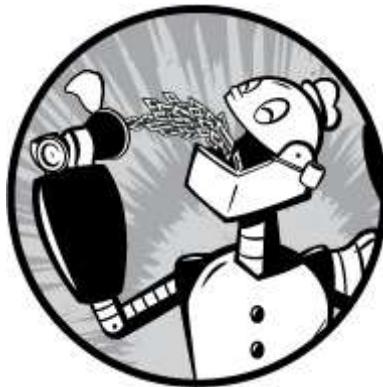


5

WORKING WITH COMMANDS



Up to this point, we have seen a series of mysterious commands, each with its own options and arguments. In this chapter, we will attempt to remove some of that mystery and even create our own commands. The commands introduced in this chapter are as follows:

type Indicate how a command name is interpreted

which Display which executable program will be executed

help Get help for shell builtins

man Display a command's manual page

apropos Display a list of appropriate commands

info Display a command's info entry

whatis Display one-line manual page descriptions

alias Create an alias for a command

What Exactly Are Commands?

A command can be one of four different things.

- **An executable program** like all those files we saw in `/usr/bin`. Within this category, programs can be *compiled binaries* such as programs written in C and C++, or programs written in *scripting languages* such as the shell, Perl, Python, Ruby, and so on.
- **A command built into the shell itself.** `bash` supports a number of commands internally called *shell builtins*. The `cd` command, for example, is a shell builtin.
- **A shell function.** Shell functions are miniature shell scripts incorporated into the *environment*. We will cover configuring the environment and writing shell functions in later chapters, but for now, just be aware that they exist.
- **An alias.** Aliases are commands that we can define ourselves, built from other commands.

Identifying Commands

It is often useful to know exactly which of the four kinds of commands is being used, and Linux provides a couple of ways to find out.

type—Display a Command’s Type

The `type` command is a shell builtin that displays the kind of command the shell will execute, given a particular command name. It works like this:

`type command`

where `command` is the name of the command you want to examine. Here are some examples:

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$ type type  
type is a shell builtin  
[me@linuxbox ~]$ type ls  
ls is aliased to `ls --color=tty'  
[me@linuxbox ~]$ type cp  
cp is /bin/cp
```

Here we see the results for three different commands. Notice the one for `ls` (taken from a Fedora system) and how the `ls` command is actually an alias for the `ls` command with the `--color=tty` option added. Now we know why the output from `ls` is displayed in color!

which—Display an Executable’s Location

Sometimes there is more than one version of an executable program installed on a system. While this is not common on desktop systems, it’s not unusual on larger servers. To determine the exact location of a given executable, the `which` command is used.

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$ which ls  
/bin/ls
```

`which` works only for executable programs, not builtins or aliases that are substitutes for actual executable programs. When we try to use `which` on a shell builtin—for example, `cd`—we either get no response or get an error message.

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$ which cd  
/usr/bin/which: no cd in  
(/usr/local/bin:/usr/bin:/bin:/usr/local/games:/usr/games)
```

This result is a fancy way of saying “command not found.”

Getting a Command’s Documentation

With this knowledge of what a command is, we can now search for the documentation available for each kind of command.

help—Get Help for Shell Builtins

`bash` has a built-in help facility available for each of the shell builtins. To use it, type `help` followed by the name of the shell builtin. Here’s an example:

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$ help cd
```

```
cd: cd [-L | [-P [-e]] [-@]] [dir]
```

Change the shell working directory.

Change the current directory to DIR. The default DIR is the value of the HOME shell variable.

The variable CDPATH defines the search path for the directory containing

DIR. Alternative directory names in CDPATH are separated by a colon (:).

A null directory name is the same as the current directory. If DIR begins

with a slash (/), then CDPATH is not used.

If the directory is not found, and the shell option `cdable_vars' is set, the word is assumed to be a variable name. If that variable has a value, its value is used for DIR.

Options:

-L force symbolic links to be followed: resolve symbolic links in DIR after processing instances of `..'

-P use the physical directory structure without following symbolic links: resolve symbolic links in DIR before processing instances of `..'

-e if the -P option is supplied, and the current working directory cannot be determined successfully, exit with a non-zero status

-@ on systems that support it, present a file with extended attributes as a directory containing the file attributes

The default is to follow symbolic links, as if '-L' were specified.

`..' is processed by removing the immediately previous pathname component

back to a slash or the beginning of DIR.

Exit Status:

Returns 0 if the directory is changed, and if \$PWD is set successfully when

-P is used; non-zero otherwise..

A note on notation: When square brackets appear in the description of a command's syntax, they indicate optional items. A vertical bar character indicates mutually exclusive items. In the case of the `cd` command above:

`cd [-L | [-P[-e]]] [dir]`

This notation says that the command `cd` may be followed optionally by either a `-L` or a `-P` and further, if the `-P` option is specified the `-e` option may also be included followed by the optional argument `dir`.

