Operating System

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Operating system

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.

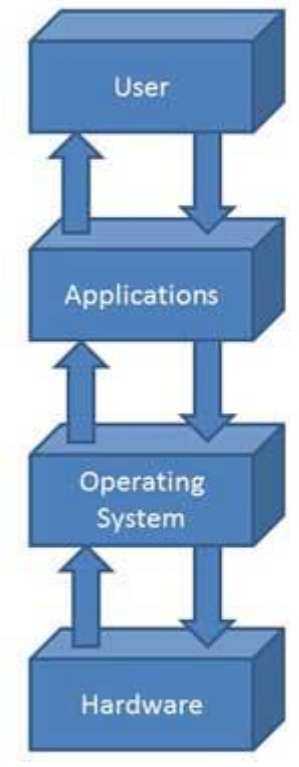
Some popular Operating Systems include Linux Operating System, Windows Operating System, VMS, OS/400, AIX, z/OS, etc.

The Operating System is a program with the following features −

- An operating system is a program that acts as an interface between the software and the computer hardware.

- It is an integrated set of specialized programs used to manage overall resources and operations of the computer.

- It is a specialized software that controls and monitors the execution of all other programs that reside in the computer, including application programs and other system software.



Objectives of Operating System

The objectives of the operating system are −

- To make the computer system convenient to use in an efficient manner.
- To hide the details of the hardware resources from the users.
- To provide users a convenient interface to use the computer system.
- To act as an intermediary between the hardware and its users, making it easier for the users to access and use other resources.
- To manage the resources of a computer system.
- To keep track of who is using which resource, granting resource requests, and mediating conflicting requests from different programs and users.
- To provide efficient and fair sharing of resources among users and programs.

Characteristics of Operating System

Here is a list of some of the most prominent characteristic features of Operating Systems −

- **Memory Management** − Keeps track of the primary memory, i.e. what part of it is in use by whom, what part is not in use, etc. and allocates the memory when a process or program requests it.
- **Processor Management** − Allocates the processor (CPU) to a process and deallocates the processor when it is no longer required.
- **Device Management** − Keeps track of all the devices. This is also called I/O controller that decides which process gets the device, when, and for how much time.
- **File Management** − Allocates and de-allocates the resources and decides who gets the resources.
- **Security** − Prevents unauthorized access to programs and data by means of passwords and other similar techniques.
- **Job Accounting** − Keeps track of time and resources used by various jobs and/or users.
- **Control Over System Performance** − Records delays between the request for a service and from the system.
- **Interaction with the Operators** − Interaction may take place via the console of the computer in the form of instructions. The Operating System acknowledges the same, does the corresponding action, and informs the operation by a display screen.
- **Error-detecting Aids** − Production of dumps, traces, error messages, and other debugging and error-detecting methods.
- **Coordination Between Other Software and Users** − Coordination and assignment of compilers, interpreters, assemblers, and other software to the various users of the computer systems.

Functions of operating system

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 longer 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 the resources.
- Allocates the resources.

- De-allocates the resources.

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 softwares and users** − Coordination and assignment of compilers, interpreters, assemblers and other software to the various users of the computer systems.

Types of Operating system (3 Options)

Batch Operating System

Multitasking/Time Sharing OS

Multiprocessing OS

Real Time OS

Distributed OS

Network OS

Mobile OS

Batch Operating System

Some computer processes are very lengthy and time-consuming. To speed the same process, a job with a similar type of needs are batched together and run as a group.

The user of a batch operating system never directly interacts with the computer. In this type of OS, every user prepares his or her job on an offline device like a punch card and submit it to the computer operator.

Multi-Tasking/Time-sharing Operating systems

Time-sharing operating system enables people located at a different terminal(shell) to use a single computer system at the same time. The processor time (CPU) which is shared among multiple users is termed as time sharing.

Real time OS

A real time operating system time interval to process and respond to inputs is very small. Examples: Military Software Systems, Space Software Systems.

Distributed Operating System

Distributed systems use many processors located in different machines to provide very fast computation to its users.

Network Operating System

Network Operating System runs on a server. It provides the capability to serve to manage data, user, groups, security, application, and other networking functions.

Mobile OS

Mobile operating systems are those OS which is especially that are designed to power smartphones, tablets, and wearables devices.

Some most famous mobile operating systems are Android and iOS, but others include BlackBerry, Web, and watchOS.

OR

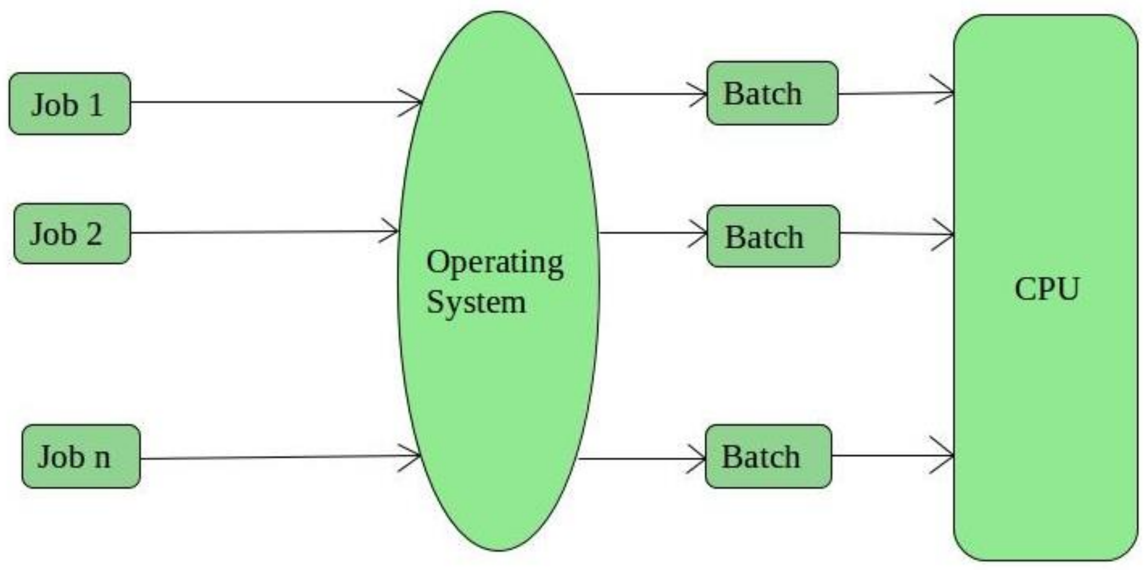
Types of Operating Systems

An Operating System performs all the basic tasks like managing file,process, and memory. Thus operating system acts as manager of all the resources, i.e. resource manager. Thus operating system becomes an interface between user and machine.

Types of Operating Systems: Some of the widely used operating systems are as follows-

1. Batch Operating System –

This type of operating system does not interact with the computer directly. There is an operator which takes similar jobs having same requirement and group them into batches. It is the responsibility of operator to sort the jobs with similar needs.



Advantages of Batch Operating System:

- It is very difficult to guess or know the time required by any job to complete. Processors of the batch systems know how long the job would be when it is in queue

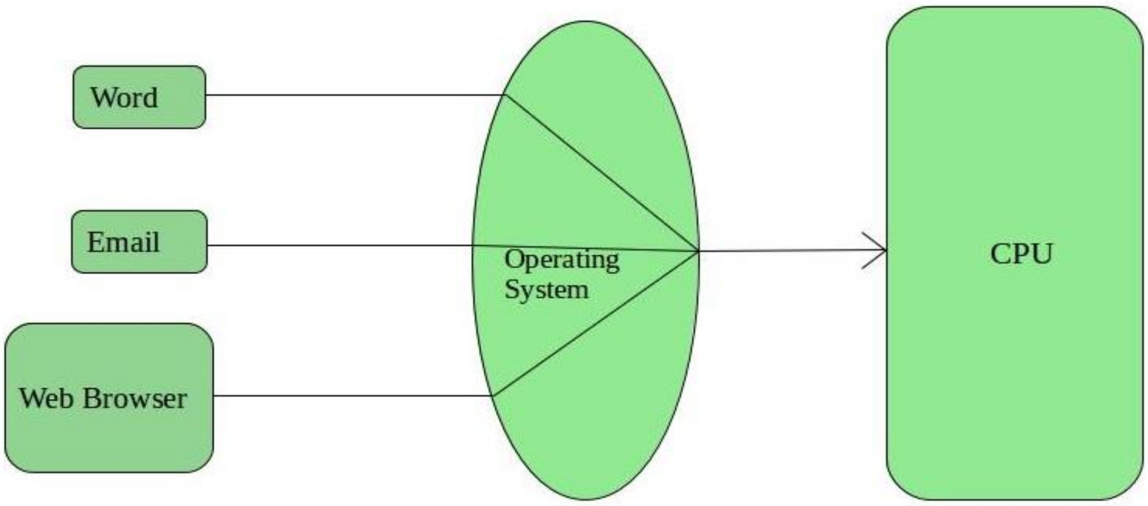
- Multiple users can share the batch systems
- The idle time for batch system is very less
- It is easy to manage large work repeatedly in batch systems

Disadvantages of Batch Operating System:

- The computer operators should be well known with batch systems
- Batch systems are hard to debug
- It is sometime costly
- The other jobs will have to wait for an unknown time if any job fails

Examples of Batch based Operating System: Payroll System, Bank Statements etc.

Time-Sharing Operating Systems – Each task is given some time to execute, so that all the tasks work smoothly. Each user gets time of CPU as they use single system. These systems are also known as Multitasking Systems. The task can be from single user or from different users also. The time that each task gets to execute is called quantum. After this time interval is over OS switches over to next task.



