displays a graphical tree printout of a directory
<code>./scripts/websrv</code>	A web server in <i>bash</i> !
<code>./scripts/xterm_title</code>	Prints the contents of the xterm title bar
<code>./scripts/zprintf</code>	Emulates <i>printf</i> (obsolete since it's now a <i>bash</i> builtin)
<code>./scripts.noah/PERMISSION</code>	Permissions to use the scripts in this directory
<code>./scripts.noah/README</code>	<i>README</i>
<code>./scripts.noah/aref</code>	Pseudoarrays and substring indexing examples
<code>./scripts.noah/bash.sub</code>	Library functions used by <code>require.bash</code>
<code>./scripts.noah/bash_version</code>	A function to slice up <code>\$BASH_VERSION</code>
<code>./scripts.noah/meta</code>	Enables and disables eight-bit <i>readline</i> input
<code>./scripts.noah/mktmp</code>	Makes a temporary file with a unique name
<code>./scripts.noah/number</code>	A fun hack to translate numerals into English
<code>./scripts.noah/prompt</code>	A way to set <code>\$PS1</code> to some predefined strings
<code>./scripts.noah/remap_keys</code>	A frontend to <i>bind</i> to redo <i>readline</i> bindings
<code>./scripts.noah/require</code>	Lisp-like require/provide library functions for <i>bash</i>
<code>./scripts.noah/send_mail</code>	Replacement SMTP client written in <i>bash</i>
<code>./scripts.noah/shcat</code>	<i>bash</i> replacement for <i>cat(1)</i>
<code>./scripts.noah/source</code>	Replacement for <i>source</i> that uses current directory
<code>./scripts.noah/string</code>	The <i>string(3)</i> functions at the shell level
<code>./scripts.noah/stty</code>	Frontend to <i>stty(1)</i> that changes <i>readline</i> bindings too
<code>./scripts.noah/y_or_n_p</code>	Prompts for a yes/no/quit answer
<code>./scripts.v2/PERMISSION</code>	Permissions to use the scripts in this directory
<code>./scripts.v2/README</code>	<i>README</i>
<code>./scripts.v2/arc2tarz</code>	Converts an "arc" archive to a compressed <i>tar</i> archive
<code>./scripts.v2/bashrand</code>	Random number generator with upper and lower bounds and optional seed
<code>./scripts.v2/cal2day</code>	Converts a day number to a name
<code>./scripts.v2/cdhist</code>	<i>cd</i> replacement with a directory stack added
<code>./scripts.v2/corename</code>	Tells what produced a core file
<code>./scripts.v2/fman</code>	Fast <i>man(1)</i> replacement
<code>./scripts.v2/frcp</code>	Copies files using <i>ftp(1)</i> but with <i>rcp</i> -type command-line syntax
<code>./scripts.v2/lowercase</code>	Changes filenames to lowercase
<code>./scripts.v2/ncp</code>	A nicer frontend for <i>cp(1)</i> (has <code>-i</code> , etc.)
<code>./scripts.v2/newext</code>	Changes the extension of a group of files
<code>./scripts.v2/nmv</code>	A nicer frontend for <i>mv(1)</i> (has <code>-i</code> , etc.)
<code>./scripts.v2/pages</code>	Prints specified pages from files
<code>./scripts.v2/pf</code>	A pager frontend that handles compressed files
<code>./scripts.v2/pmtop</code>	Poor man's <i>top(1)</i> for SunOS 4.x and BSD/OS

Path	Description
<code>./scripts.v2/ren</code>	Renames files by changing parts of filenames that match a pattern
<code>./scripts.v2/rename</code>	Changes the names of files that match a pattern
<code>./scripts.v2/repeat</code>	Executes a command multiple times
<code>./scripts.v2/shprof</code>	Line profiler for <i>bash</i> scripts
<code>./scripts.v2/untar</code>	Unarchives a (possibly compressed) <i>tar</i> archive into a directory
<code>./scripts.v2/uudec</code>	Carefully <i>uudecodes</i> multiple files
<code>./scripts.v2/uuenc</code>	<i>uudecodes</i> multiple files
<code>./scripts.v2/vtree</code>	Prints a visual display of a directory tree
<code>./scripts.v2/where</code>	Shows where commands that match a pattern are
<code>./startup-files/Bash_aliases</code>	Some useful aliases (Fox)
<code>./startup-files/Bash_profile</code>	Sample startup file for <i>bash</i> login shells (Fox)
<code>./startup-files/Bashrc</code>	Sample Bourne Again shell init file (Fox)
<code>./startup-files/README</code>	<i>README</i>
<code>./startup-files/bash-profile</code>	Sample startup file for <i>bash</i> login shells (Ramey)
<code>./startup-files/bashrc</code>	Sample Bourne Again shell init file (Ramey)
<code>./startup-files/apple/README</code>	<i>README</i>
<code>./startup-files/apple/aliases</code>	Sample aliases for macOS
<code>./startup-files/apple/bash</code>	Sample user preferences file
<code>./startup-files/apple/environment</code>	Sample Bourne Again shell environment file
<code>./startup-files/apple/login</code>	Sample login wrapper
<code>./startup-files/apple/logout</code>	Sample logout wrapper
<code>./startup-files/apple/rc</code>	Sample Bourne Again shell config file
<code>./readline/CHANGELOG</code>	<i>readline</i> -specific changelog
<code>./readline/CHANGES</code>	DETAILED changes between versions
<code>./readline/COPYING</code>	GNU General Public License (various versions)
<code>./readline/INSTALL</code>	Basic installation instructions
<code>./readline/MANIFEST</code>	Master distribution manifest for <i>readline</i>
<code>./readline/NEWS</code>	A terse description of the new features added to <i>readline</i>
<code>./readline/README</code>	<i>bash</i> high-level <i>README</i>
<code>./readline/USAGE</code>	A note on legal use of <i>readline</i> through a shared-library linking mechanism
<code>./readline/Makefile</code>	Makefile for the <i>readline</i> library documentation
<code>./readline/fdl</code>	GNU Free Documentation License
<code>./readline/hist</code>	<i>readline</i> history (seems to be only RL4.3)
<code>./readline/history</code>	GNU History library manpage
<code>./readline/history_3</code>	GNU History library manpage
<code>./readline/history_toc</code>	Old GNU History library
<code>./readline/hstech</code>	User interface to the GNU History library documentation

Path	Description
<i>./readline/hsuser</i>	User interface to the GNU History library documentation
<i>./readline/manvers</i>	Manuscript version (seems to be only RL4.3)
<i>./readline/readline</i>	GNU <i>readline</i> manpage
<i>./readline/readline_3</i>	<i>readline</i> docs
<i>./readline/readline_toc</i>	Old GNU <i>readline</i> library table of contents
<i>./readline/rlman</i>	The GNU <i>readline</i> library API
<i>./readline/rltech</i>	Programming with GNU <i>readline</i>
<i>./readline/rluser</i>	Command-line editing
<i>./readline/rluserman</i>	GNU <i>readline</i> library user manual
<i>./readline/version</i>	<i>bash</i> version info

Command-Line Processing

Throughout the book we've seen a variety of ways in which the shell processes input lines, especially using *read*. We can think of this process as a subset of the things the shell does when processing command lines. This appendix provides a more detailed description of the steps involved in processing the command line and how you can get *bash* to make a second pass with *eval*. The material in this appendix also appears in *Learning the bash Shell*, 3rd Edition, by Cameron Newham (O'Reilly).

Command-Line Processing Steps

We've touched upon command-line processing throughout this book; we've mentioned how *bash* deals with single quotes (' '), double quotes (""), and backslashes (\); how it separates characters on a line into words, even allowing you to specify the delimiter it uses via the environment variable `$IFS`; how it assigns the words to shell variables (e.g., `$1`, `$2`, etc); and how it can redirect input and output to/from files or other processes (pipelines). In order to be a real expert at shell scripting (or to debug some gnarly problems), you'll need to understand the various steps involved in command-line processing—especially the order in which they occur.

Each line that the shell reads from STDIN or from a script is called a *pipeline* because it contains one or more *commands* separated by zero or more pipe characters (`|`). [Figure C-1](#) shows the steps in command-line processing.

