OPERATING SYSTEMS

1. Overview of Operating Systems

   Definition of Operating Systems, Types of Operating Systems, Operating System Services, User operating system interface, System Calls, Types of System Calls, System Programs, Operating System Structure, Virtual Machine, Benefits of Virtual Machine

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5. I/O Management Functions (Principles and Brief Concept)

Dedicated Devices, Shared Devices, I/O Devices, Storage Devices, Buffering, Spooling.

6. File Management (Principles and Brief Concept)

Types of File System; Simple file system, Basic file system, Logical file system, Physical file system, Various Methods of Allocating Disk Space

7. Linux Operating System

History of Linux and Unix, Linux Overview, Structure of Linux, Linux releases, Open Linux, Linux System Requirements, Linux Commands and Filters: mkdir, cd,rmdir,pwd, ls, who, whoami, date, cat, chmod, cp, mv, rm,pg,more, pr, tail, head, cut, paste, nl, grep, wc, sort, kill, write, talk,mseg,wall, merge,mail, news Shell: concepts of command options, input, output,redirection,pipes, redirecting and piping with standard errors, Shell scripts,vi editing commands

OPERATING SYSTEM

An operating system OS is a collection of software that manages computer hardware resources and provides common services for computer programs. The operating system is a vital component of the system software in a computer system.

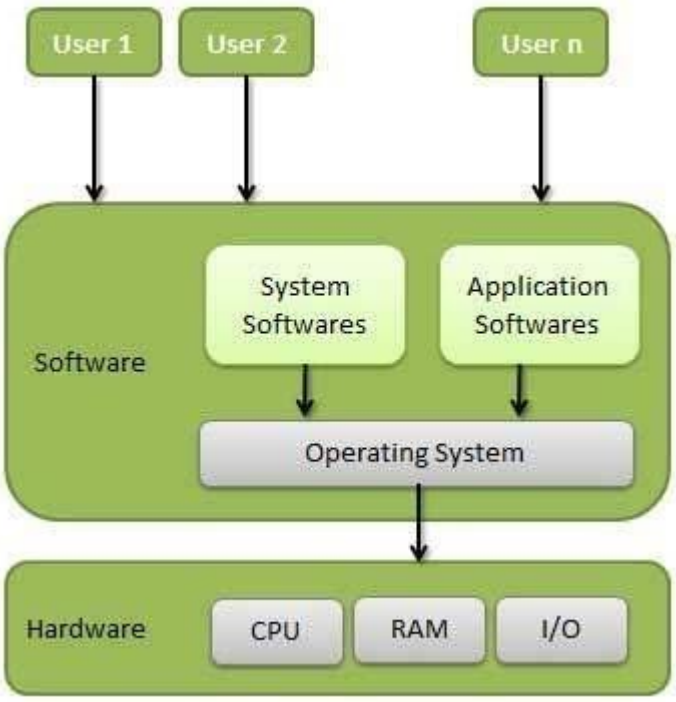
This tutorial will take you through step by step approach while learning Operating System concepts.

An Operating System (OS) is an interface between a computer user and computer hardware. An operating system is a software which performs all the basic tasks like file management, memory management, process management, handling input and output, and controlling peripheral devices such as disk drives and printers.

Some popular Operating Systems include Linux, Windows, OS X, VMS, OS/400, AIX, z/OS, etc.

Definition

An operating system is a program that acts as an interface between the user and the computer hardware and controls the execution of all kinds of programs.



Following are some of important functions of an operating System.

- Memory Management
- Processor Management
- Device Management
- File Management
- Security
- Control over system performance
- Job accounting
- Error detecting aids
- Coordination between other software and users

Memory Management

Memory management refers to management of Primary Memory or Main Memory. Main memory is a large array of words or bytes where each word or byte has its own address.

Main memory provides a fast storage that can be accessed directly by the CPU. For a program to be executed, it must in the main memory. An Operating System does the following activities for memory management
−

- Keeps tracks of primary memory, i.e., what part of it are in use by whom, what part are not in use.
- In multiprogramming, the OS decides which process will get memory when and how much.
- Allocates the memory when a process requests it to do so.
- De-allocates the memory when a process no longer needs it or has been terminated.

Processor Management

In multiprogramming environment, the OS decides which process gets the processor when and for how much time. This function is called **process scheduling**. An Operating System does the following activities for processor management−

- Keeps tracks of processor and status of process. The program responsible for this task is known as **traffic controller**.
- Allocates the processor (CPU) to a process.
- De-allocates processor when a process is no long required.

Device Management

An Operating System manages device communication via their respective drivers. It does the following activities for device management −

- Keeps tracks of all devices. Program responsible for this task is known as the **I/O controller**.
- Decides which process gets the device when and for how much time.
- Allocates the device in the efficient way.
- De-allocates devices.

File Management

A file system is normally organized into directories for easy navigation and usage. These directories may contain files and other directions.

An Operating System does the following activities for file management −

- Keeps track of information, location, uses, status etc. The collective facilities are often known as **file system**.
- Decides who gets there sources.
- Allocates there sources.
- De-allocates there sources.

Other Important Activities

Following are some of the important activities that an Operating System performs −

- **Security** − By means of password and similar other techniques, it prevents unauthorized access to programs and data.
- **Control over system performance** − Recording delays between request for a service and response from the system.

- **Job accounting** − Keeping track of time and resources used by various jobs and users.
- **Error detecting aids** − Production of dumps, traces, error messages, and other debugging and error detecting aids.
- **Coordination between other software and users** − Coordination and assignment of compilers, interpreters, assemblers and other software to the various users of the computer systems.

Operating systems are there from the very first computer generation and they keep evolving with time. In this chapter, we will discuss some of the important types of operating systems which are most commonly used.

Batch operating system

The users of a batch operating system do not interact with the computer directly. Each user prepares his job on an off-line device like punch cards and submits it to the computer operator. To speed up processing, jobs with similar needs are batched together and run as a group. The programmers leave their programs with the operator and the operator then sorts the programs with similar requirements into batches.

The problems with Batch Systems are as follows −

- Lack of interaction between the user and the job.
- CPU is often idle, because the speed of the mechanical I/O devices is slower than the CPU.
- Difficult to provide the desired priority.

Time-sharing operating systems

Time-sharing is a technique which enables many people, located at various terminals, to use a particular computer system at the same time. Time-sharing or multitasking is a logical extension of multiprogramming. Processor's time which is shared among multiple users simultaneously is termed as time-sharing.

The main difference between Multi programmed Batch Systems and Time- Sharing Systems is that in case of Multi programmed batch systems, the objective is to maximize processor use, whereas in Time-Sharing Systems, the objective is to minimize response time.

Multiple jobs are executed by the CPU by switching between them, but the switches occur so frequently. Thus, the user can receive an immediate response. For example, in a transaction processing, the processor executes each user program in a short burst or quantum of computation. That simia**n** users are present, the each user can get time quantum. When the user submits the command, the response time is in few seconds at most.

The operating system uses CPU scheduling and multiprogramming to provide each user with a small portion of a time. Computer systems that were designed primarily as batch systems have been modified to time- sharing systems.

Advantages of Timesharing operating systems are as follows −

- Provides the advantage of quick response.
- Avoids duplication of software.
- Reduces CPU idle time.

Disadvantages of Time-sharing operating systems are as follows −

- Problem overfly ability.
- Question of security and integrity of user programs and data.
- Problem of data communication.

Distributed operating System

Distributed systems use multiple central processors to serve multiple real-time applications and multiple users. Data processing jobs are distributed among the processors accordingly.

The processors communicate with one another through various communication lines (such as high-speed buses or telephone lines). These are referred as **loosely coupled systems** or distributed systems. Processors in a distributed system may vary in size and function. These processors are referred as sites, nodes, computers, and soon.

The advantages of distributed systems are as follows −

- With resource sharing facility, a user at one site may be able to usethe resources available as another.
- Speedup the exchange of data with one another via electronic mail.
- If one site fails in a distributed system, the remaining sites can potentially continue operating.
- Better service to the customers.
- Reduction of the load on the host computer.
- Reduction of delays in data processing.

Network operating System

A Network Operating System runs on a server and provides the server the capability to manage data, users, groups, security, applications, and other networking functions. The primary purpose of the network operating system is to allow shared file and printer access among multiple computers in a network, typically a local area network (LAN), a private network or to other networks.

Examples of network operating systems include Microsoft Windows Server 2003, Microsoft Windows Server 2008, UNIX, Linux, Mac OS X, Novell NetWare, and B SD.

The advantages of network operating systems are as follows −

- Centralized servers are highly stable.
- Security is server managed.
- Upgrades to new technologies and hardware can be easily integrated intothe system.
- Remote access to servers is possible from different locations and types of systems.

The disadvantages of network operating systems are as follows −

- High cost of buying and running a server.
- Dependency on a central location for most operations.
- Regular maintenance and updates are required.

Real Time operating System

A real-time system is defined as a data processing system in which the time interval required to process and respond to inputs is so small that it controls the environment. The time taken by the system to respond to an input and display of required updated information is termed as the **response time**. So in this method, the response time is very less as compared to online processing.

Real-time systems are used when there are rigid time requirements on the operation of a processor or the flow of data and real-time systems can be used as a control device in a dedicated application. A real-time operating system must have well-defined, fixed time constraints, otherwise the system will fail. For example, Scientific experiments, medical imaging systems, industrial control systems, weapon systems, robots, air traffic control systems, etc.

There are two types of real-time operating systems.

Hard real-time systems

Hard real-time systems guarantee that critical tasks complete on time. In hard real-time systems, secondary storage is limited or missing and the data is stored in ROM. In these systems, virtual memory is almost never found.

Soft real-time systems

Soft real-time systems are less restrictive. A critical real-time task gets priority over other tasks and retains the priority until it completes. Soft real-time systems have limited utility than hard real-time systems. For example, multimedia, virtual reality, Advanced Scientific Projects like undersea exploration and planetary rovers, etc.

An Operating System provides services to both the users and to the programs.

- It provides programs an environment to execute.
- It provides users the services to execute the programs in a convenient manner.

Following are a few common services provided by an operating system −

- Program execution
- I/Operations
- File System manipulation
- Communication
- Error Detection
- Resource Allocation
- Protection

Program execution

Operating systems handle many kinds of activities from user programs to system programs like printer spooler, name servers, file server, etc. Each of these activities is encapsulated as a process.

A process includes the complete execution context (code to execute, data to manipulate, registers, OS resources in use). Following are the major activities of an operating system with respect to program management −

- Loads a program into memory.
- Executes the program.
- Handles program’s execution.