Advantages of Time-Sharing OS:

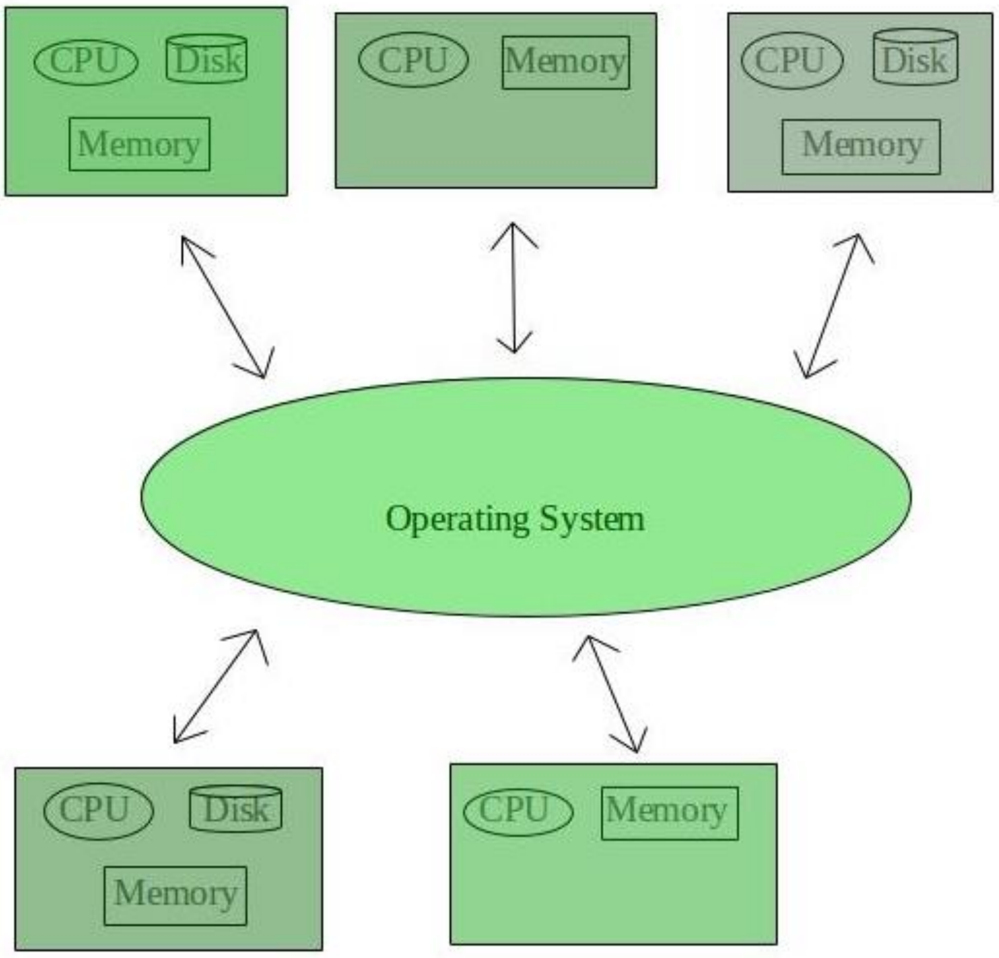
- Each task gets an equal opportunity
- Less chances of duplication of software
- CPU idle time can be reduced

Disadvantages of Time-Sharing OS:

- Reliability problem
- One must have to take care of security and integrity of user programs and data
- Data communication problem

Examples of Time-Sharing OSs are: Multics, Unix etc.

Distributed Operating System – These types of operating system is a recent advancement in the world of computer technology and are being widely accepted all-over the world and, that too, with a great pace. Various autonomous interconnected computers communicate each other using a shared communication network. Independent systems possess their own memory unit and CPU. These are referred as **loosely coupled systems** or distributed systems. These system's processors differ in size and function. The major benefit of working with these types of operating system is that it is always possible that one user can access the files or software which are not actually present on his system but on some other system connected within this network i.e., remote access is enabled within the devices connected in that network.



Advantages of Distributed Operating System:

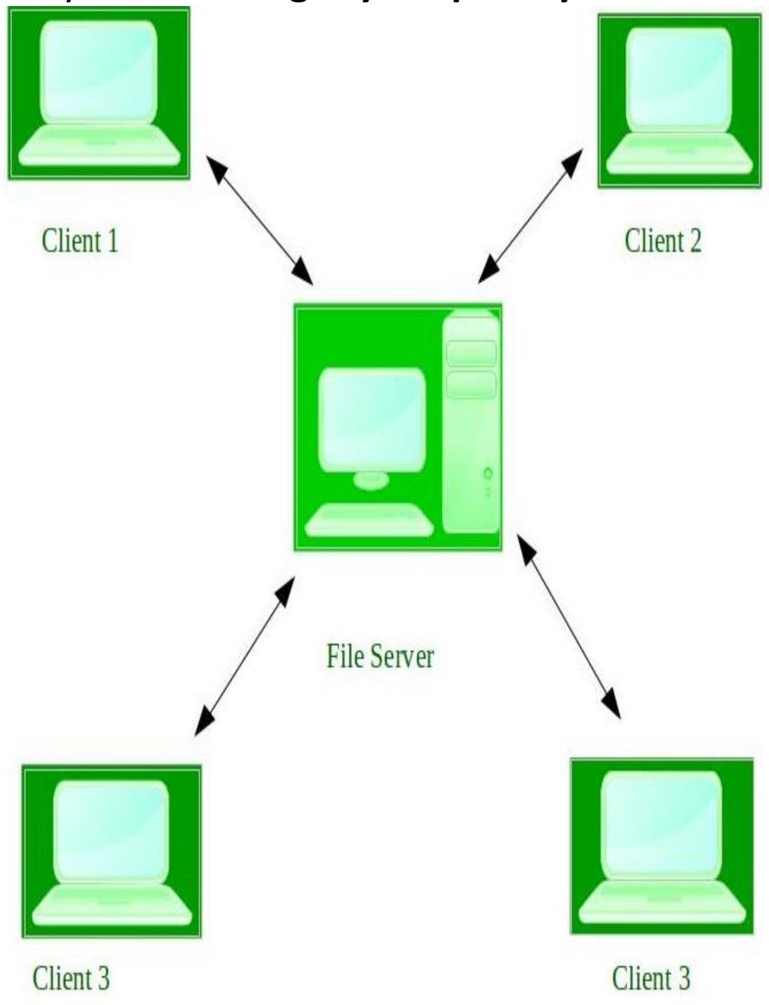
- Failure of one will not affect the other network communication, as all systems are independent from each other
- Electronic mail increases the data exchange speed
- Since resources are being shared, computation is highly fast and durable
- Load on host computer reduces
- These systems are easily scalable as many systems can be easily added to the network
- Delay in data processing reduces

Disadvantages of Distributed Operating System:

- Failure of the main network will stop the entire communication
- To establish distributed systems the language which are used are not well defined yet
- These types of systems are not readily available as they are very expensive. Not only that the underlying software is highly complex and not understood well yet

Examples of Distributed Operating System are- LOCUS etc.

4. Network Operating System –
These systems run on a server and provide the capability to manage data, users, groups, security, applications, and other networking functions. These type of operating systems allow shared access of files, printers, security, applications, and other networking functions over a small private network. One more important aspect of Network Operating Systems is that all the users are well aware of the underlying configuration, of all other users within the network, their individual connections etc. and that's why these computers are popularly known as **tightly coupled systems**.



Advantages of Network Operating System:

- Highly stable centralized servers
- Security concerns are handled through servers
- New technologies and hardware up-gradation are easily integrated to the system

- Server access are possible remotely from different locations and types of systems

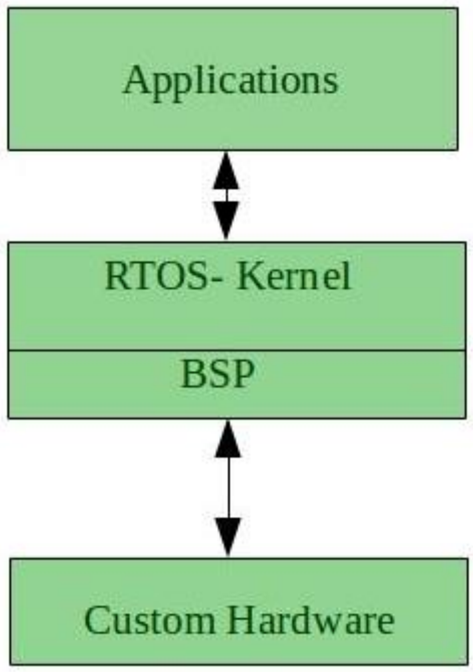
Disadvantages of Network Operating System:

- Servers are costly
- User has to depend on central location for most operations
- Maintenance and updates are required regularly

Examples of Network Operating System are: Microsoft Windows Server 2003, Microsoft Windows Server 2008, UNIX, Linux, Mac OS X, Novell NetWare, and BSD etc.

5. Real-Time Operating System –
These types of OSs serves the real-time systems. The time interval required to process and respond to inputs is very small. This time interval is called **response time**.
Real-time systems are used when there are time requirements are very strict like missile systems, air traffic control systems, robots etc.
Two types of Real-Time Operating System which are as follows:

- **Hard Real-Time Systems:**
  These OSs are meant for the applications where time constraints are very strict and even the shortest possible delay is not acceptable. These systems are built for saving life like automatic parachutes or air bags which are required to be readily available in case of any accident. Virtual memory is almost never found in these systems.
- **Soft Real-Time Systems:**
  These OSs are for applications where for time-constraint is less strict.



Advantages of RTOS:

- **Maximum Consumption:** Maximum utilization of devices and system,thus more output from all the resources
- **Task Shifting:** Time assigned for shifting tasks in these systems are very less. For example in older systems it takes about 10 micro seconds in shifting one task to another and in latest systems it takes 3 micro seconds.
- **Focus on Application:** Focus on running applications and less importance to applications which are in queue.
- **Real time operating system in embedded system:** Since size of programs are small, RTOS can also be used in embedded systems like in transport and others.
- **Error Free:** These types of systems are error free.
- **Memory Allocation:** Memory allocation is best managed in these type of systems.

Disadvantages of RTOS:

- **Limited Tasks:** Very few tasks run at the same time and their concentration is very less on few applications to avoid errors.
- **Use heavy system resources:** Sometimes the system resources are not so good and they are expensive as well.
- **Complex Algorithms:** The algorithms are very complex and difficult for the designer to write on.
- **Device driver and interrupt signals:** It needs specific device drivers and interrupt signals to response earliest to interrupts.
- **Thread Priority:** It is not good to set thread priority as these systems are very less prone to switching tasks.

Examples of Real-Time Operating Systems are: Scientific experiments, medical imaging systems, industrial control systems, weapon systems, robots, air traffic control systems, etc.

OR

Types of Operating System

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 Multiprogrammed Batch Systems and Time-Sharing Systems is that in case of Multiprogrammed 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 is, if **n** users are present, then each user can get a 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 of reliability.
- 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 so on.

The advantages of distributed systems are as follows −

- With resource sharing facility, a user at one site may be able to use the resources available at 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 BSD.

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 into the 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.

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.

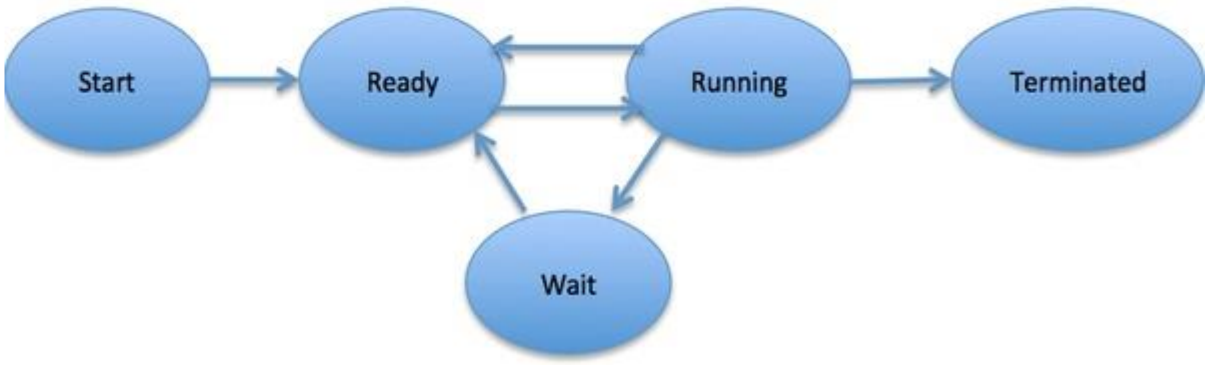
Process Life Cycle

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.