For each pipeline it reads, the shell breaks it up into commands, sets up the I/O for the pipeline, then does the following for each command:

1. Splits the command into tokens that are separated by the fixed set of metacharacters space, tab, newline, ;, (,), <, >, |, and &. Types of tokens include words, keywords, I/O redirectors, and semicolons.
2. Checks the first token of each command to see if it is a keyword with no quotes or backslashes. If it's an opening keyword such as `if` or another control-structure opener, `function`, `{`, or `(`, then the command is actually a *compound command*. The shell sets things up internally for the compound command, reads the next command, and starts the process again. If the keyword isn't a compound command opener (e.g., it is a control-structure "middle" like `then`, `else`, or `do`; an "end" like `fi` or `done`; or a logical operator), the shell signals a syntax error.
3. Checks the first word of each command against the list of aliases. If a match is found, it substitutes the alias's definition and goes back to step 1; otherwise, it goes on to step 4. This scheme allows recursive aliases and allows for keywords to be defined (e.g., `alias aslongas=while` or `alias procedure=function`).
4. Performs brace expansion. For example, `a{b,c}` becomes `ab ac`.
5. Substitutes the user's home directory (`$HOME`) for tilde if it is at the beginning of a word. Substitutes the user's home directory for `~user`.
6. Performs parameter (variable) substitution for any expression that starts with a dollar sign (`$`).
7. Does command substitution for any expression of the form `$(string)`.
8. Evaluates arithmetic expressions of the form `$((string))`.
9. Takes the parts of the line that resulted from parameter, command, and arithmetic substitution and splits them into words again. This time it uses the characters in `$IFS` as delimiters instead of the set of metacharacters in step 1.
10. Performs pathname expansion, a.k.a. wildcard expansion, for any occurrences of `*`, `?`, and `[]` pairs.
11. Uses the first word as a command by looking up its source in the following order: as a function command, then as a builtin, then as a file in any of the directories in `$PATH`.
12. Runs the command after setting up I/O redirection and other such things.

That's a lot of steps—and it's not even the whole story! But before we go on, an example should make this process clearer. Assume that the following command has been run:

```
alias ll="ls -l"
```

Further assume that a file exists called *.hist537* in user *alice*'s home directory, which is */home/alice*, and that there is a double-dollar-sign variable *\$\$* whose value is 2537 (remember *\$\$* is the process ID, a number unique among all currently running processes).

Now let's see how the shell processes the following command:

```
ll $(type -path cc) ~alice/.*$(($$%1000)
```

Here is what happens to this line:

1. `ll $(type -pathcc) ~alice/.*$(($$%1000))` splits the input into words.
2. `ll` is not a keyword, so step 2 does nothing.
3. `ls -l $(type -path cc) ~alice/.*$(($$%1000))` substitutes `ls -l` for its alias `ll`. The shell then repeats steps 1 through 3; step 2 splits the `ls -l` into two words.
4. `ls-l$(type -pathcc) ~alice/.*$(($$%1000))` does nothing.
5. `ls -l $(type -path cc) /home/alice/.*$(($$%1000))` expands `~alice` into `/home/alice`.
6. `ls-l $(type-pathcc) /home/alice/.*$((2537%1000))` substitutes 2537 for `$$`.
7. `ls-l /usr/bin/cc/home/alice/.*$((2537%1000))` does command substitution on `type -path cc`.
8. `ls -l /usr/bin/cc/home/alice/.*537` evaluates the arithmetic expression `2537%1000`.
9. `ls-l /usr/bin/cc/home/alice/.*537` does nothing.
10. `ls -l /usr/bin/cc/home/alice/.hist537` substitutes the filename for the wildcard expression `.*537`.
11. The command `ls` is found in `/usr/bin`.
12. `/usr/bin/ls` is run with the option `-l` and the two arguments.

Although this list of steps is fairly straightforward, it is not the whole story. There are still five ways to modify this process: quoting; using *command*, *builtin*, or *enable*; and using the advanced command *eval*.

Quoting

You can think of quoting as a way of getting the shell to skip some of the 12 steps described earlier. In particular:

- Single quotes (' ') bypass everything from step 1 through step 10, including aliasing. All characters inside a pair of single quotes are untouched. You can't have single quotes inside single quotes, even if you precede them with backslashes.
- Double quotes (" ") bypass steps 1 through 4, plus steps 9 and 10. That is, they ignore pipe characters, aliases, tilde substitution, wildcard expansion, and splitting into words via delimiters (e.g., blanks) inside the double quotes. Single quotes inside double quotes have no effect. But double quotes do allow parameter substitution, command substitution, and arithmetic expression evaluation. You can include a double quote inside a double-quoted string by preceding it with a backslash (\). You must also backslash-escape \$, ` (the archaic command substitution delimiter), and \ itself.

Table C-1 has simple examples to show how these work; they assume the statement `person=hatter` was run and user *alice*'s home directory is `/home/alice`.

Table C-1. Examples of using single and double quotes

Expression	Value
<code>\$person</code>	<code>hatter</code>
<code>"\$person"</code>	<code>hatter</code>
<code>\\$person</code>	<code>\$person</code>
<code>'\$person'</code>	<code>\$person</code>
<code>""\$person""</code>	<code>'hatter'</code>
<code>~alice</code>	<code>/home/alice</code>
<code>"~alice"</code>	<code>~alice</code>
<code>'~alice'</code>	<code>~alice</code>

If you are wondering whether to use single or double quotes in a particular shell programming situation, it is safest to use single quotes unless you specifically need parameter, command, or arithmetic substitution.

eval

We have seen that quoting lets you skip steps in command-line processing. Then there's the *eval* command, which lets you go through the process again. Performing command-line processing twice may seem strange, but it's actually very powerful: it lets you write scripts that create command strings on the fly and then pass them to the shell for execution. This means that you can give scripts "intelligence" to modify their own behavior as they are running.

The `eval` statement tells the shell to take *eval*'s arguments and run them through the command-line processing steps all over again. To help you understand the implications of *eval*, we'll start with a trivial example and work our way up to a situation in which we're constructing and running commands on the fly.

`eval ls` passes the string "ls" to the shell to execute; the shell prints a list of files in the current directory. This is very simple—there is nothing about the string "ls" that needs to be sent through the command-processing steps twice. But consider this:

```
listpage="ls | more"  
$listpage
```

Instead of producing a paginated file listing, the shell will treat `|` and `more` as arguments to `ls`, and `ls` will complain that no files of those names exist. Why? Because the pipe character appears as a pipe in step 6 when the shell evaluates the variable, which is *after* it has actually looked for pipe characters. The variable's expansion isn't even parsed until step 9. As a result, the shell will treat `|` and `more` as arguments to `ls`, so that `ls` will try to find files called `|` and `more` in the current directory!

Now consider `eval $listpage` instead of just `$listpage`. When the shell gets to the last step, it will run the command *eval* with arguments `ls`, `|`, and `more`. This causes the shell to go back to step 1 with a line that consists of these arguments. It finds `|` in step 2 and splits the line into two commands, `ls` and `more`. Each command is processed in the normal (and in both cases trivial) way. The result is a paginated list of the files in your current directory.

Now you may start to see how powerful *eval* can be. It is an advanced feature that requires considerable programming cleverness to be used most effectively. It even has a bit of the flavor of artificial intelligence, in that it enables you to write programs that can "write" and execute other programs. You probably won't use *eval* for everyday shell programming, but it's worth taking the time to understand what it can do.

Revision Control

Revision control systems are a way not only to travel back in time, but to see what has changed at various points in your timeline. They are also called *versioning* or *version control* systems, which is actually a more technically accurate name. Such a system allows you to maintain a *repository* of files in a project, and to keep track of changes to those files, as well as the reasons for those changes. Modern revision control systems allow more than one developer to work concurrently on the same project, or even the same file.

Revision control systems are essential to modern software development efforts, but they are also useful in many other areas, such as writing documentation, tracking system configurations (e.g., */etc/*), and even writing books. We kept this edition of this book under revision control using Git while writing it; we used Subversion for the first edition.

Some of the useful features of revision control systems include:

- Making it very difficult to lose your work, especially when the repository is properly backed up.
- Facilitating change control practices, and encourage documenting why a change is being made.
- Allowing people in multiple locations to work together on a project, and to keep up with others' changes, without losing data by saving on top of each other or sending lots of unreadable emails.
- Allowing one person to work from multiple locations over time without losing work or stepping on changes made at other locations.

