

Find Files and Do Stuff with GNU find

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Introduction

I can still remember how my first encounter with the find command infused a considerable amount of «shock and awe» in me. This had all the looks of certainly not going to be an easy command to learn! Over the years, I painstakingly gathered a number find recipes which eventually led to the inception of this article.

Nowadays, I find find hardly difficult. Writing this article helped a lot in getting a feel for find. Knowing that I can always fall back on this recipe collection certainly also strengthened my present day confidence.

Are you equally interested in becoming a find guru?

Now, do yourself a favour and have a quick look at man find.

Done? Let us continue then with some examples for fun and profit...

When not to use find

Gain speed with locate

When looking for a hard to find file or directory that already exists for some while on your drive, do not use find but use locate instead.

\$ locate filename

The reason is queries with locate execute much faster than with find. Unlike find, locate uses a previously created database to perform the search. This database is updated periodically from cron. Nevertheless, there are many instances where the use of find is required, albeit because find offers an -exec clause. Numerous examples are given below.

Unleash the power of globstar

Here is a real-life example where I unleashed the power of globstar. The Xubuntu icon would not appear on the XFCE application menu after installing Xubuntu on a system which already had a /home directory made by a preceding XFCE distribution that lost my favour. I knew the icon file name would start with xu, end in .png and that it would be located somewhere in the "unique system resources" folder named /usr.

Finding this file with find would require a rather intricate regular expression. However, things turn out much simpler when you uncomment or add shopt -s globstar in ~/.bashrc. Now you can do the following:

```
$ cd /usr
/usr $ locate **/xu*.png
/usr $ ls **/xu*.png
```

Both commands yielded precisely nine full file paths on my system, among which the desired /usr/share/pixmaps/xubuntu-logo-menu.png. Interestingly, the brute-force ls happens to be almost 36% faster than the database look-up of locate:

```
/usr $ time locate **/xu*.png
4.2s
/usr $ time ls **/xu*.png
2.7s
```

Rename multiple files

Multiple files can be renamed by specifying a regular expression for string substation. This requires first installing the rename command.

```
$ sudo apt install rename
$ rename 's/xenial/bionic/' *
```

List only hidden files & directories in the current directory

```
$ ls -d .*
```

As a long list:

```
$ ls -dl .*
```

Stricter, without . nor . . :

```
$ ls -dl .!(|.)
```

List any text file containing a specific string

This can be done with a recursive grep command. Notice the uncharacteristic small case -r. A capital -R will also follow symbolic links. Do not add any file specification like *.txt because then grep will come up only with files in the current directory; not with those in subdirectories. If wildcard searches are required, use find instead (see below). Otherwise, grep -r will search only in the working directory!

```
$ grep -r 'class="fixed"'
```

List

List specific text files containing a specific string

If you are indifferent to the text file name pattern, use <code>grep -r</code> instead. If not, the following command lists the path and name of text files ending in .desktop and containing the text searchstring:

```
$ find . -name '*.desktop' -exec grep -l searchstring {} \;
```

To avoid surprises, always use **single quotes** around find arguments containing **wildcards**.

The option -l suppresses the normal output of grep and prints the file names with matches instead. Instead, use option -H if both the file name and the found string in its context needs to be shown.

```
$ find . -name '*.desktop' -exec grep -H searchstring {} \;
```

Find files without descending into directories

With -maxdepth 1, find will not descend into underlying directories.

```
$ find . -maxdepth 1 -type f -name '*.md'
```

Find and list directories

The following command will find all directories called doc, print their name preceded by an empty line and list their contents in a detailed, human-readable format. This example also shows how multiple commands can be executed with find by adding an -exec for each command.

```
\ find . -iname doc -exec echo -e \\n{} \; -exec ls -lh {} \;
```

Count

Recursively count files except hidden ones

```
$ find . -type f -not -path '*/\.*' |wc -l
```

Count directories

Finally, a little extra about listing and counting only directories —and nothing else— in the current directory. By now, you might think you would need find for that. Surprisingly, ls and wc will do just fine. List only directories in the current folder with

```
$ ls -dl */
```

Piping through wc -1 will count the number of lines printed by the preceding list command.

```
$ ls -dl */ |wc -l
```

File operations

Remove many files

As strange as it may sound, rm * has its limits as for the number of files that it may delete. Upon hitting this limit, the rm command will complain along the lines of:

```
-bash: /usr/bin: Argument list too long
```

Luckily, in situations like this, the find command comes to the rescue.

```
$ sudo find . -type f -delete
```