Process Scheduling

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.

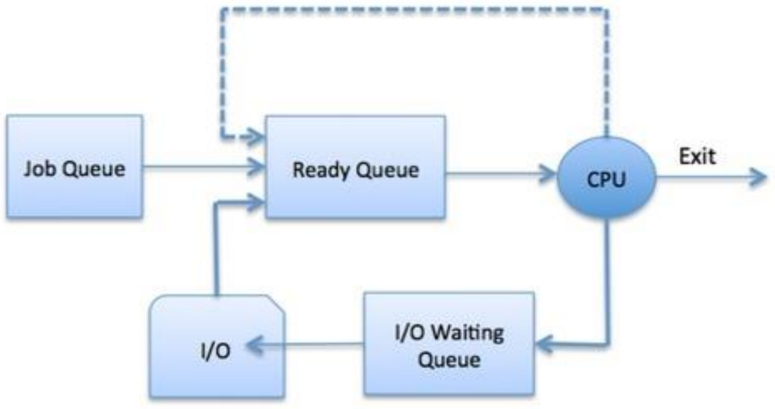
Process scheduling is an essential part of a Multiprogramming operating systems. Such operating systems allow more than one process to be loaded into the executable memory at a time and the loaded process shares the CPU using time multiplexing.

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.

Operating System Scheduling algorithms

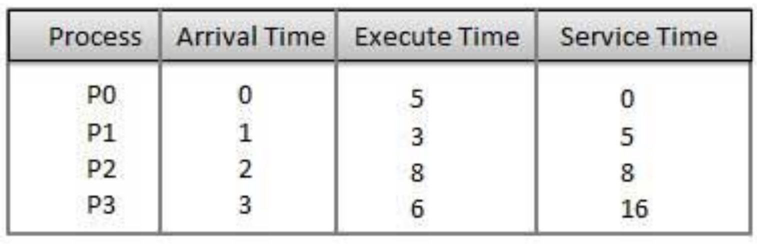
A Process Scheduler schedules different processes to be assigned to the CPU based on particular scheduling algorithms. There are six popular process scheduling algorithms which we are going to discuss in this chapter −

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

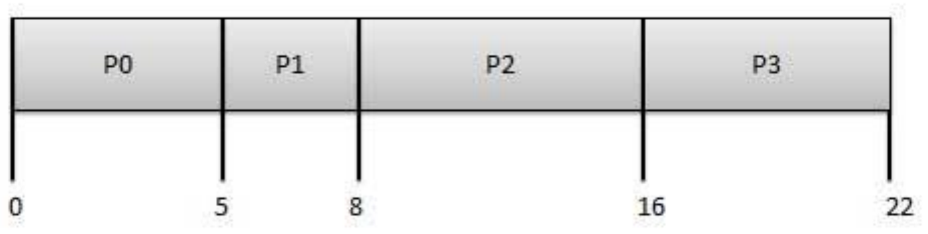
These algorithms are either **non-preemptive or preemptive**. Non-preemptive algorithms are designed so that once a process enters the running state, it cannot be preempted until it completes its allotted time, whereas the preemptive scheduling is based on priority where a scheduler may preempt a low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

Given: Table of processes, and their Arrival time, Execution time

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

Waiting time of each process is as follows −

Process	Waiting Time

P0	0 - 0 = 0
P1	5 - 1 = 4
P2	14 - 2 = 12
P3	8 - 3 = 5

Average Wait Time: (0 + 4 + 12 + 5)/4 = 21 / 4 = 5.25

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 so on.
- 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.

Given: Table of processes, and their Arrival time, Execution time, and priority. Here we are considering 1 is the lowest priority.

Process	Arrival Time	Execution Time	Priority	Service Time
P0	0	5	1	0
P1	1	3	2	11
P2	2	8	1	14
P3	3	6	3	5

Waiting time of each process is as follows −

Process	Waiting Time
P0	0 - 0 = 0

P1	11 - 1 = 10
P2	14 - 2 = 12
P3	5 - 3 = 2

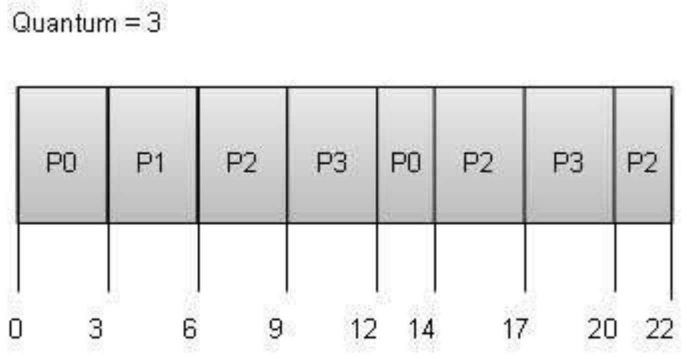
Average Wait Time: (0 + 10 + 12 + 2)/4 = 24 / 4 = 6

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.

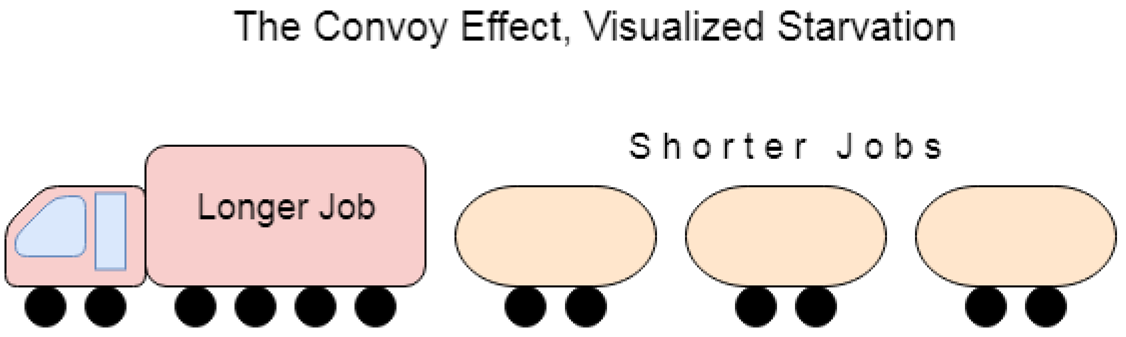
- Multiple queues are maintained for processes with common characteristics.
- Each queue can have its own scheduling algorithms.
- Priorities are assigned to each queue.

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.

Convoy Effect in FCFS

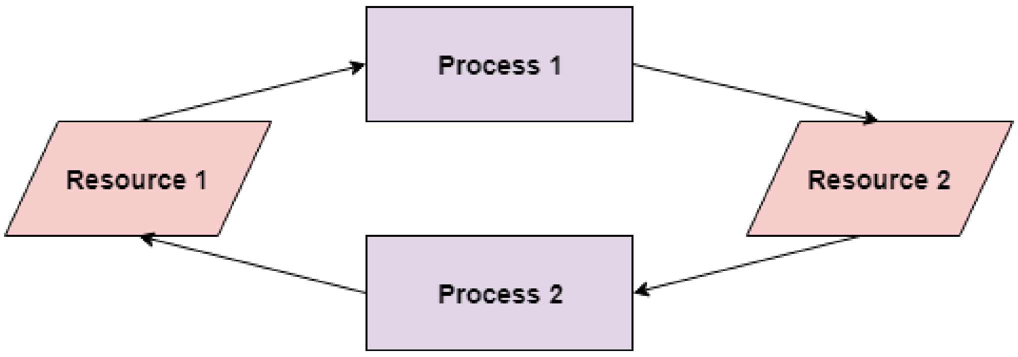
FCFS may suffer from the **convoy effect** if the burst time of the first job is the highest among all. As in the real life, if a convoy is passing through the road then the other persons may get blocked until it passes completely. This can be simulated in the Operating System also.

If the CPU gets the processes of the higher burst time at the front end of the ready queue then the processes of lower burst time may get blocked which means they may never get the CPU if the job in the execution has a very high burst time. This is called **convoy effect** or **starvation**.



Deadlock

A deadlock happens in operating system when two or more processes need some resource to complete their execution that is held by the other process.



Deadlock in Operating System

In the above diagram, the process 1 has resource 1 and needs to acquire resource 2. Similarly process 2 has resource 2 and needs to acquire resource 1. Process 1 and process 2 are in deadlock as each of them needs the other's resource to complete their execution but neither of them is willing to relinquish their resources.

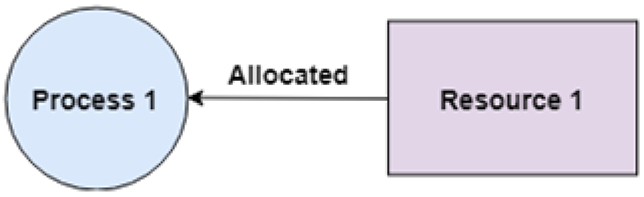
Coffman Conditions

A deadlock occurs if the four Coffman conditions hold true. But these conditions are not mutually exclusive.

The Coffman conditions are given as follows:

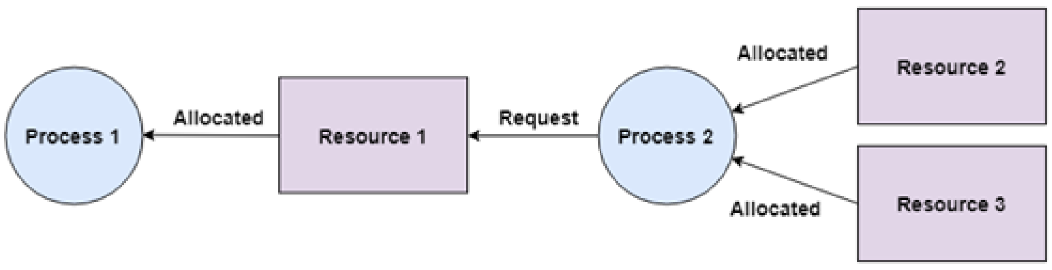
1. **Mutual Exclusion**

There should be a resource that can only be held by one process at a time. In the diagram below, there is a single instance of Resource 1 and it is held by Process 1 only.



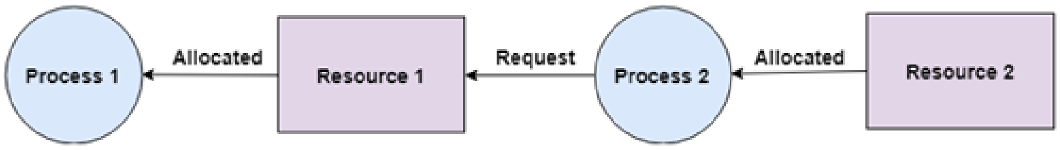
2. **Hold and Wait**

A process can hold multiple resources and still request more resources from other processes which are holding them. In the diagram given below, Process 2 holds Resource 2 and Resource 3 and is requesting the Resource 1 which is held by Process 1.



