

# Experiment 1

**Explore the Fedora/Ubuntu desktop environment and terminal. Perform basic tasks such as navigating the file system, managing files and directories, and understanding the Linux file structure.**

# Software Basics

**Softwares** are the set of programs, procedures, and routines that instructs a computer system what to do.

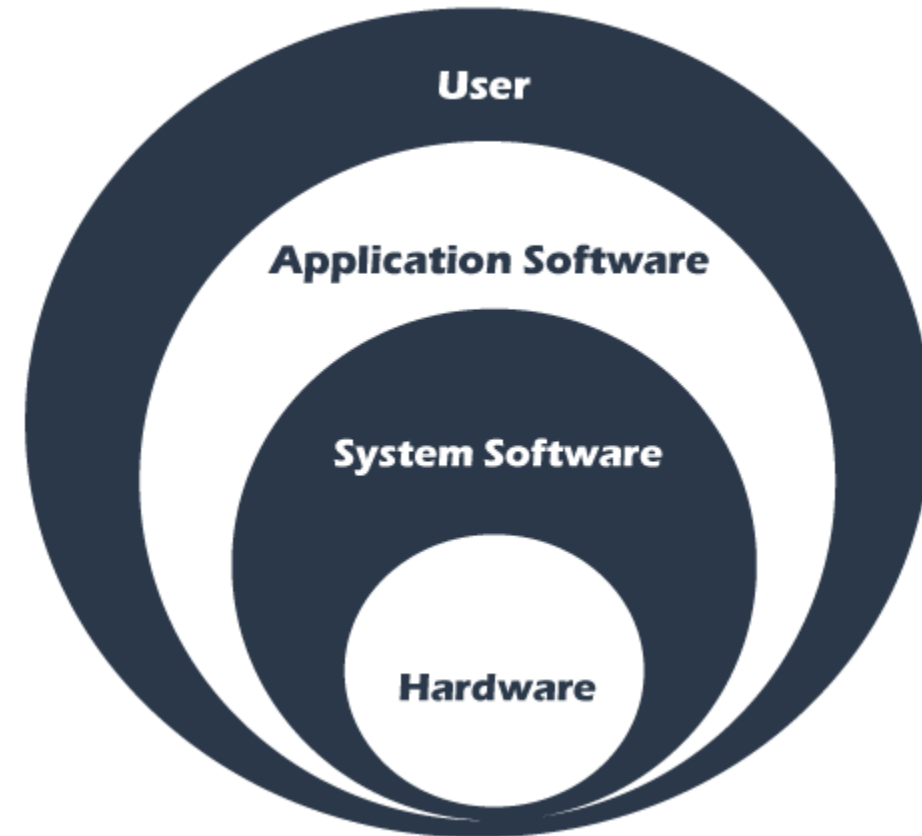
1. **Application softwares** – acts as an interface between the system software and the end-user.

Examples: Word, Excel, Web browser etc.

2. **System softwares** - acts as the interface between the application software and hardware of the computer system.