If, for example, more than one file extension is targeted, use the or flag -0 between escaped parentheses (and):

```
$ sudo find . -type f \( -iname '*.jar' -o -iname '*.zip' \) -delete
```

Copy found files to another directory

Here is an example of searching files with hf in the file name and copying those to a directory called hf/. Matching file names in both the current and subdirectories will be found.

```
$ find . -type f -iname '*hf*' -print -exec cp {} hf/ \;
```

Rename files recursively

Here is a convoluted example which finds all files ending in _a4.pdf and renames them to ending in .a4.pdf. Note that using multiple -exec additions would not work here. Instead, one resorts to a single -exec sh -c '...\$1...' _ {} \;.

```
$ find . -name '*_a4.pdf' -exec sh -c 'mv "$1" "$(echo "$1" |sed
s/_a4.pdf\$/.a4.pdf/)"' _ {} \;
```

Add an echo in front of the my to test out the command first:

```
$ find . -name '*_a4.pdf' -exec sh -c 'echo mv "$1" "$(echo "$1" |sed
s/_a4.pdf\$/.a4.pdf/)"' _ {} \;
```

Replace a string in text files recursively

Example: Ansible

In this example, the text sting include: needs to be replaced with import_tasks: recursively in all YAML files of an Ansible directory structure.

A test with grep is performed first to see what would be captured:

```
$ find . -type f -name '*.yml' -readable -writable -exec grep include: {} \;
```

Then, proceed with a sed dry run. The sed option -n is a synonym for --quiet and the p at the very end of the sed expression will print the current pattern space.

```
$ find . -type f -name '*.yml' -readable -writable -exec sed -n
's/include:/import_tasks:/gp' {} \;
```

If everything looks fine, execute the definitive command by replacing sed option -n by -i for "in place." Furthermore, the p at the end should be removed. Failing to do so would result in lines being replaced twice.

```
$ find . -type f -name '*.yml' -readable -writable -exec sed -i
's/include:/import_tasks:/g' {} \;
```

Example: M3U playlists

The DeaDBeeF music player, saves .m3u playlist files with absolute file path references. This renders such playlists useless on any other device with a differing file system. Below command will recursively find all .m3u playlist files and render their file path references relative:

```
$ find . -type f -name '*.m3u' -readable -writable -exec sed -i 's|.*/||' {}
\;
```

Note that the vertical bar | is merely used as a delimiter here, replacing the usual forward slash /. The latter cannot be readily employed because it constitutes the target.

Example: ATX-style Markdown headers

Since the advent of pandoc version 2, ATX-style headers require an additional space to be inserted right after hashes signalling a Markdown header. The Markdown source files of this very site were automatically adapted, all at once, by executing the following command:

```
$ find . -type f -name '*.md' -readable -writable -exec sed -i
's|\(^##*\)\([^# \.]\)|\1 \2|' {} \;
```

The sed subcommand is explained as follows:

- -i edits the markdown file 'in place.'
- s|...|...| is a single substitution per line.
- Each \(...\) denotes a part in the search expression.
- \1 and \2 refer to the first, respectively, second part of the search expression.
- ^##* means that the line should start ^ with one hash #, followed by zero or more hashes #*.
- The second search sequence part should start neither with a hash, space nor period [^# \.].

Note that a simpler sed -i 's|^##*|& |' would still insert a space, even when there is already a space behind the starting hash sequence.

Example: Ubuntu PPAs

In this example, the distribution name in custom Ubuntu private package archive (PPA) repositories needs to be updated from xenial to bionic. This needs to be performed with sudo privileges in the directory /etc/apt/sources.list.d/.

A test with grep is performed first to see what would be captured:

```
$ cd /etc/apt/sources.list.d/
$ sudo find . -type f -readable -writable -exec grep xenial {} \;
```

Now, proceed with a sed dry run. The sed option -n is a synonym for --quiet and the p at the very end of the sed expression will print the current pattern space.

```
$ sudo find . -type f -readable -writable -exec sed -n 's/xenial/bionic/gp'
{} \;
```

If everything looks fine, execute the definitive command by replacing sed option -n by -i for "in place." Furthermore, the p at the end should be removed. Failing to do so would result in lines being replaced twice.

```
\ sudo find . -type f -readable -writable -exec sed -i 's/xenial/bionic/g' \{\}\ \backslash;
```

Finally, use the rename command (as previously explained) to rename the multiple /etc/apt/sources.list.d/ files.

```
$ sudo apt install rename
$ sudo rename 's/xenial/bionic/' *
```

Permissions

Change ownership recursively

If not too many files and folders are involved this can be done using chown -R recursively:

```
$ sudo chown -R serge:family foldername
```

Otherwise, use:

```
$ sudo find . -print -exec chown serge:family {} \;
```

Change top-level non-hidden directory permissions

```
$ find . -maxdepth 1 -type d -name '[!.]*' -print -exec chmod 770 {} \;
```

Change directory permissions recursively

From time to time, I am still tempted to make the naive mistake of recursively changing the permissions of entire directory trees with chmod -R 770 *. This is plain wrong of course, as files within the sub-directories will also be made executable. The end result is a major security issue.