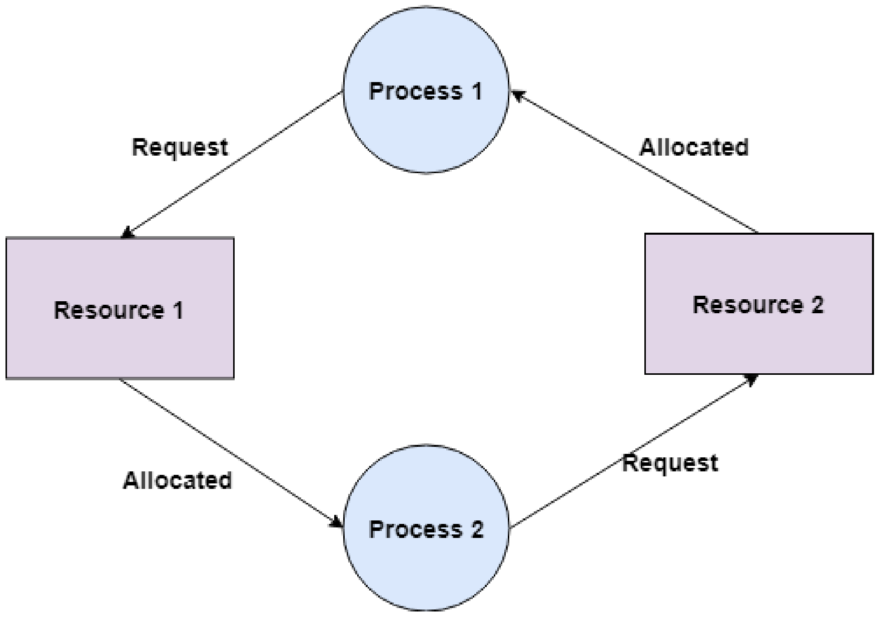
3. **No Preemption**

A resource cannot be preempted from a process by force. A process can only release a resource voluntarily. In the diagram below, Process 2 cannot preempt Resource 1 from Process 1. It will only be released when Process 1 relinquishes it voluntarily after its execution is complete.



4. Circular Wait

A process is waiting for the resource held by the second process, which is waiting for the resource held by the third process and so on, till the last process is waiting for a resource held by the first process. This forms a circular chain. For example: Process 1 is allocated Resource2 and it is requesting Resource 1. Similarly, Process 2 is allocated Resource 1 and it is requesting Resource 2. This forms a circular wait loop.


Process 1
Request
Allocated
Resource 1
Resource 2
Allocated
Request
Process 2

Deadlock Prevention

We can prevent Deadlock by eliminating any of the above four conditions.

Eliminate Mutual Exclusion

It is not possible to dis-satisfy the mutual exclusion because some resources, such as the tape drive and printer, are inherently non-shareable.

Eliminate Hold and wait

1. Allocate all required resources to the process before the start of its execution, this way hold and wait condition is eliminated but it will lead to low device utilization. for example, if a process requires printer at a later time and we have allocated printer before the start of its execution printer will remain blocked till it has completed its execution.
2. The process will make a new request for resources after releasing the current set of resources. This solution may lead to starvation.

Eliminate No Preemption

Preempt resources from the process when resources required by other high priority processes.

Eliminate Circular Wait

Each resource will be assigned with a numerical number. A process can request the resources increasing/decreasing. order of numbering.

For Example, if P1 process is allocated R5 resources, now next time if P1 ask for R4, R3 lesser than R5 such request will not be granted, only request for resources more than R5 will be granted.

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:

1. 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.
2. Resources can be preempted from some processes and given to others till the deadlock is resolved.

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.

Deadlock avoidance can be done with Banker's Algorithm.

Banker's Algorithm

Bankers's Algorithm is resource allocation and deadlock avoidance algorithm which test all the request made by processes for resources, it checks for the safe state, if after granting request system remains in the safe state it allows the request and if there is no safe state it doesn't allow the request made by the process.

Inputs to Banker's Algorithm:

1. Max need of resources by each process.
2. Currently allocated resources by each process.
3. Max free available resources in the system.

The request will only be granted under the below condition:

1. If the request made by the process is less than equal to max need to that process.

2. If the request made by the process is less than equal to the freely available resource in the system.

Example:

```
Total resources in system:
A B C D
6 5 7 6
Available system resources are:
A B C D
3 1 1 2
Processes (currently allocated resources):
   A B C D
P1  1 2 2 1
P2  1 0 3 3
P3  1 2 1 0
Processes (maximum resources):
   A B C D
P1  3 3 2 2
P2  1 2 3 4
P3  1 3 5 0
Need = maximum resources - currently allocated resources.
Processes (need resources):
   A B C D
P1  2 1 0 1
P2  0 2 0 1
P3  0 1 4 0
```

Deadlock Recovery

A traditional operating system such as Windows doesn’t deal with deadlock recovery as it is time and space consuming process. Real-time operating systems use Deadlock recovery.

Recovery method

1. **Killing the process:** killing all the process involved in the deadlock. Killing process one by one. After killing each process check for deadlock again keep repeating the process till system recover from deadlock.
2. **Resource Preemption:** Resources are preempted from the processes involved in the deadlock, preempted resources are allocated to other processes so that there is a possibility of recovering the system from deadlock. In this case, the system goes into starvation.

Memory management

Memory management is the functionality of an operating system which handles or manages primary memory and moves processes back and forth between main memory and disk during execution. Memory management keeps track of each and every memory location, regardless of either it is allocated to some process or it is free. It checks how much memory is to be allocated to processes. It decides which process will get memory at what time. It tracks whenever some memory gets freed or unallocated and correspondingly it updates the status.

Logical vs. Physical Address Space

■ The concept of a logical address space that is bound to a separate physical address space is central to proper memory management

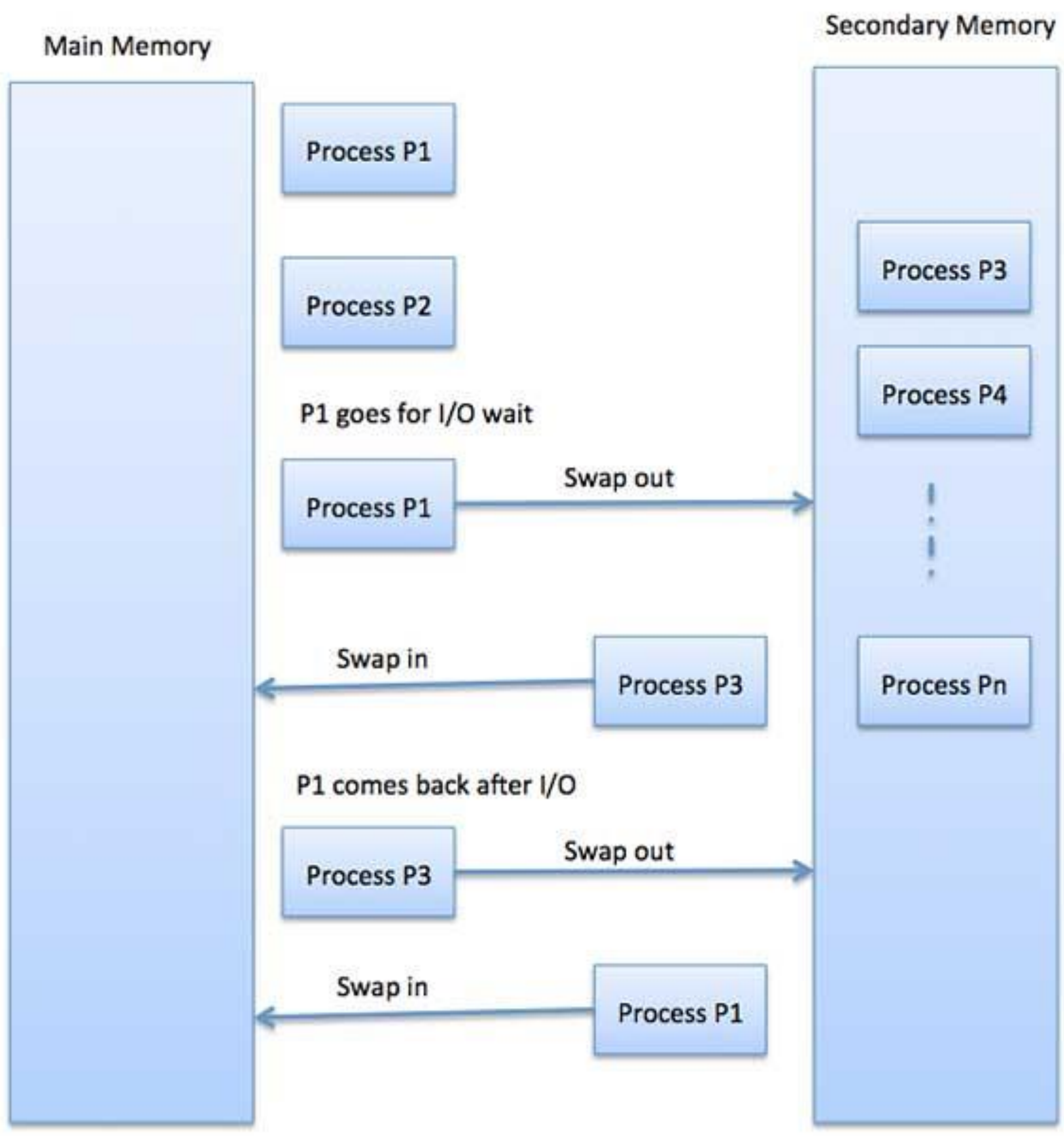
● Logical address – generated by the CPU; also referred to as virtual address

● Physical address – address seen by the memory unit

Swapping

Swapping is a mechanism in which a process can be swapped temporarily out of main memory (or move) to secondary storage (disk) and make that memory available to other processes. At some later time, the system swaps back the process from the secondary storage to main memory.

Though performance is usually affected by swapping process but it helps in running multiple and big processes in parallel and that's the reason **Swapping is also known as a technique for memory compaction**.



The total time taken by swapping process includes the time it takes to move the entire process to a secondary disk and then to copy the process back to memory, as well as the time the process takes to regain main memory.

Memory Allocation

Main memory usually has two partitions −

- **Low Memory** − Operating system resides in this memory.
- **High Memory** − User processes are held in high memory.

Operating system uses the following memory allocation mechanism.

S.N.	Memory Allocation & Description
1	**Single-partition allocation** In this type of allocation, relocation-register scheme is used to protect user processes from each other, and from changing operating-system code and data. Relocation register contains value of smallest physical address whereas limit register contains range of logical addresses. Each logical address must be less than the limit register.
2	**Multiple-partition allocation** In this type of allocation, main memory is divided into a number of fixed-sized partitions where each partition should contain only one process. When a partition is free, a process is selected from the input queue and is loaded into the free partition. When the process terminates, the partition becomes available for another process.

