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ADVANCE SHELL SCRIPTING

CREATING FUNCTIONS

Creating a function

- The first format uses the keyword `function`, along with the function name you assign to the block of code:
- The Second Format:

```
function name {  
  commands  
}
```

```
name() {  
  commands  
}
```

Using functions

```
#!/bin/bash  
# using a function in a script  
function func1 {  
  echo "This is an example of a function"  
}  
count=1  
while [ $count -le 5 ]  
do  
  func1  
  count=$(( $count + 1 )  
done  
echo "This is the end of the loop"  
func1  
echo "Now this is the end of the script"
```

Function must have a Unique name

```
#!/bin/bash
```

```
# testing using a duplicate  
function name
```

```
function func1 {  
    echo "This is the first definition of  
    the function name"  
}  
func1
```

```
function func1 {  
    echo "This is a repeat of the  
    same function name"  
}  
func1
```

```
echo "This is the end of the  
script"
```

- If you redefine a function, the new definition will override the original function definition, without producing any error messages

RETURNING A VALUE

The default exit status

- By default, the exit status of a function is the exit status returned by the last command in the function. After the function executes, you use the standard `$?` variable to determine the exit status of the function:

```
#!/bin/bash
# testing the exit status of a function
func1() {
    echo "trying to display a non-existent file"
    ls -l badfile
}
echo "testing the function:"
func1
echo "The exit status is: $?"
```

Using the return command

```
#!/bin/bash
# using the return command in a function
```

```
function dbl {
    read -p "Enter a value: " value
    echo "doubling the value"
    return $[ $value * 2 ]
}
```

```
dbl
echo "The new value is $?"
```

Remember

- You must be careful though when using this technique to return a value from a function.
There are two things that can cause problems:
 - Remember to retrieve the return value as soon as the function completes.
 - Remember that an exit status can only be in the range of 0 to 255.

Using function output

- You can use this technique to retrieve any type of output from a function to assign to a variable:

- `result='dbl'`

Example

```
#!/bin/bash
# using the echo to return a value
function dbl {
    read -p "Enter a value: " value
    echo $[ $value * 2 ]
}
result=`dbl`
echo "The new value is $result"
```

Passing parameters to a function

- Functions can use the standard parameter environment variables to represent any parameters passed to the function on the command line.
- For example, the name of the function is defined in the **\$0** variable, and any parameters on the function command line are defined using the variables **\$1**, **\$2**, and so on.

Example

```
#!/bin/bash
# passing parameters to a function
function addem {
    if [ $# -eq 0 ] || [ $# -gt 2 ]
    then
        echo -1
    elif [ $# -eq 1 ]
    then
        echo $[ $1 + $1 ]
    else
        echo $[ $1 + $2 ]
    fi
}
echo -n "Adding 10 and 15:"
value=`addem 10 15`
echo $value
```

```
echo -n "Let's try adding just one
number: "
value=`addem 10`
echo $value
echo -n "Now trying adding no
numbers: "
value=`addem`
echo $value
echo -n "Finally, try adding three
numbers: "
value=`addem 10 15 20`
echo $value
```

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A Point

- Since the function uses the special parameter environment variables for its own parameter values, it can't directly access the script parameter values from the command line of the script.

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Example

```
#!/bin/bash
# trying to access script parameters inside a function
function badfunc1 {
    echo $[ $1 * $2 ]
}
if [ $# -eq 2 ]
then
    value=`badfunc1`
    echo "The result is $value"
else
    echo "Usage: badtest1 a b"
fi
```

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Handling variables in a function

- Functions use two types of variables:

- Global

- Local

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Global variables

- Global variables are variables that are valid anywhere within the shell script.
- If you define a global variable in the main section of a script, you can retrieve its value inside a function.

Example

```
#!/bin/bash
```

```
# using a global variable to pass a value
```

```
function dbl {
```

```
    value=$(( $value * 2 )
```

```
}
```

```
read -p "Enter a value: " value
```

```
dbl
```

```
echo "The new value is: $value"
```

Things can go wrong

```
#!/bin/bash
# demonstrating a bad use of variables
function func1 {
    temp=$(( $value + 5 ))
    result=$(( $temp * 2 ))
}
temp=4
value=6
func1
echo "The result is $result"
if [ $temp -gt $value ]
then
    echo "temp is larger"
else
    echo "temp is smaller"
fi
```

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Local variables

- To do that, just use the local keyword in front of the variable declaration:
 - local temp
- You can also use the local keyword in an assignment statement while assigning a value to the variable:
 - local temp=\$((\$value + 5))

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Example

```
#!/bin/bash
# demonstrating the local keyword
function func1 {
    local temp=${ $value + 5 }
    result=${ $temp * 2 }
}
temp=4
value=6
func1
echo "The result is $result"
if [ $temp -gt $value ]
then
    echo "temp is larger"
else
    echo "temp is smaller"
fi
```

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Designing a Function

- Lets design a function to check for a valid IP address.
- Function definition:
 - isvalidip()

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Next Step

- The first set of tests is contained in a case statement:

```
case $1 in
    "" | *[^0-9]* | *[^0-9]) return 1 ;;
esac
```

- It checks for an empty string, invalid characters, or an address that doesn't end with a digit.