The correct way of tackling this problem is:

```
$ sudo find . -type d -print -exec chmod 770 {} \;
```

Change file permissions recursively

Similar to the previous code snippet, but then for files. Again, one cannot simply do chmod -R 640 *, as this would render directories unbrowsable because of a failing execution bit.

```
$ sudo find . -type f -print -exec chmod 640 {} \;
```

Prevent others from deleting files in your folder

Sticky bit

If on a shared drive, a directory get its *sticky bit* set, it becomes an append-only directory. Putting it more accurately; it becomes a directory in which files may only be removed or renamed by a user if the user has write permission for the directory *and* the user is also the owner of the file, the owner of the directory, or root.

Without the directory *sticky bit*, any user with group write and execute permissions for the directory can rename or delete files, even when that user is not the owner of those files. With the directory *sticky bit* set, only the owner can delete or rename his or her files. However, other users with write permissions are still allowed to edit files they do not own residing in *sticky bit* folders.

A *sticky bit* on files is of no relevance to the Linux kernel.

The *sticky bit* is set either with chmod +t or by adding the octal value 1000 to the usual octal absolute mode number:

```
$ sudo find . -type d -print -exec chmod 1770 {} \;
```

A directory which is executable by the others class, and which has the *sticky* bit set, will have the final x changed to a lower case t when listed by ls -1:

```
drwxrwxrwx → drwxrwxrwt
```

A directory which is not executable by the others class, but with the *sticky bit* set, will have the final - changed to a capital T when listed by ls -1:

```
drwxrwx--- → drwxrwx--T
```

Let new subdirectories & files inherit the group ID

Setting the sticky bit to a directory will become even more useful when newly created files and subdirectories inside that directory would automatically inherent the same group ownership of this parent directory. This can be achieved by *setting the group ID upon execution* (setgid or SGID) to any such parent directory. Simply add the octal value 2000 to the usual octal absolute mode number of any parent directory or use chmod g+s:

```
$ sudo find . -type d -print -exec chmod 2770 {} \;
```

Setting the *sticky bit* and setgid can be combined by adding the octal value 3000 instead:

```
$ sudo find . -type d -print -exec chmod 3770 {} \;
```

However, inheritance of group ownership will only occur when the creator of any new file or subdirectory is also a member of that group. Furthermore, inheriting the sticky bit of a parent directory is unfortunately not possible.

Caveat: One does not want to set the group ID upon execution for files, because that might render these executable by the others class; i.e. the whole world.

A directory which is executable by the others class, and which has both the *sticky bit* and the *SGID* set, will have the group x changed to a lower case s and the final x changed to a lower case t when listed by ls -l:

```
drwxrwxrwx → drwxrwsrwt
```

A directory which is not executable by the others class, but with both the *sticky bit* and the *SGID* set, will have the group x changed to a lower case s and the final - changed to a capital T when listed by ls -1:

```
drwxrwx--- → drwxrws--T
```

Caveat: As outlined above, newly created subdirectories will inherit the group ID through setgid. However, **newly created subdirectories cannot inherit the sticky bit from their parent directory.** Personally, I consider this a GNU/Linux deficiency.

Directories without the sticky bit can be found with below statement whereby the hyphen - in front of the value 1000 should be considered as a prefix which will match this and higher permission values.

```
$ find . -type d \! -perm -1000
```

The goal is to set the sticky bit and setgid of those directories which parent directory has the sticky bit set. That would call for a nested find statement, if it were not that find statements cannot be nested. This is why rather a pipe with a recursive conditional will be employed on the directories found without a sticky bit. The -k test returns true if the sticky bit —in this case, of the parent directory— is set.

```
$ find . -type d \! -perm -1000 |while read d; do if [[ -k "$d/.." ]]; then
chmod +t,g+s "$d"; fi; done
```

It might also be handy to overwrite the mkcd command.