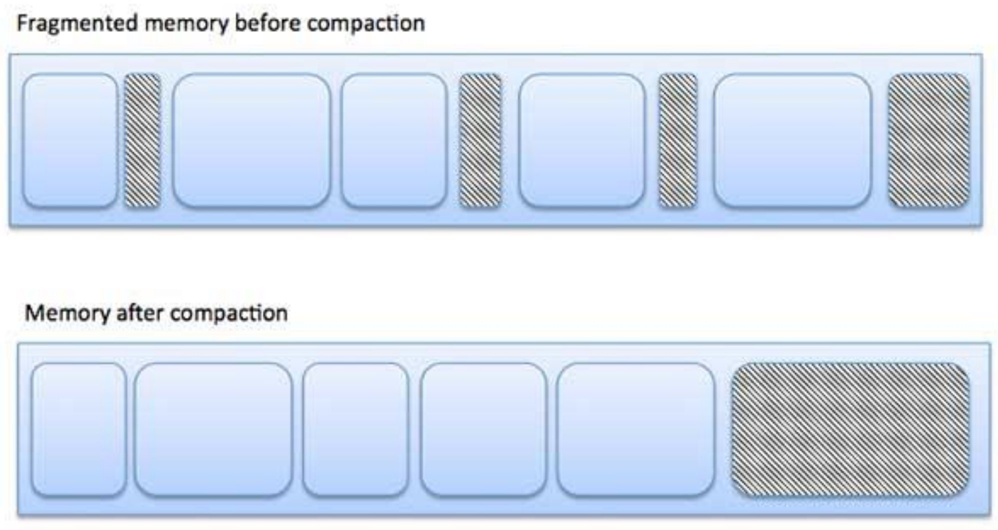
Fragmentation

As processes are loaded and removed from memory, the free memory space is broken into little pieces. It happens after sometimes that processes cannot be allocated to memory blocks considering their small size and memory blocks remains unused. This problem is known as Fragmentation.

Fragmentation is of two types −

S.N.	Fragmentation & Description
1	**External fragmentation** Total memory space is enough to satisfy a request or to reside a process in it, but it is not contiguous, so it cannot be used.
2	**Internal fragmentation** Memory block assigned to process is bigger. Some portion of memory is left unused, as it cannot be used by another process.

The following diagram shows how fragmentation can cause waste of memory and a compaction technique can be used to create more free memory out of fragmented memory −



External fragmentation can be reduced by compaction or shuffle memory contents to place all free memory together in one large block. To make compaction feasible, relocation should be dynamic.

The internal fragmentation can be reduced by effectively assigning the smallest partition but large enough for the process.

(Paging Segmentation from book)

Paging in Operating System

Paging is a memory management scheme that eliminates the need for contiguous allocation of physical memory. This scheme permits the physical address space of a process to be non – contiguous.

Logical Address or Virtual Address (represented in bits): An address generated by the CPU

Logical Address Space or Virtual Address Space(represented in words or bytes): The set of all logical addresses generated by a program

Physical Address (represented in bits): An address actually available on memory unit

Physical Address Space (represented in words or bytes): The set of all physical addresses corresponding to the logical addresses

- The Physical Address Space is conceptually divided into a number of fixed-size blocks, called **frames**.
- The Logical address Space is also splitted into fixed-size blocks, called **pages**.
- Page Size = Frame Size

Address generated by CPU is divided into

- **Page number(p):** Number of bits required to represent the pages in Logical Address Space or Page number
- **Page offset(d):** Number of bits required to represent particular word in a page or page size of Logical Address Space or word number of a page or page offset.

Physical Address is divided into

- **Frame number(f):** Number of bits required to represent the frame of Physical Address Space or Frame number.

- **Frame offset(d):** Number of bits required to represent particular word in a frame or frame size of Physical Address Space or word number of a frame or frame offset.

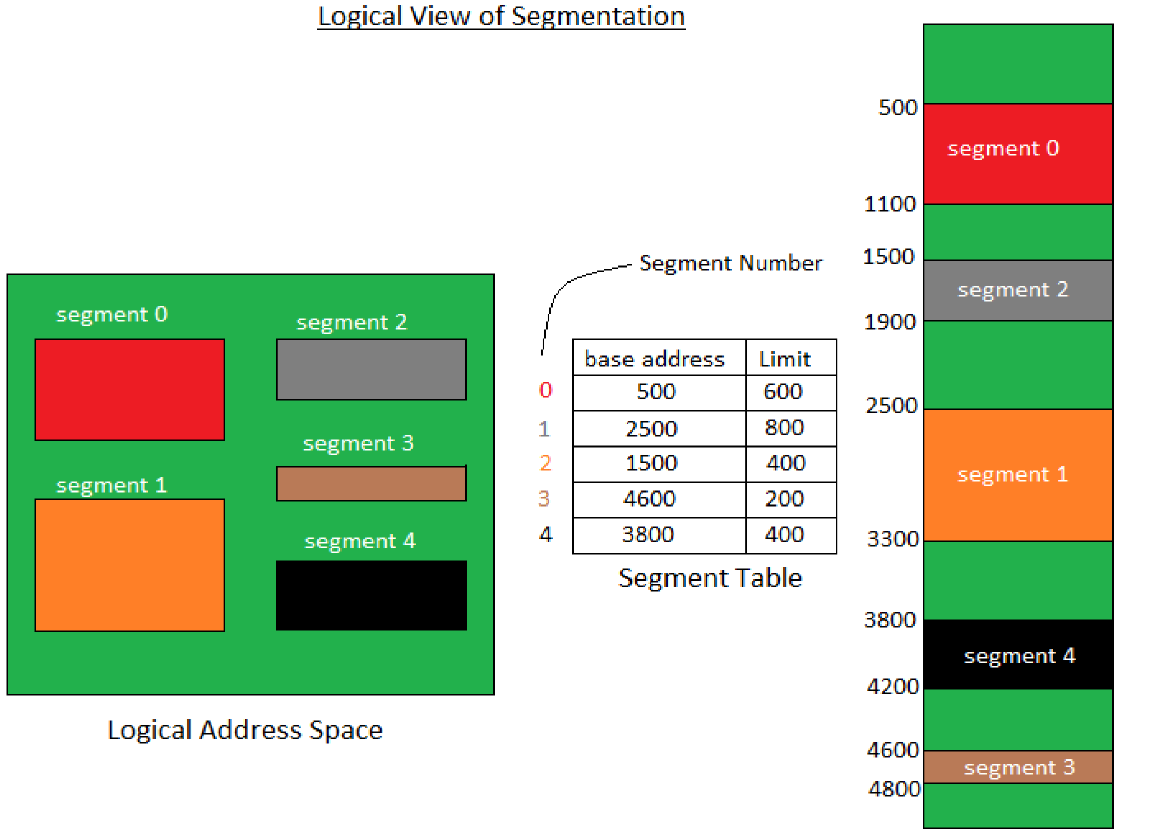
Segmentation

Segmentation is a memory management technique in which each job is divided into several segments of different sizes, one for each module that contains pieces that perform related functions. Each segment is actually a different logical address space of the program.

Segment Table – It maps two-dimensional Logical address into one-dimensional Physical address. It's each table entry has:

- **Base Address:** It contains the starting physical address where the segments reside in memory.
- **Limit:** It specifies the length of the segment.

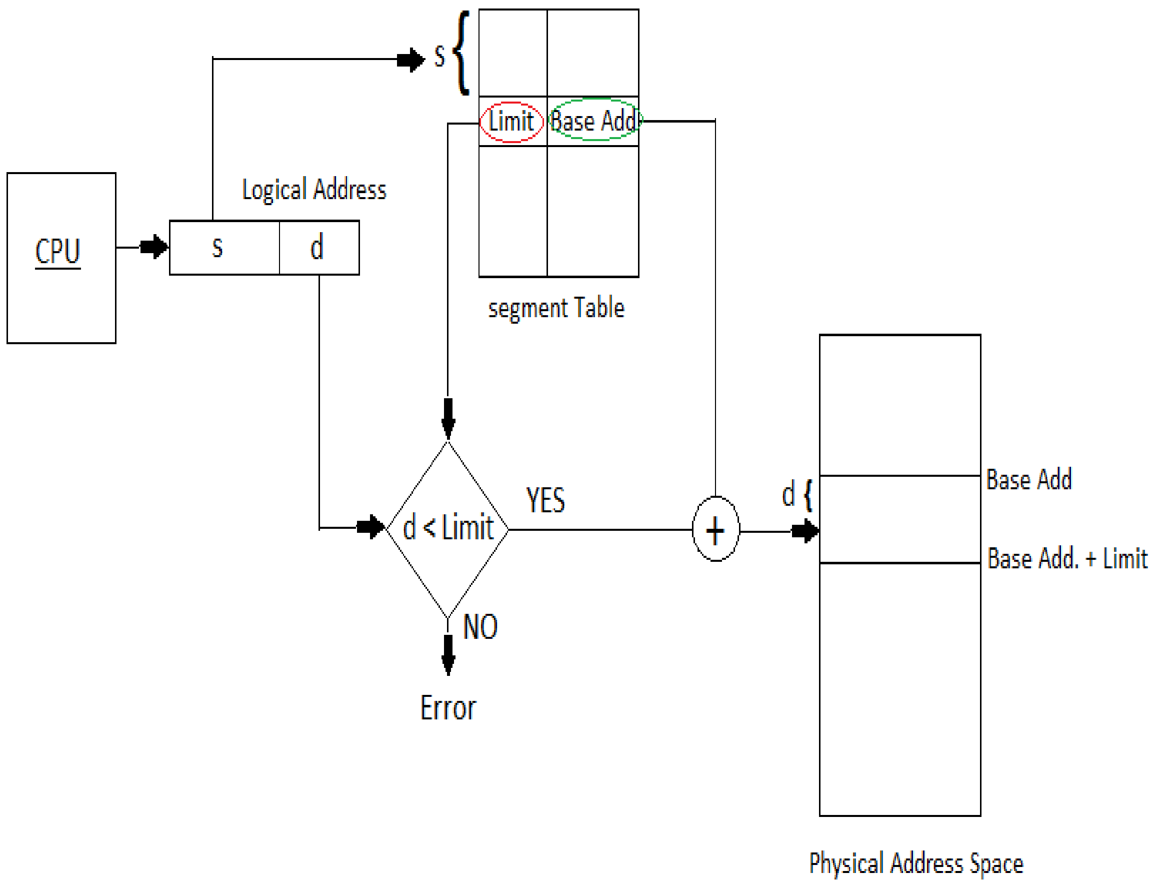
Logical View of Segmentation



	base address	Limit
0	500	600
1	2500	800
2	1500	400
3	4600	200
4	3800	400

Segment Table

Translation of Two dimensional Logical Address to one dimensional Physical Address.



Address generated by the CPU is divided into:

- **Segment number (s):** Number of bits required to represent the segment.
- **Segment offset (d):** Number of bits required to represent the size of the segment.

Advantages of Segmentation –

- No Internal fragmentation.
- Segment Table consumes less space in comparison to Page table in paging.

Disadvantage of Segmentation –

- As processes are loaded and removed from the memory, the free memory space is broken into little pieces, causing External fragmentation.