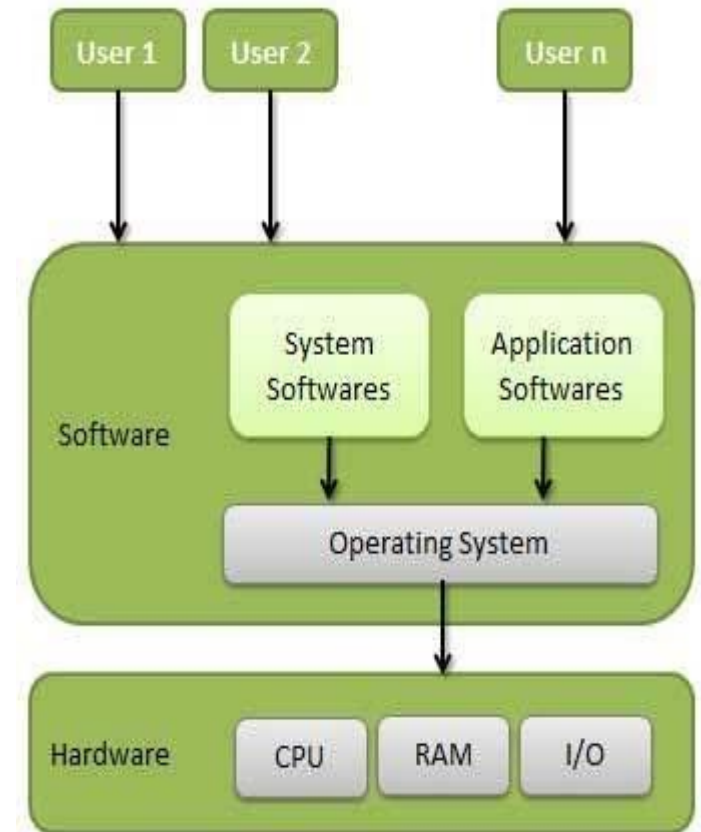
Examples: Operating systems, Compiler, Assembler, Device drivers, etc.

An **operating system (OS)** is the best example of system software; it manages all the other computer programs.



# Overview of Operating Systems

- An operating system is a system program that acts as an interface between the user and the computer hardware and controls the execution of all kinds of programs.
- The primary purposes of an **Operating System** are to enable applications (softwares) to interact with a computer's hardware and to manage a system's hardware and software resources.



# Important functions of OS

## 1. 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.

## 2. 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 longer required.

### 3. 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.

### 4. File Management:

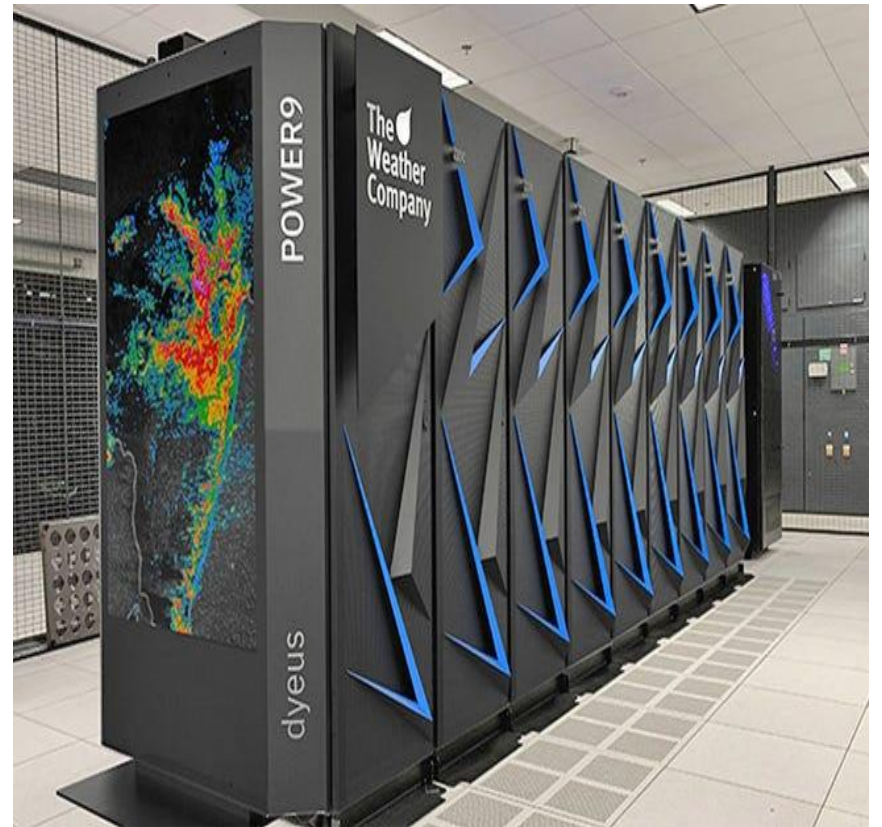
- Keeps track of information, location, uses, status etc. The collective facilities are often known as file system.
- Decides who gets the resources.
- Allocates the resources.
- De-allocates the resources.

