

# More bash Shell Commands

## IN THIS CHAPTER

Managing processes

Getting disk statistics

Mounting new disks

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Archiving data

Chapter 3 covered the basics of walking through the Linux filesystem and working with files and directories. File and directory management is a major feature of the Linux shell; however, we should look at some other things before we start our script programming. This chapter digs into the Linux system management commands, showing you how to peek inside your Linux system using command line commands. After that, we show you a few handy commands that you can use to work with data files on the system.

## Monitoring Programs

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One of the toughest jobs of being a Linux system administrator is keeping track of what's running on the system — especially now, when graphical desktops take a handful of programs just to produce a single desktop. You always have lots of programs running on the system.

Fortunately, a few command line tools are available to help make life easier for you. This section covers a few of the basic tools you need to know how to use to manage programs on your Linux system.

### Peeking at the processes

When a program runs on the system, it's referred to as a *process*. To examine these processes, you need to become familiar with the `ps` command, the Swiss Army knife of utilities. It can produce lots of information about all the programs running on your system.

Unfortunately, with this robustness comes complexity — in the form of numerous parameters — making the `ps` command probably one of the most difficult commands to master. Most system administrators find a subset of these parameters that provide the information they want, and they stick with using only those.

That said, however, the basic `ps` command doesn't really provide all that much information:

```
$ ps
  PID TTY          TIME CMD
 3081 pts/0    00:00:00 bash
 3209 pts/0    00:00:00 ps
$
```

Not too exciting. By default, the `ps` command shows only the processes that belong to the current user and that are running on the current terminal. In this case, we had only our bash shell running (remember, the shell is just another program running on the system) and, of course, the `ps` command itself.

The basic output shows the process ID (PID) of the programs, the terminal (TTY) that they are running from, and the CPU time the process has used.

### NOTE

The tricky feature of the `ps` command (and the part that makes it so complicated) is that at one time there were two versions of it. Each version had its own set of command line parameters controlling what information it displayed and how. Recently, Linux developers have combined the two `ps` command formats into a single `ps` program (and of course added their own touches).

The GNU `ps` command that's used in Linux systems supports three different types of command line parameters:

- Unix-style parameters, which are preceded by a dash
- BSD-style parameters, which are not preceded by a dash
- GNU long parameters, which are preceded by a double dash

The following sections examine the three different parameter types and show examples of how they work.

### Unix-style parameters

The Unix-style parameters originated with the original `ps` command that ran on the AT&T Unix systems invented by Bell Labs. Table 4-1 shows these parameters.

**TABLE 4-1 The ps Command Unix Parameters**

Parameter	Description
-A	Shows all processes
-N	Shows the opposite of the specified parameters
-a	Shows all processes except session headers and processes without a terminal
-d	Shows all processes except session headers
-e	Shows all processes
-C <i>cmdlist</i>	Shows processes contained in the list <i>cmdlist</i>
-G <i>grplist</i>	Shows processes with a group ID listed in <i>grplist</i>
-U <i>userid</i>	Shows processes owned by a userid listed in <i>userid</i>
-g <i>grplist</i>	Shows processes by session or by groupid contained in <i>grplist</i>
-p <i>pidlist</i>	Shows processes with PIDs in the list <i>pidlist</i>
-s <i>sesslist</i>	Shows processes with session ID in the list <i>sesslist</i>
-t <i>ttylist</i>	Shows processes with terminal ID in the list <i>ttylist</i>
-u <i>userid</i>	Shows processes by effective userid in the list <i>userid</i>
-F	Uses extra full output
-O <i>format</i>	Displays specific columns in the list <i>format</i> , along with the default columns
-M	Displays security information about the process
-c	Shows additional scheduler information about the process
-f	Displays a full format listing
-j	Shows job information
-l	Displays a long listing
-o <i>format</i>	Displays only specific columns listed in <i>format</i>
-Y	Prevents display of process flags
-Z	Displays the security context information
-H	Displays processes in a hierarchical format (showing parent processes)
-n <i>namelist</i>	Defines the values to display in the WCHAN column
-w	Uses wide output format, for unlimited width displays
-L	Shows process threads
-V	Displays the version of ps

That's a lot of parameters, and there are still more! The key to using the `ps` command is not to memorize all the available parameters — only those you find most useful. Most Linux system administrators have their own sets of parameters that they use for extracting pertinent information. For example, if you need to see everything running on the system, use the `-ef` parameter combination (the `ps` command lets you combine parameters like this):

```
$ ps -ef
UID          PID    PPID  C  STIME TTY          TIME CMD
root          1        0  0  11:29 ?        00:00:01 init [5]
root          2        0  0  11:29 ?        00:00:00 [kthreadd]
root          3        2  0  11:29 ?        00:00:00 [migration/0]
root          4        2  0  11:29 ?        00:00:00 [ksoftirqd/0]
root          5        2  0  11:29 ?        00:00:00 [watchdog/0]
root          6        2  0  11:29 ?        00:00:00 [events/0]
root          7        2  0  11:29 ?        00:00:00 [khelper]
root         47        2  0  11:29 ?        00:00:00 [kblockd/0]
root         48        2  0  11:29 ?        00:00:00 [kacpid]
68           2349        1  0  11:30 ?        00:00:00 hald
root        3078      1981  0  12:00 ?        00:00:00 sshd: rich [priv]
rich        3080      3078  0  12:00 ?        00:00:00 sshd: rich@pts/0
rich        3081      3080  0  12:00 pts/0    00:00:00 -bash
rich       4445      3081  3  13:48 pts/0    00:00:00 ps -ef
$
```

Quite a few lines have been cut from the output to save space, but you can see that lots of processes are running on a Linux system. This example uses two parameters: the `-e` parameter, which shows all the processes running on the system, and the `-f` parameter, which expands the output to show a few useful columns of information:

- **UID:** The user responsible for launching the process
- **PID:** The process ID of the process
- **PPID:** The PID of the parent process (if a process is started by another process)
- **C:** Processor utilization over the lifetime of the process
- **STIME:** The system time when the process started
- **TTY:** The terminal device from which the process was launched
- **TIME:** The cumulative CPU time required to run the process
- **CMD:** The name of the program that was started

This produces a reasonable amount of information, which is what many system administrators want to see. For even more information, you can use the `-l` parameter, which produces the long format output:

```
$ ps -l
F S  UID PID  PPID  C PRI  NI ADDR SZ WCHAN  TTY          TIME CMD
```

```

0 S  500 3081  3080  0  80   0 -  1173 wait pts/0  00:00:00 bash
0 R  500 4463  3081  1  80   0 -  1116 -   pts/0  00:00:00 ps
$

```

Notice the extra columns that appear when you use the `-l` parameter:

- **F**: System flags assigned to the process by the kernel
- **S**: The state of the process (O = running on processor; S = sleeping; R = runnable, waiting to run; Z = zombie, process terminated but parent not available; T = process stopped)
- **PRI**: The priority of the process (higher numbers mean lower priority)
- **NI**: The nice value, which is used for determining priorities
- **ADDR**: The memory address of the process
- **SZ**: Approximate amount of swap space required if the process was swapped out
- **WCHAN**: Address of the kernel function where the process is sleeping

### BSD-style parameters

Now that you've seen the Unix parameters, let's look at the BSD-style parameters. The Berkeley Software Distribution (BSD) was a version of Unix developed at (of course) the University of California, Berkeley. It had many subtle differences from the AT&T Unix system, thus sparking many Unix wars over the years. Table 4-2 shows the BSD version of the `ps` command parameters.

**TABLE 4-2 The `ps` Command BSD Parameters**

Parameter	Description
T	Shows all processes associated with this terminal
a	Shows all processes associated with any terminal
g	Shows all processes including session headers
r	Shows only running processes
x	Shows all processes, even those without a terminal device assigned
U <i>userlist</i>	Shows processes owned by a userid listed in <i>userlist</i>
p <i>pidlist</i>	Shows processes with a PID listed in <i>pidlist</i>
t <i>ttylist</i>	Shows processes associated with a terminal listed in <i>ttylist</i>
O <i>format</i>	Lists specific columns in <i>format</i> to display along with the standard columns
X	Displays data in the register format
Z	Includes security information in the output
j	Shows job information
l	Uses the long format

*Continues*

**TABLE 4-2** (continued)

Parameter	Description
<i>o format</i>	Displays only columns specified in <i>format</i>
<i>s</i>	Uses the signal format
<i>u</i>	Uses the user-oriented format
<i>v</i>	Uses the virtual memory format
<i>N namelist</i>	Defines the values to use in the WCHAN column
<i>O order</i>	Defines the order in which to display the information columns
<i>S</i>	Sums numerical information, such as CPU and memory usage, for child processes into the parent process
<i>c</i>	Displays the true command name (the name of the program used to start the process)
<i>e</i>	Displays any environment variables used by the command
<i>f</i>	Displays processes in a hierarchical format, showing which processes started which processes
<i>h</i>	Prevents display of the header information
<i>k sort</i>	Defines the column(s) to use for sorting the output
<i>n</i>	Uses numeric values for user and group IDs, along with WCHAN information
<i>w</i>	Produces wide output for wider terminals
<i>H</i>	Displays threads as if they were processes
<i>m</i>	Displays threads after their processes
<i>L</i>	Lists all format specifiers
<i>V</i>	Displays the version of <i>ps</i>

As you can see, the Unix and BSD types of parameters have lots of overlap. Most of the information you can get from one you can also get from the other. Most of the time, you choose a parameter type based on which format you're more comfortable with (for example, if you were used to a BSD environment before using Linux).

When you use the BSD-style parameters, the *ps* command automatically changes the output to simulate the BSD format. Here's an example using the *l* parameter:

```
$ ps l
 F  UID  PID PPID PRI  NI  VSZ  RSS WCHAN  STAT TTY      TIME COMMAND
 0  500 3081 3080  20   0 4692 1432 wait    Ss   pts/0    0:00 -bash
 0  500 5104 3081  20   0 4468  844 -        R+   pts/0    0:00 ps l
$
```

Notice that while many of the output columns are the same as when we used the Unix-style parameters, some different ones appear as well:

- **VSZ:** The size in kilobytes of the process in memory
- **RSS:** The physical memory that a process has used that isn't swapped out
- **STAT:** A two-character state code representing the current process state

Many system administrators like the BSD-style `l` parameter because it produces a more detailed state code for processes (the STAT column). The two-character code more precisely defines exactly what's happening with the process than the single-character Unix-style output.

The first character uses the same values as the Unix-style `S` output column, showing when a process is sleeping, running, or waiting. The second character further defines the process's status:

- `<`: The process is running at high priority.
- `N`: The process is running at low priority.
- `L`: The process has pages locked in memory.
- `s`: The process is a session leader.
- `l`: The process is multi-threaded.
- `+`: The process is running in the foreground.

From the simple example shown previously, you can see that the `bash` command is sleeping, but it is a session leader (it's the main process in my session), whereas the `ps` command was running in the foreground on the system.

### The GNU long parameters

Finally, the GNU developers put their own touches on the new, improved `ps` command by adding a few more options to the parameter mix. Some of the GNU long parameters copy existing Unix- or BSD-style parameters, while others provide new features. Table 4-3 lists the available GNU long parameters.