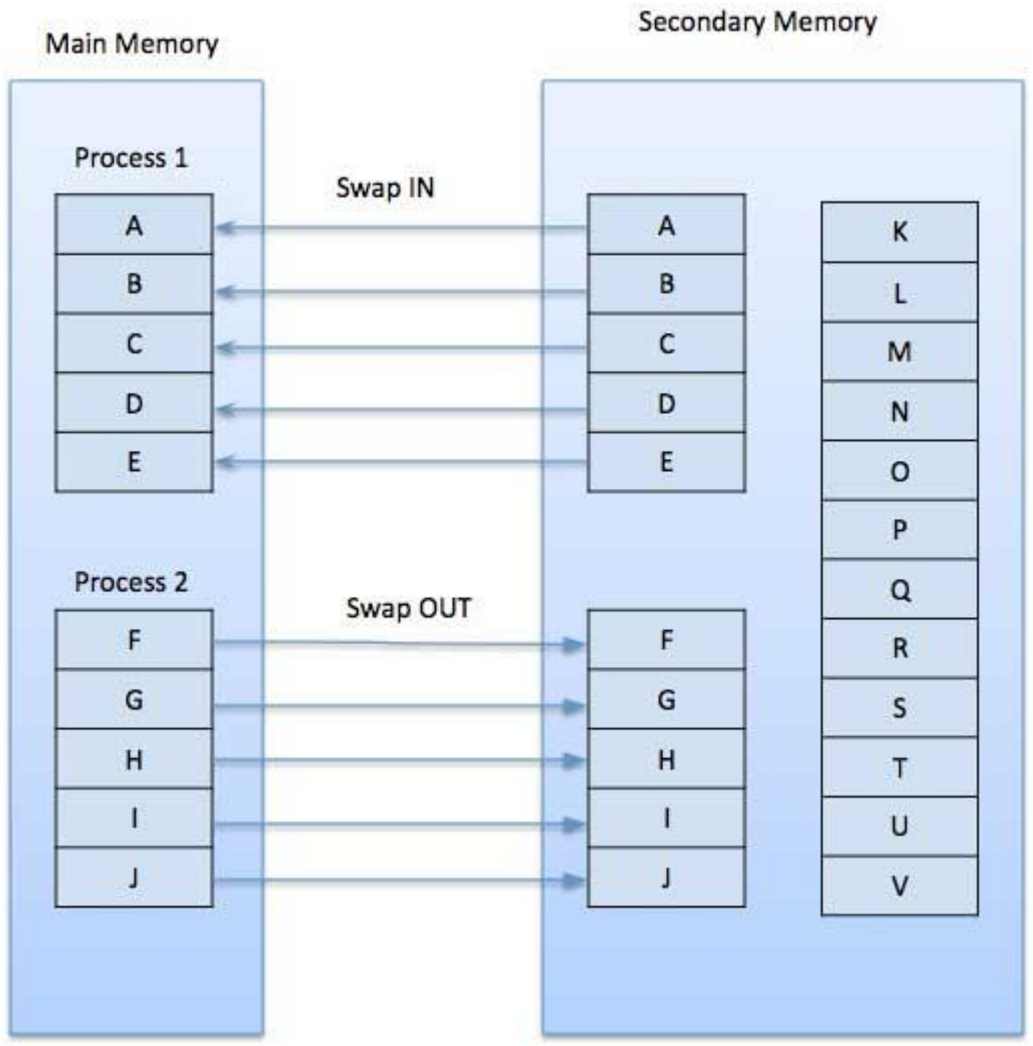
Virtual Memory

A computer can address more memory than the amount physically installed on the system. This extra memory is actually called **virtual memory** and it is a section of a hard disk that's set up to emulate the computer's RAM.

The main visible advantage of this scheme is that programs can be larger than physical memory. Virtual memory serves two purposes. First, it allows us to extend the use of physical memory by using disk. Second, it allows us to have memory protection, because each virtual address is translated to a physical address.

Demand Paging

A demand paging system is quite similar to a paging system with swapping where processes reside in secondary memory and pages are loaded only on demand, not in advance. When a context switch occurs, the operating system does not copy any of the old program's pages out to the disk or any of the new program's pages into the main memory Instead, it just begins executing the new program after loading the first page and fetches that program's pages as they are referenced.



While executing a program, if the program references a page which is not available in the main memory because it was swapped out a little ago, the processor treats this invalid memory reference as a **page fault** and transfers control from the program to the operating system to demand the page back into the memory.

Advantages

Following are the advantages of Demand Paging −

- Large virtual memory.
- More efficient use of memory.
- There is no limit on degree of multiprogramming.

Disadvantages

- Number of tables and the amount of processor overhead for handling page interrupts are greater than in the case of the simple paged management techniques.

Bare Machine and Resident Monitor

Bare Machine

Bare Machine is a logic hardware in the computer system which can execute the programs in the processor without using the Operating System. Till now we have studied that we cannot execute any process inside the processor without the Operating System. But, with the Bare Machine, it is possible.

In the early days, before the Operating systems were developed, the instructions were executed directly on the hardware without any interfering software. But the only drawback was that the Bare Machine accepts the program and instructions in Machine Language. Due to this, only the trained people who were qualified in the computer field and were able to understand and instruct the computer in Machine language were able to operate on a computer. Due to this reason, the Bare Machine was termed as inefficient and cumbersome after the development of different Operating Systems.

Resident Monitor

The **Resident Monitor** is a code which runs on **Bare Machine**. Its acts like an operating system which controls everything inside a processor and performs all the functions. The Resident Monitor is thus also known as the Job Sequencer because like the Operating system, it also sequences the jobs and sends it to the processor for execution. After the jobs are scheduled, the Resident Monitor loads the Programs one by one into the main memory according to their sequence. The advantage of using a Resident Monitor over an Operating System is that there is no gap or lag between the program executions. So, the processing is faster in the **Resident Monitors**.

The Resident Monitors are divided into 3 parts:

Control Language Interpreter
The job of the Control Language Interpreter is to read and carry out the instructions line by line to the next level.

Loader
The Loader is the main part of the Resident Monitor. As the name suggests, it Loads all the required system and application programs into the main memory.

Device Driver
The Device Driver Takes care of all the Input-Output devices connected with the system. So, all the communication that takes place between the user and the system is handled by the Device Driver. It simply acts as an intermediate between the requests and the response, requests that are made by the user to the system, and they respond that the system produces to fulfill these requests.

File

A file is a named collection of related information that is recorded on secondary storage such as magnetic disks, magnetic tapes and optical disks. In general, a file is a sequence of bits, bytes, lines or records whose meaning is defined by the files creator and user.

File Structure

A File Structure should be according to a required format that the operating system can understand.

- A file has a certain defined structure according to its type.
- A text file is a sequence of characters organized into lines.
- A source file is a sequence of procedures and functions.
- An object file is a sequence of bytes organized into blocks that are understandable by the machine.
- When operating system defines different file structures, it also contains the code to support these file structure. Unix, MS-DOS support minimum number of file structure.

File Type

File type refers to the ability of the operating system to distinguish different types of file such as text files source files and binary files etc. Many operating systems support many types of files. Operating system like MS-DOS and UNIX have the following types of files −

Ordinary files

- These are the files that contain user information.
- These may have text, databases or executable program.
- The user can apply various operations on such files like add, modify, delete or even remove the entire file.

Directory files

- These files contain list of file names and other information related to these files.

Special files

- These files are also known as device files.
- These files represent physical device like disks, terminals, printers, networks, tape drive etc.

These files are of two types −

- **Character special files** − data is handled character by character as in case of terminals or printers.
- **Block special files** − data is handled in blocks as in the case of disks and tapes.

File Access Mechanisms

File access mechanism refers to the manner in which the records of a file may be accessed. There are several ways to access files −

- Sequential access
- Direct/Random access
- Indexed sequential access

Sequential access

A sequential access is that in which the records are accessed in some sequence, i.e., the information in the file is processed in order, one record after the other. This access method is the most primitive one. Example: Compilers usually access files in this fashion.

Direct/Random access

- Random access file organization provides, accessing the records directly.
- Each record has its own address on the file with by the help of which it can be directly accessed for reading or writing.
- The records need not be in any sequence within the file and they need not be in adjacent locations on the storage medium.

Indexed sequential access

- This mechanism is built up on base of sequential access.
- An index is created for each file which contains pointers to various blocks.
- Index is searched sequentially and its pointer is used to access the file directly.

Space Allocation (3 Options)

Files are allocated disk spaces by operating system. Operating systems deploy following three main ways to allocate disk space to files.

- Contiguous Allocation
- Linked Allocation
- Indexed Allocation

Contiguous Allocation

- Each file occupies a contiguous address space on disk.
- Assigned disk address is in linear order.
- Easy to implement.
- External fragmentation is a major issue with this type of allocation technique.

Linked Allocation

- Each file carries a list of links to disk blocks.
- Directory contains link / pointer to first block of a file.
- No external fragmentation
- Effectively used in sequential access file.
- Inefficient in case of direct access file.

Indexed Allocation

- Provides solutions to problems of contiguous and linked allocation.
- A index block is created having all pointers to files.
- Each file has its own index block which stores the addresses of disk space occupied by the file.
- Directory contains the addresses of index blocks of files.

OR

File allocation method in Operating System

Allocation Method

The allocation method defines how the files are stored in the disk blocks. The direct access nature of the disks gives us the flexibility to implement the files. In many cases, different files or many files are stored on the same disk. The main problem that occurs in the operating system is that how we allocate the spaces to these files so that the utilization of disk is efficient and the quick access to the file is possible. There are mainly three methods of file allocation in the disk. Each method has its advantages and disadvantages. Mainly a system uses one method for all files within the system.

- Contiguous allocation
- Linked allocation
- Indexed allocation

The main idea behind contiguous allocation methods is to provide

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

Contiguous allocation

In this scheme, a file is made from the contiguous set of blocks on the disk. Linear ordering on the disk is defined by the disk addresses. In this scheme only one job is accessing the disk block b after that it accesses the block b+1 and there are no head movements. When the movement of the head is needed the head moves only from one track to another track. So the disk number that is required for accessing the contiguous allocation is minimal. Contiguous allocation method provides a good performance that’s why it is used by the IBM VM/CMS operating system. 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. For a contiguous allocation the directory entry the address of the starting block and Length of the allocated portion.

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

- Each file in the disk occupies a contiguous address space on the disk.
- In this scheme, the address is assigned in the linear fashion.
- The is very easy to implement the contiguous allocation method.
- In the contiguous allocation technique, external fragmentation is a major issue.

Advantages:

1. In the contiguous allocation, sequential and direct access both are supported.
2. For the direct access, the starting address of the kth block is given and further blocks are obtained by b+K,
3. This is very fast and the number of seeks is minimal in the contiguous allocation method.

Disadvantages:

1. Contiguous allocation method suffers internal as well as external fragmentation.
2. In terms of memory utilization, this method is inefficient.
3. It is difficult to increase the file size because it depends on the availability of contiguous memory.

Example:

File	Start	Length

Count	0	2
Tr	14	3
Mail	19	6
List	28	4

Linked allocation

The problems of contiguous allocation are solved in the linked allocation method. In this scheme, disk blocks are arranged in the linked list form which is not contiguous. The disk block is scattered in the disk. In this scheme, the directory entry contains the pointer of the first block and pointer of the ending block. These pointers are not for the users. For example, a file of six blocks starts at block 10 and end at the block. Each pointer contains the address of the next block. When we create a new file we simply create a new entry with the linked allocation. Each directory contains the pointer to the first disk block of the file. when the pointer is nil then it defines the empty file.