Modification date

Find files modified after a date

```
$ find . -type f -newermt 2017-06-19
```

Find recently modified files recursively

Hidden paths (i.e. directories or files) are ignored using -not -path '*/\.*'. If only hidden files but no hidden directories are to be ignored, use -name '[!.]*' instead. More files are returned by changing the number at the end of the |head -n 10 pipe.

```
$ find . -type f -not -path '*/\.*' -printf '%TY.%Tm.%Td %THh%TM %Ta %p\n'
|sort -nr |head -n 10
2017.01.28 07h27 Sat ./find/en/index.html
2017.01.28 07h27 Sat ./find/en/find.md
2017.01.28 07h00 Sat ./propagation/en/propagation.md
2017.01.27 11h26 Fri ./propagation/images/owf.svg
2017.01.27 11h24 Fri ./propagation/en/index.html
```

Find recently modified directories recursively

Permission denied error messages are filtered out. More directories are returned by changing the number at the end of the |head -n 10 pipe.

```
\ { find . -type d -not -path '*/\.*' -printf '%TY.%Tm.%Td %THh%TM %Ta %p\n' 2> >(grep -v 'Permission denied' >&2); } |sort -nr |head -n 10
```

Find more recent files

Calling find with the -newer now will return objects that have been more recently modified than the file called now.

```
$ touch now
$ find . -type f -newer now
```

Empty

Find empty files

There are two ways to go about this:

```
$ find . -type f -name '*.bib' -empty
$ find . -type f -name '*.bib' -size 0
```

Find and delete empty files

Again, use either the -empty or -size 0 command option.

```
$ find . -type f -name '*.bib' -empty -delete
$ find . -type f -name '*.bib' -size 0 -delete
```

Add the -ok option to approve every deletion on a file by file basis.

Symbolic links

Find symbolic links

```
$ find . -type l
```

Detailed listing of what find found

Continuing from the previous example:

```
$ find . -type l -ls
```

This will print all details about the found symbolic links, including their target.

Find symbolic links to a specific target

```
$ find . -lname link_target
```

Note that link_target may contain wildcard characters.

Find broken symbolic links

```
$ find -L . -type l -ls
```

The -L option instructs find to follow symbolic links, unless when broken.

Find & replace broken symbolic links

```
$ find -L . -type l -delete -exec ln -s new_target {} \;
```

Create a site map

To promote a website, it is a good idea to creating a site map. This will inform web search engines about the URLs that are available for web crawling. In it its simplest form, such a site map may take the form of a plain text file.

At first instance, I am only interested in mentioning my English language pages which, in my particular case, have a file path '*/en/*.html'. Hence, find is required to search on full paths. This is achieved with the command line option -wholename.

Furthermore, find should also output full paths. For this to happen, find's first argument should be a full path. Lazy as we are, the command \$(pwd) is used as the first argument.

To finish off, a piped sed command will convert the full paths to fully qualified URLs. The piped sort command is merely to keep humans happy.

```
$ cd /home/serge/public_html/hamwaves.com/
find $(pwd) -wholename '*/en/*.html' |sed
's|^/home/serge/public_html/|https://|' |sort > sitemap.txt
```

Find directories with a makefile link

On rare occasions, all pages on this website need to be rebuilt. This happens normally only for structural maintenance purposes; e.g. when the text at the bottom of each page changes. The following command finds all directories containing a symbolic link called makefile and runs the make command there.

```
$ find . -type l -name makefile -exec sh -c 'make --always-make --
directory=$(dirname {})' \;
```

Find Hg Mercurial repositories to update

The initial -exec echo \; is only there to keep the output clean.

```
\ find . -type d -iname .hg -exec echo \; -exec hg pull -u -R \{\}/..\
```

Character encoding

List the character encoding of text files

```
$ find . -type f -iname '*.txt' -exec file -i {} \;
```

Change the character encoding of text files to UTF-8

The character encoding of all matching text files gets detected automatically and all matching text files are converted to utf-8 encoding:

```
$ sudo apt install dos2unix
$ find . -type f -iname '*.txt' -exec sh -c 'iconv -f $(file -bi "$1" |sed
-e "s/.*[ ]charset=//") -t utf-8 -o /tmp/converted "$1" && mv /tmp/converted
"$1" && dos2unix "$1"' -- {} \;
```

First, ensure that dos2unix is installed on the system. In the find command, a sub shell sh is used with -exec, running a one-liner with the -c flag. Evoking -- {} at the end of the find command passes the filename as the positional argument "\$1". In between, the utf-8 output file is temporarily saved as /tmp/converted. Finally, dos2unix removes any DOS ^M carriage returns, leaving only line feeds for Unix-like systems. The whole one-liner can be used as it is in a shell script.



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Unattended CSS typesetting with $\frac{\text{Prince}}{\text{CSS}}$.

This work is published at https://hamwaves.com/find/en/.

Last update: Monday, March 1, 2021.