- Provides a mechanism for process synchronization.
- Provides a mechanism for process communication.
- Provides a mechanism for deadlock handling.

I/O Operation

An I/O subsystem comprises of I/O devices and their corresponding driver software. Drivers hide the peculiarities of specific hardware devices from the users.

An Operating System manages the communication between user and device drivers.

- I/O operation means read or write operation with any file or any specific I/O device.
- Operating system provides the access to the required I/O device when required.

File system manipulation

A file represents a collection of related information. Computers can store files on the disk (secondary storage), for long-term storage purpose. Examples of storage media include magnetic tape, magnetic disk and optical disk drives like CD, DVD. Each of these media has its own properties like speed, capacity, data transfer rate and data access methods.

A file system is normally organized into directories for easy navigation and usage. These directories may contain files and other directions. Following are the major activities of an operating system with respect to file management −

- Program needs to read a file or write a file.
- The operating system gives the permission to the program for operation on file.
- Permission varies from read-only, read-write, denied and soon.
- Operating System provides an interface to the user to create/delete files.
- Operating System provides an interface to the user to create/delete directories.
- Operating System provides an interface to create the backup of file system.

Communication

In case of distributed systems which are a collection of processors that do not share memory, peripheral devices, or a clock, the operating system manages communications between all the processes. Multiple processes communicate with one another through communication lines in the network.

The OS handles routing and connection strategies, and the problems of contention and security. Following are the major activities of an operating system with respect to communication−

- Two processes often require data to be transferred between them
- Both the processes can be on one computer or on different computers, but are connected through a computer network.
- Communication may be implemented by two methods, either by Shared Memory or by Message Passing.

Error handling

Errors can occur anytime and anywhere. An error may occur in CPU, in I/O devices or in the memory hardware. Following are the major activities of an operating system with respect to error handling−

- The OS constantly checks for possible errors.
- The OS takes an appropriate action to ensure correct and consistent computing.

Resource Management

In case of multi-user or multi-tasking environment, resources such as main memory, CPU cycles and files storage are to be allocated to each user or job. Following are the major activities of an operating system with respect to resource management−

- The OS manages all kinds of resources using schedulers.
- CPU scheduling algorithms are used for better utilization of CPU.

Protection

Considering a computer system having multiple users and concurrent execution of multiple processes, the various processes must be protected from each other's activities.

Protection refers to a mechanism or a way to control the access of programs, processes, or users to the resources defined by a computer system. Following are the major activities of an operating system with respect to protection –

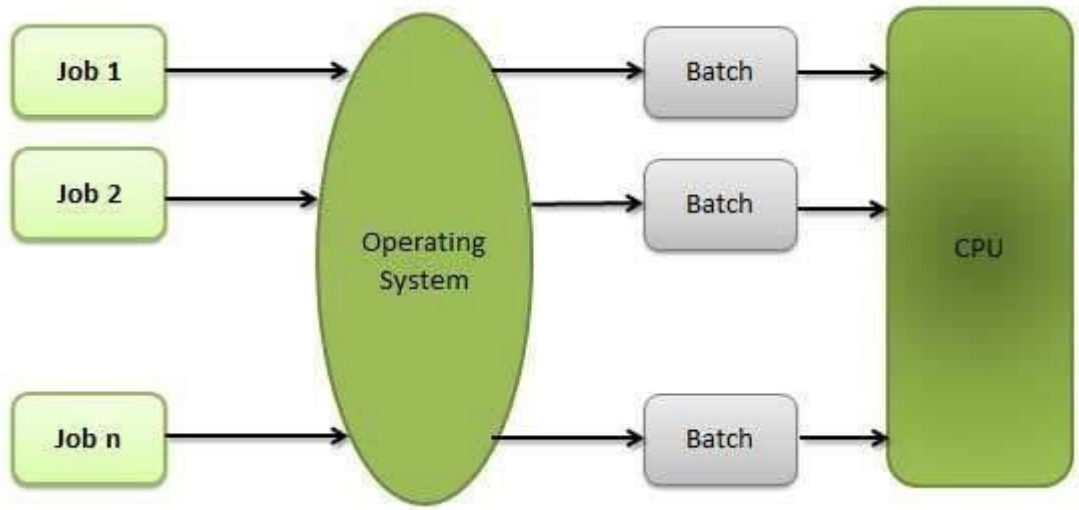
- The OS ensures that all access to system resources is controlled.
- The OS ensures that external I/O devices are protected from invalid access attempts.
- The OS provides authentication features for each user by means of passwords.

OPERATING SYSTEM PROPERTIES

Batch processing

Batch processing is a technique in which an Operating System collects the programs and data together in a batch before processing starts. An operating system does the following activities related to batch processing –

- The OS defines a job which has predefined sequence of commands, programs and data as a single unit.
- The OS keeps a number a jobs in memory and executes them without any manual information.
- Jobs are processed in the order of submission, i.e., first come first served fashion.
- When a job completes its execution, its memory is released and the output for the job gets copied into an output spool for later printing or processing.



Advantages

- Batch processing takes much of the work of the operator to the computer.
- Increased performance as a new job get started as soon as the previous job is finished, without any manual intervention.

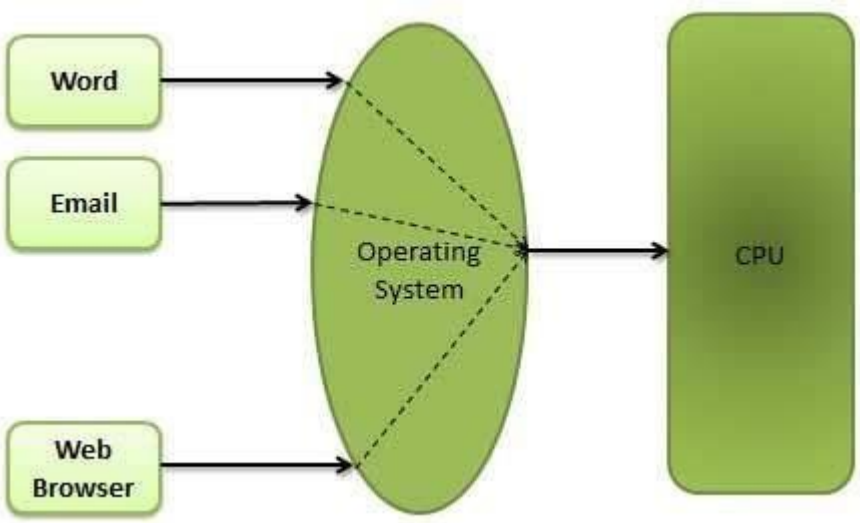
Disadvantages

- Difficult to debug program.
- A job could enter an infinite loop.
- Due to lack of protection scheme, one batch job can affect pending jobs.

Multitasking

Multitasking is when multiple jobs are executed by the CPU simultaneously by switching between them. Switches occur so frequently that the users may interact with each program while it is running. An OS does the following activities related to multitasking −

- The user gives instructions to the operating system or to a program directly, and receives an immediate response.
- The OS handles multitasking in the way that it can handle multiple operations/executes multiple programs at a time.
- Multitasking Operating Systems are also known as Time-sharing systems.
- These Operating Systems were developed to provide interactive use of a computer system at a reasonable cost.
- A time-shared operating system uses the concept of CPU scheduling and multiprogramming to provide each user with a small portion of a time-shared CPU.
- Each user has at least one separate program in memory.

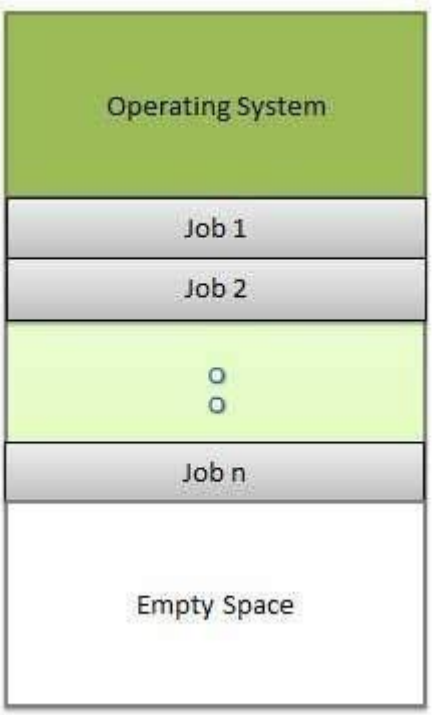


- A program that is loaded into memory and is executing is commonly referred to as a **process**.
- When a process executes, it typically executes for only a very short time before it either finishes or needs to perform I/O.
- Since interactive I/O typically runs at slower speeds, it may take a long time to complete. During this time, a CPU can be utilized by another process.
- The operating system allows the users to share the computer simultaneously. Since each action or command in a time-shared system tends to be short, only a little CPU time is needed for each user.
- As the system switches CPU rapidly from one user/program to the next, each user is given the impression that he/she has his/her own CPU, whereas actually one CPU is being shared among many users.

Multiprogramming

Sharing the processor, when two or more programs reside in memory at the same time, is referred as **multiprogramming**. Multiprogramming assumes a single shared processor. Multiprogramming increases CPU utilization by organizing jobs so that the CPU always has one to execute.

The following figure shows the memory layout for a multiprogramming system.



An OS does the following activities related to multiprogramming.

- The operating system keeps several jobs in memory at a time.
- This set of jobs is a subset of the jobs kept in the job pool.
- The operating system picks and begins to execute one of the jobs in the memory.
- Multiprogramming operating systems monitor the state of all active programs and system resources using memory management programs to ensures that the CPU is never idle, unless there are no jobs to process.

Advantages

- High and efficient CPU utilization.
- User feels that many programs are allotted CPU almost simultaneously.

Disadvantages

- CPU scheduling is required.
- To accommodate many jobs in memory, memory management is required

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Interactivity

Interactivity refers to the ability of users to interact with a computer system. An Operating system does the following activities related to interactivity − Provides the user an interface to interact with the system.

- Manages input devices to take inputs from the user. For example,keyboard.
- Manages output devices to show outputs to the user. For example,Monitor.

The response time of the OS needs to be short, since the user submits and waits for the result.

Real Time System

Real-time systems are usually dedicated, embedded systems. An operating system does the following activities related to real-time system activity.

- In such systems, Operating Systems typically read from and react to sensor data.
- The Operating system must guarantee response to events within fixed periods of time to ensure correct performance.