- Next we declare a local variable to set the IFS.
– local IFS=.

- The set builtin replaces the positional parameters with its arguments. Since \$IFS is a period, each element of the IP address is assigned to a different parameter.

```
– set -- $1
```

- The final two lines check each positional parameter in turn. If it's greater than 255, it is not valid in a dotted-quad IP address. If a parameter is empty, it is replaced with the invalid value of 666.

```
[ ${1:-666} -le 255 ] && [ ${2:-666} -le 255 ] &&
[ ${3:-666} -le 255 ] && [ ${4:-666} -le 255 ]
```

```
isvalidip()
{
    case $1 in
        "" | *[!0-9]*) return 1;;
    esac
    ## Change IFS to a dot, but only in this function
    local IFS=.
    set -- $1
    [ $# -eq 4 ] &&
    [ ${1:-666} -le 255 ] && [ ${2:-666} -le 255 ] &&
    [ ${3:-666} -le 255 ] && [ ${4:-666} -le 255 ]
}
for ip in 127.0.0.1 168.260.0.234 1.2.3.4 123.100.34.21 204.225.122.150
do
    if isvalidip "$ip"
    then
        printf "%15s: valid\n" "$ip"
    else
        printf "%15s: invalid\n" "$ip"
    fi
done
```


Print the Result

- A function's purpose may be to print information, either to the terminal or to a file.

```
uiinfo( )  
{  
    printf "%12s: %s\n" \  
        USER "${USER:-No value assigned}" \  
        PWD   "${PWD:-No value assigned}" \  
        COLUMNS "${COLUMNS:-No value assigned}" \  
        LINES  "${LINES:-No value assigned}" \  
        SHELL  "${SHELL:-No value assigned}" \  
        HOME   "${HOME:-No value assigned}" \  
        TERM   "${TERM:-No value assigned}"  
}> ${1:-/dev/fd/1}
```

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Variable Arrays

- A really cool feature of environment variables is that they can be used as arrays.

- To set multiple values for an environment variable, just list them in parentheses, with each value separated by a space:

```
– $ mytest=(one two three four five)
```

- Not much excitement there. If you try to display the array as a normal environment variable, you'll be disappointed:

```
– $ echo $mytest
```

- one

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- To reference an individual array element, you must use a numerical index value, which represents its place in the array. The numeric value is enclosed in square brackets:

– \$ echo \${mytest[2]}
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Displaying the entire value

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- To display an entire array variable, you use the asterisk wildcard character as the index value:

– \$ echo \${mytest[*]}

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Changing values

- You can also change the value of an individual index position:
 - `$ mytest[2]=seven`
 - `$ echo ${mytest[*]}`
one two seven four five
- You can even use the `unset` command to remove an individual value within the array, but be careful, as this gets tricky. Watch this example:
 - `$ unset mytest[2]`
 - `$ echo ${mytest[*]}`
- Finally, you can remove the entire array just by using the array name in the `unset` command:
 - `$ unset mytest`
 - `$ echo ${mytest[*]}`

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Passing arrays to functions

```
#!/bin/bash
```

```
# trying to pass an array variable
```

```
function testit {
```

```
echo "The parameters are: $@"
```

```
thisarray=$1
```

```
echo "The received array is ${thisarray[*]}"
```

```
}
```

```
myarray=(1 2 3 4 5)
```

```
echo "The original array is: ${myarray[*]}"
```

```
testit $myarray
```

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- If you try using the array variable as a function parameter, the function only picks up the first value of the array variable.
- To solve this problem, you must disassemble the array variable into its individual values, then use the values as function parameters.

