Contents

1 Function Pointers

`int (*fp)(int, char*)` - Declares fp to be a pointer to a function which takes int and char* arguments and returns int
`void (*fp2[10])(double)` - Declares fp2 to be an array (of size 10) of pointers to functions taking a double parameter and returning nothing
`int (*fp3)()` - Declares fp3 to be a pointer to a function returning int. Argument types unknown and won't be checked by the compiler (Up to programmer to use this correctly).

2 Storage classes

2.1 auto

- Variable has local (automatic) extent, i.e. removed at end of block
- Permitted within a block only (i.e. not top level)
- This is the default so rarely seen

2.2 extern

- Variable/function is external to all functions, i.e. can be accessed by name by any function
- Globally accessible - linker must know about the name
- Must be defined once somewhere (can be declared anywhere)

2.3 register

- Hint to compiler to put variable in a register, otherwise like auto

2.4 static

- Name is only accessible in this file (i.e. not exported to linker)
- For variables - extent is static - variable lasts for life of program

3 5 Views of OS

1. Hardware
2. Operating System Designer
3. Application Programmer
4. End-User
5. System Administrator

4 Environment Variables

HOME - full pathname of home directory
PATH - colon separated list of pathnames to search for commands
USER - your username
SHELL - full pathname of your login shell

4.1 Local Variable

`courseCode=CSSE2310`

4.2 Environment Variable

`export courseCode`

5 Metacharacters

5.1 WildCards

***** - zero or more characters
? - any single character

5.2 Comment

- start of comment (goes till end of line)

5.3 Running Commands

& - run command in background
; - used to separate commands
‘command‘ - substitute result of running command

5.4 Variable Substitution

$varname - substitute value of variable

5.5 SubShell

(...commands...) - execute commands in a sub-shell

5.6 Conditional sequences

|| - execute command if previous command failed
&& - execute command if previous one succeeded
A success is when the program returns an exit code 0

5.7 Redirection and Pipes

| - pipe, output of one program sent to the input of the next
> - send stdout to file
< - write stdin from file
» - append stdout to file

5.8 Quoting

Single Quotes - inhibit wildcard replacement, variable substitution, command substitution.
Double Quotes - inhibit wildcard replacement only.
Can also use backslashes.

6 Shell Scripting

6.1 Shell Arithmetic

Use `expr EXPRESSION` command. Result is printed to stdout.

6.2 Shell Conditional

Use `text EXPRESSION` or `[ EXPRESSION ]`. `EXPRESSION` follows `INT1 option INT2` where option can be:
`-eq` (equals), `-ge` (greater than or equal), `-gt` (greater than), `-le` (less than or equal), `-lt` (less than), `-ne` (not equal). Result is exit code 1 for false and 0 for true.

6.3 Control Structures

For Loop

```
for name [ in word... ]
do
commands...
done
```

If words omitted, uses script arguments.

While Loop

```
while command1
do
command2
done
```

If Then Else

```
if command1
then
command2
elif command3
then
command4
else
command5
fi
```

Other Control Structures

Case. Until - do - done. Done.

7 Built-in Shell Variables

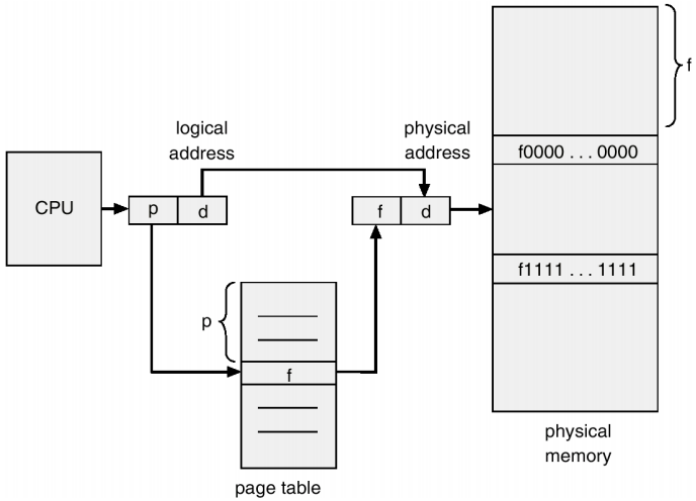
$$ - process ID of shell
$0 - name of the shell script
$1...$9 - command line arguments
$* - all the command line arguments
$# - number of command line arguments (excludes command name)
$? - exit status of last command
$! - process ID of last background command

8 Paging

One of several methods of implementing virtual memory. Divide physical memory into fixed-sized blocks called page frames (size is power of 2, usually between 512 bytes and 8192 bytes). Divide logical memory into blocks of same size called pages. Keep track of all free frames. To run a program of n pages, need to find n free frames and load program.
Set up a page table to translate logical to physical addresses.