5. Security – By means of password and similar other techniques, it prevents unauthorized access to programs and data.

6. Control over system performance – Recording delays between request for a service and response from the system.
7. Job accounting – Keeping track of time and resources used by various jobs and users.
8. Error detecting aids – Production of dumps, traces, error messages, and other debugging and error detecting aids.
9. Coordination between other softwares and users – Coordination and assignment of compilers, interpreters, assemblers and other software to the various users of the computer systems.

# Why LINUX?

- Linux is the foundation of many servers and supercomputers.
- Uses of supercomputers:
  - ✓ Weather prediction
  - ✓ Weapon design and atomic research
  - ✓ Hollywood movies: animation purposes
- Job roles in information technology systems, such as administrators and network engineers, software developers or engineers, and cybersecurity professionals



# Linux OS over Windows OS

- Open-source OS
- One of the primary [advantages](#) of Linux is that it's constantly being reshaped and developed to create new products that meet emerging needs.
- Developers can easily access the Linux source code for customization.
- Additionally, Linux offers a greater degree of security than many operating systems and requires no antivirus programs for protection.
- Linux also offers a high degree of stability, requires little disk space, has powerful networking capabilities and puts software updates in the hands of the user.
- Better performance on old hardware
- Linux provides full control to its users on updates. A user can install the update whenever needed. Also, it takes less time to install an update.

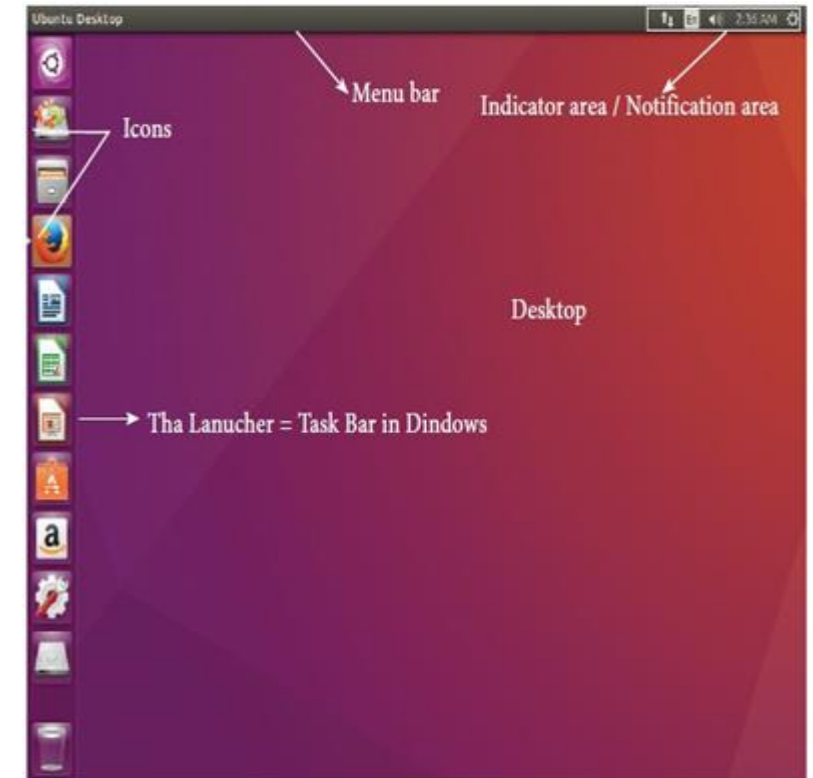


# Unix Vs Linux

Sr. No.	Unix	Linux
1.	Proposed in 1970	Unix-like OS proposed in 1991
2.	Proprietary Software, meaning that it requires a license to use	Open-source Software, used freely without any licensing fees
3.	Non-portable	Portable
4.	CUI based	GUI based
5.	typically found on enterprise-level servers and workstations	widely used on both enterprise and personal computers.
6.	High cost and capacity with limited versions	Low cost and capacity with many versions
7.	Versions: BSD, Iris, HP-UX, AIS etc.	Versions: Ubuntu, Mint, Redhat, Fedora etc.