Distributed Environment

A distributed environment refers to multiple independent CPUs or processors in a computer system. An operating system does the following activities related to distributed environment−

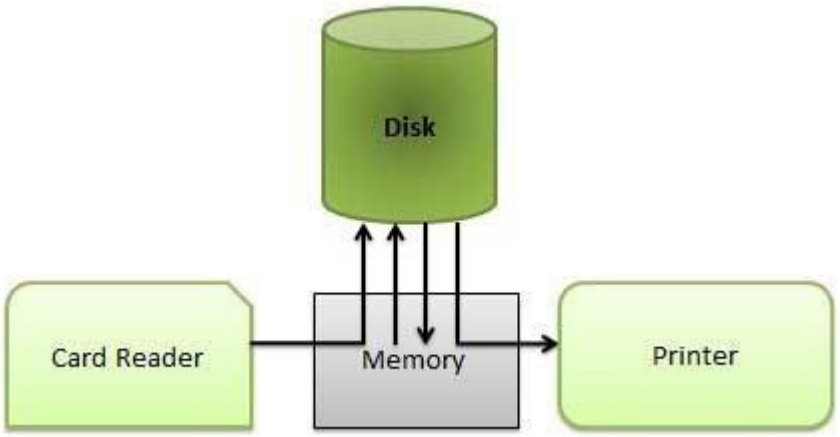
- The OS distributes computation logics among several physical processors.
- The processors do not share memory or a clock. Instead, each processor has its own local memory.
- The OS manages the communications between the processors. They communicate with each other through various communication lines.

Spooling

Spooling is an acronym for simultaneous peripheral operations on line. Spooling refers to putting data of various I/O jobs in a buffer. This buffer is a special area in memory or hard disk which is accessible to I/O devices.

An operating system does the following activities related to distributed environment

- Handles I/O device data spooling as devices have different data access rates.
- Maintains the spooling buffer which provides a waiting station where data can rest while the slower device catches up.
- Maintains parallel computation because of spooling process as a computer can perform I/O in parallel fashion. It becomes possible to have the computer read data from a tape, write data to disk and to write out to a tape printer



while it is doing its computing task.

Advantages

- The spooling operation uses a disk as a very large buffer.
- Spooling is capable of overlapping I/O operation for one job with processor operations for another job.

PROCESS MANAGEMENT

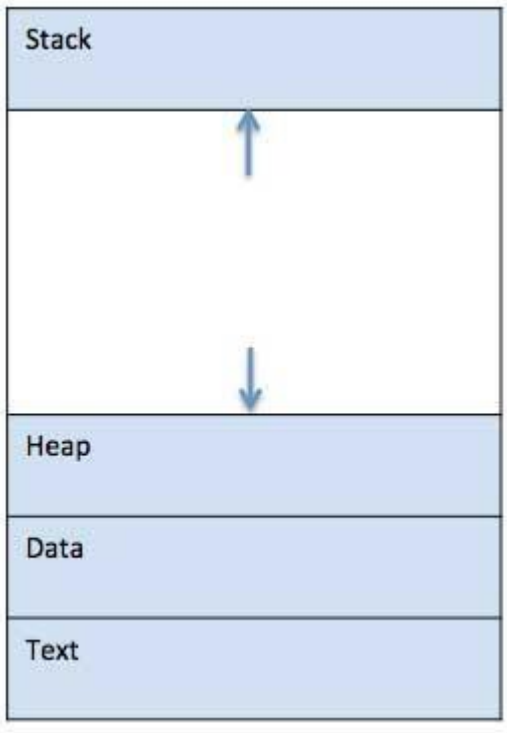
Process

A process is basically a program in execution. The execution of a process must progress in a sequential fashion.

A process is defined as an entity which represents the basic unit of work to be implemented in the system.

To put it in simple terms, we write our computer programs in a text file and when we execute this program, it becomes a process which performs all the tasks mentioned in the program.

When a program is loaded into the memory and it becomes a process, it can be divided into four sections ─ stack, heap, text and data. The following image shows a simplified layout of a process inside main memory −



S.N.	Component & Description
1	**Stack** The process Stack contains the temporary data such as method/function parameters, return address and local variables.

2	**Heap** This is dynamically allocated memory to a process during its run time.
3	**Text** This includes the current activity represented by the value of Program Counter and the contents of the processor's registers.
4	**Data** This section contains the global and static variables.

Program

A program is a piece of code which may be a single line or millions of lines. A computer program is usually written by a computer programmerin a programming language. For example, here is a simple program written in C programming language −

```
#include <stdio.h>


int main(){
   printf("Hello,World!\n");
   return0;
}
```

A computer program is a collection of instructions that performs a specific task when executed by a computer. When we compare a program with a process, we can conclude that a process is a dynamic instance of a computerprogram.

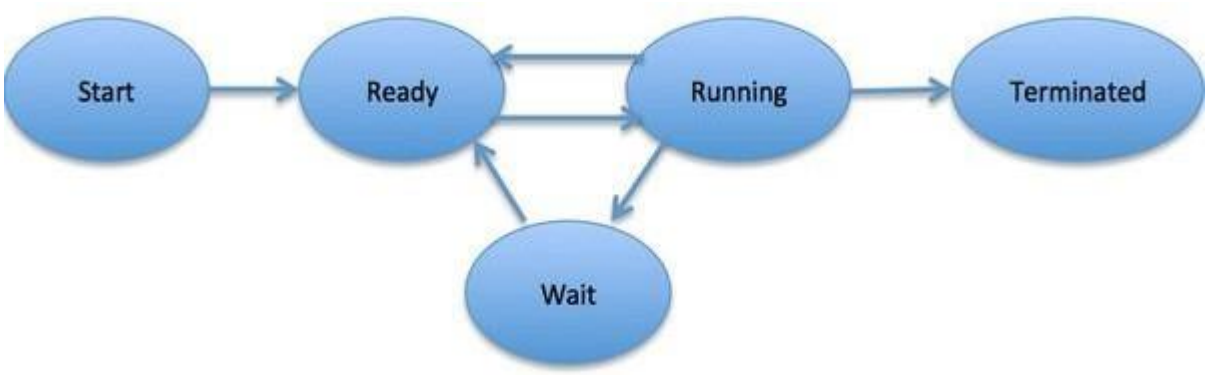
A part of a computer program that performs a well-defined task is known as an **algorithm**. A collection of computer programs, libraries and related data are referred to as s**oftware**.

Process Life Cycle

When a process executes, it passes through different states. These stages may differ in different operating systems, and the names of these states are also not standardized.

In general, a process can have one of the following five states at a time.

S.N.	State & Description
1	**Start** This is the initial state when a process is first started/created.
2	**Ready** The process is waiting to be assigned to a processor. Ready processes are waiting to have the processor allocated to them by the operating system so that they can run. Process may come into this state after **Start** state or while running it by but interrupted by the scheduler to assign CPU to some other process.
3	**Running** Once the process has been assigned to a processor by the OS scheduler, the process state is set to running and the processor executes its instructions.
4	**Waiting** Process moves into the waiting state if it needs to wait for a resource, such as waiting for user input, or waiting for a file to become available.
5	**Terminated or Exit** Once the process finishes its execution, or it is terminated by the operating system, it is moved to the terminated state where it waits to be removed from main memory.



Process Control Block (PCB)

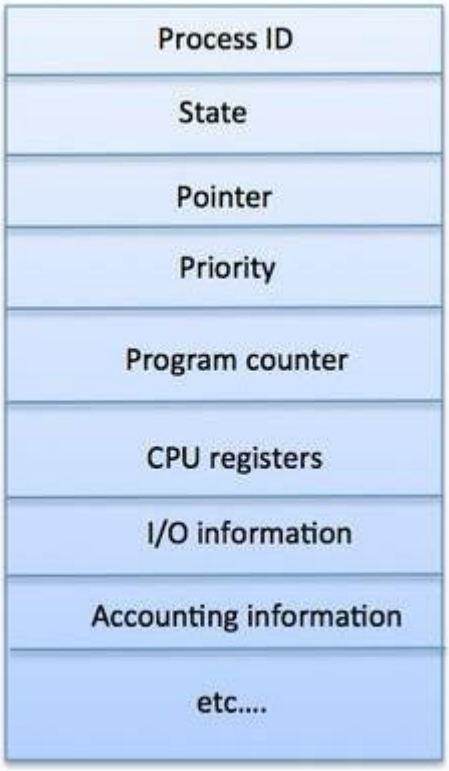
A Process Control Block is a data structure maintained by the Operating System for every process. The PCB is identified by an integer process ID (PID). A PCB keeps all the information needed to keep track of a process as listed below in the table −

S.N.	Information & Description
1	**Process State** The current state of the process i.e., whether it is ready, running, waiting, or whatever.
2	**Process privileges** This is required to allow/disallow access to system resources.
3	**Process ID** Unique identification for each of the process in the operating system.
4	**Pointer** A pointer to parent process.
5	**Program Counter** Program Counter is a pointer to the address of the next instruction to be executed for this process.

6	**CPU registers** Various CPU registers where process need to be stored for execution for running state.
7	**CPU Scheduling Information** Process priority and other scheduling information which is required to schedule the process.
8	**Memory management information** This includes the information of page table, memory limits, Segment table depending on memory used by the operating system.
9	**Accounting information** This includes the amount of CPU used for process execution, time limits, execution ID etc.
10	**IO status information** This includes a list of I/O devices allocated to the process.

The architecture of a PCB is completely dependent on Operating System and may contain different information in different operating systems. Here is a simplified diagram of a PCB –

The PCB is maintained for a process throughout its lifetime, and is deleted once the process terminates.



OPERATING SYSTEM – PROCESS SCHEDULING

Definition

The process scheduling is the activity of the process manager that handles the removal of the running process from the CPU and the selection of another process on the basis of a particular strategy.