**TABLE 4-3 The `ps` Command GNU Parameters**

Parameter	Description
<code>--deselect</code>	Shows all processes except those listed in the command line
<code>--Group <i>grplist</i></code>	Shows processes whose group ID is listed in <i>grplist</i>
<code>--User <i>userlist</i></code>	Shows processes whose user ID is listed in <i>userlist</i>
<code>--group <i>grplist</i></code>	Shows processes whose effective group ID is listed in <i>grplist</i>

*Continues*

**TABLE 4-3** (continued)

Parameter	Description
<code>--pid pidlist</code>	Shows processes whose process ID is listed in <i>pidlist</i>
<code>--ppid pidlist</code>	Shows processes whose parent process ID is listed in <i>pidlist</i>
<code>--sid sidlist</code>	Shows processes whose session ID is listed in <i>sidlist</i>
<code>--tty ttylist</code>	Shows processes whose terminal device ID is listed in <i>ttylist</i>
<code>--user userlist</code>	Shows processes whose effective user ID is listed in <i>userlist</i>
<code>--format format</code>	Displays only columns specified in the <i>format</i>
<code>--context</code>	Displays additional security information
<code>--cols n</code>	Sets screen width to <i>n</i> columns
<code>--columns n</code>	Sets screen width to <i>n</i> columns
<code>--cumulative</code>	Includes stopped child process information
<code>--forest</code>	Displays processes in a hierarchical listing showing parent processes
<code>--headers</code>	Repeats column headers on each page of output
<code>--no-headers</code>	Prevents display of column headers
<code>--lines n</code>	Sets the screen height to <i>n</i> lines
<code>--rows n</code>	Sets the screen height to <i>n</i> rows
<code>--sort order</code>	Defines the column(s) to use for sorting the output
<code>--width n</code>	Sets the screen width to <i>n</i> columns
<code>--help</code>	Displays the help information
<code>--info</code>	Displays debugging information
<code>--version</code>	Displays the version of the <i>ps</i> program

You can combine GNU long parameters with either Unix- or BSD-style parameters to really customize your display. One cool feature of GNU long parameters that we really like is the `--forest` parameter. It displays the hierarchical process information, but using ASCII characters to draw cute charts:

```

1981 ?      00:00:00 sshd
3078 ?      00:00:00  \_ sshd
3080 ?      00:00:00    \_ sshd
3081 pts/0   00:00:00      \_ bash
16676 pts/0  00:00:00        \_ ps

```

This format makes tracing child and parent processes a snap!

### Real-time process monitoring

The *ps* command is great for gleaning information about processes running on the system, but it has one drawback. The *ps* command can display information only for a specific point

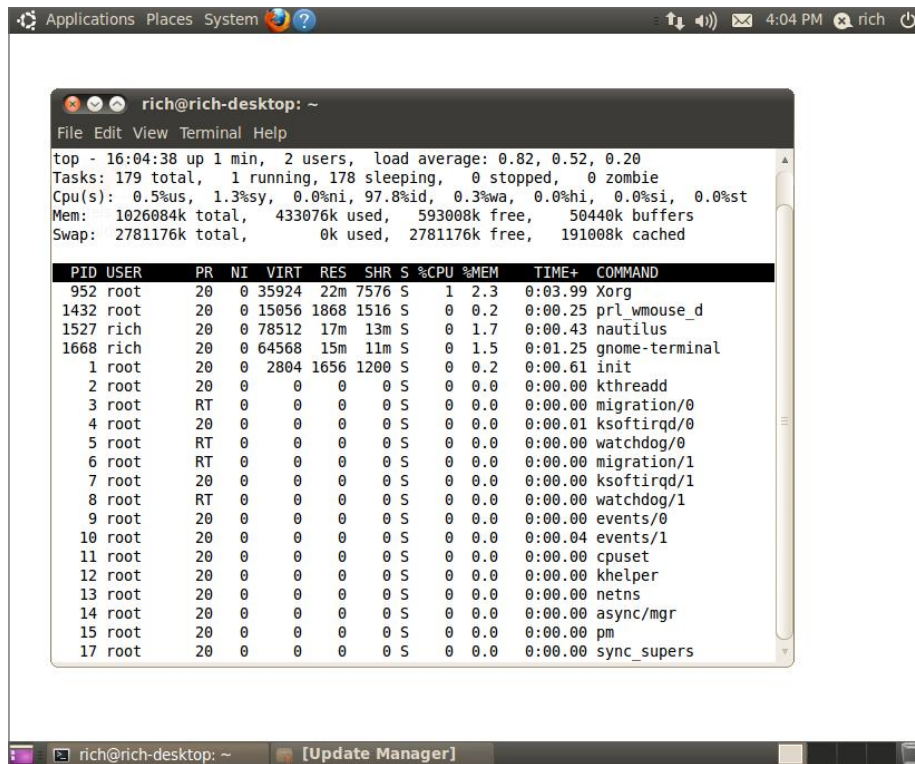


in time. If you're trying to find trends about processes that are frequently swapped in and out of memory, it's hard to do that with the `ps` command.

Instead, the `top` command can solve this problem. The `top` command displays process information similarly to the `ps` command, but it does it in real-time mode. Figure 4-1 is a snapshot of the `top` command in action.