8.1 Address Translation Scheme

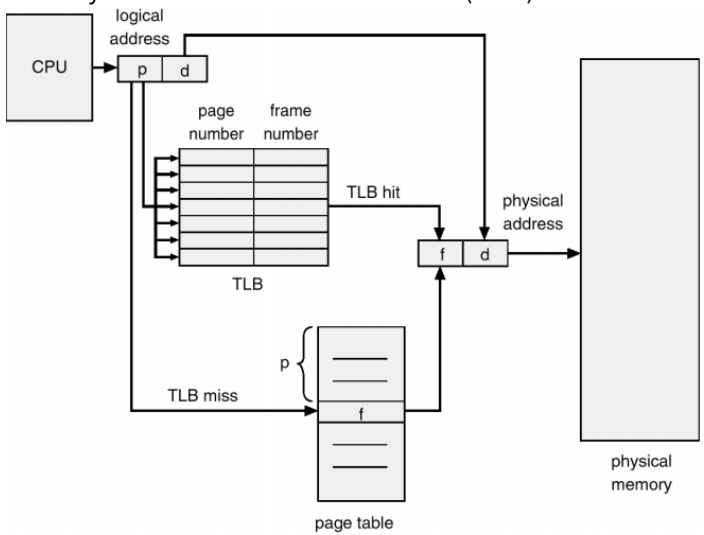
Page Number (p) - used as an index into a page table which contains base address of each page in physical memory
Page Offset (d) - combined with base address to define the physical memory address that is sent to the memory unit



8.2 Implementation of Page Table

Page table is kept in main memory. The two memory

access problem can be solved by the use of a special fast-lookup hardware cache called associative memory or translation look-aside buffers (TLBs)



Page Faults

If the TLB entry doesn't exist, then load it into the table

8.3 Memory Protection

Memory protection implemented by associating protection bit with each frame.

8.4 Segmentation Faults

Segmentation Fault arises when: Accessing invalid memory page, Trying to write to a read-only page.

8.5 Shared Pages

Shared code

One copy of read-only code shared among processes. Shared code must appear in same location in the virtual address space of all processes.

Private code and data

Each process keeps a separate copy of the code and data. The pages for the private code and data can appear anywhere in the virtual address space.

8.6 User-space vs Kernel

The operating system controls the address ranges (pages) a process can use. It does not decide how that space is used. Management of those pages is the responsibility of the process (Usually vie standard libraries).

9 Memory-Related Bugs

- Dereferencing bad pointers
- Reading uninitialized memory
- Overwriting memory
- Referencing nonexistent variables
- Freeing blocks multiple times
- Referencing freed blocks
- Failing to free blocks

10 Processes

10.1 fork

`int fork(void)` - creates a new process. Returns 0 to the child process else return child's pid.
Common for the parent to be the only one to continue forking

10.2 exit

`void exit(int status)` - exits a process (status 0 for no error)
`_exit()` - will not run the registered exit functions

10.3 atexit

`atexit(void (*func)(void))` - registers functions to be executed upon exit. Functions called in reverse order of registration.

10.4 wait

`int wait(int child_status)` - suspends process until child process terminates. Return the exit code, if child_status is `NULL` then any child process.

10.5 waitpid

`waitpid(pid, &status, options)` - can wait for a specific process. Various options (default is 0)

10.6 exec

`int execl(char *path, char *arg0, char *arg1, ..., 0)` - loads and runs executable at path with args arg0, arg1... (path is the complete path of the executable, arg0 becomes the name of the process).

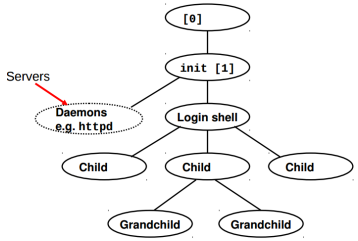
exec variations

`execl()`, `execve()`, `execv()`, `execlp()`, `execle()`, `execvp()`
l - arguments directly in call (list)
v - arguments in array (vector)
p - use PATH to find program
e - provide environment definition

10.7 Resource Sharing

- Parent and children share all resources
- Children share subset of parent's resources
- Parent and child share no resources

10.8 Unix Process Hierarchy



11 Files

11.1 Unix File Types

Regular file

Binary or text file. Unix does not know the difference

Directory file

A file that contains the names and locations of other files

Links

Symbolic links to other files

Character special and block special files

Terminals (character special) and disks (block special)

FIFO (named pipe)

A file type used for interprocess communication

Socket

A file type used for network communication between processes

11.2 Sharing Files

A child process inherits its parent's open files. `refcnt` counts the number of references.

12 Piping

12.1 I/O Redirection

dup2

`dup2(oldfd, newfd)` - copies per-process descriptor table entry oldfd to entry newfd.

12.2 Example

```
1  int fdInput[2], fdOutput[2];
2  if (pipe(fdInput) == 0 && pipe(fdOutput) == 0) {
3      int pid = fork();
4      if (pid == 0) {
5          //Child
6          close(fdOutput[1]);
7          close(fdInput[0]);
8          dup2(fdOutput[0], STDIN_FILENO);
9          dup2(fdInput[1], STDOUT_FILENO);
10         if (execl(processName, processName, arg1,
11                 arg2, NULL) == -1) {
12             error(SUBPROCESS_ERROR);
13         }
14     } else {
15         //Parent
16         childPid = pid;
17         close(fdInput[1]);
18         close(fdOutput[0]);
19         input = fdopen(fdInput[0], "r");
20         output = fdopen(fdOutput[1], "w");
21     }
22 }
23 return
```

13 Threads

A process may have multiple threads of control. Threads share code, data, open files etc (they have separate control flows).