# Ubuntu Desktop Environment

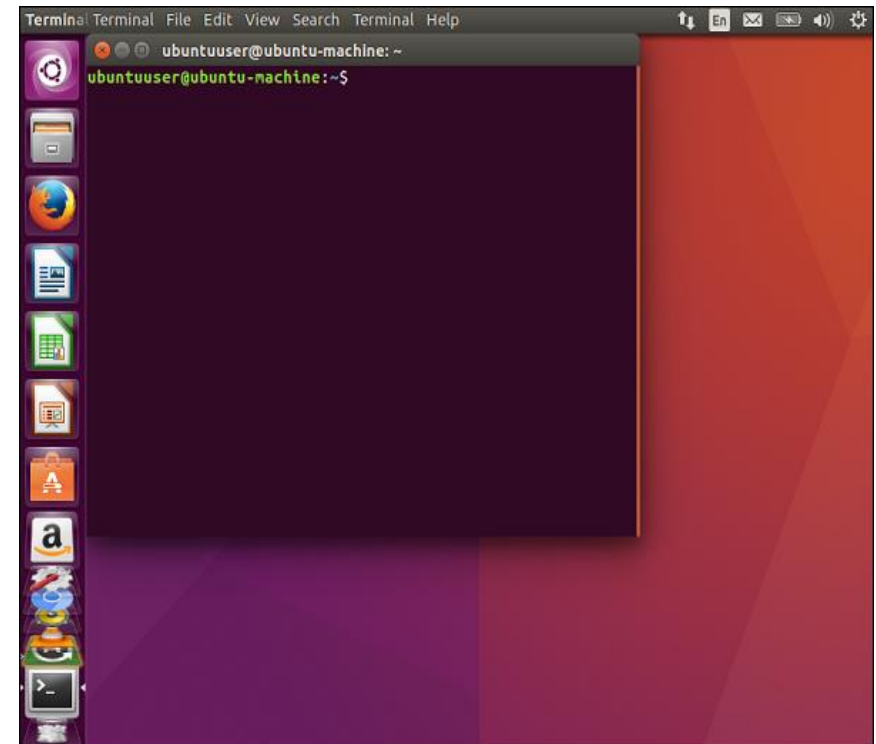
- Ubuntu desktop environment is a graphical user interface (GUI) that provides users with a visually accessible and user-friendly way to interact with the Ubuntu operating system.
- It encompasses the look and feel of the system, including elements such as windows, menus, icons, and tools for managing applications and system settings.
- Examples: GNOME, Unity, KDE Plasma, Xfce etc.





# Ubuntu Terminal

- The Ubuntu terminal, also known as the command-line interface (CLI) or shell, is a text-based interface used to interact with the operating system.
- It allows users to execute commands by typing them in, providing a powerful way to control and manage the system.
- Key features of the Ubuntu terminal include:
  1. **Command Execution:** Users can run commands to perform various tasks such as file manipulation, software installation, system configuration, and network management.
  2. **Script Execution:** Shell scripts, which are sequences of commands saved in a file, can be executed to automate repetitive tasks.