**FIGURE 4-1**

The output of the `top` command while it is running



```

rich@rich-desktop: ~
File Edit View Terminal Help
top - 16:04:38 up 1 min,  2 users,  load average: 0.82, 0.52, 0.20
Tasks: 179 total,  1 running, 178 sleeping,  0 stopped,  0 zombie
Cpu(s):  0.5%us,  1.3%sy,  0.0%ni, 97.8%id,  0.3%wa,  0.0%hi,  0.0%si,  0.0%st
Mem:  1026084k total,  433076k used,  593008k free,  50440k buffers
Swap:  2781176k total,    0k used,  2781176k free,  191008k cached

  PID USER      PR  NI  VIRT  RES  SHR  S  %CPU  %MEM    TIME+  COMMAND
  952 root        20   0 35924  22m 7576 S    1   2.3   0:03.99 Xorg
 1432 root        20   0 15056 1868 1516 S    0   0.2   0:00.25 prl_wmouse_d
 1527 rich        20   0 78512  17m 13m S    0   1.7   0:00.43 nautilus
 1668 rich        20   0 64568  15m 11m S    0   1.5   0:01.25 gnome-terminal
    1 root        20   0  2804  1656 1200 S    0   0.2   0:00.61 init
    2 root        20   0    0    0    0 S    0   0.0   0:00.00 kthreadd
    3 root        20   0    0    0    0 S    0   0.0   0:00.00 migration/0
    4 root        20   0    0    0    0 S    0   0.0   0:00.01 ksoftirqd/0
    5 root        20   0    0    0    0 S    0   0.0   0:00.00 watchdog/0
    6 root        20   0    0    0    0 S    0   0.0   0:00.00 migration/1
    7 root        20   0    0    0    0 S    0   0.0   0:00.00 ksoftirqd/1
    8 root        20   0    0    0    0 S    0   0.0   0:00.00 watchdog/1
    9 root        20   0    0    0    0 S    0   0.0   0:00.00 events/0
   10 root        20   0    0    0    0 S    0   0.0   0:00.04 events/1
   11 root        20   0    0    0    0 S    0   0.0   0:00.00 cpuset
   12 root        20   0    0    0    0 S    0   0.0   0:00.00 khelper
   13 root        20   0    0    0    0 S    0   0.0   0:00.00 netns
   14 root        20   0    0    0    0 S    0   0.0   0:00.00 async/mgr
   15 root        20   0    0    0    0 S    0   0.0   0:00.00 pm
   17 root        20   0    0    0    0 S    0   0.0   0:00.00 sync_supers

```

The first section of the output shows general system information. The first line shows the current time, how long the system has been up, the number of users logged in, and the load average on the system.

The load average appears as three numbers: the 1-minute, 5-minute, and 15-minute load averages. The higher the values, the more load the system is experiencing. It's not uncommon for the 1-minute load value to be high for short bursts of activity. If the 15-minute load value is high, your system may be in trouble.

### NOTE

The trick in Linux system administration is defining what exactly a high load average value is. This value depends on what's normally running on your system and the hardware configuration. What's high for one system might be normal for another. Usually, if your load averages start getting over 2, things are getting busy on your system.

The second line shows general process information (called *tasks* in `top`): how many processes are running, sleeping, stopped, and zombie (have finished but their parent process hasn't responded).

The next line shows general CPU information. The `top` display breaks down the CPU utilization into several categories depending on the owner of the process (user versus system processes) and the state of the processes (running, idle, or waiting).

Following that are two lines that detail the status of the system memory. The first line shows the status of the physical memory in the system, how much total memory there is, how much is currently being used, and how much is free. The second memory line shows the status of the swap memory area in the system (if any is installed), with the same information.

Finally, the next section shows a detailed list of the currently running processes, with some information columns that should look familiar from the `ps` command output:

- **PID:** The process ID of the process
- **USER:** The user name of the owner of the process
- **PR:** The priority of the process
- **NI:** The nice value of the process
- **VIRT:** The total amount of virtual memory used by the process
- **RES:** The amount of physical memory the process is using
- **SHR:** The amount of memory the process is sharing with other processes
- **S:** The process status (D = interruptible sleep, R = running, S = sleeping, T = traced or stopped, or Z = zombie)
- **%CPU:** The share of CPU time that the process is using
- **%MEM:** The share of available physical memory the process is using
- **TIME+:** The total CPU time the process has used since starting
- **COMMAND:** The command line name of the process (program started)

By default, when you start `top`, it sorts the processes based on the `%CPU` value. You can change the sort order by using one of several interactive commands while `top` is running. Each interactive command is a single character that you can press while `top` is running and changes the behavior of the program. Pressing `f` allows you to select the field to use

to sort the output, and pressing `d` allows you to change the polling interval. Press `q` to exit the top display.

You have lots of control over the output of the `top` command. Using this tool, you can often find offending processes that have taken over your system. Of course, after you find one, the next job is to stop it, which brings us to the next topic.

## Stopping processes

A crucial part of being a system administrator is knowing when and how to stop a process. Sometimes, a process gets hung up and needs a gentle nudge to either get going again or stop. Other times, a process runs away with the CPU and refuses to give it up. In both cases, you need a command that allows you to control a process. Linux follows the Unix method of interprocess communication.

In Linux, processes communicate with each other using *signals*. A process signal is a predefined message that processes recognize and may choose to ignore or act on. The developers program how a process handles signals. Most well-written applications have the ability to receive and act on the standard Unix process signals. Table 4-4 shows these signals.

**TABLE 4-4 Linux Process Signals**

Signal	Name	Description
1	HUP	Hangs up
2	INT	Interrupts
3	QUIT	Stops running
9	KILL	Unconditionally terminates
11	SEGV	Produces segment violation
15	TERM	Terminates if possible
17	STOP	Stops unconditionally, but doesn't terminate
18	TSTP	Stops or pauses, but continues to run in background
19	CONT	Resumes execution after STOP or TSTP

Two commands available in Linux allow you to send process signals to running processes.

### The kill command

The `kill` command allows you to send signals to processes based on their process ID (PID). By default, the `kill` command sends a `TERM` signal to all the PIDs listed on the command line. Unfortunately, you can only use the process PID instead of its command name, making the `kill` command difficult to use sometimes.

To send a process signal, you must either be the owner of the process or be logged in as the root user.

```
$ kill 3940
-bash: kill: (3940) - Operation not permitted
$
```

The `TERM` signal tells the process to kindly stop running. Unfortunately, if you have a runaway process, most likely it ignores the request. When you need to get forceful, the `-s` parameter allows you to specify other signals (either using their name or signal number).

As you can see from the following example, no output is associated with the `kill` command.

```
# kill -s HUP 3940
#
```

To see if the command was effective, you must perform another `ps` or `top` command to see if the offending process stopped.

### The `killall` command

The `killall` command is a powerful way to stop processes by using their names rather than the PID numbers. The `killall` command allows you to use wildcard characters as well, making it a very useful tool when you have a system that's gone awry:

```
# killall http*
#
```

This example kills all the processes that start with `http`, such as the `httpd` services for the Apache web server.