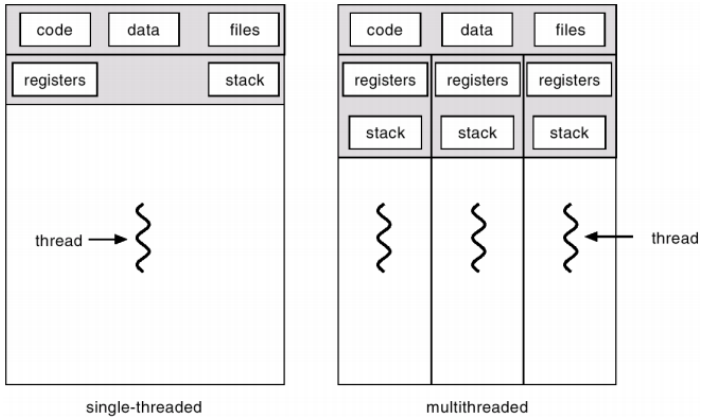
13.1 Threads vs Processes

Similarities

Each has its own logical control flow. Each can run concurrently. Each is context switched.

Differences

Threads share code and data, processes (typically) do not. Threads are somewhat less expensive than processes.



13.2 Multithreading Models

Many-to-One (User Threads)

Threads implemented in user space. OS knows nothing about them

One-to-One

Threads implemented in kernel space, one kernel thread per user thread

Many-to-Many

Hybrid model

13.3 Functions

pthread_create

`pthread_create` takes a function pointer to start the thread

pthread_join

`pthread_join` waits for a specific thread

```c
int main() {
    pthread_t tid;
    pthread_create(&tid, NULL, thread1, NULL);
    pthread_join(tid, NULL);
    printf("Hello from first\n");
    exit(0);
}

void* thread1(void* vargp) {
    printf("Hello from second\n");
    return NULL;
}
```

pthread_self

Returns the ID of the calling thread

pthread_exit

Exits the calling thread

pthread_cancel

`int pthread_cancel(pthread_t thread)` - sends a cancel request to thread

pthread_detach

`int pthread_detach(pthread_t thread)` - marks the thread as detached

pthread_join

`int pthread_join(pthread_t thread, void ** retval)` - waits for thread to finish

13.4 Thread Lifecycle

Ready → Running → Blocked → Terminated

14 Shared Data

Global variables - one copy per process
Local variables - one copy per thread
Static variables - one copy per process

14.1 Critical Section

A critical section of a thread is a segment of code that shouldn't be interleaved with another thread's critical section. *Note that these threads could be in different processes.* Concurrent access to shared data may result in data inconsistency.

Semaphores

Associate a semaphore S initially 1, with each shared variable (or set of shared variables). Surround corresponding critical section with `wait(S)` and `signal(S)` operations. This is a binary semaphore. Semaphore ensures mutually exclusive access to critical region.

15 Networking

15.1 Client-Server Model

Most network applications are based on the client-server model: A server process and one or more client processes.

15.2 TCP/IP

Protocol = Rules for communication
TCP = Transmission Control Protocol. Provides communication between ports on two computers (bidirectional, point-to-point, reliable, byte stream). Uses IP (Internet Protocol) to transmit small packets of data between two IP addresses.

TCP Connections

Identified by: Source IP address, Source port number, Destination IP address, Destination port number.

IP Addresses (v4)

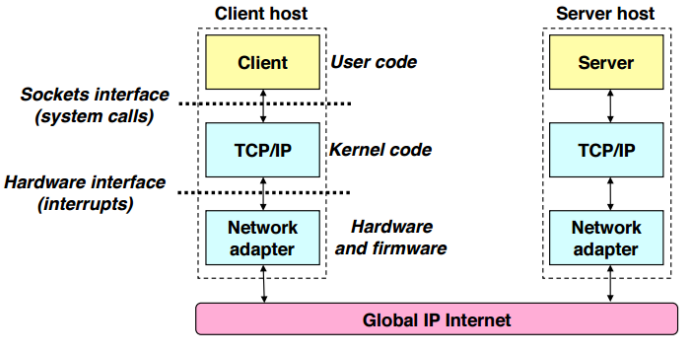
32-bit numbers. Often written in dotted decimal notation for human consumption (e.g. 130.102.2.15)

Port Numbers

16 bits: 0 - 65535. Below 1024, well known ports, reserved for standard services.

Sockets

A socket is a communication endpoint; associated with a file descriptor in UNIX - can do file I/O on socket, main distinction between regular file I/O and socket I/O is how the application "opens" the socket descriptors.