- Allowing you to back out changes easily or to see exactly what has changed between one revision and another (except binary files). If you follow effective logging practices, they will even tell you why a change was made.

Systems like CVS and Subversion also allow a form of keyword expansion that lets you embed revision metadata in nonbinary files.

There are many different free and commercial revision control systems, and if you are reading this book you should be using one! If you already know one, just use that. If your company has a standard tool, use that one. If neither of those help you choose, then use Git, Bazaar, or Mercurial. Do not use Subversion, CVS, RCS, or any of the older systems unless you have no choice. We'll briefly cover pros, cons, and basic usage for Git, Bazaar, Mercurial, and Subversion in this appendix, all of which either come with or are available for every major modern operating system. But before that we need to give a bit of background.

First, all the modern revision control systems are *distributed*, while older ones like Subversion and CVS are *centralized*. This is a major and fundamental difference, with some significant implications. In the older centralized systems, there is a central server, as the name implies, often maintained and backed up by your IT department, which is good. To do most useful things you need to connect to that server, which can be bad since that's much slower than local disk access and may not be feasible, while traveling, for example. Also, in those systems you can check out only part of the repository ("repo"), and thus you often have one large repo for the entire company, and you just check out and work on the parts you need. These systems also do the keyword expansion we mentioned; we'll show that in the section on Subversion. Finally, to *commit* is also to *publish*, which may be considered either a feature or a bug in such systems, but is probably more likely at least undesirable, if not quite a bug.

The distributed systems, on the other hand, do not have a central server, though often one copy is designated as the "source of truth" by convention. The repo you are working on is a complete copy, and it's just as good as anyone else's. That's a major change from the ability to just check out part of a repo. These systems do not do any keyword expansion and a commit is not the same as a publish, which requires an additional *push* step and a network connection to the remote repo. But they're local for all but *push/pull* operations and thus really fast.



With CVS or Subversion, you don't have to think about backups. If the code is committed, it's someplace else and probably backed up by IT (commit == publish). That is often *not* true with the modern distributed systems. They have local repos, so committed code stays local (commit != publish) until and unless you *push* (publish) it to a remote repo. If you never *push* you have only one local copy, so make sure you have good backups! A great tool for that is etc-keeper, discussed later in this appendix. The repository is inside */etc/*, so if you accidentally `rm -rf /etc` there goes the repo too.

The second major point is that Git unquestionably won the war, and “everyone” uses it, everywhere. OK, not quite everyone, since if you are still reading this you probably don't. But an awful lot of people do use it, and arguably a large part of the reason is [GitHub](#). So why are we not jumping fully on that bandwagon? We're glad you asked.

If you are a full-time developer working on a large¹ project, you're using Git already, and it's awesome. But if you are a more casual user, say a sysadmin with a collection of scripts, Git can be less awesome.² It is less actively user-hostile than it used to be, but it's still very complicated to use, and we have seen no good mental model for how it works. Far too often, you have to really understand Git's guts in order to use it for anything nontrivial, and that's just ugly. Git is also made out of razor blades and chainsaws—blazingly fast, extremely powerful, but dangerous; you can hurt yourself with it. Git history, for example, is very malleable, and it considers this a feature, not a bug. It uses hashes and dates instead of human-readable revision numbers, and though there are good reasons for this it can be quite inconvenient. Finally, the Git “index” is different; none of the other common tools have this, but it does allow for a really handy trick where you can make stream-of-consciousness changes but later commit them in logical blocks using `git add -p` or `git commit -p`. We think that it's a very powerful tool that's not suitable for beginners or casual users. But...it's everywhere and used by everyone, and that's also a powerful argument.

If you are interested in the history of revision control, see “[Understanding Version-Control Systems](#)” by Eric Raymond for a lot of detail. To see an amazing example and just a really cool thing, check out the [Unix History Repository](#).

If you are going to start using revision control just by yourself, go jump in. But if you are going to start using it in a team, you must first decide:

¹ We should say “web-scale,” to be buzzword-compliant.

² See also “[10 Things I Hate About Git](#)” by Steve Bennett.

- Which system or product to use
- The update, commit, tag, and branch polices
- The location of the central (and well-backed-up!) repository, if applicable
- The structure of the project or directories in the repository, if applicable

This appendix is enough to get you started individually, but it barely scratches the surface; see *Version Control with Git*, 2nd Edition, by Jon Loeliger and Matthew McCullough or *Version Control with Subversion*, 2nd Edition, by C. Michael Pilato, Ben Collins-Sussman, and Brian Fitzpatrick, both from O'Reilly, for more in-depth introductions to revision control and complete details on the respective systems. Both have excellent treatments of the general concepts, although the Subversion book covers repository structure in more detail due to its potentially multiproject nature. Both also cover revision control policy. If your company has change control or related policies, use them. If not, we recommend you commit and update early and often. If you are working as a team, we strongly recommend reading some of the books listed in this appendix and carefully planning out a strategy. It will save vast amounts of time in the long run.

See Also

- “[Understanding Version-Control Systems](#)” by Eric Raymond
- [Unix History Repository](#)
- “[A Visual Guide to Version Control](#)” on BetterExplained
- *Backup & Recovery* by W. Curtis Preston (O'Reilly)
- [reposurgeon](#), a tool for converting from one system to another

Git

Git is the de facto leader in revision control and is probably used by more projects and more people than all the other systems combined. But if you choose to use it, be prepared to use Google. A lot.

Git was originally written by Linus Torvalds for the Linux kernel project after the vendor of the previous system changed the licensing, but he very quickly turned it over to others. The design is heavily influenced by Torvalds's years of experience on that massive and globally distributed project, and it is written by hardcore programmers for hardcore programmers. It is extremely powerful and flexible, but often quite complicated. The learning curve is unquestionably worth it for dedicated developers, but more casual or intermittent users may struggle.

Pros

- Extremely popular and used everywhere.
- Extremely fast, powerful, and flexible.
- `git add -p` and `git commit -p` account for how code is really written.
- Has <https://github.com/>, <https://gitlab.com/>, etc.
- History is very malleable.

Cons

- You can perform operations that can cause data loss!
- Harder to understand and use for more than very basic tasks than other tools.
- Inconsistent and complex command-line use.
- History is very malleable.
- Uses hashes and dates instead of human-readable revision numbers.

Example

This example is not suitable for enterprise or multiuser access (see the “See Also” section for links to more information). This is just the basics, but it will get you started and you can ramp up from here if you need to.

If Git is not already installed, you should install it using the preferred package manager for your operating system.

The `git` command (with no options), `git help`, and `git help command` all give you helpful hints and reminders.

Configure Git on your machine (see `~/.gitconfig`, and the `.git/config` that the `init` command will create):

```
/home/jp$ git config --global user.name "JP Vossen"  
/home/jp$ git config --global user.email "jp@jpsdomain.org"  
/home/jp$ git config --global core.pager "less -R"  
/home/jp$ git config --global color.ui true
```



If you do not set your name and email as shown here, you will probably get a message complaining about that. The message should be pretty clear about what to do.

You might also consider:

```
/home/jp$ git config --global alias.co checkout
/home/jp$ git config --global alias.br branch
/home/jp$ git config --global alias.ci commit
/home/jp$ git config --global alias.st status
/home/jp$ git config --global alias.last 'log -1 HEAD'
```

Create a new repository for personal use in a home directory:

```
/home/jp$ git init myrepo
Initialized empty Git repository in /home/jp/myrepo/.git/
```

Create a new script and commit it:

```
/home/jp$ cd myrepo

/home/jp/myrepo$ cat << EOF > hello
> #!/bin/bash -
> echo 'Hello World!'
> EOF

/home/jp/myrepo$ chmod +x hello

/home/jp/myrepo$ git add hello

/home/jp/myrepo$ git commit -m 'Initial import of shell script'
[master (root-commit) 62cb49e] Initial import of shell script
1 file changed, 2 insertions(+)
create mode 100755 hello
```



`git add` is *not* the same as *add* in other tools! Once you add a file in the other tools, changes to that file are always committed. In Git, *add* means “add the changes I just made to the index.” So if you make a change, and add it, then make another change, that second change is *not* in the index and will not be committed unless you add the file again, or commit using `-a`. This sounds very annoying, and it is for basic use, but it’s part of the whole “index” concept that makes some other neat things possible, as we’ll see.