While the output of `help` for the `cd` commands is concise and accurate, it is by no means tutorial and as we can see, it also seems to mention a lot of things we haven't talked about yet! Don't worry. We'll get there.

--help—Display Usage Information

Many executable programs support a `--help` option that displays a description of the command's supported syntax and options. For example:

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$ mkdir --help
Usage: mkdir [OPTION] DIRECTORY...
Create the DIRECTORY(ies), if they do not already exist.
```

`-Z, --context=CONTEXT` (SELinux) set security context to CONTEXT
Mandatory arguments to long options are mandatory for short options too.

`-m, --mode=MODE` set file mode (as in `chmod`), not `a=rwx - umask`

`-p, --parents` no error if existing, make parent directories as needed

`-v, --verbose` print a message for each created directory

`--help` display this help and exit

--version output version information and exit
Report bugs to <bug-coreutils@gnu.org>.

Some programs don't support the `--help` option, but try it anyway. Often it results in an error message that will reveal the same usage information.

man—Display a Program's Manual Page

Most executable programs intended for command line use provide a formal piece of documentation called a *manual* or *man page*. A special paging program called `man` is used to view them. It is used like this:

`man program`

where `program` is the name of the command to view.

Man pages vary somewhat in format but generally contain the following:

- A title (the page's name)
- A synopsis of the command's syntax
- A description of the command's purpose
- A listing and description of each of the command's options

Man pages, however, do not usually include examples and are intended as a reference, not a tutorial. As an example, let's try viewing the man page for the `ls` command.

[me@linuxbox ~]\$ `man ls`

On most Linux systems, `man` uses `less` to display the manual page, so all of the familiar `less` commands work while displaying the page.

The “manual” that `man` displays is broken into sections and covers not only user commands but also system administration commands, programming interfaces, file formats, and more. **Table 5-1** describes the layout of the manual.

Table 5-1: Man Page Organization

Section	Contents
1	User commands
2	Programming interfaces for kernel system calls
3	Programming interfaces to the C library
4	Special files such as device nodes and drivers
5	File formats
6	Games and amusements such as screen savers
7	Miscellaneous
8	System administration commands

Sometimes we need to refer to a specific section of the manual to find what we are looking for. This is particularly true if we are looking for a file format that is also the name of a command. Without specifying a section number, we will always get the first instance of a match, probably in section 1. To specify a section number, we use `man` like this:

`man section search_term`

Here's an example:

[me@linuxbox ~]\$ `man 5 passwd`

This will display the man page describing the file format of the `/etc/passwd` file.

apropos—Display Appropriate Commands

It is also possible to search the list of man pages for possible matches based on a search term. It's crude but sometimes helpful. Here is an example of a search for man pages using the search term *partition*:

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$ apropos partition
addpart (8)      - simple wrapper around the "add partition" ioctl
all swaps (7)    - event signalling that all swap partitions have been ac...
cfdisk (8)       - display or manipulate disk partition table
cgdisk (8)       - Curses-based GUID partition table (GPT) manipulator
delpart (8)      - simple wrapper around the "del partition" ioctl
fdisk (8)        - manipulate disk partition table
fixparts (8)     - MBR partition table repair utility
gdisk (8)        - Interactive GUID partition table (GPT) manipulator
mpartition (1)   - partition an MSDOS hard disk
partprobe (8)    - inform the OS of partition table changes
partx (8)        - tell the Linux kernel about the presence and numbering...
resizepart (8)   - simple wrapper around the "resize partition" ioctl
sfdisk (8)       - partition table manipulator for Linux
sgdisk (8)       - Command-line GUID partition table (GPT) manipulator
fo..
```

The first field in each line of output is the name of the man page, and the second field shows the section. Note that the `man` command with the `-k` option performs the same function as `apropos`.

whatis—Display One-line Manual Page Descriptions

The `whatis` program displays the name and a one-line description of a man page matching a specified keyword.