Advantages:

1. In terms of the file size, this scheme is very flexible.
2. We can easily increase or decrease the file size and system does not worry about the contiguous chunks of memory.
3. This method free from external fragmentation this makes it better in terms of memory utilization.

Disadvantages:

1. In this scheme, there is large no of seeks because the file blocks are randomly distributed on disk.
2. Linked allocation is comparatively slower than contiguous allocation.
3. Random or direct access is not supported by this scheme we cannot access the blocks directly.
4. The pointer is extra overhead on the system due to the linked list.

Indexed Allocation

In this scheme, a special block known as the index block contains the pointer to all the blocks occupied by a file. each file contains its index which is in the form of an array of disk block addresses. The ith entry of index block point to the ith block of the file. The address of the index block is maintained by the directory. When we create a file all pointer is set to nil. A block is obtained from the free space manager when the first ith block is written. When the index block is very small it is difficult to hold all the pointers for the large file. to deal with this issue a mechanism is available. Mechanism includes the following:

- Linked scheme
- Multilevel scheme
- Combined scheme

Advantages:

1. This scheme supports random access of the file.
2. This scheme provides fast access to the file blocks.
3. This scheme is free from the problem of external fragmentation.

Disadvantages:

1. The pointer head is relatively greater than the linked allocation of the file.
2. Indexed allocation suffers from the wasted space.
3. For the large size file, it is very difficult for single index block to hold all the pointers.
4. For very small files say files that expend only 2-3 blocks the indexed allocation would keep on the entire block for the pointers which is insufficient in terms of memory utilization.

OR

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:

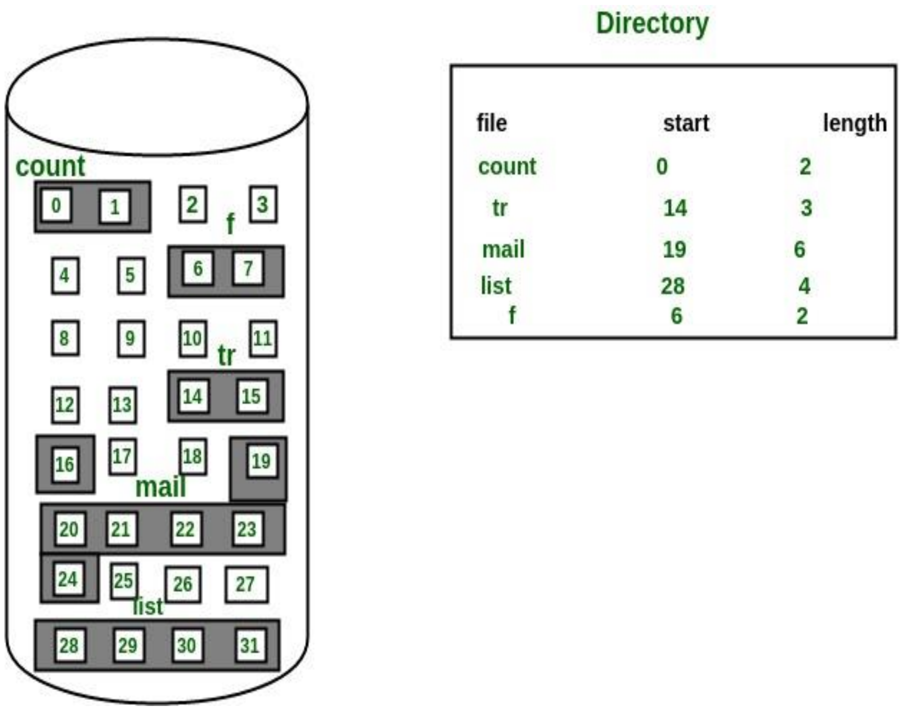
1. Contiguous Allocation

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.



Directory

file	start	length
count	0	2
tr	14	3
mail	19	6
list	28	4
f	6	2

Advantages:

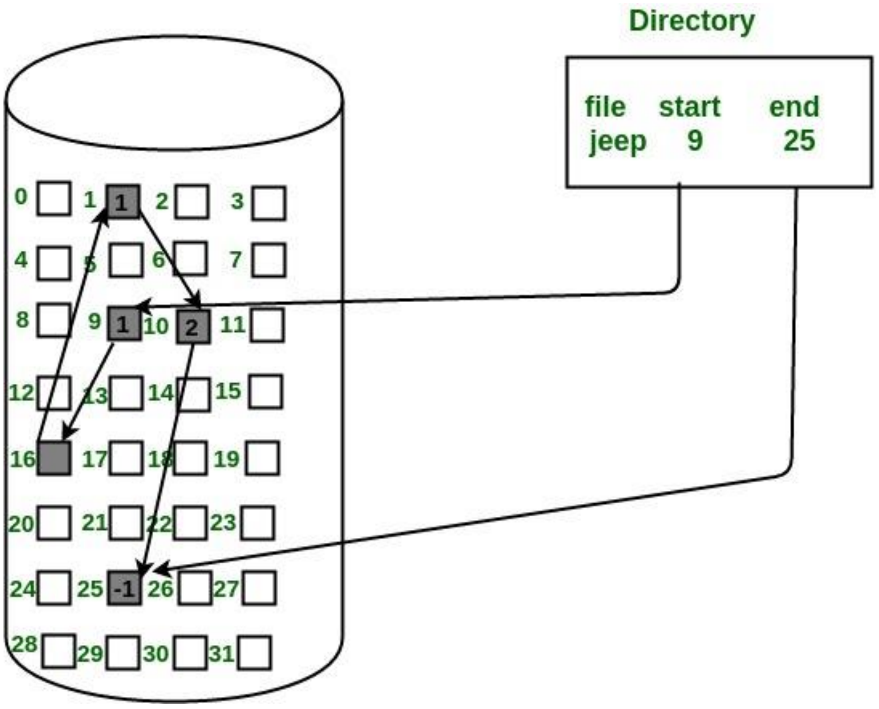
- Both the Sequential and Direct Accesses are supported by this. For direct access, the address of the kth block of the file which starts at block b can easily be obtained as (b+k).
- This is extremely fast since the number of seeks are minimal because of contiguous allocation of file blocks.

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.
The file 'jeep' in following image shows how the blocks are randomly distributed. The last block (25) contains -1 indicating a null pointer and does not point to any other block.



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.

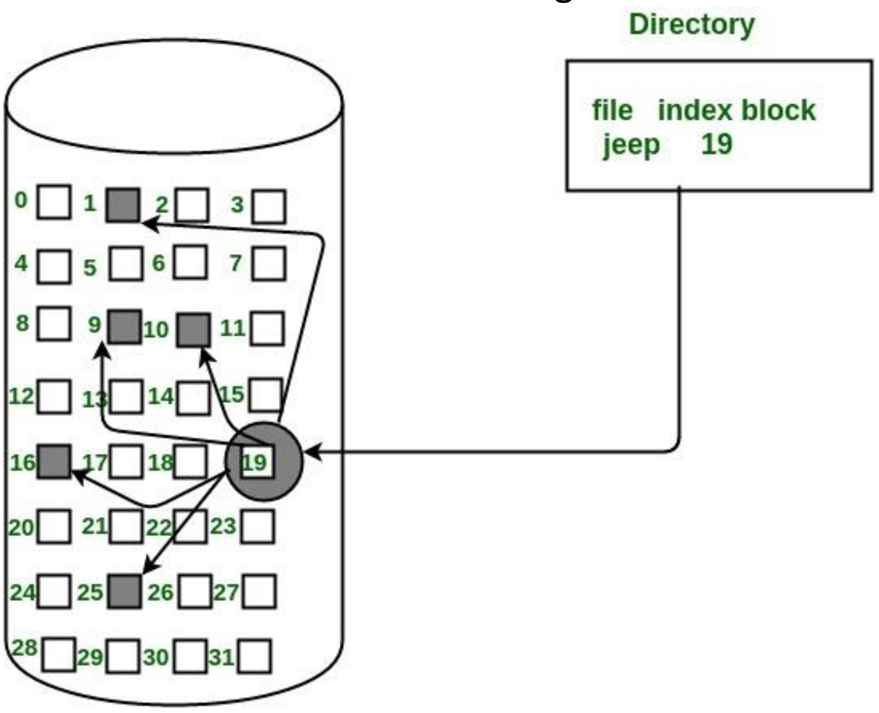
Disadvantages:

- 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.

Operations on File

Here are the list of some common file operations:

File Create operation

File Delete operation

File Open operation

File Close operation

File Read operation

File Write operation

File Append operation

File Seek operation

File Get attribute operation

File Set attribute operation

File Rename operation

Now let's describe briefly about all the above most common operations that can be performed with files.

File Create Operation

The file is created with no data.

The file create operation is the first step of the file.

Without creating any file, there is no any operation can be performed.

File Delete Operation

File must has to be deleted when it is no longer needed just to free up the disk space.

The file delete operation is the last step of the file.

After deleting the file, it doesn't exist.

File Open Operation

The process must open the file before using it.

File Close Operation

The file must be closed to free up the internal table space, when all the accesses are finished and the attributes and the disk addresses are no longer needed.

File Read Operation

The file read operation is performed just to read the data that are stored in the required file.

File Write Operation

The file write operation is used to write the data to the file, again, generally at the current position.

File Append Operation

The file append operation is same as the file write operation except that the file append operation only add the data at the end of the file.

File Seek Operation

For random access files, a method is needed just to specify from where to take the data. Therefore, the file seek operation performs this task.

File Get Attribute Operation

The file get attributes operation are performed by the processes when they need to read the file attributes to do their required work.

File Set Attribute Operation

The file set attribute operation used to set some of the attributes (user settable attributes) after the file has been created.

File Rename Operation

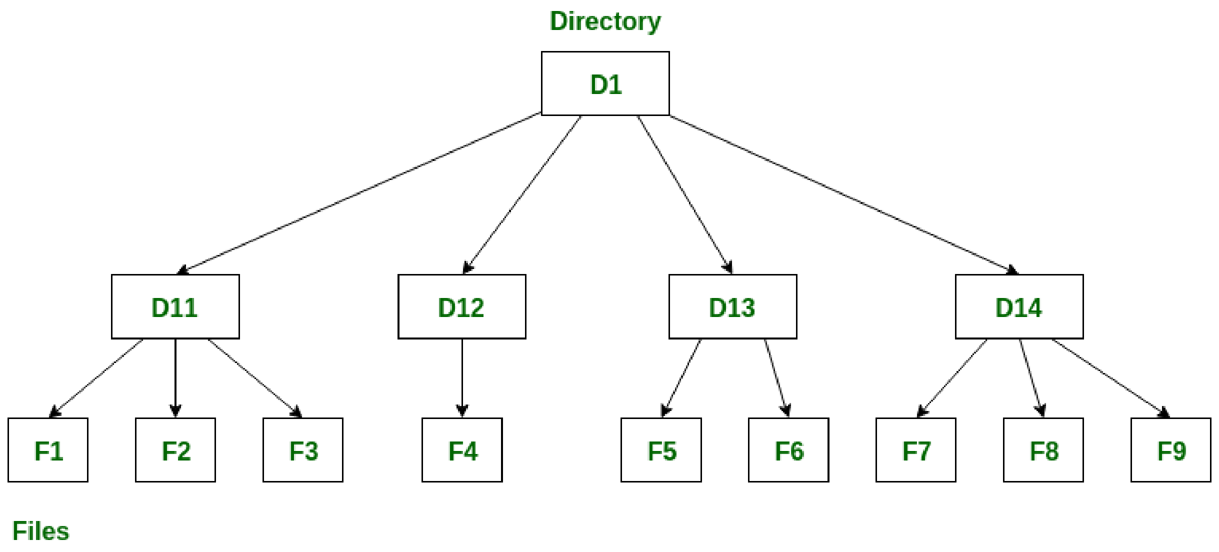
The file rename operation is used to change the name of the existing file.