If you do not use the `-m message` option an editor will pop up and you can create a commit log in that. Which editor will appear and how you change that will depend on your OS and distribution; consult the appropriate documentation if you wish to change the editor.

Check the status of your sandbox:

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ git status
On branch master
nothing to commit, working directory clean
```

Add a new script to revision control:

```
/home/jp/scripts$ cat << EOF > mcd
> #!/bin/bash -
> mkdir -p "$1"
> cd "$1"
> EOF
```

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ chmod +x mcd
```

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ git status
```

On branch master

Untracked files:

(use "git add <file>..." to include in what will be committed)

mcd

nothing added to commit but untracked files present (use "git add" to track)

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ git add mcd
```

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ git status
```

On branch master

Changes to be committed:

(use "git reset HEAD <file>..." to unstage)

new file: mcd

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ git commit -m 'Added new script: mcd'
```

[master a2c254d] Added new script: mcd

1 file changed, 3 insertions(+)

create mode 100755 mcd

Make a change, then check the difference:

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ vi hello
```

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ git diff
```

1 diff --git a/hello b/hello

2 index 353223d..f36eea4 100644

3 --- a/hello

4 +++ b/hello

5 @@ -1,2 +1,2 @@

6 #!/bin/bash -

7 -echo 'Hello World!'

8 +echo 'Hello Mom!'

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ git status
```

On branch master

Changes not staged for commit:

(use "git add <file>..." to update what will be committed)

(use "git checkout -- <file>..." to discard changes in working directory)

```
modified:  hello
```

```
no changes added to commit (use "git add" and/or "git commit -a")
```



If you get a bunch of garbage escape characters on the screen when you run `git diff`, try setting `git config --global core.pager "less -R"`.

Commit the change using `-a` and thus avoiding `git add hello`:

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ git commit -a -m 'Fine tuning'  
[master e1f0b2f] Fine tuning  
1 file changed, 1 insertion(+), 1 deletion(-)
```

See the history of the repository or just one file:

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ git log  
1 commit e1f0b2f8e5c489d8c9112014cf494773712786b0  
2 Author: JP Vossen <jp@jpsdomain.org>  
3 Date: Sun Jul 3 22:56:38 2016 -0400  
4  
5 Fine tuning  
6  
7 commit a2c254d61e95eb4719746f196b66019446061d51  
8 Author: JP Vossen <jp@jpsdomain.org>  
9 Date: Sun Jul 3 22:52:36 2016 -0400  
10  
11 Added new script: mcd  
12  
13 commit 62cb49ee962d929122051c421128fea95d571ebb  
14 Author: JP Vossen <jp@drake.jpsdomain.org>  
15 Date: Sun Jul 3 22:44:15 2016 -0400  
16  
17 Initial import of shell script
```

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ git log hello  
1 commit e1f0b2f8e5c489d8c9112014cf494773712786b0  
2 Author: JP Vossen <jp@jpsdomain.org>  
3 Date: Sun Jul 3 22:56:38 2016 -0400  
4  
5 Fine tuning  
6  
7 commit 62cb49ee962d929122051c421128fea95d571ebb  
8 Author: JP Vossen <jp@drake.jpsdomain.org>  
9 Date: Sun Jul 3 22:44:15 2016 -0400  
10  
11 Initial import of shell script
```

Revert to the older version after all. There are other ways to do this, depending on what other changes you may have in your working directory, but this is simple if not intuitive:

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ git checkout 62cb49ee962d929122051c421128fea95d571ebb hello
```

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ cat hello
#!/bin/bash -
echo 'Hello World!'
```

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ git status
On branch master
Changes to be committed:
  (use "git reset HEAD <file>..." to unstage)

        modified:   hello
```

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ git diff
```

But wait! We made a change, and *status* sees it but *diff* does not. Why? Because it already did a `git add`, so the change is *staged* or *cached*:

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ git diff --cached
1 diff --git a/hello b/hello
2 index f36eea4..353223d 100755
3 --- a/hello
4 +++ b/hello
5 @@ -1,2 +1,2 @@
6  #!/bin/bash -
7  -echo 'Hello Mom!'
8  +echo 'Hello World!'
```

We warned you...

See Also

- `man git`
- `git help`
- <https://github.com/features>
- <https://about.gitlab.com/>
- [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Git_\(software\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Git_(software))
- <https://git-scm.com/>
- <http://xkcd.com/1597/>
- *Pro Git*, 2nd Edition, by Scott Chacon and Ben Straub (Apress)
- *Version Control with Git*, 2nd Edition, by Jon Loeliger and Matthew McCullough (O'Reilly)

- “10 Things I Hate About Git” by Steve Bennett
- “Aha! Moments When Learning Git” on BetterExplained
- The [EasyGit](#) wrapper
- [Recipe 16.16](#), “Creating and Changing Into a New Directory in One Step”

Bazaar

Bazaar was Canonical’s answer to Git, but it lost the war and is basically in maintenance mode.

Pros

- Not Git.
- Extremely user-friendly with awesome docs.
- Cross-platform (Python) with several GUI tools: QBzr (Qt), Loggerhead (web), and others.
- Uses incrementing integer revision numbers.
- History is immutable.
- Has [Launchpad](#).

Cons

- Not Git.
- Lost the war and is not-quite-dead.
- Not as fast as Git, but that almost never matters.
- Not nearly as well known as Git.

Example

This example is not suitable for enterprise or multiuser access (see the “See Also” section for links to more information). This is just to show how easy the basics are.

If Bazaar is not already installed, you should install it using the preferred package manager for your operating system.

The `bzr` command (with no options), `bzr help`, and `bzr help command` all give you helpful hints and reminders.

Create a new repository for personal use in a home directory:

```
/home/jp$ bzip init myrepo
Created a standalone tree (format: 2a)
```

Create a new script and commit it:

```
/home/jp$ cd myrepo

/home/jp/myrepo$ cat << EOF > hello
> #!/bin/bash -
> echo 'Hello World!'
> EOF

/home/jp/myrepo$ chmod +x hello

/home/jp/myrepo$ bzip add hello
adding hello

/home/jp/myrepo$ bzip commit -m 'Initial import of shell script'
Committing to: /home/jp/myrepo/
added hello
Committed revision 1.
```



If you do not use the `-m message` option an editor will pop up and you can create a commit log in that. Which editor will appear and how you change that will depend on your OS and distribution; consult the appropriate documentation if you wish to change the editor.

Check the status of your sandbox:

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ bzip status
```

Add a new script to revision control:

```
/home/jp/scripts$ cat << EOF > mcd
> #!/bin/bash -
> mkdir -p "$1"
> cd "$1"
> EOF

/home/jp/myrepo$ chmod +x mcd

/home/jp/myrepo$ bzip status
unknown:
  mcd

/home/jp/myrepo$ bzip add mcd
adding mcd

/home/jp/myrepo$ bzip status
added:
  mcd
```

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ bzip commit -m 'Added new script: mcd'
Committing to: /home/jp/myrepo/
added mcd
Committed revision 2.
```

Make a change, then check the difference:

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ vi hello

/home/jp/myrepo$ bzip diff
=== modified file 'hello'
--- hello      2016-07-04 03:26:32 +0000
+++ hello      2016-07-04 03:28:11 +0000
@@ -1,2 +1,2 @@
 #!/bin/bash -
-echo 'Hello World!'
+echo 'Hello Mom!'
```

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ bzip status
modified:
  hello
```

Commit the change:

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ bzip commit -m 'Fine tuning'
Committing to: /home/jp/myrepo/
modified hello
Committed revision 3.
```

See the history of the repository or just one file:

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ bzip log
-----
revno: 3
committer: JP Vossen <jp@ringo.jpsdomain.org>
branch nick: myrepo
timestamp: Sun 2016-07-03 23:28:48 -0400
message:
  Fine tuning
-----
revno: 2
committer: JP Vossen <jp@ringo.jpsdomain.org>
branch nick: myrepo
timestamp: Sun 2016-07-03 23:27:50 -0400
message:
  Added new script: mcd
-----
revno: 1
committer: JP Vossen <jp@ringo.jpsdomain.org>
branch nick: myrepo
timestamp: Sun 2016-07-03 23:26:32 -0400
message:
  Initial import of shell script
```