`socket(...)` - create a new communication end-point
`bind(...)` - attach a local address to a socket
`listen(...)` - willing to accept connections, give queue size
`accept(...)` - wait for a connection attempt to arrive
`connect(...)` - attempt to establish a connection
`send(...)` or `write(...)` - send data over the connection
`recv(...)` or `read(...)` - receive data over the connection
`sendto(...)` - send datagram (UDP)
`recvfrom(...)` - receive datagram (UDP)
`close(...)` - release the connection
`shutdown(...)` - close down one side of connection (or both sides)

Creating a Socket

`AF_INET` - indicates that the socket is associated with Internet Protocols
`SOCK_STREAM` - selects a reliable byte stream connection (TCP)

```c
int fd = socket(AF_INET, SOCK_STREAM, 0);
if (fd < 0) {
    perror("Socket creation failed");
    exit(1);
}
```

Socket Address Structures

Generic socket address:

```c
struct sockaddr {
    sa_family_t sa_family; /* protocol family */
    char sa_data[14]; /* address data */
};
```

Internet-specific socket address:

```c
struct sockaddr_in {
    sa_family_t sin_family;
    /* address family (always AF_INET) */
    in_port_t sin_port;
    /* port num in network byte order */
    struct in_addr sin_addr;
    /* IP addr in network byte order */
    unsigned char sin_zero[8];
    /* pad to sizeof(struct sockaddr) */
};
```

Accepting a request

Blocks waiting for a connection request

```
int listenfd; /* listening descriptor */
int connfd; /* connected descriptor */
struct sockaddr_in clientaddr;
int clientlen = sizeof(clientaddr);
connfd = accept(listenfd, (struct sockaddr*)
        &clientaddr, &clientlen);
```

Socket Options

Handy trick to allow us to rerun a server immediately after we kill it (usually have to wait 60 seconds)

```
int optval = 1;
if (setsockopt(fd, SOL_SOCKET, SO_REUSEADDR,
        (const void *) &optval, sizeof(int))
        < 0) {
    perror("Unable to set socket option");
    exit(1);
}
```

Identifying the Client

The server can determine the domain name and IP address of the client

```
char hostname[128];
/* After accept has populated clientaddr,
    clientlen */
int error = getnameinfo((struct sockaddr*)
        &clientaddr, clientlen, hostname, 128,
        NULL, 0, 0);
if (!error) {
    printf(hostname);
    printf(inet_ntoa(clientaddr.sin_addr));
}
```

Connected vs. Listening Descriptors

Listening descriptor: End point for client connection requests, created once and exists for lifetime of the server.
Connected descriptor: End point for connection between client and server, a new descriptor is created each time the server accepts a connection.

15.3 IP Addresses in C

```
typedef uint32_t in_addr_t;
/* Internet address structure */
struct in_addr {
    in_addr_t s_addr;
    /* network byte order (big-endian) */
};
```

Handy network byte-order conversion functions:
htonl() convert uint32_t from host to network byte order
htons() convert uint16_t from host to network byte order
ntohl() convert uint32_t from network to host byte order
ntohs() convert uint16_t from network to host byte order
Function for converting between binary IP addresses and dotted decimal strings:
inet_aton(...) converts a dotted decimal string to an IP address in network byte order
inet_ntoa(...) converts an IP address in network byte order to its corresponding dotted decimal string

15.4 Testing Servers Using netcat

`nc <host> <portnumber>` - creates a connection with a server running on `<host>` and listening on port `<portnumber>`
`nc -l -p <portnumber>` - create a netcat server

15.5 Iterative Server

Iterative servers process one request as a time

15.6 Pros and Cons of ...

Process Based Design

+ Handles multiple connections concurrently
+ Simple and straightforward
- Additional overhead for process control
- Nontrivial to share data between processes (Requires IPC mechanisms)

Thread Based Design

+ Easier to share data between threads (may need mutexes/semaphores)
- Do have thread overhead

15.7 Event-Based Concurrent Servers

Maintain a set of connected descriptors and service each as new data arrives. Repeat the following forever:

- Use the Unix `select()` function to block until:
  1. new connection request arrives on the listening descriptor, or
  2. new data arrives on an existing connected descriptor
- If 1. add the new connection to the pool of connections
- If 2. read any available data from the connection (close connection on EOF and remove it from the set)

select

`int select(int maxfdp1, fd_set *readset, NULL, NULL, NULL)` - sleeps until one or more file descriptors in the set are ready for reading.
`readset` - opaque bit vector that indicates membership in a descriptor set. If bit k is 1, descriptor k is a member of the descriptor set
`maxfdp1` - maximum descriptor in descriptor set plus 1
Returns the number of ready descriptors and sets each bit of `readset` to indicate the ready status of corresponding descriptor.

Manipulating Set Descriptors (Macros)

`void FD_ZERO(fd_set *fdset)` - turn off all bits in `fdset`
`void FD_SET(int fd, fd_set *fdset)` - turn on bit `fd` in `fdset`
`void FD_CLR(int fd, fd_set *fdset)` - turn off bit `fd` in `fdset`
`int FD_ISSET(int fd, fd_set *fdset)` - is bit `fd` in `fdset` turned on

Pros and Cons

+ One logical control flow
+ Can single-step with a debugger
+ No process or thread control overhead
- More complex to code than process or thread-based designs
- Can be vulnerable to denial of service attack if not implemented correctly

poll

Does the same thing as select, but different interface.