### CAUTION

Be extremely careful using the `killall` command when logged in as the root user. It's easy to get carried away with wildcard characters and accidentally stop important system processes. This could lead to a damaged filesystem.

## Monitoring Disk Space

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Another important task of the system administrator is to keep track of the disk usage on the system. Whether you're running a simple Linux desktop or a large Linux server, you need to know how much space you have for your applications.

Some command line commands can help you manage the media environment on your Linux system. This section describes the core commands you'll likely run into during your system administration duties.

## Mounting media

As discussed in Chapter 3, the Linux filesystem combines all media disks into a single virtual directory. Before you can use a new media disk on your system, you must place it in the virtual directory. This task is called *mounting*.

In today's graphical desktop world, most Linux distributions have the ability to automatically mount specific types of *removable media*. A removable media device is a medium that (obviously) can be easily removed from the PC, such as CD-ROMs and USB memory sticks.

If you're not using a distribution that automatically mounts and unmounts removable media, you have to do it yourself. This section describes the Linux command line commands to help you manage your removable media devices.

### The mount command

Oddly enough, the command used to mount media is called `mount`. By default, the `mount` command displays a list of media devices currently mounted on the system:

```
$ mount
/dev/mapper/VolGroup00-LogVol00 on / type ext3 (rw)
proc on /proc type proc (rw)
sysfs on /sys type sysfs (rw)
devpts on /dev/pts type devpts (rw,gid=5,mode=620)
/dev/sda1 on /boot type ext3 (rw)
tmpfs on /dev/shm type tmpfs (rw)
none on /proc/sys/fs/binfmt_misc type binfmt_misc (rw)
sunrpc on /var/lib/nfs/rpc_pipefs type rpc_pipefs (rw)
/dev/sdb1 on /media/disk type vfat
(rw,nosuid,nodev,uhelper=hal,shortname=lower,uid=503)
$
```

The `mount` command provides four pieces of information:

- The device filename of the media
- The mount point in the virtual directory where the media is mounted
- The filesystem type
- The access status of the mounted media

The last entry in the preceding example is a USB memory stick that the GNOME desktop automatically mounted at the `/media/disk` mount point. The `vfat` filesystem type shows that it was formatted on a Microsoft Windows PC.

To manually mount a media device in the virtual directory, you must be logged in as the root user or use the `sudo` command to run the command as the root user. The following is the basic command for manually mounting a media device:

```
mount -t type device directory
```

The `type` parameter defines the filesystem type under which the disk was formatted. Linux recognizes lots of different filesystem types. If you share removable media devices with your Windows PCs, you are most likely to run into these types:

- **vfat:** Windows long filesystem
- **ntfs:** Windows advanced filesystem used in Windows NT, XP, and Vista
- **iso9660:** The standard CD-ROM filesystem

Most USB memory sticks and floppies are formatted using the `vfat` filesystem. If you need to mount a data CD, you must use the `iso9660` filesystem type.

The next two parameters define the location of the device file for the media device and the location in the virtual directory for the mount point. For example, to manually mount the USB memory stick at device `/dev/sdb1` at location `/media/disk`, you use the following command:

```
mount -t vfat /dev/sdb1 /media/disk
```

After a media device is mounted in the virtual directory, the root user has full access to the device, but access by other users is restricted. You can control who has access to the device using directory permissions (discussed in Chapter 7).

In case you need to use some of the more exotic features of the `mount` command, Table 4-5 shows the available parameters .

**TABLE 4-5 The mount Command Parameters**

Parameter	Description
-a	Mounts all filesystems specified in the <code>/etc/fstab</code> file
-f	Causes the mount command to simulate mounting a device, but not actually mount it
-F	Mounts all filesystems at the same time when used with the <code>-a</code> parameter
-v	Explains all the steps required to mount the device; stands for verbose mode
-I	Tells you not to use any filesystem helper files under <code>/sbin/mount. .filesystem</code>
-l	Adds the filesystem labels automatically for <code>ext2</code> , <code>ext3</code> , or <code>XFS</code> filesystems
-n	Mounts the device without registering it in the <code>/etc/mstab</code> mounted device file
-p <i>num</i>	For encrypted mounting, reads the passphrase from the file descriptor <i>num</i>
-s	Ignores mount options not supported by the filesystem
-r	Mounts the device as read-only

<code>-w</code>	Mounts the device as read-write (the default)
<code>-L label</code>	Mounts the device with the specified <i>label</i>
<code>-U uuid</code>	Mounts the device with the specified <i>uuid</i>
<code>-O</code>	When used with the <code>-a</code> parameter, limits the set of filesystems applied
<code>-o</code>	Adds specific options to the filesystem

The `-o` option allows you to mount the filesystem with a comma-separated list of additional options. These are popular options to use:

- `ro`: Mounts as read-only
- `rw`: Mounts as read-write
- `user`: Allows an ordinary user to mount the filesystem
- `check=none`: Mounts the filesystem without performing an integrity check
- `loop`: Mounts a file

### The unmount command

To remove a removable media device, you should never just remove it from the system. Instead, you should always *unmount* it first.

#### Tip

Linux doesn't allow you to eject a mounted CD. If you ever have trouble removing a CD from the drive, most likely it means the CD is still mounted in the virtual directory. Unmount it first, and then try to eject it.

The command used to unmount devices is `umount` (yes, there's no "n" in the command, which gets confusing sometimes). The format for the `umount` command is pretty simple:

```
umount [directory | device ]
```

The `umount` command gives you the choice of defining the media device by either its device location or its mounted directory name. If any program has a file open on a device, the system won't let you unmount it.

```
[root@testbox mnt]# umount /home/rich/mnt
umount: /home/rich/mnt: device is busy
umount: /home/rich/mnt: device is busy
[root@testbox mnt]# cd /home/rich
[root@testbox rich]# umount /home/rich/mnt
[root@testbox rich]# ls -l mnt
total 0
[root@testbox rich]#
```

In this example, the command prompt was still in a directory within the filesystem structure, so the `umount` command couldn't unmount the image file. After the command prompt was moved out of the image file filesystem, the `umount` command successfully unmounted the image file.