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$ whatis ls
ls          (1) - list directory contents
```

As we have seen, the manual pages supplied with Linux and other Unix-like systems are intended as reference documentation and not as tutorials. Many man pages are hard to read, but I think the grand prize for difficulty has got to go to the man page for `bash`. As I was doing research for this book, I gave the `bash` man page careful review to ensure that I was covering most of its topics. When printed, it's more than 80 pages long and extremely dense, and its structure makes absolutely no sense to a new user.

On the other hand, it is very accurate and concise, as well as being extremely complete. So check it out if you dare and look forward to the day when you can read it and it all makes sense.

info—Display a Program’s Info Entry

The GNU Project provides an alternative to man pages for their programs, called *info*. Info manuals are displayed with a reader program named, appropriately enough, `info`. Info pages are *hyperlinked* much like web pages. Here is a sample:

File: coreutils.info, Node: ls invocation, Next: dir invocation, Up:

Directory listing

10.1 `ls': List directory contents

=====

The `ls' program lists information about files (of any type, including directories). Options and file arguments can be intermixed arbitrarily, as usual.

For non-option command-line arguments that are directories, by default `ls'

lists the contents of directories, not recursively, and omitting files with names beginning with `.'. For other non-option arguments, by default `ls' lists just the filename. If no non-option argument is specified, `ls' operates on the current directory, acting as if it had been invoked with a single argument of `.'

By default, the output is sorted alphabetically, according to the

--zz-**Info:** (**coreutils.info.gz**)ls invocation, 63 lines --Top-----

The `info` program reads info files, which are tree structured into individual *nodes*, each containing a single topic. Info files contain hyperlinks that can move you from node to node. A hyperlink can be identified by its leading asterisk and is activated by placing the cursor upon it and pressing ENTER.

To invoke `info`, type `info` followed optionally by the name of a program. **Table 5-2** describes the commands used to control the reader while displaying an info page.

Table 5-2: info Commands

Command	Action
?	Display command help
PAGE UP or BACKSPACE	Display previous page
PAGE DOWN or spacebar	Display next page
n	Next—display the next node
p	Previous—display the previous node
u	Up—display the parent node of the currently displayed node, usually a menu
ENTER	Follow the hyperlink at the cursor location
Q	Quit

Most of the command line programs we have discussed so far are part of the GNU Project's coreutils package, so typing the following:

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$ info coreutils
```

will display a menu page with hyperlinks to each program contained in the coreutils package.

README and Other Program Documentation Files

Many software packages installed on your system have documentation files residing in the `/usr/share/doc` directory. Most of these are stored in ordinary text format and can be viewed with the `less` command. Some of the files are in HTML format and can be viewed with a web browser. We may encounter some files ending with a `.gz` extension. This indicates that they have been compressed with the gzip compression program. The gzip package includes a special version of `less` called `zless` that will display the contents of gzip-compressed text files.

Creating Our Own Commands with alias

Now for our first experience with programming! We will create a command of our own using the `alias` command. But before we start, we need to reveal a small command line trick. It's possible to put more than one command on a line by separating each command with a semicolon. It works like this:

```
command1; command2; command3...
```

Here's the example we will use:

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$ cd /usr; ls; cd -  
bin games include lib local sbin share src  
/home/me  
[me@linuxbox ~]$
```

As we can see, we have combined three commands on one line. First we change the current working directory to `/usr`, then list the directory, and finally return to the original directory (by using `cd -`) so we end up where we started. Now let's turn this sequence into a new command using `alias`. The first thing we have to do is dream up a name for our new command. Let's try `test`. Before we do that, it would be a good idea to find out whether the name `test` is already being used. To find out, we can use the `type` command again.

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$ type test
```

```
test is a shell builtin
```

Oops! The name `test` is already taken. Let's try `foo`.

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$ type foo
```

```
bash: type: foo: not found
```

Great! `foo` is not taken. So, let's create our alias.

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$ alias foo='cd /usr; ls; cd -'
```

Notice the structure of this command, shown here:

```
alias name='string'
```

After the command `alias`, we give our alias a name followed immediately (no whitespace allowed) by an equal sign, followed immediately by a quoted string containing the meaning to be assigned to the name. After we define our alias, we can use it anywhere the shell would expect a command. Let's try it.

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$ foo
```

```
bin games include lib local sbin share src
```

```
/home/me
```

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$
```

We can also use the `type` command again to see our alias.

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$ type foo  
foo is aliased to `cd /usr; ls; cd -'
```

To remove an alias, the `unalias` command is used, like so:

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$ unalias foo  
[me@linuxbox ~]$ type foo  
bash: type: foo: not found
```

While we purposefully avoided naming our alias with an existing command name, it is not uncommon to do so. This is often done to apply a commonly desired option to each invocation of a common command. For instance, we saw earlier how the `ls` command is often aliased to add color support.

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$ type ls  
ls is aliased to `ls --color=tty'
```

To see all the aliases defined in the environment, use the `alias` command without arguments. Here are some of the aliases defined by default on a Fedora system. Try to figure out what they all do.

```
[me@linuxbox ~]$ alias  
alias l.='ls -d .* --color=tty'  
alias ll='ls -l --color=tty'  
alias ls='ls --color=tty'
```

There is one tiny problem with defining aliases on the command line. They vanish when your shell session ends. In [Chapter 11](#), we will see how to add our own aliases to the files that establish the environment each time we log on, but for now, enjoy the fact that we have taken our first, albeit tiny, step into the world of shell programming!

Summing Up

Now that we have learned how to find the documentation for commands, look up the documentation for all the commands we have encountered so

far. Study what additional options are available and try them!

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