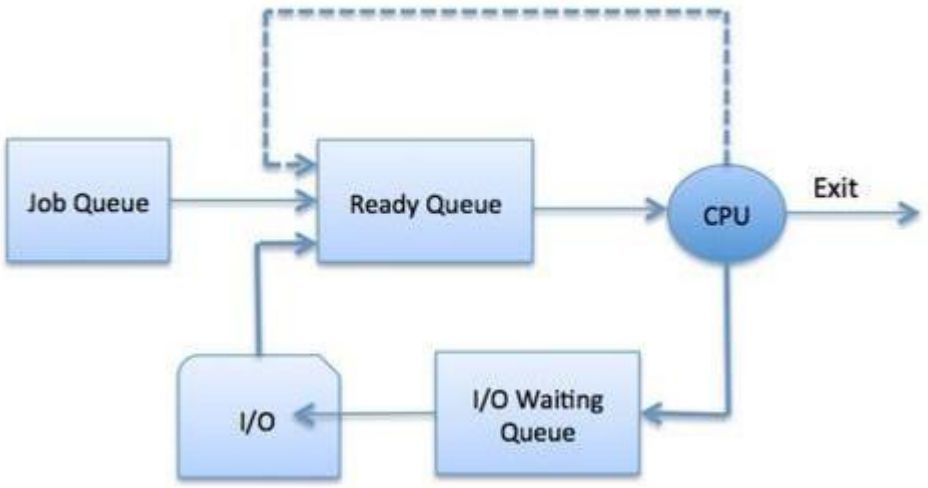
Process scheduling is an essential part of a Multiprogramming operating systems. Such operating systems allow more than one process to be loaded into the executable memory at a time and the loaded process shares the CPU using time multiplexing.

Process Scheduling Queues

The OS maintains all PCBs in Process Scheduling Queues. The OS maintains a separate queue for each of the process states and PCBs of all processes in the same execution state are placed in the same queue. When the state of a process is changed, its PCB is unlinked from its current queue and moved to its new state queue.

The Operating System maintains the following important process scheduling queues −

- **Job queue** − This queue keeps all the processes in the system.
- **Ready queue** − This queue keeps a set of all processes residing in main memory, ready and waiting to execute. A new process is always put in this queue.
- **Device queues** − The processes which are blocked due to unavailability of an I/O device constitute this queue.



The OS can use different policies to manage each queue (FIFO, Round Robin, Priority, etc.). The OS scheduler determines how to move processes between the ready and run queues which can only have one entry per processor core on the system; in the above diagram, it has been merged with the CPU.

Two-State Process Model

Two-state process model refers to running and non-running states which are described below −

S.N.	State & Description
1	**Running** When a new process is created, it enters into the system as in the running state.

2	**Not Running** Processes that are not running are kept in queue, waiting for their turn to execute. Each entry in the queue is a pointer to a particular process. Queue is implemented by using linked list. Use of dispatcher is as follows. When a process is interrupted, that process is transferred in the waiting queue. If the process has completed or aborted, the process is discarded. In either case, the dispatcher then selects a process from the queue to execute.

Schedulers

Schedulers are special system software which handle process scheduling in various ways. Their main task is to select the jobs to be submitted into the system and to decide which process to run. Schedulers are of three types −

- Long-Term Scheduler
- Short-Term Scheduler
- Medium-Term Scheduler

Long Term Scheduler

It is also called a **job scheduler**. A long-term scheduler determines which programs are admitted to the system for processing. It selects processes from the queue and loads them into memory for execution. Process loads into the memory for CPU scheduling.

The primary objective of the job scheduler is to provide a balanced mix of jobs, such as I/O bound and processor bound. It also controls the degree of multiprogramming. If the degree of multiprogramming is stable, then the average rate of process creation must be equal to the average departure rate of processes leaving the system.

On some systems, the long-term scheduler may not be available or minimal. Time-sharing operating systems have no long term scheduler. When a process changes the state from new to ready, then there is use of long-term scheduler.

Short Term Scheduler

It is also called as **CPU scheduler**. Its main objective is to increase system performance in accordance with the chosen set of criteria. It is the change of ready state to running state of the process. CPU scheduler selects a process among the processes that are ready to execute and allocates CPU to one of them.

Short-term schedulers, also known as dispatchers, make the decision of which process to execute next. Short-term schedulers are faster than long-term schedulers.

Medium Term Scheduler

Medium-term scheduling is a part of **swapping**. It removes the processes from the memory. It reduces the degree of multiprogramming. The medium-term scheduler is in-charge of handling the swapped out- processes.

A running process may become suspended if it makes an I/O request. A suspended processes cannot make any progress towards completion. In this condition, to remove the process from memory and make space for other processes, the suspended process is moved to the secondary storage. This process is called **swapping**, and the process is said to be swapped out or rolled out. Swapping may be necessary to improve the process mix.

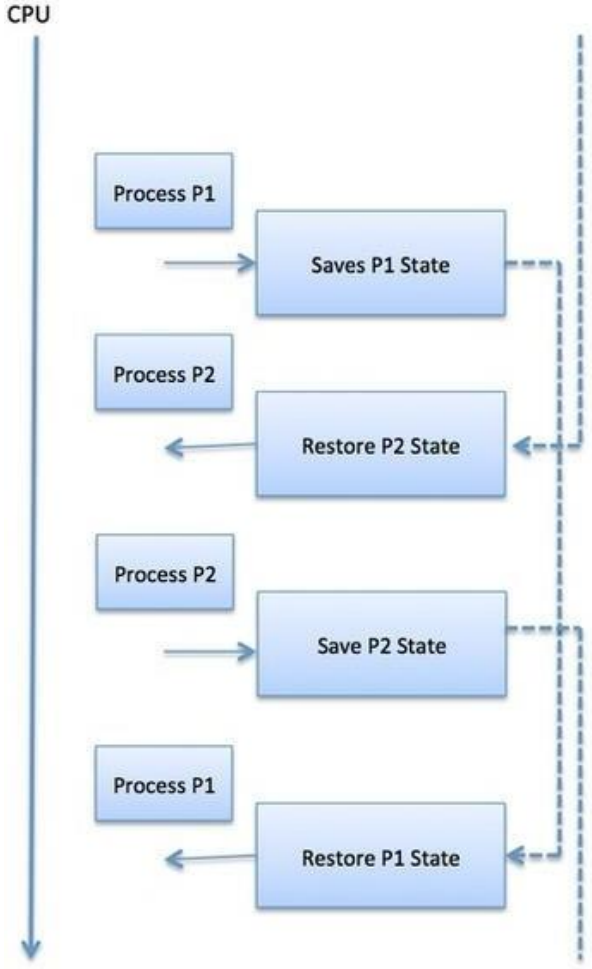
Comparison among Scheduler

S.N.	Long-Term Scheduler	Short-Term Scheduler	Medium-Term Scheduler
1	It is a job scheduler	It is a CPU scheduler	It is a process swapping scheduler
2	Speed is lesser than short term scheduler	Speed is fastest among other two	Speed is in between both short and long term scheduler.
3	It controls the degree of multiprogramming	It provides lesser control over degree of multiprogramming	It reduces the degree of multiprogramming.
4	It is almost absent or minimal in time sharing system	It is also minimal in time sharing system	It is a part of Time sharing systems.
5	It selects processes from pool and loads them into memory for execution	It selects those processes which are ready to execute	It can re-introduce the process into memory and execution can be continued.

Context Switch

A context switch is the mechanism to store and restore the state or context of a CPU in Process Control block so that a process execution can be resumed from the same point at a later time. Using this technique, a context switcher enables multiple processes to share a single CPU. Context switching is an essential part of a multitasking operating system features.

When the scheduler switches the CPU from executing one process to execute another, the state from the current running process is stored into the process control block. After this, the state for the process to run next is loaded from its own PCB and used to set the PC, registers, etc. At that point, the second process can start executing.



Context switches are computationally intensive since register and memory state must be saved and restored. To avoid the amount of context switching time, some hardware systems employ two or more sets of processor registers. When the

process is switched, the following information is stored for later use.

- Program Counter
- Scheduling information
- Base and limit register value
- Currently used register
- Changed State
- I/O State information
- Accounting information

OPERATING SYSTEM – ALGORITM SCHEDULING

A Process Scheduler schedules different processes to be assigned to the CPU based on particular scheduling algorithms. There are six popular process scheduling algorithms which we are going to discuss in this chapter −

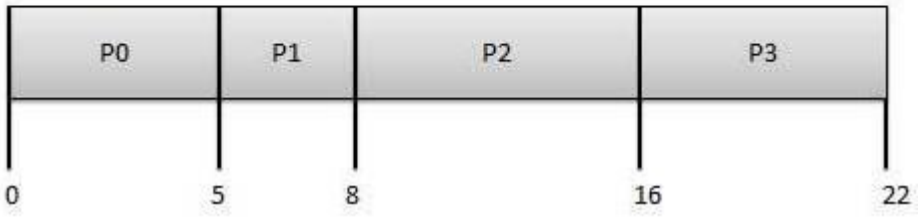
- First-Come, First-Served (FCFS)Scheduling
- Shortest-Job-Next (SJN)Scheduling
- Priority Scheduling
- Shortest Remaining Time
- Round Robin(RR)Scheduling
- Multiple-Level Queues Scheduling

These algorithms are either **non-preemptive or preemptive**. Non- preemptive algorithms are designed so that once a process enters the running state, it cannot be preempted until it completes its allotted time, whereas the preemptive scheduling is based on priority where a scheduler may preempt a low priority running process anytime when a high priority process enters into a ready state.

First Come First Serve (FCFS)

- Jobs are executed on first come, first serve basis.
- It is a non-preemptive, pre-emptive scheduling algorithm.
- Easy to understand and implement.
- Its implementation is based on FIFO queue.
- Poor in performance as average wait time is high.

Process	Arrival Time	Execute Time	Service Time
P0	0	5	0
P1	1	3	5
P2	2	8	8
P3	3	6	16



Wait time of each process is as follows −

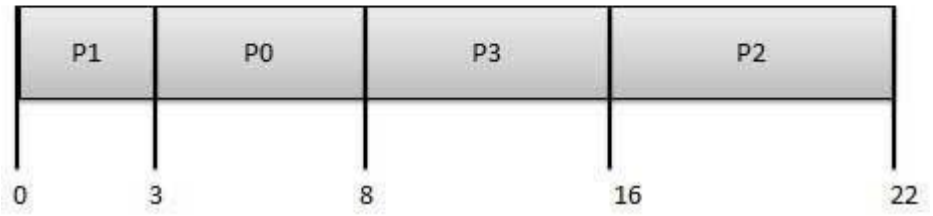
Process	Wait Time : Service Time - Arrival Time
P0	0 - 0 = 0
P1	5 - 1 = 4
P2	8 - 2 = 6
P3	16 - 3 = 13

Average Wait Time: (0+4+6+13) / 4 = 5.75

Shortest Job Next (SJN)

- This is also known as **shortest job first**, or SJF
- This is a non-preemptive, pre-emptive scheduling algorithm.
- Best approach to minimize waiting time.
- Easy to implement in Batch systems where required CPU time is known in advance.
- Impossible to implement in interactive systems where required CPU time is not known.
- The processer should know in advance how much time process will take.