### Using the `df` command

Sometimes, you need to see how much disk space is available on an individual device. The `df` command allows you to easily see what's happening on all the mounted disks:

```
$ df
Filesystem            1K-blocks      Used Available Use% Mounted on
/dev/sda2              18251068    7703964   9605024   45% /
/dev/sda1              101086      18680     77187    20% /boot
tmpfs                  119536         0    119536     0% /dev/shm
/dev/sdb1              127462     113892     13570    90% /media/disk
$
```

The `df` command shows each mounted filesystem that contains data. As you can see from the `mount` command earlier, some mounted devices are used for internal system purposes. The command displays the following:

- The device location of the device
- How many 1024-byte blocks of data it can hold
- How many 1024-byte blocks are used
- How many 1024-byte blocks are available
- The amount of used space as a percentage
- The mount point where the device is mounted

A few different command line parameters are available with the `df` command, most of which you'll never use. One popular parameter is `-h`, which shows the disk space in human-readable form, usually as an M for megabytes or a G for gigabytes:

```
$ df -h
Filesystem      Size  Used Avail Use% Mounted on
/dev/sdb2       18G   7.4G   9.2G   45% /
/dev/sda1       99M   19M    76M   20% /boot
tmpfs           117M     0   117M    0% /dev/shm
/dev/sdb1       125M  112M   14M   90% /media/disk
$
```

Now instead of having to decode those ugly block numbers, all the disk sizes are shown using "normal" sizes. The `df` command is invaluable in troubleshooting disk space problems on the system.



**NOTE**

Remember that the Linux system always has processes running in the background that handle files. The values from the `df` command reflect what the Linux system thinks are the current values at that point in time. It's possible that you have a process running that has created or deleted a file but has not released the file yet. This value is not included in the free space calculation.

## Using the `du` command

With the `df` command, you can easily see when a disk is running out of space. The next problem for the system administrator is to know what to do when that happens.

Another useful command to help you is the `du` command. The `du` command shows the disk usage for a specific directory (by default, the current directory). This is a quick way to determine if you have any obvious disk hogs on the system.

By default, the `du` command displays all the files, directories, and subdirectories under the current directory, and it shows how many disk blocks each file or directory takes. For a standard-sized directory, this can be quite a listing. Here's a partial listing of using the `du` command:

```
$ du
484  ./gstreamer-0.10
8    ./Templates
8    ./Download
8    ./ccache/7/0
24   ./ccache/7
368  ./ccache/a/d
384  ./ccache/a
424  ./ccache
8    ./Public
8    ./gphpedit/plugins
32   ./gphpedit
72   ./gconfd
128  ./nautilus/metafiles
384  ./nautilus
72   ./bittorrent/data/metainfo
20   ./bittorrent/data/resume
144  ./bittorrent/data
152  ./bittorrent
8    ./Videos
8    ./Music
16   ./config/gtk-2.0
40   ./config
8    ./Documents
```

The number at the left of each line is the number of disk blocks that each file or directory takes. Notice that the listing starts at the bottom of a directory and works its way up through the files and subdirectories contained within the directory.

The `du` command by itself can be somewhat useless. It's nice to be able to see how much disk space each individual file and directory takes up, but it can be meaningless when you have to wade through pages and pages of information before you find what you're looking for.

You can use a few command line parameters with the `du` command to make things a little more legible:

- `-c`: Produces a grand total of all the files listed
- `-h`: Prints sizes in human-readable form, using K for kilobyte, M for megabyte, and G for gigabyte
- `-s`: Summarizes each argument

The next step for the system administrator is to use some file-handling commands for manipulating large amounts of data. That's exactly what the next section covers.

## Working with Data Files

---

When you have a large amount of data, handling the information and making it useful can be difficult. As you saw with the `du` command in the previous section, it's easy to get data overload when working with system commands.

The Linux system provides several command line tools to help you manage large amounts of data. This section covers the basic commands that every system administrator — as well as any everyday Linux user — should know how to use to make their lives easier.

### Sorting data

The `sort` command is a popular function that comes in handy when working with large amounts of data. The `sort` command does what it says: It sorts data.

By default, the `sort` command sorts the data lines in a text file using standard sorting rules for the language you specify as the default for the session.

```
$ cat file1
one
two
three
four
```

```
five
$ sort file1
five
four
one
three
two
$
```

It's pretty simple, but things aren't always as easy as they appear. Look at this example:

```
$ cat file2
1
2
100
45
3
10
145
75
$ sort file2
1
10
100
145
2
3
45
75
$
```

If you were expecting the numbers to sort in numerical order, you were disappointed. By default, the `sort` command interprets numbers as characters and performs a standard character sort, producing output that might not be what you want. To solve this problem, use the `-n` parameter, which tells the `sort` command to recognize numbers as numbers instead of characters and to sort them based on their numerical values:

```
$ sort -n file2
1
2
3
10
45
75
100
145
$
```

Now, that's much better! Another common parameter that's used is `-M`, the month sort. Linux log files usually contain a timestamp at the beginning of the line to indicate when the event occurred:

```
Sep 13 07:10:09 testbox smartd[2718]: Device: /dev/sda, opened
```

If you sort a file that uses timestamp dates using the default sort, you get something like this:

```
$ sort file3
Apr
Aug
Dec
Feb
Jan
Jul
Jun
Mar
May
Nov
Oct
Sep
$
```

It's not exactly what you wanted. If you use the `-M` parameter, the sort command recognizes the three-character month nomenclature and sorts appropriately:

```
$ sort -M file3
Jan
Feb
Mar
Apr
May
Jun
Jul
Aug
Sep
Oct
Nov
Dec
$
```

Table 4-6 shows other handy sort parameters you can use.