15.8 Network Layers

Network code is written as a "stack" of layers. We will use the Internet (IP) stack as our example.

Physical Layer

The medium through which signals travel

(Data) Link Layer (2)

Talking to nodes which you can reach without an intermediary (Ethernet, WiFi, a node could have a number of link layer interfaces)

Network Layer (3)

Communicating with any host on the "internet". Two tasks: find a node closer to the destination, send the packet in that direction (delegated to the link layer). The protocol for this layer is the Internet Protocol or IP. The address at this layer is the IP address.

Transport Layer (4)

Transmission Control Protocol (TCP):

- Connction oriented
- Stream based
- Delivery is reliable; In order, nothing missing, no duplicates

User Datagram Protocol

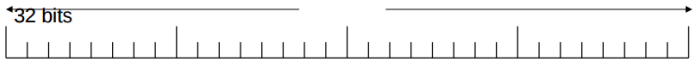
- Connectionless
- Message based (think post card)
- "unreliable"

If you don't mind messages going missing UDP is faster (no acknowledgment). TCP will not move on until the current part of the stream has been delivered.

Application Layer (5)

Layer 5 is everything that builds on Layer 4, i.e. any program or application.

15.9 IP Header



Version	HLen	Service Type	Total length
Identification		DF MF	Fragment offset
Time to live	Protocol		Header checksum
Source address			
Destination address			
Options (0 or more words)			

Protocol: 8 bits, identifies higher level protocol to which packet should be passed (e.g. 6 = TCP, 17 = UDP)
Source and Dest. Addresses: 32 bits each
Version: 4 bits, Currently v4 (v6 around also but uses a different header)
Total Length: 16 bits, datagram length, max length = 65535 bytes, in reality datagrams are ofter limited by the underlying physical network
Time-to-live: 8 bits, decremented at each router, was supposed to count seconds, in practice counts hops, discarded when zero

traceroute

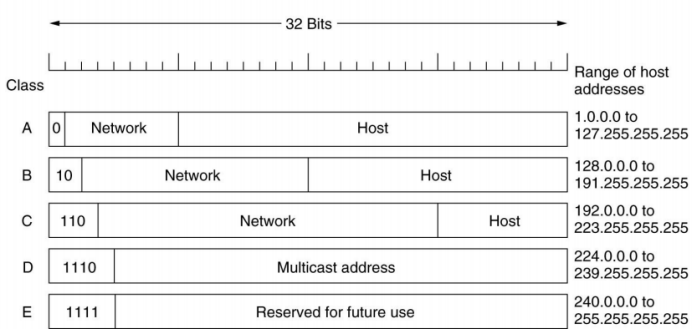
traceroute uses the ICMP protocol with varying Time-to-live values. Expired messages return to the program to work out the route taken.

16 Ways for Creating Concurrent Flows

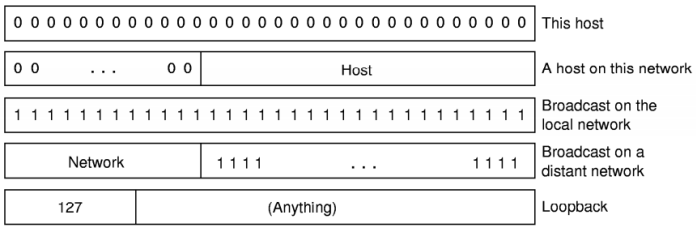
1. Processes
   - Kernel automatically interleaves multiple logical flows
   - Each flow has its own private address space
2. Threads
   - Kernel automatically interleaves multiple logical flows
   - Each flow shares the same address space
3. I/O multiplexing with `select()`
   - User manually interleaves multiple logical flows
   - Each flow shares the same address space
   - Popular for high-performance server designs

17 IP Addresses

17.1 Classful addressing



Addresses with all 0's means this network or host, an address with all 1's means all hosts on indicated network



17.2 Forwarding/Routing

Each entry associated with network interface to send packet out on: Process is called forwarding (Note: Each router interface has different IP address), routing is the process of building up the tables of information.
If network not listed - packet sent to some default router. Routers only need to know about local hosts and some other networks

17.3 Forwarding and Subnets

Forwarding table entries - slightly different from: this-network-num.subnet-num.0 or this-network-num.this-subnet-num.host
Router on subnet k knows how to send packets to other subnets and send packets to hosts on subnet k. Subnet k router doesn't need to know about hosts on other subnets.
Forwarding table sometimes called routing table

Subnet masks

Mask that removes host-id when ANDed with address (bitwise AND).

Non-routable IPs

Address Allocation for Private Internets
$10.0.0.0 \rightarrow 10.255.255.255, 172.16.0.0 \rightarrow 172.31.255.255, 192.168.0.0 \rightarrow 192.168.255.255$

17.4 CIDR - Classless Inter-Domain Routing

A,B,C classful networks too inflexible. IP address blocks now allocated in a classless manner using a hierarchy of registries. Networks expressed as base IP address/N where N is the number of bits identifying the network part of the address.