Process	Arrival Time	Execute Time	Service Time
P0	0	5	3
P1	1	3	0
P2	2	8	16
P3	3	6	8



Wait time of each process is as follows −

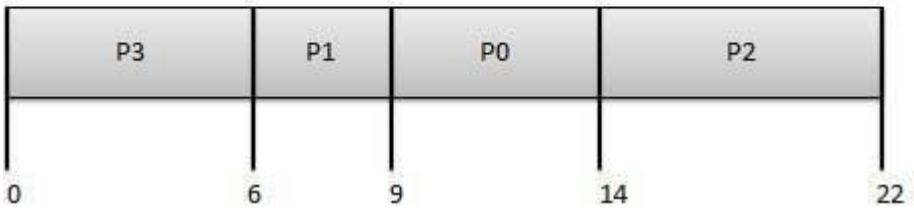
Process	Wait Time : Service Time - Arrival Time
P0	3 - 0 = 3
P1	0 - 0 = 0
P2	16 - 2 = 14
P3	8 - 3 = 5

Average Wait Time: (3+0+14+5) / 4 = 5.50

Priority Based Scheduling

- Priority scheduling is a non-preemptive algorithm and one of the most common scheduling algorithms in batch systems.
- Each process is assigned a priority. Process with highest priority is to be executed first and soon.
- Processes with same priority are executed on first come first served basis.
- Priority can be decided based on memory requirements, time requirements or any other resource requirement.

Process	Arrival Time	Execute Time	Priority	Service Time
P0	0	5	1	9
P1	1	3	2	6
P2	2	8	1	14
P3	3	6	3	0



Wait time of each process is as follows −

Process	Wait Time : Service Time - Arrival Time
P0	9 - 0 = 9
P1	6 - 1 = 5
P2	14 - 2 = 12
P3	0 - 0 = 0

Average Wait Time: (9+5+12+0) / 4 = 6.5

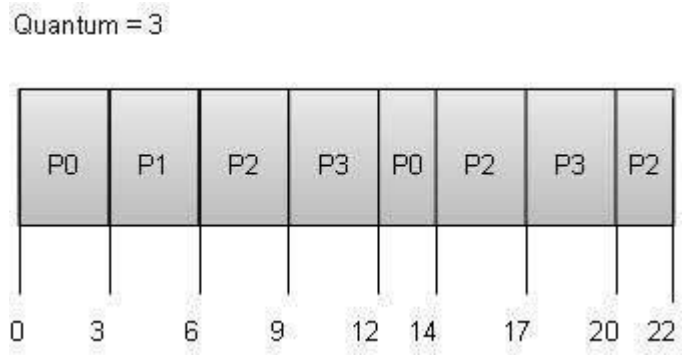
Shortest Remaining Time

- Shortest remaining time (SRT) is the preemptive version of the SJN algorithm.
- The processor is allocated to the job closest to completion but it can be preempted by a newer ready job with shorter time to completion.
- Impossible to implement in interactive systems where required CPU time is not known.

- It is often used in batch environments where short jobs need to give preference.

Round Robin Scheduling

- Round Robin is the preemptive process scheduling algorithm.
- Each process is provided a fix time to execute, it is called a **quantum**.
- Once a process is executed for a given time period, it is preempted and other process executes for a given time period.
- Context switching is used to save states of preempted processes.



Wait time of each process is as follows −

Process	Wait Time : Service Time - Arrival Time
P0	(0 - 0) + (12 - 3) = 9
P1	(3 - 1) = 2
P2	(6 - 2) + (14 - 9) + (20 - 17) = 12
P3	(9 - 3) + (17 - 12) = 11

Average Wait Time: (9+2+12+11) / 4 = 8.5

Multiple-Level Queues Scheduling

Multiple-level queues are not an independent scheduling algorithm. They make use of other existing algorithms to group and schedule jobs with common characteristics.

- Multiple queues are maintained for processes with common characteristics.
- Each queue can have its own scheduling algorithms.
- Priorities are assigned to each queue.

For example, CPU-bound jobs can be scheduled in one queue and all I/O- bound jobs in another queue. The Process Scheduler then alternately selects jobs from each queue and assigns them to the CPU based on the algorithm assigned to the queue.

Deadlock

A process in operating systems uses different resources and uses resources in following way.

1 Requests a resource

2) Use the resource

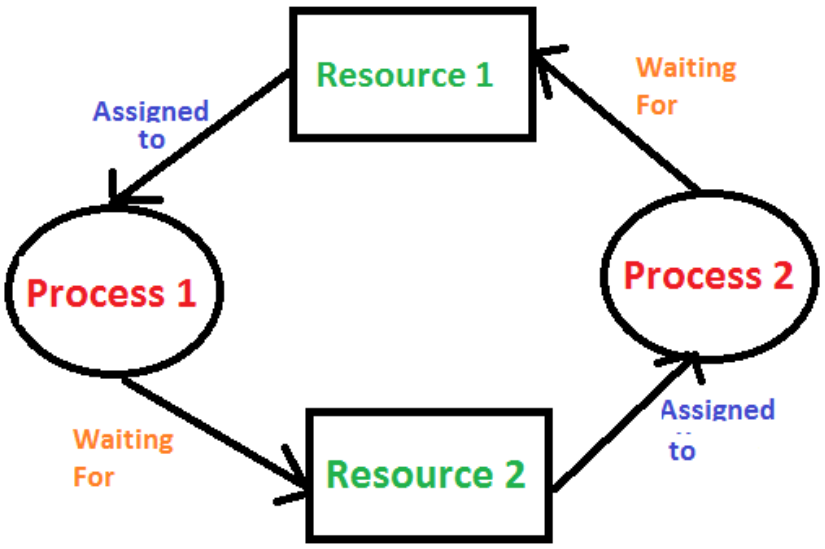
2) Releases the resource

Deadlock is a situation where a set of processes are blocked because each process is holding a resource and waiting for another resource acquired by some other process. Consider an example when two trains are coming toward each other on same track and there is only one track, none of the trains can move once they are in front of each other. Similar situation occurs in operating systems when there are two or more processes hold some resources and wait for resources held by other(s). For example, in the below diagram, Process 1 is holding Resource 1 and waiting for resource 2 which is acquired by process 2, and process 2 is waiting for resource 1.

Deadlock can arise if following four conditions hold simultaneously (Necessary Conditions)

Mutual Exclusion: One or more than one resource is non-sharable (Only one process can use at a time)

Hold and Wait: A process is holding at least one resource and waiting for resources.



No Preemption: A resource cannot be taken from a process unless the process releases the resource.

Circular Wait: A set of processes are waiting for each other in circular form.

Methods for handling deadlock

There are three ways to handle deadlock

1) Deadlock prevention or avoidance: The idea is to not let the system into deadlock state.

One can zoom into each category individually, Prevention is done by negating one of above mentioned necessary conditions for deadlock.
Avoidance is kind of futuristic in nature. By using strategy of “Avoidance”, we have to make an assumption. We need to ensure that all information about resources which process WILL need are known to us prior to execution of the process. We use Banker’s algorithm (Which is in-turn a gift from Dijkstra) in order to avoid deadlock.

2) Deadlock detection and recovery: Let deadlock occur, then do pre-emption to handle it once occurred.

3) Ignore the problem all together: If deadlock is very rare, then let it happen and reboot the system. This is the approach that both Windows and UNIX take.

Deadlock Detection

A deadlock can be detected by a resource scheduler as it keeps track of all the resources that are allocated to different processes. After a deadlock is detected, it can be resolved using the following methods −

- All the processes that are involved in the deadlock are terminated. This is not a good approach as all the progress made by the processes is destroyed.
- Resources can be preempted from some processes and given to others till the deadlock is resolved.

Deadlock Prevention

It is very important to prevent a deadlock before it can occur. So, the system checks each transaction before it is executed to make sure it does not lead to deadlock. If there is even a slight chance that a transaction may lead to deadlock in the future, it is never allowed to execute.

Deadlock Avoidance

It is better to avoid a deadlock rather than take measures after the deadlock has occurred. The wait for graph can be used for deadlock avoidance. This is however only useful for smaller databases as it can get quite complex in larger databases.

Difference between Deadlock Prevention and Deadlock Avoidance :

S.NO.	FACTORS	DEADLOCK PREVENTION	DEADLOCK AVOIDANCE
1.	Concept	It blocks at least one of the conditions necessary for deadlock to occur.	It ensures that system does not go in unsafe state
2.	Resource Request	All the resources are requested together.	Resource requests are done according to the available safe path.
3.	Information required	It does not requires information about existing resources, available resources and resource requests	It requires information about existing resources, available resources and resource

S.NO.	FACTORS	DEADLOCK PREVENTION	DEADLOCK AVOIDANCE
			requests
4.	Procedure	It prevents deadlock by constraining resource request process and handling of resources.	It automatically considers requests and check whether it is safe for system or not.
5.	Pre emption	Sometimes, pre emption occurs more frequently.	In deadlock avoidance there is no pre emption.
6.	Resource allocation strategy	Resource allocation strategy for deadlock prevention is conservative.	Resource allocation strategy for deadlock prevention is not conservative.
7.	Future resource requests	It doesn’t require knowledge of future process resource requests.	It requires knowledge of future process resource requests.
8.	Advantage	It doesn’t have any cost involved because it has to just make one of the conditions false so that deadlock doesn’t occur.	There is no system under-utilization as this method works dynamically to allocate the

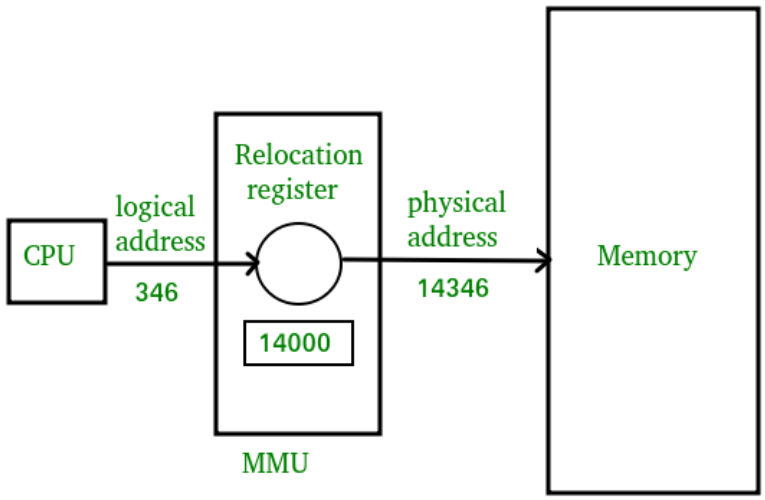
S.NO.	FACTORS	DEADLOCK PREVENTION	DEADLOCK AVOIDANCE
			resources.
9.	Disadvantage	Deadlock prevention has low device utilization.	Deadlock avoidance can block processes for too long.
10.	Example	Spooling and non-blocking synchronization algorithms are used.	Banker’s and safety algorithm is used

Memory Management System

Logical and Physical Address in Operating System

Logical Address is generated by CPU while a program is running. The logical address is virtual address as it does not exist physically, therefore, it is also known as Virtual Address. This address is used as a reference to access the physical memory location by CPU. The term Logical Address Space is used for the set of all logical addresses generated by a program's perspective.
The hardware device called Memory-Management Unit is used for mapping logical address to its corresponding physical address.