```

/home/jp/myrepo$ bzr log hello
-----
revno: 3
committer: JP Vossen <jp@ringo.jpdomain.org>
branch nick: myrepo
timestamp: Sun 2016-07-03 23:28:48 -0400
message:
  Fine tuning
-----
revno: 1
committer: JP Vossen <jp@ringo.jpdomain.org>
branch nick: myrepo
timestamp: Sun 2016-07-03 23:26:32 -0400
message:
  Initial import of shell script

```

Revert to the older version after all:

```

/home/jp/myrepo$ bzr revert -r1 hello
M hello

/home/jp/myrepo$ bzr status
modified:
  hello

/home/jp/myrepo$ bzr diff
=== modified file 'hello'
--- hello      2016-07-04 03:28:48 +0000
+++ hello      2016-07-04 03:29:44 +0000
@@ -1,2 +1,2 @@
 #!/bin/bash -
 -echo 'Hello Mom!'
 +echo 'Hello World!'

```

See Also

- `man bzr`
- `bzr help`
- [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bazaar_\(software\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bazaar_(software))
- <http://wiki.bazaar.canonical.com/Documentation>
- <http://wiki.bazaar.canonical.com/Workflows>
- *Bazaar Version Control* by Janos Gyerik (Packt)
- Recipe 16.16, “Creating and Changing Into a New Directory in One Step”

Mercurial

Mercurial was started at the same time as Git for the same reason, but never caught on quite as much.

Pros

- Not Git.
- Extremely user-friendly with good docs.
- Cross-platform (Python) with several GUI tools.
 - Built-in web server (hg serve then <http://localhost:8000/>).
- Uses incrementing integer revision numbers + a hex ID.
 - The hex ID is unique and consistent across all repo clones, the integer isn't.
- History is immutable.
- Has Atlassian <https://bitbucket.org/>.

Cons

- Not Git.
- Lost to Git but more active than Bazaar.
- Not as well known as Git.
- Not as fast as Git, but that almost never matters.

Example

This example is not suitable for enterprise or multiuser access (see the “See Also” section for links to more information). This is just to show how easy the basics are.

If Mercurial is not already installed, you should install it using the preferred package manager for your operating system.

hg command (with no options), hg help, and hg help *command* all give you helpful hints and reminders..

Create a new repository for personal use in a home directory:

```
/home/jp$ hg init myrepo
```

Create a new script and commit it:

```
/home/jp$ cd /myrepo
```

```

/home/jp/myrepo$ cat << EOF > hello
> #!/bin/bash -
> echo 'Hello World!'
> EOF

/home/jp/myrepo$ chmod +x hello

/home/jp/myrepo$ hg add hello

/home/jp/myrepo$ hg commit -m 'Initial import of shell script'

```



If you do not use the `-m message` option an editor will pop up and you can create a commit log in that. Which editor will appear and how you change that will depend on your OS and distribution; consult the appropriate documentation if you wish to change the editor.

Check the status of your sandbox:

```

/home/jp/myrepo$ hg status

```

Add a new script to revision control:

```

/home/jp/scripts$ cat << EOF > mcd
> #!/bin/bash -
> mkdir -p "$1"
> cd "$1"
> EOF

/home/jp/myrepo$ chmod +x mcd

/home/jp/myrepo$ hg status
? mcd

/home/jp/myrepo$ hg add mcd

/home/jp/myrepo$ hg status
A mcd

/home/jp/myrepo$ hg commit -m 'Added new script: mcd'

```

Make a change, then check the difference:

```

/home/jp/myrepo$ vi hello

/home/jp/myrepo$ hg diff
diff -r 663ba0ec20f5 hello
--- a/hello      Sun Jul 03 23:38:54 2016 -0400
+++ b/hello      Sun Jul 03 23:39:15 2016 -0400
@@ -1,2 +1,2 @@
     #!/bin/bash -
     -echo 'Hello World!'

```

```
+echo 'Hello Mom!'
```

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ hg status  
M hello
```

Commit the change:

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ hg commit -m 'Fine tuning'
```

See the history of the repository or just one file:

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ hg log  
changeset: 2:c88ab0cbfcda  
tag: tip  
user: JP Vossen <jp@jpsdomain.org>  
date: Sun Jul 03 23:39:38 2016 -0400  
summary: Fine tuning
```

```
changeset: 1:663ba0ec20f5  
user: JP Vossen <jp@jpsdomain.org>  
date: Sun Jul 03 23:38:54 2016 -0400  
summary: Added new script: mcd
```

```
changeset: 0:38ab693c1c72  
user: JP Vossen <jp@jpsdomain.org>  
date: Sun Jul 03 23:38:03 2016 -0400  
summary: Initial import of shell script
```

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ hg log hello  
changeset: 2:c88ab0cbfcda  
tag: tip  
user: JP Vossen <jp@jpsdomain.org>  
date: Sun Jul 03 23:39:38 2016 -0400  
summary: Fine tuning
```

```
changeset: 0:38ab693c1c72  
user: JP Vossen <jp@jpsdomain.org>  
date: Sun Jul 03 23:38:03 2016 -0400  
summary: Initial import of shell script
```

Revert to the older version after all:

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ hg revert -r 1 hello
```

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ cat hello  
#!/bin/bash -  
echo 'Hello World!'
```

```
/home/jp/myrepo$ hg status  
M hello
```

See Also

- `man hg`
- `hg help`
- <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mercurial>
- <https://www.mercurial-scm.org/>
- <https://www.mercurial-scm.org/guide>
- Book: <http://hgbook.red-bean.com/>
- <https://betterexplained.com/articles/intro-to-distributed-version-control-illustrated/>
- Recipe 16.16, “Creating and Changing Into a New Directory in One Step”

Subversion

According to the Subversion web site, “The goal of the Subversion project is to build a *version control system* that is a compelling replacement for CVS in the open source community.” Enough said.

Pros

- Not Git.
- Newer than CVS and RCS.
- Simpler and arguably easier to understand and use than CVS (less historical baggage).
- Atomic commits means the commit either fails or succeeds as a whole, and makes it easy to track the state of an entire project as a single revision.
- Easy to access remote repositories.
- Allows easy renaming of files and directories while retaining history.
- Easily handles binary files (no native diff support) and other objects such as symbolic links.
- Central repository hacking is more officially supported, but less trivial.

Cons

- Not Git.
- Older technology, revision control has moved to the distributed model.

- Can be complicated to build or install from scratch due to many dependencies. Use the version that came with your operating system if possible.



SVN tracks revisions by repository, which means that each commit has its own internal SVN revision number. Thus consecutive commits by a single person may not have consecutive revision numbers since the global repository revision is incremented as other changes (possibly to other projects) are committed by other people.

Example

This example is not suitable for enterprise or multiuser access (see the “See Also” section for links to more information). This is just to show how easy the basics are. This example also has the `EDITOR` environment variable set to `nano` (`export EDITOR='nano --smooth --const --nowrap --suspend'`), which some people find more user-friendly than the default `vi`.

The `svn help` and `svn help help` commands are very useful.

Create a new repository for personal use in a home directory:

```
/home/jp$ svnadmin --fs-type=fsfs create /home/jp/svnroot
```

Create a new project and import it:

```
/home/jp$ cd /tmp
/tmp$ mkdir -p -m 0700 scripts/trunk scripts/tags scripts/branches
/tmp$ cd scripts/trunk
/tmp/scripts/trunk$ cat << EOF > hello
> #!/bin/sh
> echo 'Hello World!'
> EOF
/tmp/scripts/trunk$ cd ..
/tmp/scripts$ svn import /tmp/scripts file:///home/jp/svnroot/scripts
GNU nano 1.2.4 File: svn-commit.tmp
Initial import of shell scripts
--This line, and those below, will be ignored--
A .
[ Wrote 4 lines ]
Adding /tmp/scripts/trunk
```

```
Adding      /tmp/scripts/trunk/hello
Adding      /tmp/scripts/branches
Adding      /tmp/scripts/tags
```

Committed revision 1.

Check out the project and update it:

```
/tmp/scripts$ cd

/home/jp$ svn checkout file:///home/jp/svnroot/scripts
A scripts/trunk
A scripts/trunk/hello
A scripts/branches
A scripts/tags
Checked out revision 1.