17.5 CIDR and Routing

ISPs can allocate blocks of addresses within the blocks that have been allocated to them. Routers outside the ISP only need to know about the common prefix. This is called routing prefix aggregation, or supernetting or route summarization.

17.6 NAT - Network Address Translation

An approach to shortage of IP addresses. Basic idea:

- Assign an entity (organization) a single IP address
- Use unique, private IP addresses within organization (these same addresses can be used within multiple organizations)
- Change private IP address into organization's IP address when packet leaves network

Three ranges of private IP addresses exist.
Private IP address must not appear on Internet

Addresses on the Network

Ethernet doesn't understand IP addresses. Actually need to send info with MAC address. Ways of mapping IP addresses to LAN addresses:

- Static - have a configuration file or table
- Dynamic - ask over the network

18 File Systems

18.1 Common File System Formats

- Windows - NTFS, FAT, FAT32
- Solaris - UFS (Unix File System)
- Linux - ext2, ReiserFS. ext3, ext4, btrfs
- BSD - FFS (Fast File System)
- Optical disks - ISO09660, Joliet extensions, UDF

18.2 File Attributes

Each file usually associated with attributes or meta-data:

- Name - human readable
- Type - Some systems determine this from name or contents of file
- Location - where is it on the device
- Size
- Protection - who has what permissions
- Owner
- Time and date information

Particular attributes stored can vary by OS (can vary by file system)

File Types

How is type of file determined?

- Windows - Based on filename extension
- Macintosh (HFS) - 4 character type stored as meta-data e.g. MSWD is "Microsoft Word"
- Unix - Contents of first part of file (magic number). See `/etc/magic`

Protection

Os must allow users to control access to files (Grant or deny access to file operations depending on protection information)
Access lists and groups (Windows - NTFS)

- Access list for each file with user name and access type
- Lists can become large and tedious to maintain

Access control bits (UNIX)

- Three categories of user (user, group, others)
- Three types of access privileges (read, write, execute)
- One bit per operation (11110100 = rwxr-x—)
- Unix also supports ACLs

18.3 Directories

OS (file system) uses numbers, e.g. index number of sector number.
People prefer names.
OS provides directory to map names to file numbers.

Hierarchical File Systems

Tree-structured name space (Used by all modern operating systems).
Top level:

- root directory (UNIX)
- drive names / UNC paths (Windows)
- volume names (MacOS - not Mac OS X)

Tree-structured name space:

- Directory becomes special file on disk
- User programs may read directories, but only system may manipulate directories
- Each directory contains (name, index number) pairs
  Names need not be unique in whole file system, name must be unique in that directory

18.4 Mounting File Systems

File systems must be mounted before use (Complete directory structure may actually be built out of multiple file systems)
Mounting involves associating a file system device (e.g. disk partition) with a mount point

- Mount point is the pathname at which the root of the mounted file system appears
- Windows - drive letters
- Unix - more arbitrary mount points

18.5 Links in UNIX

Hard Links (UNIX: ln command)

- Allows multiple links to single file
- Example: “ln A B”
  initially: A -> file number 100
  after: A, B -> file number 100 (i.e. multiple names for the same file)
- Can’t link across file systems
- OS maintains reference counts
  Deletes file only after last link to is is deleted

Problem: users could create circular links with directories (Reference counting can’t reclaim cycles)
Solution: can’t hard link directories

Soft (symbolic) links (UNIX: ln -s)

- Makes a symbolic pointer from one file to another
- “ln -s A B”
  initially: A -> file #100
  after: A -> file #100, B -> A
- Removing B does not affect A
- Removing A: dangling pointer

Problem: Circular links can cause infinite loops (e.g. list all files in directory and its subdirectories)
Shortcuts in Windows are a similar concept (not the same)

18.6 File Sharing

Sharing may occur over a network
Distributed File System

- Remote file system directories are visible locally, e.g. via some mount point
- NFS (Sun’s Network File System)
  Widely used in UNIX world
- CIFS (Common Internet File System)
  Windows

19 Disk Drives

Consist of multiple rotating disks:

- Each disk contains concentric tracks
- Each track consists of multiple sectors (Bits laid out serially)
- Sector typically 512 bytes (plus preamble, error correction etc)

19.1 Cost of Disk Operations

In addition to CPU time to start disk operation: **Latency:** time to initiate disk transfer

- **Seek time:** time to position head over correct cylinder
- **Rotational time:** time for correct sector to rotate until under disk head

In most cases, disk latency will be some number of milliseconds
Bandwidth: rate of I/O transfer of sectors once initiated

19.2 (free space) Fragmentation

Internal Fragmentation - Space allocated byt not used (e.g. allocations of 4kbyte disk blocks - a 5kbyte file will be allocated 2 block (8kbytes) - 3kbytes wasted)
External Fragmentation - Unallocated spaces are too small to be useful, or too spread out

20 Disks and FS

Disks:

- Reads and writes occur in terms of whole sectors
- Minimum unit of transfer

Filesystems:

- File system maps file blocks to disk location
  e.g. file 7, block 0 maps to cylinder 1, head 3, sector 6
- A file block might not be the same size as a disk sector

20.1 On-Disk Data Structures

Most systems fit following profile:

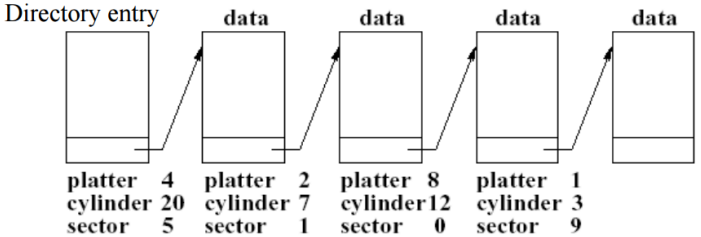
- Most files are small
- Most disk space taken up by large files
- I/O operations target both small and large

Per-file cost must be low, but large files must also have good performance
Some possible structures:

- Contiguous allocation (too simple for our purposes)
- Linked Files
- Indexed File

Linked Files

Maintain list of all free sectors/blocks
In directory entry, keep pointer to first sector/block
In each sector, keep pointer to next sector



Pros and Cons
Advantages:

- No external fragmentation
- Easily handles file size changes
- Good for sequential access

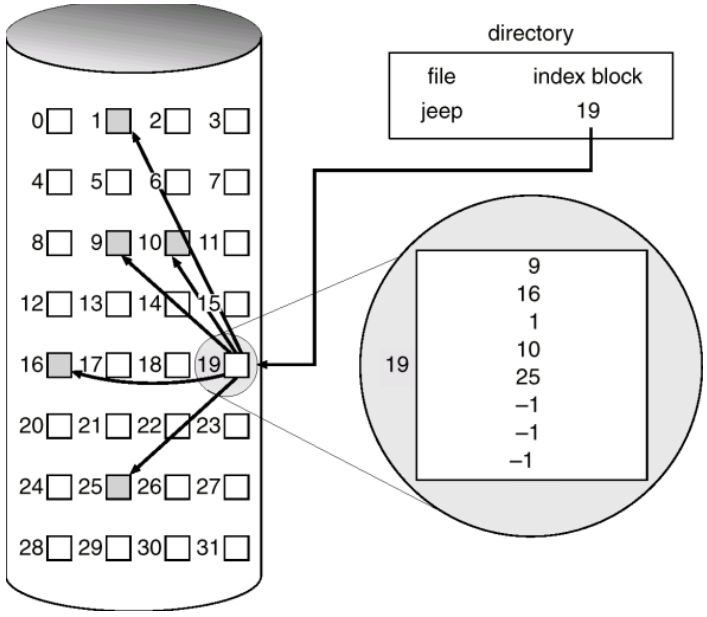
Disadvantages:

- Random access is slow - have to follow the chain of pointers (number of disk seeks required may be large)
- Space taken by pointers (can use clusters of disk blocks and have one pointer per cluster (but increases internal fragmentation))

Variation: FAT (File Allocation Table)

Indexed Files

OS keeps array of block pointers for each file
User or OS declares maximum length of file created
OS allocates array (index block) to hold pointers to all blocks when it creates file (But allocates blocks themselves only on demand)
OS fills pointers as it allocates blocks



Pros and Cons
Advantages

- Sequential and random access: easy (i.e. quick to determine which disk block to read next)

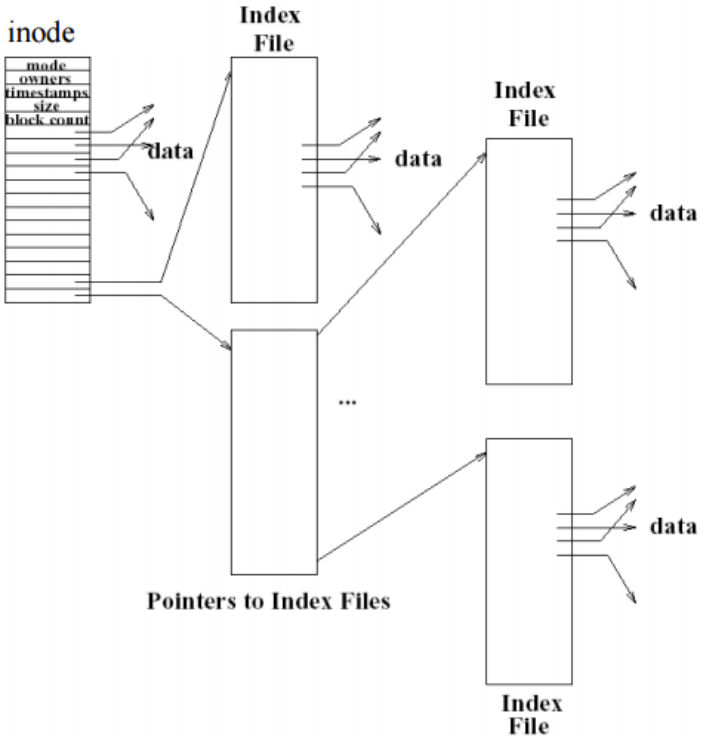
Disadvantages

- Sets maximum file size
- Lots of seeks (Data blocks may be spread out over disk)

Many variations possible

21 UNIX file system example

Each directory entry contains 14 block pointers
First 12 pointers point to data blocks
13th pointer: one indirection (Points to block of 1024 pointers to 1024 more data blocks)
14th pointer: two indirections (Pointers to block of pointers to indirect blocks)
USed in BSD UNIX 4.3
Variants used in other UNIXes (Directory entries refer to inodes.)