# Basic Tasks

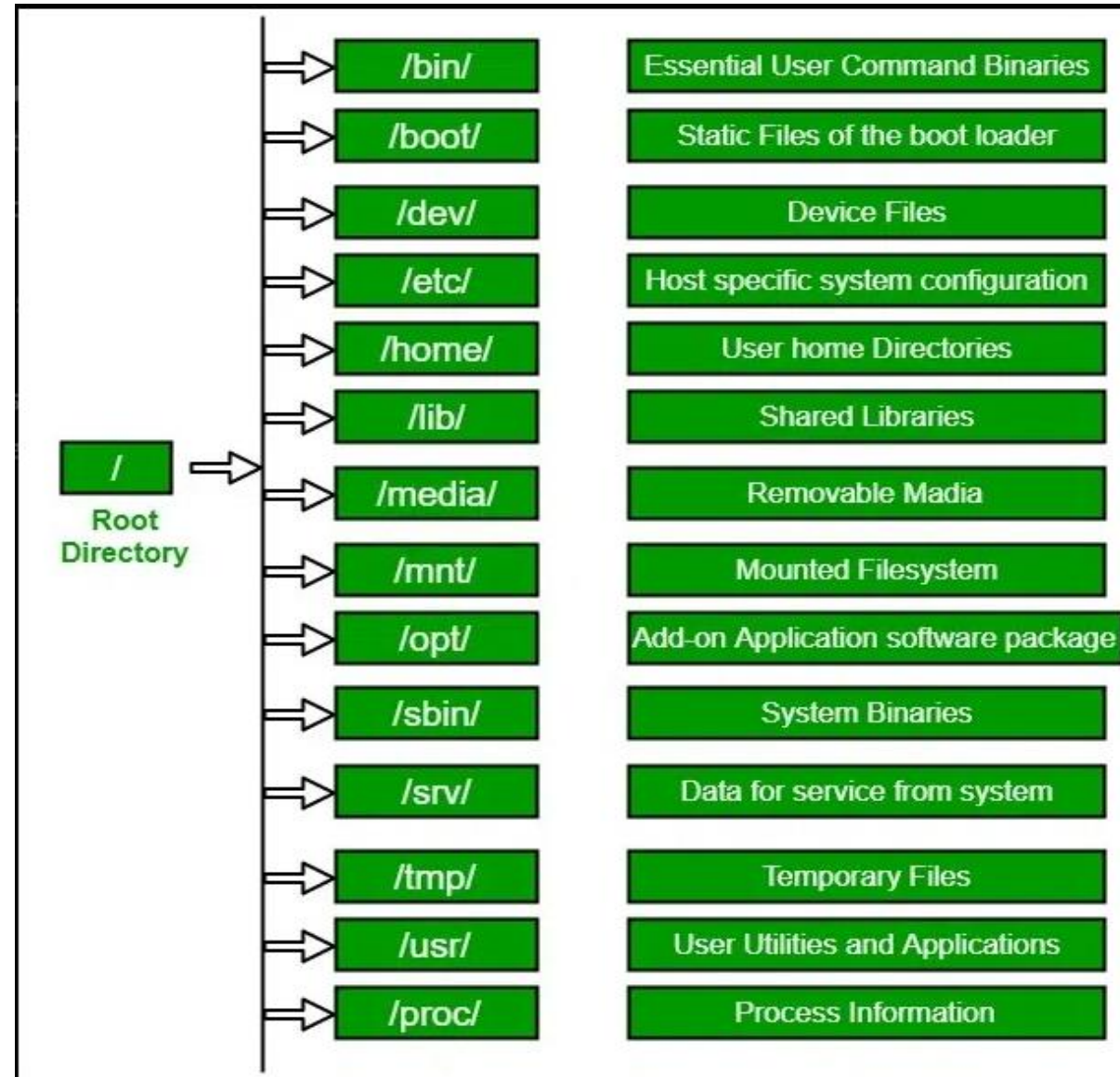
1. Navigating the file system: Navigating the file system in Ubuntu involves moving through directories (folders) and managing files using a command-line interface (CLI) like the terminal.

