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Resources
Management
User Interface
Switching Users
Installing Softwar

Introduction to Linux

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Resources Management User Interface Switching Users Installing Software

Outline

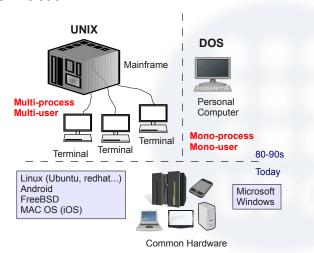
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Introduction to OS

- An OS has to:
 - Manage the resources of a computer.
 - Provide an interface for human beings: CLI or GUI.
- OS Evolution:



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Basic Unix Features

- Multi-process. Several processes can run on the same computing environment.
- Multi-user. Several users can share the computing environment.
- Simple Interfaces. Text as much as possible.

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OS Rings

- Kernel. Kernel manages hardware and essential operations with the hardware.
- User space. Processes of users.
- Interfaces:
 - Hardware to Kernel: privileged operations (low level operations). E.g. manage CPU -> CPU scheduler.
 - kernel to user space applications: system calls. E.g. ask for creating a new process.



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Hardware

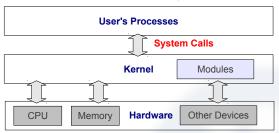
- Central Processing Unit (CPU). The CPU is responsible executing programs.
- Memory. Memory is used to store both program instructions and data.
- Input/Output (I/O) Devices. The kernel manages requests from user applications to perform input and output operations and provides convenient methods for using each device.

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System Calls



- The kernel provices an interface to user applications managing low level operations with the hardware.
- The kernel runs in "supervisor mode".
- Unix systems provide a library or API that sits between user programs and the Kernel.
- C library such as glibc provides wrapper functions for the system calls. For example:

```
int kill(pid_t pid, int sig);
```

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Modules

- The Linux Kernel is a monolithic hybrid kernel.
- Monolithic means the kernel is alone in supervisor mode.
- Hybrid means that kernel extensions, called modules, can be loaded and unloaded into the kernel upon demand while the kernel is running.
- Device drivers are one type of module.
- When you build a Linux kernel you can decide if you include a certain module inside the kernel (statically compiled module) or if you allow this module to be loaded at run time by your kernel (dynamic module).
- The commands to list, insert and remove modules are: lsmod, modprobe and rmmod.

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Interacting with the OS

- There are two types of interfaces:
 - Graphical User Interface (GUI).
 - Require a graphical server (e.g. X server).
 - Processes are typically applications that have graphical I/O using mouse, keyboard, touch screens, etc.
 - Command Line Interface (CLI).
 - Does not require a graphical server.
 - Processes are commands that have only textual I/O.
 - The I/O of the commands is related or "attached" to a terminal.
 - The terminal is also attached to a command line interpreter or shell.
 - Types of terminals: Physical terminal, Virtual Console and Terminal Emulator.

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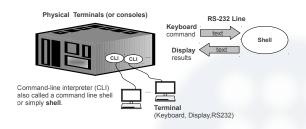
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CLIs





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- The su command stands for "switch user".
- Useful for changing the user without having "to relog".
- It allows you to become another user or execute commands as another user:

```
$ su telematic
```

- You are prompted to enter the password associated with the account to which you are switching.
- To exit: type exit or Ctrl-d.
- Per-command su:

```
$ su user -c command
```

- However, su is potentially dangerous.
- E.g. people knowing the password of the root.

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sudo I

- Using the sudoers file (/etc/sudoers), system administrators can define which users or groups will be able to execute certain commands (or even any command) as root.
- The advantage is that none of these users will have to know the password of root.
- The sudo command prompts to introduce the password of the user that is executing sudo.

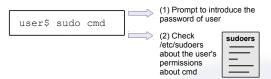
\$ sudo command

 Additionally, if your user is configured as system administrator in the sudoers file you can get a shell as root.