21.1 Multilevel Indexed Files: Pros and Cons

Advantages

- Simple to implement
- Supports incremental file growth
- Small files?

Disadvantages

- Indirect access: inefficient for random access to very large files
- Lots of seeks (data not contiguous)

Other Issues

- Block sizes
- Free space management
- Journalling
- Snapshots
- Sparse allocation
- Alternate data streams

22 Shell Commands

cat

concatenate files and print on the standard output. When no FILE or when FILE is -, read standard input.
Usage: `cat [OPTION]... [FILE]...`
Options: (-E, display '$' at the end of each line), (-n, number all output lines)

grep

grep searches the named input FILEs for lines containing a match to the given PATTERN. If no files are specified, or if the file "-" is given, grep searches standard input.
Usage: `grep [OPTIONS] [-e PATTERN].. [-f FILE].. [FILE..]` or `grep PATTERN [FILE...]`
Options: (-i, ignore case), (-v, invert the sense of matching), (-c, count the number of matching lines), (–color[=WHEN], Add color to the output), (-m NUM, Stop reading after NUM matching lines), (-n, Prefix each line number with the line number), (-r, recursive)

ls

List information about the FILEs (the current directory by default). Default sorts by alphabetical order.
Usage: `ls [OPTION]... [FILE]...`
Options: (-a, do not ignore entries starting with .), (-d, list directories themselves, not their contents), (-h, print human readable sizes), (-i, print the index number of each file), (-l, use a long listing format), (-r, reverse order while sorting), (-R, list subdirectories recursively), (-s, print the allocated size of each file (in blocks)), (-s, sort by file size (largest first)), (-t, sort by modification time (newest first))

ps

report a snapshot of the current processes
Usage: `ps [OPTIONS]`
Options: (-e, select all processes), (-f, does full format listing), (-u userlist, Prints all processes running under userlist user), (–forest, ASCII art process tree)

sort

sort lines of text files
Usage: `sort [OPTION]... [FILE]...`
Options: (-f, ignores case), (-r, reverse the result of comparisons)

head

output the first part of files
Usage: `head [OPTION]... [FILE]...`
Options: (-n NUM, print the first NUM lines instead of the first 10; with leading '-' print all but the last NUM lines)

tail

output the last part of files
Usage: `tail [OPTION]... [FILE]...`
Options: (-f, output data as the file grows), (-n NUM, output the last NUM lines, instead of the last 10; with leading '+' to output starting with line NUM)

cut

remove sections from each line of files
Usage: `cut OPTION... [FILE]...`
Options: (-d DELIM, use DELIM instead of TAB for field delimiter), (-f LIST, select only these fields), (-s, do not print lines not containing delimiters)

wc

print newline, word, and byte counts for each file
Usage: `wc [OPTION]... [FILE]...`
Options: (-l, prints the number of lines), (-w, prints the number of words)

diff

compare files line by line
Usage: `diff [OPTION]... FILES`
Options: (-y, output in side by side columns)

chmod

change file mode bits
Usage: `chmod [OPTION].. MODE[,MODE]... [FILE]...`
Options: (-v, output for every file processed), (-R, change files and directories recursively)
Mode: (+, adds permission), (-, removes permission), (u, the user who owns it), (g, users in file's group), (o, other users not in file's group), (a, all users), (r, read permission), (w, write permission), (x, execute permission)

ln

makes links between files
Usage: `ln [OPTION]... TARGET` (2nd form), or `ln [OPTION]... TARGET... DIRECTORY` (3rd form)
In 2nd form, create a link to TARGET in the current directory. In the 3rd form, create lines to each TARGET in DIRECTORY. Hard links by default
Options: (-s, make symbolic links instead of hard)

rm

remove files or directories
Usage: `rm [OPTION]... [FILE]...`
Options: (-f, ignore nonexistent files and arguments, never prompt), (-i, prompt before every removal), (-r, remove directories and their contents recursively), (-v, explain what is being done)

mkdir

make directories
Usage: `mkdir [OPTION]... DIRECTORY...`
Options: (-p, create any needed parent directories)

rmdir

remove empty directories
Usage: `rmdir [OPTION]... DIRECTORY...`
Options: (-p, remove DIRECTORY and its ancestors)

cp

copy files and directories
Usage: `cp [OPTION]... SOURCE... DIRECTORY`
Options: (-r, copy directories recursively), (-l, hard link files instead of copying), (-s, make symlink instead of copying), (-f, if an existing destination file cannot be opened, remove it and try again), (-i, prompt before overwrite)

mv

move (rename) files
Usage: `mv [OPTION]... SOURCE... DIRECTORY`
Options: (-f, do not prompt before overwriting), (-i, prompt before overwrite)

less

opposite of more **Usage:** `less` Allows for viewing text one screenful at a time.