/home/jp$ cd scripts

/home/jp/scripts$ ls -l
total 12K
drwxr-xr-x  3 jp jp 4.0K Jul 20 01:12 branches/
drwxr-xr-x  3 jp jp 4.0K Jul 20 01:12 tags/
drwxr-xr-x  3 jp jp 4.0K Jul 20 01:12 trunk/

/home/jp/scripts$ cd trunk/

/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ ls -l
total 4.0K
-rw-r--r--  1 jp jp 30 Jul 20 01:12 hello

/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ echo "Hi Mom..." >> hello
```

Check the status of your sandbox. Note how the `svn status` command is similar to our `cvms -qn update` hack in the “CVS” section earlier in this appendix:

```
/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ svn info
Path: .
URL: file:///home/jp/svnroot/scripts/trunk
Repository UUID: 29eeb329-fc18-0410-967e-b075d748cc20
Revision: 1
Node Kind: directory
Schedule: normal
Last Changed Author: jp
Last Changed Rev: 1
Last Changed Date: 2006-07-20 01:04:56 -0400 (Thu, 20 Jul 2006)

/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ svn status -v
M          1          1 jp          .
M          1          1 jp          hello

/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ svn status
M          hello
```

```
/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ svn update
At revision 1.
```

Add a new script to revision control:

```
/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ cat << EOF > mcd
> #!/bin/sh
> mkdir -p "$1"
> cd "$1"
> EOF
```

```
/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ svn st
?      mcd
M      hello
/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ svn add mcd
A      mcd
```

Commit changes:

```
/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ svn ci
```

```
GNU nano 1.2.4                               File: svn-commit.tmp* Tweaked hello
* Added mcd
--This line, and those below, will be ignored--

M      trunk/hello

A      trunk/mcd
```

[Wrote 6 lines]

```
Sending      trunk/hello
Adding       trunk/mcd
Transmitting file data ..
Committed revision 2.
```

Update the sandbox, make another change, then check the difference:

```
/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ svn up
At revision 2.
```

```
/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ vi hello
```

```
/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ svn diff hello
Index: hello
```

```
-----
--- hello      (revision 2)
+++ hello      (working copy)
@@ -1,3 +1,3 @@
  #!/bin/sh
  echo 'Hello World!'
-Hi Mom...
+echo 'Hi Mom...'
```


Commit the change, avoiding the editor by putting the log entry on the command line:

```
/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ svn -m 'Fine tuning' commit
Sending          trunk/hello
Transmitting file data .
Committed revision 3.
```

See the history of the file:

```
/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ svn log hello
-----
r3 | jp | 2006-07-20 01:23:35 -0400 (Thu, 20 Jul 2006) | 1 lineFine tuning
-----
r2 | jp | 2006-07-20 01:20:09 -0400 (Thu, 20 Jul 2006) | 3 lines
* Tweaked hello
* Added mcd
-----
r1 | jp | 2006-07-20 01:04:56 -0400 (Thu, 20 Jul 2006) | 2 lines
```

Initial import of shell scripts

Add some revision metadata, and tell the system to expand it. Commit it and examine the change:

```
/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ vi hello

/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ cat hello
#!/bin/sh
# $Id$
echo 'Hello World!'
echo 'Hi Mom...'

home/jp/scripts/trunk$ svn propset svn:keywords "Id" hello
property 'svn:keywords' set on 'hello'

/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ svn ci -m'* Added ID keyword' hello
Sending          hello

Committed revision 4.

/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ cat hello
#!/bin/sh
# $Id: hello 5 2006-07-21 09:09:34Z jp $</code></strong>
echo 'Hello World!'
echo 'Hi Mom...'
```

Compare the current revision to r2, revert to that older (broken) revision, realize we goofed and get the most recent revision back:

```
/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ svn diff -r2 hello
Index: hello
=====
```

```
--- hello      (revision 2)
+++ hello      (working copy)
@@ -1,3 +1,4 @@
  #!/bin/sh
+# $Id$
echo 'Hello World!'
-Hi Mom...
+echo 'Hi Mom...'
```

Property changes on: hello

```
Name: svn:keywords
+ Id
```

```
/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ svn update -r2 hello
UU hello
Updated to revision 2.
```

```
/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ cat hello
#!/bin/sh
echo 'Hello World!'
Hi Mom...
```

```
/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ svn update -rHEAD hello
UU hello
Updated to revision 4.
```

```
/home/jp/scripts/trunk$ cat hello
#!/bin/sh
# $Id: hello 5 2006-07-21 09:09:34Z jp $
echo 'Hello World!'
echo 'Hi Mom...'
```

See Also

- `man svn`
- `man svnadmin`
- `man svndumpfilter`
- `man svnlook`
- `man svnservice`
- `man svnversion`
- [The Subversion website](#)
- [TortoiseSVN](#), a simple SVN frontend for Explorer (cool!)
- *Version Control with Subversion* by C. Michael Pilato, Ben Collins-Sussman, and Brian Fitzpatrick

— “Appendix B: Subversion for CVS Users”

- [The FreeBSD guide to using Subversion](#)
- [SVN static builds](#) for Solaris, Linux, and macOS
- Better SCM Initiative [version control system comparison](#)
- “[A Visual Guide to Version Control](#)” on BetterExplained
- [Recipe 16.16, “Creating and Changing Into a New Directory in One Step”](#)

Meld

Meld is not a revision control tool itself; it is a very useful graphical diff and merge tool that can work with revision control systems. When run normally, it allows you to compare and merge files and directories. When run from a revision control sandbox, it will compare the working copy to the version under revision control and show you what you’ve changed. Trust us, it’s awesome.

Pros

- Cross-platform (Python)
- Available for all or most Linux distributions
- Windows installer
- Unofficial Mac installers

Cons

- None

Example

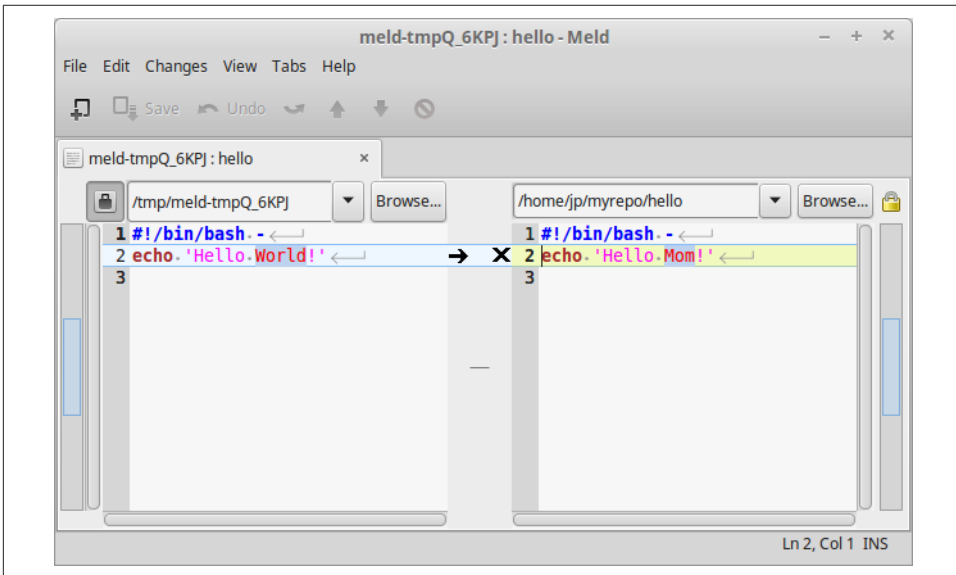


Figure D-1. Meld in action

See Also

- `man meld`
- <http://meldmerge.org/>
- [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Meld_\(software\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Meld_(software))

etckeeper

etckeeper is not a revision control tool itself, but it uses one to put your `/etc/` directory under revision control. It's available in all or most Linux distributions, and it hooks into `cron` to do daily commits and the package manager to do commits before and after package operations. It also works around the issues of files appearing and disappearing, ownership, permissions and such that revision control systems usually don't handle all by themselves. It uses the underlying tool's "ignore" file to ignore files that change too often or are otherwise not useful to revision.

Out of the box, Meld creates a repository in `/etc/` and starts committing. You can configure the underlying revision control system to push to a remote repository as a backup as well.

Which revision control system it uses varies by distribution, and it's configurable as well.

Here are a few tips, if you're thinking about using etckeeper:

- There are security implications to storing the `/etc/shadow` file in etckeeper. See the *README* for details.
- You will need to install the Extra Packages for Enterprise Linux (EPEL) repository for Red Hat Enterprise, CentOS, and similar RPM distros.
- etckeeper will not initialize or commit for you, like Debian does. After installing the RPM, you will need to run `sudo etckeeper init` and `sudo etckeeper commit` *First commit* before it will start working for you.

Pros

- Set-it-and-forget-it revision control for `/etc/!`

Cons

- See the potential security implication.
- The out-of-the-box configuration is local only.

Example

Here's an example install on a mostly stock Debian (Jessie) system:

```
[jp@jessie:T0:L1:C19:J0:2016-07-04_15:47:25_EDT]
/home/jp$ sudo apt-get update
[sudo] password for jp:
...
Fetched 7,652 B in 4s (1,796 B/s)
Reading package lists... Done

[jp@jessie:T0:L1:C20:J0:2016-07-04_15:47:50_EDT]
/home/jp$ sudo apt-get install etckeeper
Reading package lists... Done
Building dependency tree
Reading state information... Done
The following extra packages will be installed:
  git git-man liberror-perl
Suggested packages:
  git-daemon-run git-daemon-sysvinit git-doc git-el git-email git-gui gitk gitweb
  git-arch git-cvs
  git-mediawiki git-svn
```

```

The following NEW packages will be installed:
  etckeeper git git-man liberror-perl
0 upgraded, 4 newly installed, 0 to remove and 0 not upgraded.
Need to get 4,587 kB of archives.
After this operation, 23.7 MB of additional disk space will be used.
Do you want to continue? [Y/n] y
...
Setting up etckeeper (1.15) ...
Initialized empty Git repository in /etc/.git/
[master (root-commit) 6d597ca] Initial commit
Author: jp <jp@jessie.jpsdomain.org>
1324 files changed, 32995 insertions(+)
 create mode 100755 .etckeeper
 create mode 100644 .gitignore
...
 create mode 100644 xml/catalog
 create mode 100644 xml/docutils-common.xml
 create mode 100644 xml/xml-core.xml

```

```
/home/jp$ cd /etc
```

```
/etc$ sudo git status
```

```

On branch master
nothing to commit, working directory clean

```

```
/etc$ cat /etc/cron.daily/etckeeper
```

```

#!/bin/sh
set -e
if [ -x /usr/bin/etckeeper ] && [ -e /etc/etckeeper/etckeeper.conf ]; then
  . /etc/etckeeper/etckeeper.conf
  if [ "$AVOID_DAILY_AUTOCOMMITS" != "1" ]; then
    # avoid autocommit if an install run is in progress
    lockfile=/var/cache/etckeeper/packagelist.pre-install
    if [ -e "$lockfile" ] && [ -n "$(find "$lockfile" -mtime +1)" ]
    then
      rm -f "$lockfile" # stale
    fi
    if [ ! -e "$lockfile" ]; then
      AVOID_SPECIAL_FILE_WARNING=1
      export AVOID_SPECIAL_FILE_WARNING
      if etckeeper unclean; then
        etckeeper commit "daily autocommit" >/dev/null
      fi
    fi
  fi
fi

```

Now *etckeeper* will commit daily and before and after package operations. But you can commit manually as well, and you can use all of the features of the underlying revision control system:

```
/etc$ sudo useradd carl
```

```
/etc$ sudo git status
```

```
On branch master
```

```
Changes not staged for commit:
```

```
(use "git add <file>..." to update what will be committed)
```

```
(use "git checkout -- <file>..." to discard changes in working directory)
```

```
    modified:   group
    modified:   group-
    modified:   gshadow
    modified:   gshadow-
    modified:   passwd
    modified:   shadow
    modified:   subgid
    modified:   subgid-
    modified:   subuid
    modified:   subuid-
```

```
no changes added to commit (use "git add" and/or "git commit -a")
```

```
/etc$ sudo etckeeper commit 'Added a user for Carl'
```

```
[master 8b58601] Added a user for Carl
```

```
Author: jp <jp@jessie.jpsdomain.org>
```

```
11 files changed, 12 insertions(+), 2 deletions(-)
```

```
/etc$ sudo git status
```

```
On branch master
```

```
nothing to commit, working directory clean
```

See Also

- *etckeeper*
- `man etckeeper`
- <http://etckeeper.branchable.com/>
— <http://etckeeper.branchable.com/README/>

Other

Finally, it is worth noting that some word processors, such as LibreOffice Writer and Microsoft Word, have three relevant features: document comparison, change tracking, and versions.

Document Comparison

Document comparison allows you to compare documents when their native file format makes use of other *diff* tools difficult. You would use this when you have two copies of a document that didn't have change tracking turned on, or when you need to merge feedback from various sources.

While it is trivial to unzip the *content.xml* file from a given ODF file, the result has no line breaks and is not terribly pretty or readable. See [Recipe 12.5](#) for a *bash* script that will do this low-level kind of difference.

Refer to [Table D-1](#) at the end of this section for information on how to access the built-in GUI comparison function, which is much easier than trying to do it manually.

Change Tracking and Versions

The change-tracking feature saves information about changes made to a document. Review mode uses various copyediting markup on the screen to display who did what, when. This is obviously useful for all kinds of creation and editing purposes, but please read our warning.

The versions feature allows you to save more than one version of a document in a single file. This can be handy in all sorts of odd ways. For example, we've seen router configurations copied and pasted from a terminal into different versions inside the same document for archival and change control purposes.



The change-tracking and versions features will cause your document to continually grow in size, since items that are changed are still kept and deleted items are not really deleted, but only marked as deleted.

Also, if accidentally turned on, change tracking and versions can be very dangerous information leaks! For example, if you send similar proposals to competing companies after doing a search and replace and other editing, someone at one of those companies can see exactly what you changed and when you changed it. The most recent versions of these tools have various methods that attempt to warn you or clear private information before a given document is converted to PDF or emailed, but take a look at any word processor attachments you receive in email, especially from vendors. You may be surprised.

Accessing These Features

Table D-1 shows where to find the features described here in LibreOffice Writer and Microsoft Word.

Table D-1. Word processor functions

Feature	Writer menu option	Word menu option
Document comparisons	Edit → Compare Document	Tools → Compare and Merge Documents
Change tracking	Edit → Changes	Tools → Track Changes
Versions	File → Versions	File → Versions

Building *bash* from Source

In this appendix we'll show you how to get the latest version of *bash* and install it on your system from source, and we'll discuss potential problems you might encounter along the way. We'll also look briefly at the examples that come with *bash* and how you can report bugs to the *bash* maintainer. The material in this appendix also appears in *Learning the bash Shell*, 3rd Edition, by Cameron Newham (O'Reilly).

Obtaining *bash*

You can find the very latest details on the current distribution and where to obtain it from the [bash home page](#).

Unpacking the Archive

Having obtained the archive file, you need to unpack it and install it on your system. Unpacking can be done anywhere—we'll assume you're unpacking it in your home directory. Installing it on the system requires you to have *root* privileges. If you aren't a system administrator with *root* access, you can still compile and use *bash*; you just can't install it as a system-wide utility. The first thing to do is uncompress the archive file: `gunzip bash-4.4.tar.gz`. Then you need to untar the archive: `tar -xf bash-4.4.tar`. The `-xf` means “extract the archived material from the specified file.” This will create a directory called *bash-4.4* in your home directory. If you do not have the *gunzip* utility, you can obtain it in the same way you obtained *bash* or simply use `gzip -d` instead.

The archive contains all of the source code needed to compile *bash* and a large amount of documentation and examples. We'll look at these things and how you go about making a *bash* executable in the rest of this appendix.

What's in the Archive

The *bash* archive contains a main directory (*bash-4.4* for the current version) and a set of files and subdirectories. Among the first files you should examine are:

CHANGES

A comprehensive list of bug fixes and new features since the last version

COPYING

The GNU copyleft for *bash*

MANIFEST

A list of all the files and directories in the archive

NEWS

A list of new features since the last version

README

A short introduction and instructions for compiling *bash*

You should also be aware of two directories:

doc

Information related to *bash* in various formats

examples

Examples of startup files, scripts, and functions

The other files and directories in the archive are mostly things that are needed during the build. Unless you are going to go hacking into the internal workings of the shell, they shouldn't concern you; if you're interested in seeing the full list, however, check out [Appendix B](#).

Documentation

The *doc* directory contains a few articles that are worth reading. Indeed, it would be well worth printing out the manual entry for *bash* so you can use it in conjunction with this book. The *README* file gives a short summary of the files.

The document you'll most often use is the manpage entry *bash.0*. This summarizes all of the facilities your version of *bash* has and is the most up-to-date reference you can get. This document is also available through the *man* facility once you've installed the package.

Of the other documents, *FAQ* is a Frequently Asked Questions document with answers, *readline.3* is the manual entry for the *readline* facility, and *article.ms* is an article about the shell that appeared in *Linux Journal* and was written by the current *bash* maintainer, Chet Ramey.

Configuring and Building bash

Compiling *bash* “straight out of the box” is easy—you just type `./configure` and then `make`! The *configure* script attempts to work out whether you have various utilities and C library functions, and their locations on your system. It then stores the relevant information in the file *config.h*. It also creates a file called *config.status*, which is a script you can run to recreate the current configuration information. While *configure* is running, it prints out information on what it is searching for and where it finds it.

The *configure* script also sets the location where *bash* will be installed; the default is the `/usr/local` area (`/usr/local/bin` for the executable, `/usr/local/man` for the manual entries, etc). If you don’t have *root* privileges and want it in your own home directory, or you wish to install *bash* in some other location, you’ll need to provide *configure* with the path you want to use. You can do this with the `--exec-prefix` option. For example:

```
configure --exec-prefix=/usr
```

specifies that the *bash* files will be placed under the `/usr` directory. Note that *configure* prefers option arguments be given with an equals sign (=).

After the configuration finishes and you type `make`, the *bash* executable is built. A script called *bashbug* is also generated, which allows you to report bugs in the format the *bash* maintainers want. We’ll look at how to use it later in this appendix.

Once the build finishes, you can see if the *bash* executable works by typing `./bash`.

To install *bash*, type `make install`. This will create all of the necessary directories (*bin*, *info*, *man* and its subdirectories) and copy the files to them.

If you’ve installed *bash* in your home directory, be sure to add your own *bin* path to your `$PATH` and your own *man* path to `$MANPATH`.

bash comes preconfigured with nearly all of its features enabled, but it is possible to customize your version by specifying what you want with the `--enable feature` and `--disable feature` command-line options to *configure*. See the *INSTALL* file for more details on the configurable features and what they do.

Many other shell features can be turned on or off by modifying the file *config-top.h*. For further details on this file and on configuring *bash* in general, see *INSTALL*.

Finally, to clean up the source directory and remove all of the object files and executables, type `make clean`. Make sure you’ve run `make install` first; otherwise, you’ll have to rerun the installation from scratch.

Testing bash

There are a series of tests that can be run on your newly built version of *bash* to see if it is running correctly. The tests are scripts that are derived from problems reported in earlier versions of the shell. Running these tests on the latest version of *bash* shouldn't cause any errors.

To run the tests, just type `make tests` in the main *bash* directory. The name of each test is displayed, along with some warning messages, and then it is run. Successful tests produce no output (unless otherwise noted in the warning messages).

If any of the tests fail, you'll see a list of things that represent differences between what is expected and what happened. If this occurs, you should file a bug report with the *bash* maintainer; see [“Reporting Bugs” on page 671](#) for information on how to do this.

Potential Problems

Although *bash* has been installed on a large number of different machines and operating systems, there are occasionally problems. Usually the problems aren't serious and a bit of investigation can result in a quick solution.

If *bash* didn't compile, the first thing to do is check that *configure* guessed your machine and operating system correctly. Then check the file *NOTES*, which contains some information on specific Unix systems. Also look in *INSTALL* for additional information on how to give *configure* specific compilation instructions.

Installing bash as a Login Shell

See [Recipe 1.11](#).

Examples

See [Appendix B](#) for examples included with *bash*.

Who Do I Turn To?

No matter how good something is or how much documentation comes with it, you'll eventually come across something that you don't understand or that doesn't work. In such cases it can't be stressed enough to *carefully read the documentation* (in more casual computer parlance: RTFM). In many cases, this will answer your question or point out what you're doing wrong.

Sometimes you'll find this only adds to your confusion or confirms that there is something wrong with the software. The next thing to do is to talk to a local *bash*

guru to sort out the problem. If that fails, or there is no guru handy, you'll have to turn to other means (currently only via the internet).

Asking Questions

If you have any questions about *bash*, there are currently many ways to go about getting them answered. You can email questions to help-bash@gnu.org or bash-maintainers@gnu.org, or you can post your question to the USENET newsgroup *gnu.bash.bug* (perhaps via <https://groups.google.com/forum/#!forum/gnu.bash.bug>). There are also more generic help sites, such as [StackOverflow](#), [Linux Stack Exchange](#), and so forth.

When asking a question, try to give a meaningful summary of your question in the subject line—see “[How to Ask Questions the Smart Way](#)” by Eric Raymond.

Reporting Bugs

Bug reports should be sent to bug-bash@gnu.org, and include the version of *bash* and the operating system it is running on, the compiler used to compile *bash*, a description of the problem, a description of how the problem was produced, and, if possible, a fix for the problem. The best way to do this is with the *bashbug* script, installed with *bash*.

Before you run *bashbug*, make sure that you've set your `$EDITOR` environment variable to your favorite editor and have exported it (*bashbug* defaults to Emacs, which might not be installed on your system). When you execute *bashbug* it will enter the editor with a partially blank report form. Some of the information (*bash* version, operating system version, etc.) will have been filled in automatically. We'll take a brief look at the form, but most of it is self-explanatory.

The From field should be filled out with your email address. For example:

```
From: confused@wonderland.oreilly.com
```

Next comes the Subject field; make an effort to fill it out, as this makes it easier for the maintainers when they need to look up your submission. Just replace the line surrounded by square brackets with a meaningful summary of the problem.

The next few lines are a description of the system and should not be touched. Then comes the Description field. You should provide a detailed description of the problem and how it differs from what is expected. Try to be as specific and concise as possible when describing the problem.

The Repeat-By field is where you describe how you generated the problem; if necessary, list the exact keystrokes you used. Sometimes you won't be able to reproduce the problem yourself, but you should still fill out this field with the events leading up to

the problem. Attempt to reduce the problem to the smallest possible form. For example, if it was a large shell script, try to isolate the section that produced the problem and include only that in your report.

Lastly, the `Fix` field is where you can provide the necessary patch to fix the problem if you've investigated it and found out what was going wrong. If you have no idea what caused the problem, just leave the field blank.



If the maintainer can easily reproduce and then identify the problem, it will be fixed faster—so make sure your `Repeat-By` (and ideally `Fix`) sections are as good as you can make them. Reading the article mentioned in [“Asking Questions” on page 671](#) is also encouraged.

Once you've finished filling in the form, save it and exit your editor. The form will automatically be sent to the maintainers.

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About the Authors

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Colophon

The animal on the cover of *bash Cookbook* is a wood turtle (*Glyptemys insculpta*) and is named so because its shell looks like it was carved from wood. The wood turtle can be found in forests and is very common in North America, particularly in Nova Scotia through to the Great Lakes region. The wood turtle is an omnivorous and lazy eater; it will eat whatever crosses its path, including plants, worms, and slugs (a favorite). But this isn't to say wood turtles are slow—in fact, they can be quite agile and quick to learn. Some researchers have seen wood turtles stamping on the ground to mimic the sound of raindrops, which lures worms out to their certain death.

Wood turtles are threatened by human expansion into their territories. They nest on the sandy banks of rivers, streams, and ponds, which are prone to erosion, damming, and use by outdoor enthusiasts. Roadside fatalities, toxic pollution, and the pet trade

have also taken a toll on the wood turtle population, so much so that in many states and provinces they are considered a threatened species.

Many of the animals on O'Reilly covers are endangered; all of them are important to the world. To learn more about how you can help, go to animals.oreilly.com.

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