**TABLE 4-6 The sort Command Parameters**

Single Dash	Double Dash	Description
-b	--ignore-leading-blanks	Ignores leading blanks when sorting
-C	--check = quiet	Doesn't sort, but doesn't report if data is out of sort order
-c	--check	Doesn't sort, but checks if the input data is already sorted, and reports if not sorted
-d	--dictionary-order	Considers only blanks and alphanumeric characters; doesn't consider special characters
-f	--ignore-case	By default, sort orders capitalized letters first; ignores case
-g	--general-numeric-sort	Uses general numerical value to sort
-i	--ignore-nonprinting	Ignores nonprintable characters in the sort
-k	--key = POS1[,POS2]	Sorts based on position POS1, and ends at POS2 if specified
-M	--month-sort	Sorts by month order using three-character month names
-m	--merge	Merges two already sorted data files
-n	--numeric-sort	Sorts by string numerical value
-o	--output = <i>file</i>	Writes results to file specified
-R	--random-sort	Sorts by a random hash of keys
	--random-source = <i>FILE</i>	Specifies the file for random bytes used by the -R parameter
-r	--reverse	Reverses the sort order (descending instead of ascending)
-S	--buffer-size = <i>SIZE</i>	Specifies the amount of memory to use
-s	--stable	Disables last-resort comparison
-T	--temporary-direction = <i>DIR</i>	Specifies a location to store temporary working files
-t	--field-separator = <i>SEP</i>	Specifies the character used to distinguish key positions
-u	--unique	With the -c parameter, checks for strict ordering; without the -c parameter, outputs only the first occurrence of two similar lines
-z	--zero-terminated	Ends all lines with a NULL character instead of a new line

The `-k` and `-t` parameters are handy when sorting data that uses fields, such as the `/etc/passwd` file. Use the `-t` parameter to specify the field separator character, and use the `-k` parameter to specify which field to sort on. For example, to sort the password file based on numerical userid, just do this:

```
$ sort -t ':' -k 3 -n /etc/passwd
root:x:0:0:root:/root:/bin/bash
bin:x:1:1:bin:/bin:/sbin/nologin
daemon:x:2:2:daemon:/sbin:/sbin/nologin
adm:x:3:4:adm:/var/adm:/sbin/nologin
lp:x:4:7:lp:/var/spool/lpd:/sbin/nologin
sync:x:5:0:sync:/sbin:/bin/sync
shutdown:x:6:0:shutdown:/sbin:/sbin/shutdown
halt:x:7:0:halt:/sbin:/sbin/halt
mail:x:8:12:mail:/var/spool/mail:/sbin/nologin
news:x:9:13:news:/etc/news:
uucp:x:10:14:uucp:/var/spool/uucp:/sbin/nologin
operator:x:11:0:operator:/root:/sbin/nologin
games:x:12:100:games:/usr/games:/sbin/nologin
gopher:x:13:30:gopher:/var/gopher:/sbin/nologin
ftp:x:14:50:FTP User:/var/ftp:/sbin/nologin
```

Now the data is perfectly sorted based on the third field, which is the numerical userid value.

The `-n` parameter is great for sorting numerical outputs, such as the output of the `du` command:

```
$ du -sh * | sort -nr
1008k  mrtg-2.9.29.tar.gz
972k   bldg1
888k   fbs2.pdf
760k   Printtest
680k   rsync-2.6.6.tar.gz
660k   code
516k   fig1001.tiff
496k   test
496k   php-common-4.0.4pl1-6mdk.i586.rpm
448k   MesaGLUT-6.5.1.tar.gz
400k   plp
```

Notice that the `-r` option also sorts the values in descending order, so you can easily see what files are taking up the most space in your directory.

### NOTE

The pipe command (`|`) used in this example redirects the output of the `du` command to the `sort` command. That's discussed in more detail in Chapter 11.

## Searching for data

Often in a large file, you must look for a specific line of data buried somewhere in the middle of the file. Instead of manually scrolling through the entire file, you can let the `grep` command search for you. The command line format for the `grep` command is:

```
grep [options] pattern [file]
```

The `grep` command searches either the input or the file you specify for lines that contain characters that match the specified pattern. The output from `grep` is the lines that contain the matching pattern.

Here are two simple examples of using the `grep` command with the `file1` file used in the “Sorting data” section:

```
$ grep three file1
three
$ grep t file1
two
three
$
```

The first example searches the file `file1` for text matching the pattern *three*. The `grep` command produces the line that contains the matching pattern. The next example searches the file `file1` for the text matching the pattern *t*. In this case, two lines matched the specified pattern, and both are displayed.

Because of the popularity of the `grep` command, it has undergone lots of development changes over its lifetime. Lots of features have been added to the `grep` command. If you look over the man pages for the `grep` command, you’ll see how versatile it really is.

If you want to reverse the search (output lines that don’t match the pattern), use the `-v` parameter:

```
$ grep -v t file1
one
four
five
$
```

If you need to find the line numbers where the matching patterns are found, use the `-n` parameter:

```
$ grep -n t file1
2:two
3:three
$
```

If you just need to see a count of how many lines contain the matching pattern, use the `-c` parameter:

```
$ grep -c t file1
2
$
```

If you need to specify more than one matching pattern, use the `-e` parameter to specify each individual pattern:

```
$ grep -e t -e f file1
two
three
four
five
$
```

This example outputs lines that contain either the string `t` or the string `f`.

By default, the `grep` command uses basic Unix-style regular expressions to match patterns. A Unix-style regular expression uses special characters to define how to look for matching patterns.

For a more detailed explanation of regular expressions, see Chapter 20.

Here's a simple example of using a regular expression in a `grep` search:

```
$ grep [tf] file1
two
three
four
five
$
```

The square brackets in the regular expression indicate that `grep` should look for matches that contain either a `t` or an `f` character. Without the regular expression, `grep` would search for text that would match the string `tf`.