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sudo II



To become root you can type:

```
user$ sudo -s
root#
```

- Note. We will use \$ to mean that the command is being executed as a regular user and # to mean that the command is being executed as root.
- You can use the command whoami to know which user you are.

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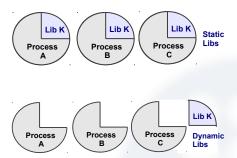
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Types of Libraries I



- Static libraries provide a set of functions that are included at compile-time into the final executable file.
- Dynamic libraries allow its set of functions to be referenced in user code and defined in a shared library to be resolved at run time, that is to say, when the program is loaded to become a process in the system.

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Types of Libraries II

- Static libraries pros and cons:
 - Anything used from these libraries is available (with the correct version) before the program is executed and this avoids dependency problems.
 - The main drawback is that the size of executables is bigger (more disk and memory).
- Dynamic libraries pros and cons:
 - Shared library code is not present in the executable.
 - Load time may be also reduced (library code might be in memory).
 - Libraries can be updated without updating applications.
 - The main drawback is that they usually establish complex relationships between the different packages of software installed in a system (library versions etc.).

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Types of Libraries III

A typical "hello world" program in C:

```
/* Hello World program */
#include < stdio .h>
main()
{
   printf("Hello World\n");
}
```

We can compile and execute the program:

```
$ gcc -o hello hello.c
$ ./hello
Hello World
```

 By default the gcc compiler creates dynamic executables.

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Types of Libraries IV

• You can check dependencies with the 1dd command.

```
$ 1dd hello
linux-vdso.so.1 => (0x00007fff5e7ca000)
libc.so.6=>/lib/x86_64-linux-gnu/libc.so.6 (0x0..)
/lib64/ld-linux-x86-64.so.2 (0x00007fca8f089000)
```

 We can view the size of our executable with the du (disk usage) command:

```
$ du hello
12 hello
```

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Types of Libraries V

 Compare this when we statically compile the same program:

```
$ gcc -static -o hello.static hello.c
$ ./hello.static
Hello World
$ ldd hello.static
    not a dynamic executable
$ du hello.static
860 hello.static
```

- The advantages of dynamic executables are clear.
- But the management of the different libraries on the system results in a challenge colloquially known as "dependency hell".

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Sofware Packages

- A package of software tracks where all its files are, allowing the user to easily manage the installed software: view dependencies, uninstall, etc.
- Generally, in Linux, software packages copy their executables in /usr/bin, their libraries in /usr/lib and their documentation in /usr/share/doc/package/.
- There are multiple different package systems, two main are:
 - Red Hat Packages (.rpm files).
 - Debian Packages (.deb files).
- In Debian (Ubuntu) we use deb packages.
- With the dpkg command we can install and remove deb packages, view the files installed by a package, view the packages installed in the system, etc.

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Advanced Package Management I

- The tool dpkg does not manage dependencies.
- A new generation of package management systems was developed to make this tedious process easier for the user.
- For the deb packages the tool is called APT.
- With APT, we essentially say "install this package" and all dependent packages will be installed/upgraded as appropriate.
- We need to configure the "repositories" that contain our deb packages.
- For APT, repositories are defined in files in /etc/apt.

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Advanced Package Management II

Typical APT commands:

APT command	Description
apt-get update	update the list available packages from online repositories
apt-get dist-upgrade	upgrade specified packages (or all installed packages if none specified)
apt-get install <package list=""></package>	install latest version of package(s)
apt-get remove <package list=""></package>	remove specified packages from system
apt-cache list [package list]	list available packages from repositories

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Advanced Package Management III

- APT requires to execute apt-get update to update the available list of packages available in online repositories.
- If the update is not executed, APT works with the local cache, which might be outdated.
- In an Ubuntu system, we can type the name of an application in the console and, if it is not installed, the system will tell us how to install it:

```
$ xcowsay
The program xcowsay is currently not installed.
You can install it by typing:
sudo apt-get install xcowsay
```