Physical Address identifies a physical location of required data in a memory. The user never directly deals with the physical address but can access by its corresponding logical address. The user program generates the logical address and thinks that the program is running in this logical address but the program needs physical memory for its execution, therefore, the logical address must be mapped to the physical address by MMU before they are used. The term Physical Address Space is used for all physical addresses corresponding to the logical addresses in a Logical address space.



Mapping virtual-address to physical-addresses

Differences between Logical and Physical Address in Operating System

1. The basic difference between Logical and physical address is that Logical address is generated by CPU in perspective of a program whereas the physical address is a location that exists in the memory unit.
2. Logical Address Space is the set of all logical addresses generated by CPU for a program whereas the set of all physical address mapped to corresponding logical addresses is called Physical Address Space.
3. The logical address does not exist physically in the memory whereas physical address is a location in the memory that can be accessed physically.
4. Identical logical addresses are generated by Compile-time and Load time address binding methods whereas they differs from each other in run-time address binding method. Please refer this for details.
5. The logical address is generated by the CPU while the program is running whereas the physical address is computed by the Memory Management Unit (MMU).

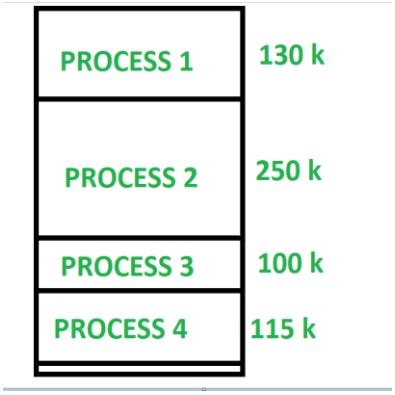
Fixed Partitioning and Variable Partitioning

Fixed Partitioning :

Multi-programming with fixed partitioning is a contiguous memory management technique in which the main memory is divided into fixed sized partitions which can be of equal or unequal size. Whenever we have to allocate a process memory then a free partition that is big enough to hold the process is found. Then the memory is allocated to the process.If there is no free space available then the process waits in the queue to be allocated memory. It is one of the most oldest memory management technique which is easy to implement.

Variable Partitioning :

Multi-programming with variable partitioning is a contiguous memory management technique in which the main memory is not divided into partitions and the process is allocated a chunk of free memory that is big enough for it to fit. The space which is left is considered as the free space which can be further used by other processes. It also provides the concept of compaction. In compaction the spaces that are free and the spaces which not allocated to the process are combined and single large memory space is made.



Paging

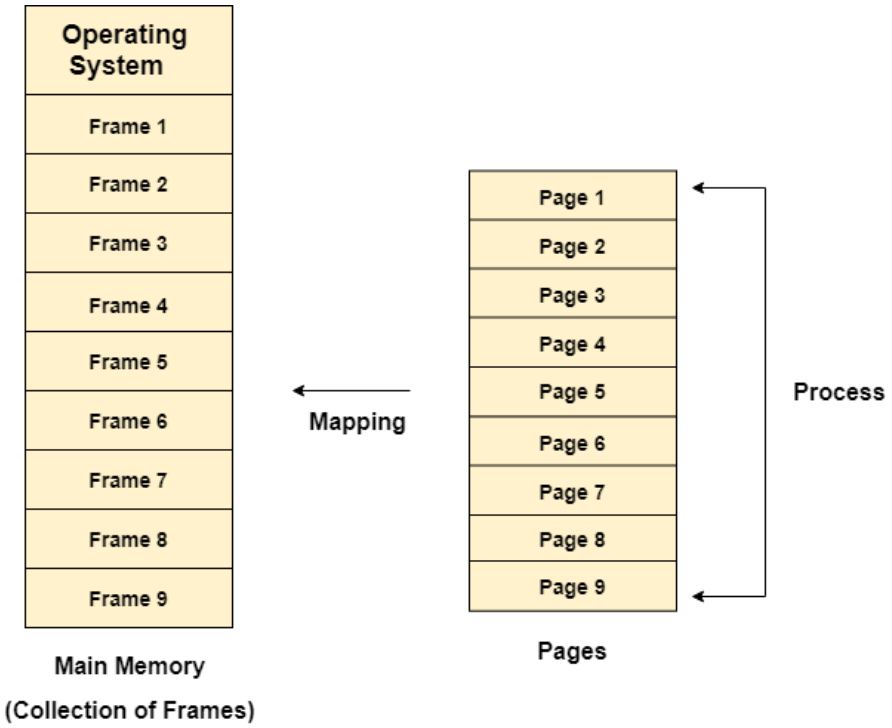
In Operating Systems, Paging is a storage mechanism used to retrieve processes from the secondary storage into the main memory in the form of pages.

The main idea behind the paging is to divide each process in the form of pages. The main memory will also be divided in the form of frames.

One page of the process is to be stored in one of the frames of the memory. The pages can be stored at the different locations of the memory but the priority is always to find the contiguous frames or holes.

Pages of the process are brought into the main memory only when they are required otherwise they reside in the secondary storage.

Different operating system defines different frame sizes. The sizes of each frame must be equal. Considering the fact that the pages are mapped to the frames in Paging, page size needs to be as same as frame size.



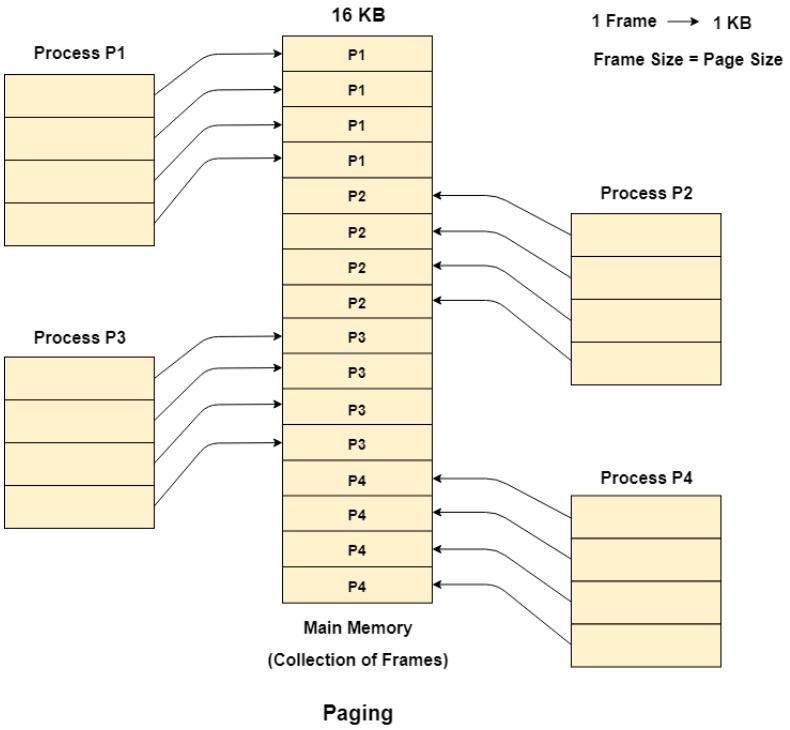
Example

Let us consider the main memory size 16 Kb and Frame size is 1 KB therefore the main memory will be divided into the collection of 16 frames of 1 KB each.

There are 4 processes in the system that is P1, P2, P3 and P4 of 4 KB each. Each process is divided into pages of 1 KB each so that one page can be stored in one frame.

Initially, all the frames are empty therefore pages of the processes will get stored in the contiguous way.

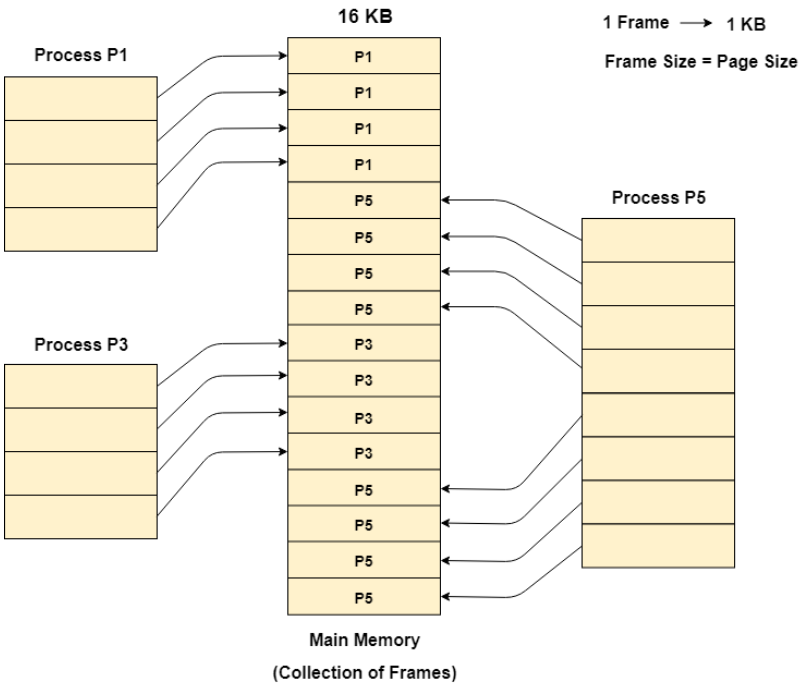
Frames, pages and the mapping between the two is shown in the image below.



Paging

Let us consider that, P2 and P4 are moved to waiting state after some time. Now, 8 frames become empty and therefore other pages can be loaded in that empty place. The process P5 of size 8 KB (8 pages) is waiting inside the ready queue.