The Proper Technique

```
#!/bin/bash
# array variable to function test
function testit {
    local newarray
    newarray=(`echo "$@"`)
    echo "The new array value is: ${newarray[*]}"
}
myarray=(1 2 3 4 5)
echo "The original array is ${myarray[*]}"
testit ${myarray[*]}
```

```
#!/bin/bash
# adding values in an array
function addarray {
    local sum=0
    local newarray
    newarray=(`echo "$@"`)
    for value in ${newarray[*]}
    do
        sum=$(( $sum + $value ))
    done
    echo $sum
}
myarray=(1 2 3 4 5)
echo "The original array is: ${myarray[*]}"
arg1=`echo ${myarray[*]}`
result=`addarray $arg1`
echo "The result is $result"
```

Returning An Array

```
#!/bin/bash
# returning an array value
function arraydbl {
    local origarray
    local newarray
    local elements
    local i
    origarray=(`echo "$@"`)
    newarray=(`echo "$@"`)
    elements=$(( $# - 1 ))
    for (( i = 0; i <= $elements; i++ ))
    {
        newarray[$i]=$(( ${origarray[$i]} * 2 ))
    }
    echo ${newarray[*]}
}
```

```
myarray=(1 2 3 4 5)
echo "The original array is:
${myarray[*]}"
arg1=`echo ${myarray[*]}`
result=(`arraydbl $arg1`)
echo "The new array is:
${result[*]}"
```


A function to perform Bubble Sort

```
function bubblesort()
{
    n=${#data[@]}
    for i in `seq 0 $n`
    do
        for ((j=n; j>i; j--))
        do
            if [[ ${data[j-1]} > ${data[j]} ]]
            then
                temp=${data[j]}
                data[j]=${data[j-1]}
                data[j-1]=$temp
            fi
        done
    done
}

data=(roger oscar charlie kilo indigo
tango)
echo "Initial state:"
for i in ${data[@]}
do
    echo "$i"
done
bubblesort
echo
echo "Final state:"
for i in ${data[@]}
do
    echo "$i"
done
```

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Selecting range from arrays

- You can access a range of values from the array by the following syntax:

— echo \${array_name[@]:Index2:Index2}

- Example

— \$ food=(apples bananas cucumbers dates eggs
fajitas grapes)

- \$ echo \${food[@]:0:1}

- \$ echo \${food[@]:2:4}

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Associative Arrays

- The associative array is a new feature in bash version 4.
- Associative arrays link (associate) the value and the index together, so you can associate metadata with the actual data.

Example

```
#!/bin/bash
declare -A beatles
beatles=( [singer]=John [bassist]=Paul [drummer]=Ringo
[guitarist]=George )
for musician in singer bassist drummer guitarist
do
    echo "The ${musician} is ${beatles[$musician]}."
done
```

- What makes associative arrays even more useful is the ability to reference back to the name of the index.

- To do this, use the syntax

— `${!array[@]}`

Example

```
#!/bin/bash
```

```
declare -A beatles
```

```
beatles=( [singer]=John [bassist]=Paul  
[drummer]=Ringo [guitarist]=George )
```

```
for instrument in ${!beatles[@]}
```

```
do
```

```
    echo "The ${instrument} is
```

```
    ${beatles[$instrument]}"
```

```
done
```

copying an array

- Copying one array to another is simple.
- It is important for quoting and spacing that the `${array[@]}` format.

```
activities=( swimming "water skiing" canoeing "white-  
water rafting" surfing )  
$ for act in ${activities[@]}
```

```
> do
```

```
> echo "Activity: $act"
```

```
> done
```

The proper way

```
hobbies=( "${activities[@]}" )
```

```
$ for hobby in "${hobbies[@]}"
```

```
> do
```

```
> echo "Hobby: $hobby"
```

```
> done
```

Appending to an array

- Appending to an array is much the same as copying it. The simplest way to append to an array is to extend the syntax for copying an array.

```
$ hobbies=( "${activities[@]}" diving )
```

```
$ for hobby in "${hobbies[@]}"
```

```
> do
```

```
> echo "Hobby: $hobby"
```

```
> done
```

Another technique

- This notation returns the last element of the array:

```
— [${#hobbies[@]}]
```

- Example

```
$ hobbies[${#hobbies[@]}]=rowing
```

```
$ for hobby in "${hobbies[@]}"
```

```
> do
```

```
> echo "Hobby: $hobby"
```

```
> done
```


Combining two arrays

- The bash shell does have a builtin syntax to combine two arrays:

- With the C-like notation of **+=**, this method is concise and allows for very clear code.

```
$ airports=( flying gliding parachuting )
```

```
$ activities+=("${airports[@]}")
```

```
$ for act in "${activities[@]}"
```

```
> do
```

```
> echo "Activity: $act"
```

```
> done
```

Recursive Functions

```
#!/bin/bash
```

```
# using recursion
```

```
function factorial {
```

```
if [ $1 -eq 1 ]
```

```
then
```

```
echo 1
```

```
else
```

```
local temp=$(( $1 - 1 )
```

```
local result=`factorial $temp`
```

```
echo $[ $result * $1 ]
```

```
fi
```

```
}
```

```
read -p "Enter value: " value
```

```
result=`factorial $value`
```

```
echo "The factorial of $value is: $result"
```