Linux Commands	Functions
<code>pwd</code>	Shows the current location.
<code>ls</code>	List files and folders.
<code>ls -l</code>	Detailed list
<code>ls -a</code>	Include hidden files
<code>cd</code>	Change working directory.
<code>cd ~</code>	Go to home directory
<code>cd ..</code>	Go down one directory level

2. Managing the files and directories: Managing files and directories in Linux involves creating, copying, moving, renaming, and deleting files and directories using command-line tools.

List of Commands	Functions
<b>touch</b>	Create an empty file
<b>mkdir</b>	Used to create new folder.
<b>rm</b>	Remove an file
<b>rmdir</b>	Remove an folder.
<b>rm -r</b>	Remove a directory and its contents
<b>cp</b>	Copy a file in a new location.
<b>cp -r</b>	Copy a directory and its contents
<b>mv</b>	Moving and renaming files/directories

3. Understanding the Linux file structure: The Linux file system is the structure that the Linux operating system uses to organize and store files and data on a computer. It is a hierarchical, tree-like structure that starts with the root directory, which contains all other directories and files.





Sr. No.	Directory	Purpose	Examples
1.	/root	Home directory for the root user (superuser)	<i>/root/.bashrc, /root/.profile</i>
2.	/bin	Contains essential binary executables needed for booting and repairing the system.	<i>ls, cp, mv, rm, bash</i>
3.	/boot	Contains the files needed to boot the system, including the kernel and bootloader files.	<i>vmlinuz, initrd.img, grub</i>
4.	/dev	Contains device files that represent hardware devices.	<i>sda</i> (hard drives), <i>tty</i> (terminals), <i>null</i> (null device).
5.	/etc	Contains system-wide configuration files and shell scripts that are used to boot and initialize the system.	<i>passwd</i> (user accounts), <i>fstab</i> (filesystems), <i>hosts</i>
6.	/home	Contains personal directories for all users. Each user has a subdirectory within <i>/home</i>	<i>/home/user1, /home/user2</i>
7.	/lib and /lib64	Contains shared libraries needed by system binaries in <i>/bin</i> and <i>/sbin</i>	<i>libc.so.6, libm.so.6</i>
8.	/media	Contains mount points for removable media such as CDs, DVDs, and USB drives.	<i>/media/cdrom, /media/usb</i>
9.	/mnt	Temporarily mounted filesystems and Used for manually mounting filesystems	<i>mount /dev/sdb1 /mnt</i>
10.	/opt	Contains optional software packages and third-party software.	<i>/opt/google, /opt/lampp</i>



Sr. No.	Directory	Purpose	Examples
11.	/sbin	Contains essential system binaries that are typically used by the superuser for system administration.	<i>reboot, ifconfig, fsck.</i>
12.	/srv	Contains data for services provided by the system, such as web and FTP servers.	<i>/srv/www, /srv/ftp</i>
13.	/tmp	Contains temporary files created by users and applications. Typically cleared on reboot.	Temporary files and directories
14.	/usr	Contains user-installed software and utilities. It's often larger and more extensive.	<i>/usr/bin</i> : Non-essential user binaries, <i>/usr/sbin</i> : Non-essential system binaries, <i>/usr/lib</i> : Libraries for binaries in <i>/usr/bin</i> and <i>/usr/sbin</i> , <i>/usr/local</i> : Locally compiled software.
15.	/var	Contains variable data files that change frequently, such as logs, mail, and spool files.	<i>/var/log</i> : Log files, <i>/var/mail</i> : User mailboxes, <i>/var/tmp</i> : Temporary files that are preserved between reboots.
16.	/proc	Contains virtual files that provide information about system processes and hardware. It's a pseudo-filesystem.	<i>/proc/cpuinfo, /proc/meminfo</i>
17.	/run	Contains runtime data for processes started since the last boot.	<i>/run/sshd, /run/lock</i>
18.	/sys	Another pseudo-filesystem that provides information about the kernel, devices, and system configuration.	<i>/sys/class, /sys/devices</i>