Given the fact that, we have 8 non contiguous frames available in the memory and paging provides the flexibility of storing the process at the different places. Therefore, we can load the pages of process P5 in the place of P2 and P4.



Paging

Memory Management Unit

The purpose of Memory Management Unit (MMU) is to convert the logical address into the physical address. The logical address is the address generated by the CPU for every page while the physical address is the actual address of the frame where each page will be stored.

When a page is to be accessed by the CPU by using the logical address, the operating system needs to obtain the physical address to access that page physically.

The logical address has two parts.

1. Page Number
2. Offset

Memory management unit of OS needs to convert the page number to the frame number.

I/O Management System

Input/output device

Alternatively referred to as an **IO device**, an **input/output device** is any hardware used by a human operator or other systems to communicate with a computer. As the name suggests, input/output devices are capable of sending data (output) to a computer and receiving data from a computer (input).

Examples of input/output devices

- CD-R/RW, DVD, and Blu-ray drive
- Digital camera
- Floppy diskette drive
- Hard drives
- Modem
- Network adapter
- SD Card
- Touch screen
- USB thumb drives

Storage Devices

Storage device :- Storage devices are the computer hardware used to remember/store data.

There are many types of storage devices

- Hard Disk Drive (HDD)
- Solid State Drive
- Random Access Memory (RAM)
- CD, DVD and Blu-Ray Discs
- DVD-RAM
- ROM
- USB Flash Memory

Hard Disk Drive (HDD)

Hard disk drives are non-volatile magnetic storage devices capable of remembering vast amounts of data.

An electromagnet in the read/write head charges the disk's surface with either a positive or negative charge; this is how binary 1 or 0 is represented.

Random Access Memory (RAM)

RAM is a computer's primary memory. It is a very fast solid state storage medium that is directly accessible by the CPU.

Any open programs or files on a computer are temporarily stored in RAM whilst being used.

Being volatile, any data stored in RAM will be lost when power is removed. This makes RAM totally unsuitable for the long term permanent storage of data – that is the role of a HDD or SSD instead.

Benefits of RAM

- Directly accessible to the CPU, making processing data faster
- Fast solid state storage, making processing data faster

Drawbacks of RAM

- Relatively expensive memory
- Volatile – any data stored in RAM is lost when power is removed

Static RAM (SRAM)

Data on SRAM does not require refreshing.

However, the technology is bulkier meaning less memory per chip.

- More expensive than DRAM
- Much faster than DRAM
- Consumes less power
- Commonly used in cache memory

Dynamic RAM (DRAM)

The most common type of RAM in use.

The data needs to be continually refreshed otherwise it fades away.

Continually refreshing the data takes time and reduces performance speeds.

- Cheaper than SRAM
- Commonly used in main memory

CD, DVD and Blu-Ray Discs

CD, DVD and Blu-Ray drives are optical storage devices.

Binary data is stored as changes to the texture of the disc's surface, sometimes thought of as microscopic pits and bumps.

These 'bumps' are located on a continuous spiral track, starting at the centre of the disc.

Whilst the disc is rotating at a constant speed, a laser is pointed at the spiral track of 'bumps'.

The laser will reflect/bounce off the disc surface in different directions depending upon whether a 1 or 0 has been read.

Recordable Optical Media

CD-ROM, DVD-ROM, Blu-Ray-ROM

Read only – the data is permanently written to the disc at the point of manufacture.

CD-R, DVD-R, BD-R

Recordable – blank discs that can be burnt (written to) once.

CD-RW, DVD-RW, BD-RE

Re-writable – blank discs that can be burnt (written to) over and over again (can be erased and reused many times).

DVD-RAM

DVD-RAM is an optical media storage device.

It differs from a traditional DVD in that data is stored in concentric tracks (like a HDD) which allows read and write operations to be carried out at the same time.

This means, for example, that when used in a personal video recorder you can record one television programme whilst watching a recording of another. This allows handy features such as ‘time slip’ to be possible.

When used within a CCTV system you could review footage whilst still recording your cameras.

The capacity of DVD-RAM is 4.7 GB, or 9.4 GB for double-sided discs.

Typical applications for DVD-RAM

- Personal and digital video recorders
- High-end CCTV

Benefits of DVD-RAM

- Read and write at the same time
- Can be rewritten to many more times than a traditional DVD-RW
- Has write-protect tabs to prevent accidental deletion when used in an optional cartridge
- Data is retained for an estimated 30 years. This long life is great for archiving data
- Reliable writing of discs because the verification done by the hardware, not by software

Drawbacks of DVD-RAM

- Disc speeds higher than 5x are less common
- Less compatibility than DVD-RW

File Management System

Physical and Logical File Systems

1. Physical files :

Physical files contain the actual data that is stored on an I Series system, and a description of how data is to be presented to or received from a program. They contain only one record format, and one or more members. Records in database files can be described using either a field level description or record level description.
A field-level description describes the fields in the record to the system. Database files that are created with field level descriptions are referred to as externally described files. A record-level description describes only the length of the record, and not the contents of the record. Database files that are created with record level descriptions are referred to as program-described files. This means that your ILE C/C++ program must describe the fields in the record.

2. Logical files :

Logical files do not contain data. They contain a description of records that are found in one or more physical files. A logical file is a view or representation of one or more physical files. Logical files that contain more than one format are referred to as multi-format logical files.

The field-level description of the record includes a description of all fields and their arrangement in this record. Since the description of the fields and their arrangement is kept within a database file and not in your ILE C/C++ program, database files created with a field-level description are referred to as externally described files.

Physical versus Logical Files :

- **Physical File –**
  A collection of bytes stored on a disk or tape.
- **Logical File –**
  A “Channel” (like a telephone line) that hides the details of the file’s location and physical format to the program.

When a program wants to use a particular file, “data”, the operating system must find the physical file called “data” and make logical name by assigning a logical file to it. This logical file has a logical name which is what is used inside the program.

Various Methods of Allocating Disk Space

File Allocation Methods

The allocation methods define how the files are stored in the disk blocks. There are three main disk space or file allocation methods.

- Contiguous Allocation
- Linked Allocation
- Indexed Allocation

The main idea behind these methods is to provide:

- Efficient disk space utilization.
- Fast access to the file blocks.

All the three methods have their own advantages and disadvantages as discussed below:

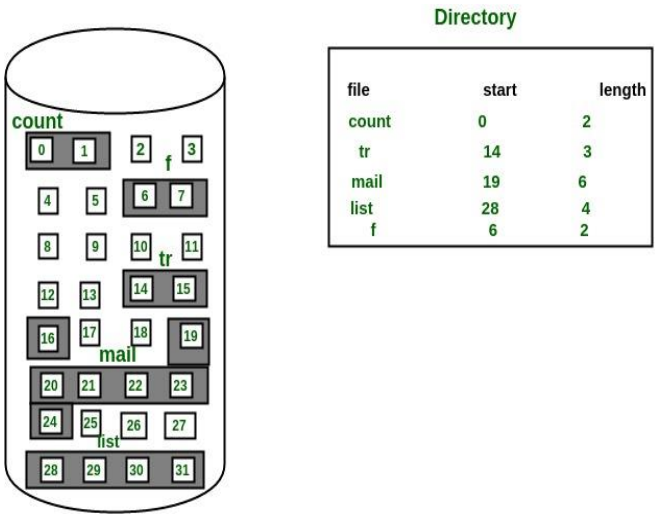
1. Contiguous Allocation

In this scheme, each file occupies a contiguous set of blocks on the disk. For example, if a file requires n blocks and is given a block b as the starting location, then the blocks assigned to the file will be: *b, b+1, b+2,……b+n-1.* This means that given the starting block address and the length of the file (in terms of blocks required), we can determine the blocks occupied by the file.

The directory entry for a file with contiguous allocation contains

- Address of starting block
- Length of the allocated portion.

The *file ‘mail’* in the following figure starts from the block 19 with length = 6 blocks. Therefore, it occupies *19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24* blocks.



Advantages:

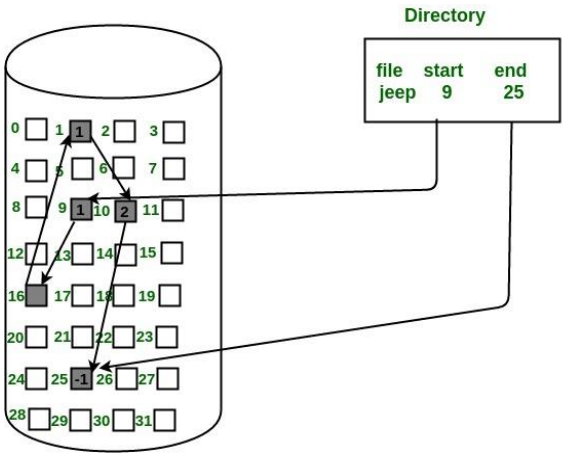
- Both the Sequential and Direct Accesses are supported by this. For direct access, the address of the kth block of the file which starts at block b can easily be obtained as (b+k).
- This is extremely fast since the number of seeks are minimal because of contiguous allocation of file blocks.

Disadvantages:

- This method suffers from both internal and external fragmentation. This makes it inefficient in terms of memory utilization.
- Increasing file size is difficult because it depends on the availability of contiguous memory at a particular instance.

2. Linked List Allocation

In this scheme, each file is a linked list of disk blocks which **need not be** contiguous. The disk blocks can be scattered anywhere on the disk.
The directory entry contains a pointer to the starting and the ending file block. Each block contains a pointer to the next block occupied by the file.



Advantages:

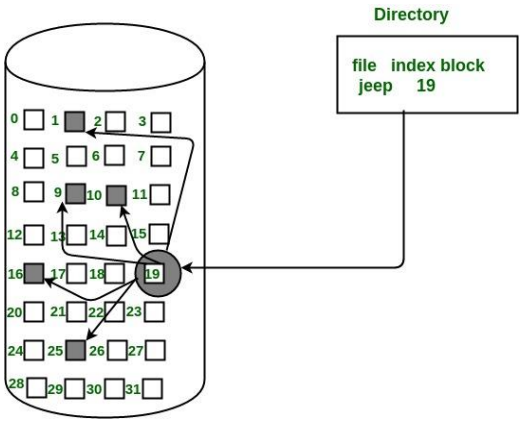
- This is very flexible in terms of file size. File size can be increased easily since the system does not have to look for a contiguous chunk of memory.
- This method does not suffer from external fragmentation. This makes it relatively better in terms of memory utilization.