The `egrep` command is an offshoot of `grep`, which allows you to specify POSIX extended regular expressions, which contain more characters for specifying the matching pattern (again, see Chapter 20 for more details). The `fgrep` command is another version that allows you to specify matching patterns as a list of fixed-string values, separated by newline characters. This allows you to place a list of strings in a file and then use that list in the `fgrep` command to search for the strings in a larger file.

## Compressing data

If you've done any work in the Microsoft Windows world, no doubt you've used zip files. It became such a popular feature that Microsoft eventually incorporated it into the Windows



operating system starting with XP. The `zip` utility allows you to easily compress large files (both text and executable) into smaller files that take up less space.

Linux contains several file compression utilities. Although this may sound great, it often leads to confusion and chaos when trying to download files. Table 4-7 lists the file compression utilities available for Linux.

**TABLE 4-7 Linux File Compression Utilities**

Utility	File Extension	Description
<code>bzip2</code>	<code>.bz2</code>	Uses the Burrows-Wheeler block sorting text compression algorithm and Huffman coding
<code>compress</code>	<code>.Z</code>	Original Unix file compression utility; starting to fade away into obscurity
<code>gzip</code>	<code>.gz</code>	The GNU Project's compression utility; uses Lempel-Ziv coding
<code>zip</code>	<code>.zip</code>	The Unix version of the PKZIP program for Windows

The `compress` file compression utility is not often found on Linux systems. If you download a file with a `.Z` extension, you can usually install the `compress` package (called `ncompress` in many Linux distributions) using the software installation methods discussed in Chapter 9 and then uncompress the file with the `uncompress` command. The `gzip` utility is the most popular compression tool used in Linux.

The `gzip` package is a creation of the GNU Project, in their attempt to create a free version of the original Unix `compress` utility. This package includes these files:

- `gzip` for compressing files
- `gzcat` for displaying the contents of compressed text files
- `gunzip` for uncompressing files

These utilities work the same way as the `bzip2` utilities:

```
$ gzip myprog
$ ls -l my*
-rwxrwxr-x 1 rich rich 2197 2007-09-13 11:29 myprog.gz
$
```

The `gzip` command compresses the file you specify on the command line. You can also specify more than one filename or even use wildcard characters to compress multiple files at once:

```
$ gzip my*
$ ls -l my*
```

```
-rwxr--r--  1 rich  rich      103 Sep  6 13:43 myprog.c.gz
-rwxr-xr-x  1 rich  rich     5178 Sep  6 13:43 myprog.gz
-rwxr--r--  1 rich  rich      59 Sep  6 13:46 myscript.gz
-rwxr--r--  1 rich  rich      60 Sep  6 13:44 myscript2.gz
$
```

The `gzip` command compresses every file in the directory that matches the wildcard pattern.

## Archiving data

Although the `zip` command works great for compressing and archiving data into a single file, it's not the standard utility used in the Unix and Linux worlds. By far the most popular archiving tool used in Unix and Linux is the `tar` command.

The `tar` command was originally used to write files to a tape device for archiving. However, it can also write the output to a file, which has become a popular way to archive data in Linux.

The following is the format of the `tar` command:

```
tar function [options] object1 object2 ...
```

The function parameter defines what the `tar` command should do, as shown in Table 4-8.

**TABLE 4-8 The tar Command Functions**

Function	Long Name	Description
-A	--concatenate	Appends an existing tar archive file to another existing tar archive file
-c	--create	Creates a new tar archive file
-d	--diff	Checks the differences between a tar archive file and the filesystem
	--delete	Deletes from an existing tar archive file
-r	--append	Appends files to the end of an existing tar archive file
-t	--list	Lists the contents of an existing tar archive file
-u	--update	Appends files to an existing tar archive file that are newer than a file with the same name in the existing archive
-x	--extract	Extracts files from an existing archive file

Each function uses *options* to define a specific behavior for the tar archive file. Table 4-9 lists the common options that you can use with the `tar` command.

**TABLE 4-9 The tar Command Options**

Option	Description
<code>-C dir</code>	Changes to the specified directory
<code>-f file</code>	Outputs results to file (or device) <i>file</i>
<code>-j</code>	Redirects output to the <code>bzip2</code> command for compression
<code>-p</code>	Preserves all file permissions
<code>-v</code>	Lists files as they are processed
<code>-z</code>	Redirects the output to the <code>gzip</code> command for compression

These options are usually combined to create the following scenarios. First, you want to create an archive file using this command:

```
tar -cvf test.tar test/ test2/
```

The above command creates an archive file called `test.tar` containing the contents of both the `test` directory and the `test2` directory. Next, this command:

```
tar -tf test.tar
```

lists (but doesn't extract) the contents of the tar file `test.tar`. Finally, this command:

```
tar -xvf test.tar
```

extracts the contents of the tar file `test.tar`. If the tar file was created from a directory structure, the entire directory structure is re-created starting at the current directory.

As you can see, using the `tar` command is a simple way to create archive files of entire directory structures. This is a common method for distributing source code files for open source applications in the Linux world.

### Tip

If you download open source software, often you see filenames that end in `.tgz`. These are `gzipped tar` files, which can be extracted using the command `tar -zxvf filename.tgz`.

## Summary

This chapter discussed some of the more advanced bash commands used by Linux system administrators and programmers. The `ps` and `top` commands are vital in determining the status of the system, allowing you to see what applications are running and how many resources they are consuming.

In this day of removable media, another popular topic for system administrators is mounting storage devices. The `mount` command allows you to mount a physical storage device into the Linux virtual directory structure. To remove the device, use the `umount` command.

Finally, the chapter discussed various utilities used for handling data. The `sort` utility easily sorts large data files to help you organize data, and the `grep` utility allows you to quickly scan through large data files looking for specific information. Several file compression utilities are available in Linux, including `gzip` and `zip`. Each one allows you to compress large files to help save space on your filesystem. The Linux `tar` utility is a popular way to archive directory structures into a single file that can easily be ported to another system.

The next chapter discusses Linux shells and how to interact with them. Linux allows you to communicate between shells, which can come in handy when creating subshells in your scripts.