Disadvantages:

- Because the file blocks are distributed randomly on the disk, a large number of seeks are needed to access every block individually. This makes linked allocation slower.
- It does not support random or direct access. We can not directly access the blocks of a file. A block k of a file can be accessed by traversing k blocks sequentially (sequential access) from the starting block of the file via block pointers.
- Pointers required in the linked allocation incur some extra overhead.

3. Indexed Allocation

In this scheme, a special block known as the **Index block** contains the pointers to all the blocks occupied by a file. Each file has its own index block. The ith entry in the index block contains the disk address of the ith file block. The directory entry contains the address of the index block as shown in the image:



Advantages:

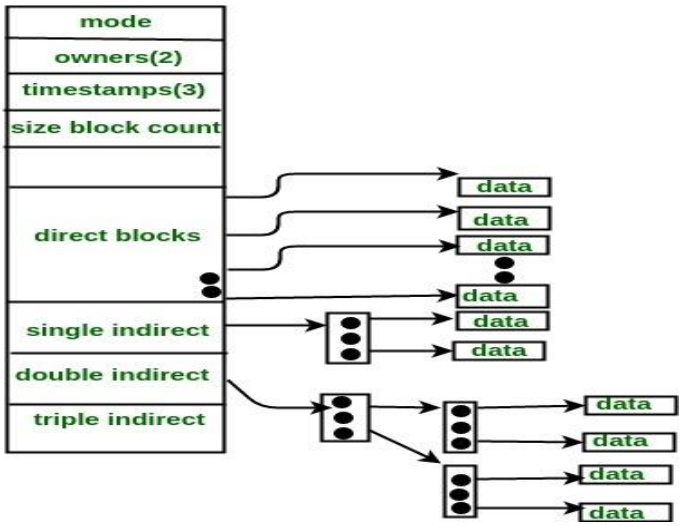
- This supports direct access to the blocks occupied by the file and therefore provides fast access to the file blocks.
- It overcomes the problem of external fragmentation.

Disadvantages:

- The pointer overhead for indexed allocation is greater than linked allocation.
- For very small files, say files that expand only 2-3 blocks, the indexed allocation would keep one entire block (index block) for the pointers which is inefficient in terms of memory utilization. However, in linked allocation we lose the space of only 1 pointer per block.

For files that are very large, single index block may not be able to hold all the pointers. Following mechanisms can be used to resolve this:

1. **Linked scheme:** This scheme links two or more index blocks together for holding the pointers. Every index block would then contain a pointer or the address to the next index block.
2. **Multilevel index:** In this policy, a first level index block is used to point to the second level index blocks which inturn points to the disk blocks occupied by the file. This can be extended to 3 or more levels depending on the maximum file size.
3. **Combined Scheme:** In this scheme, a special block called the **Inode (information Node)** contains all the information about the file such as the name, size, authority, etc and the remaining space of Inode is used to store the Disk Block addresses which contain the actual file *as shown in the image below.* The first few of these pointers in Inode point to the **direct blocks** i.e the pointers contain the addresses of the disk blocks that contain data of the file. The next few pointers point to indirect blocks. Indirect blocks may be single indirect, double indirect or triple indirect. **Single Indirect block** is the disk block that does not contain the file data but the disk address of the blocks that contain the file data. Similarly, **double indirect blocks** do not contain the file data but the disk address of the blocks that contain the address of the blocks containing the file data.



Linux Operating System

History of Unix, Linux

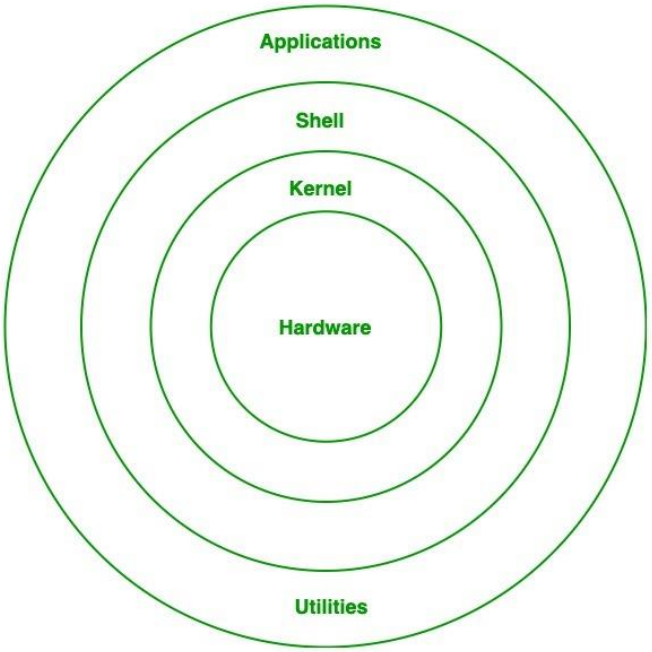
in 1969-1970, Kenneth Thompson, Dennis Ritchie, and others at AT&T Bell Labs began developing a small operating system on a little-used PDP-7. The operating system was soon christened Unix, a pun on an earlier operating system project called MULTICS. In 1972-1973 the system was rewritten in the programming language C, an unusual step that was visionary: due to this decision, Unix was the first widely-used operating system that could switch from and outlive its original hardware. Other innovations were added to Unix as well, in part due to synergies between Bell Labs and the academic community. In 1979, the ``seventh edition'' (V7) version of Unix was released, the grandfather of all extant Unix systems.

After this point, the history of Unix becomes somewhat convoluted. The academic community, led by Berkeley, developed a variant called the Berkeley Software Distribution (BSD), while AT&T continued developing Unix under the names ``System III'' and later ``System V''. In the late 1980's through early 1990's the ``wars'' between these two major strains raged. After many years each variant adopted many of the key features of the other. Commercially, System V won the ``standards wars'' (getting most of its interfaces into the formal standards), and most hardware vendors switched to AT&T's System V. However, System V ended up incorporating many BSD innovations, so the resulting system was more a merger of the two branches. The BSD branch did not die, but instead became widely used for research, for PC hardware, and for single-purpose servers (e.g., many web sites use a BSD derivative).

The result was many different versions of Unix, all based on the original seventh edition. Most versions of Unix were proprietary and maintained by their respective hardware vendor, for example, Sun Solaris is a variant of System V. Three versions of the BSD branch of Unix ended up as open source: FreeBSD (concentrating on ease-of-installation for PC-type hardware), Net BSD (concentrating on many different CPU architectures), and a variant of Net BSD, Open BSD (concentrating on security)

Architecture of Linux

Linux architecture has the following components:



1. **Kernel:** Kernel is the core of the Linux based operating system. It virtualizes the common hardware resources of the computer to provide each process with its virtual resources. This makes the process seem as it is the sole process running on the machine. The kernel is also responsible for preventing and mitigating conflicts between different processes. Different types of the kernel are:
    - Monolithic Kernel
    - Hybrid kernels
    - Exo kernels
    - Micro kernels
2. **System Library:** It is the special types of functions that are used to implement the functionality of the operating system.
3. **Shell:** It is an interface to the kernel which hides the complexity of the kernel's functions from the users. It takes commands from the user and executes the kernel's functions.
4. **Hardware Layer:** This layer consists all peripheral devices like RAM/ HDD/ CPU etc.
5. **System Utility:** It provides the functionalities of an operating system to the user.

Linux Commands and Filters

mkdir Command Syntax in Linux

The basic command for creating directories in Linux consists of the **mkdir** command and the name of the directory. As you can add options to this command, the syntax looks like this:

```
mkdir [option] dir_name
```

Creating and Deleting Directories

You create and remove directories with the **mkdir** and **rmdir** commands. In either case, you can also use pathnames for the directories. In the next example, the user creates the directory **reports**. Then the user creates the directory **letters** using a pathname:

$ **mkdir reports**

$ **mkdir /home/chris/letters**

You can remove a directory with the **rmdir** command followed by the directory name. In the next example, the user removes the directory **reports** with the **rmdir** command:

$ **rmdir reports**

To remove a directory and all its subdirectories, you use the **rm** command with the **-r** option. This is a very powerful command and could easily be used to erase all your files. You will be prompted for each file. To simply remove all files and subdirectories without prompts, add the **-f** option. The following example deletes the **reports** directory an all its subdirectories:

rm -rf reports

Displaying Directory Contents

You have seen how to use the **ls** command to list the files and directories within your working directory. To distinguish between file and directory names, however, you need to use the **ls** command with the **-F** option. A slash is then placed after each directory name in the list.

$ **ls**

weather reports letters

$ **ls -F**

weather reports/ letters/

The **ls** command also takes as an argument any directory name or directory pathname. This enables you to list the files in any directory without first having to change to that directory. In the next example, the **ls** command takes as its argument the name of a directory, **reports**. Then the **ls** command is executed again, only this time the absolute pathname of **reports** is used.

$ **ls reports**

mondaytuesday

$ **ls /home/chris/reports**

mondaytuesday

$

Shell scripts,vi editing commands

What is the VI editor?

The VI editor is the most popular and classic text editor in the Linux family. Below, are some reasons which make it a widely used editor –

1) It is available in almost all Linux Distributions

2) It works the same across different platforms and Distributions

3) It is user-friendly. Hence, millions of Linux users love it and use it for their editing needs

Nowadays, there are advanced versions of the vi editor available, and the most popular one is **VIM** which is **V**i **Im**proved. Some of the other ones are Elvis, Nvi, Nano, and Vile. It is wise to learn vi because it is feature-rich and offers endless possibilities to edit a file.

To work on VI editor, you need to understand **its operation modes**. They can be divided into two main parts.

Command mode:

- The vi editor opens in this mode, and it only **understands commands**
- In this mode, you can, **move the cursor and cut, copy, paste the text**
- This mode also saves the changes you have made to the file
- **Commands are case sensitive.** You should use the right letter case.

Insert mode:

- This mode is for inserting text in the file.
- You can switch to the Insert mode from the command mode **by pressing 'i' on the keyboard**
- Once you are in Insert mode, any key would be taken as an input for the file on which you are currently working.
- To return to the command mode and save the changes you have made you need to press the Esc key

Starting the vi editor

To launch the VI Editor -Open the Terminal (CLI) and type

```
vi <filename_NEW> or <filename_EXISTING>
```

And if you specify an existing file, then the editor would open it for you to edit. Else, you can create a new file.

Saving and Closing the file

- Shift+zz - Save the file and quit
- :w - Save the file but keep it open
- :q - Quit without saving
- :wq - Save the file and quit

You should be in the **command mode to exit the editor and save changes** to the file.