Truncate

Truncating is simply deleting the file except deleting attributes. The file is not completely deleted although the information stored inside the file get replaced.

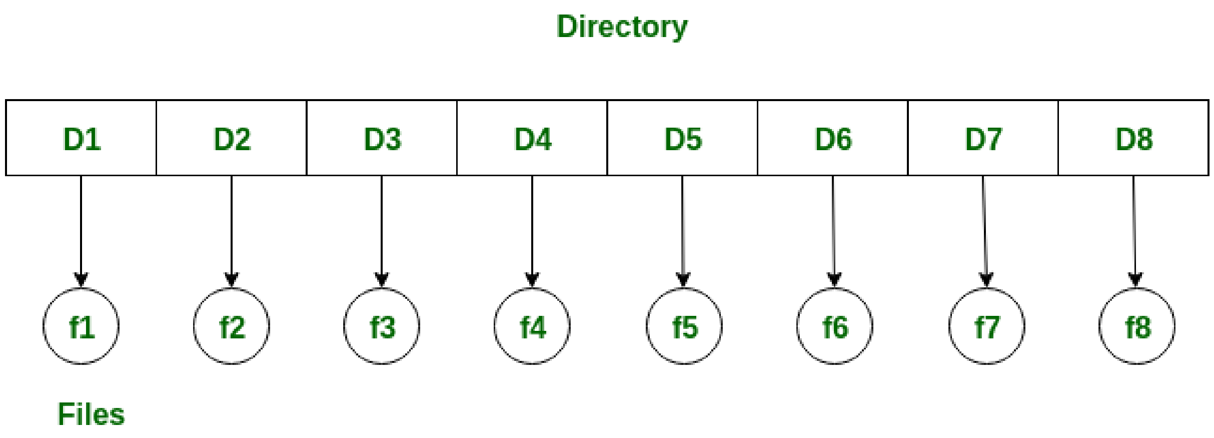
Structures of Directory in Operating System

A **directory** is a container that is used to contain folders and file. It organizes files and folders into a hierarchical manner.



There are several logical structures of a directory, these are given below.

1. **Single-level directory –**
   Single level directory is simplest directory structure.In it all files are contained in same directory which make it easy to support and understand.
   A single level directory has a significant limitation, however, when the number of files increases or when the system has more than one user. Since all the files are in the same directory, they must have the unique name . if two users call their dataset test, then the unique name rule violated.



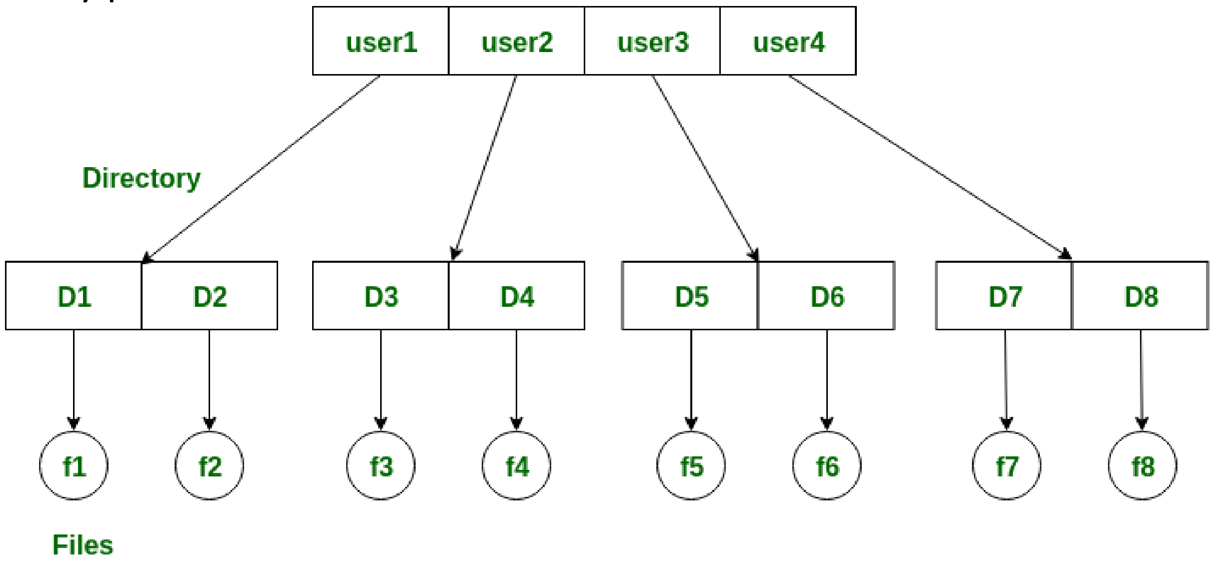
Advantages:

- Since it is a single directory, so its implementation is very easy.
- If files are smaller in size, searching will faster.
- The operations like file creation, searching, deletion, updating are very easy in such a directory structure.

Disadvantages:

- There may chance of name collision because two files can not have the same name.
- Searching will become time taking if directory will large.
- In this can not group the same type of files together.

2. **Two-level directory –**
   As we have seen, a single level directory often leads to confusion of files names among different users. the solution to this problem is to create a separate directory for each user.
   In the two-level directory structure, each user has there own *user files directory (UFD)*. The UFDs has similar structures, but each lists only the files of a single user. system's *master file directory (MFD)* is searches whenever a new user id=s logged in. The MFD is indexed by username or account number, and each entry points to the UFD for that user.



Advantages:

- We can give full path like /User-name/directory-name/.
- Different users can have same directory as well as file name.
- Searching of files become more easy due to path name and user-grouping.

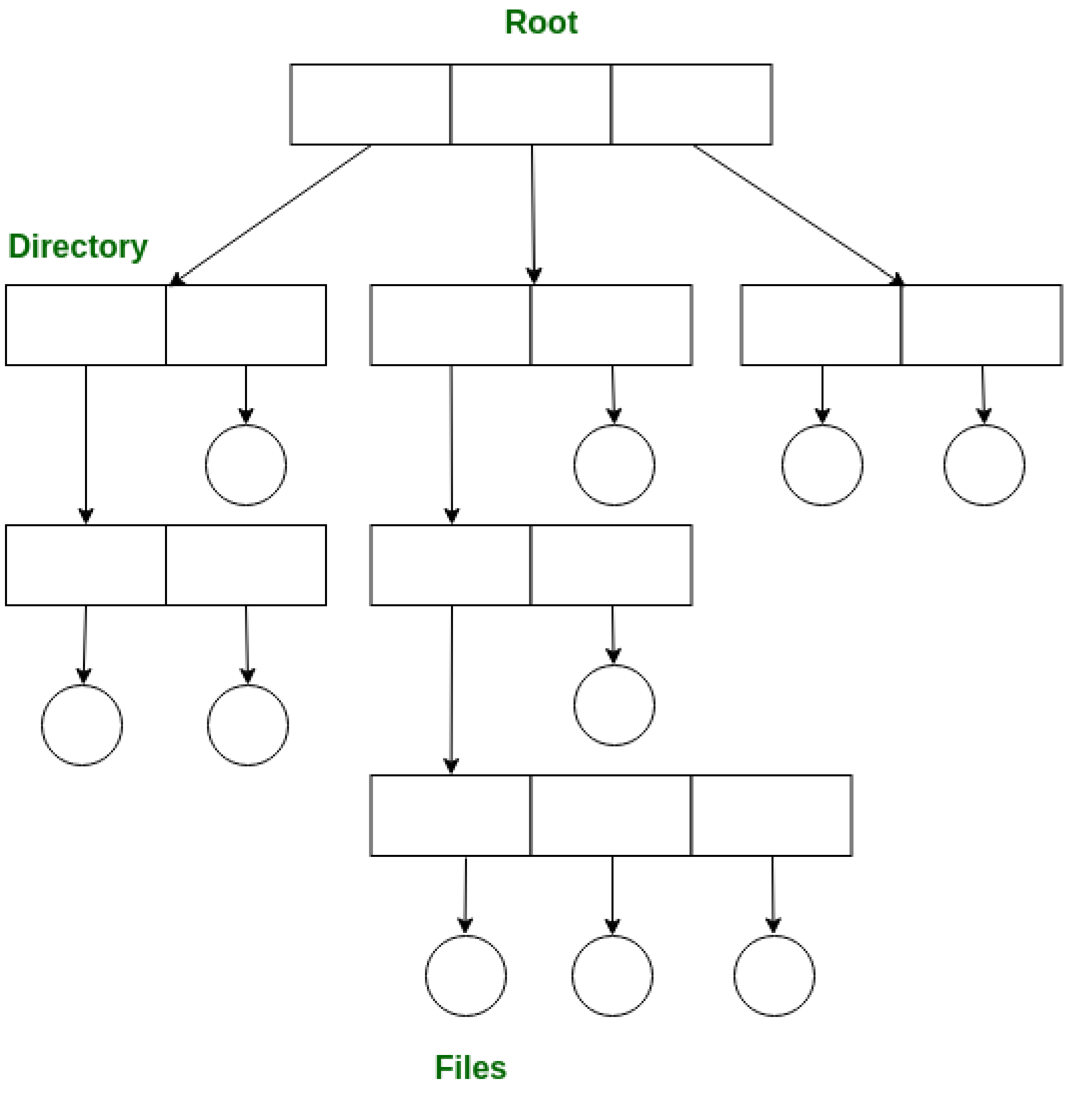
Disadvantages:

- A user is not allowed to share files with other users.
- Still it not very scalable, two files of the same type cannot be grouped together in the same user.

3. Tree-structured directory –

Once we have seen a two-level directory as a tree of height 2, the natural generalization is to extend the directory structure to a tree of arbitrary height.

This generalization allows the user to create there own subdirectories and to organize on their files accordingly.



A tree structure is the most common directory structure. The tree has a root directory, and every file in the system have a unique path.

Advantages:

- Very generalize, since full path name can be given.
- Very scalable, the probability of name collision is less.

- Searching becomes very easy, we can use both absolute path as well as relative.

Disadvantages:

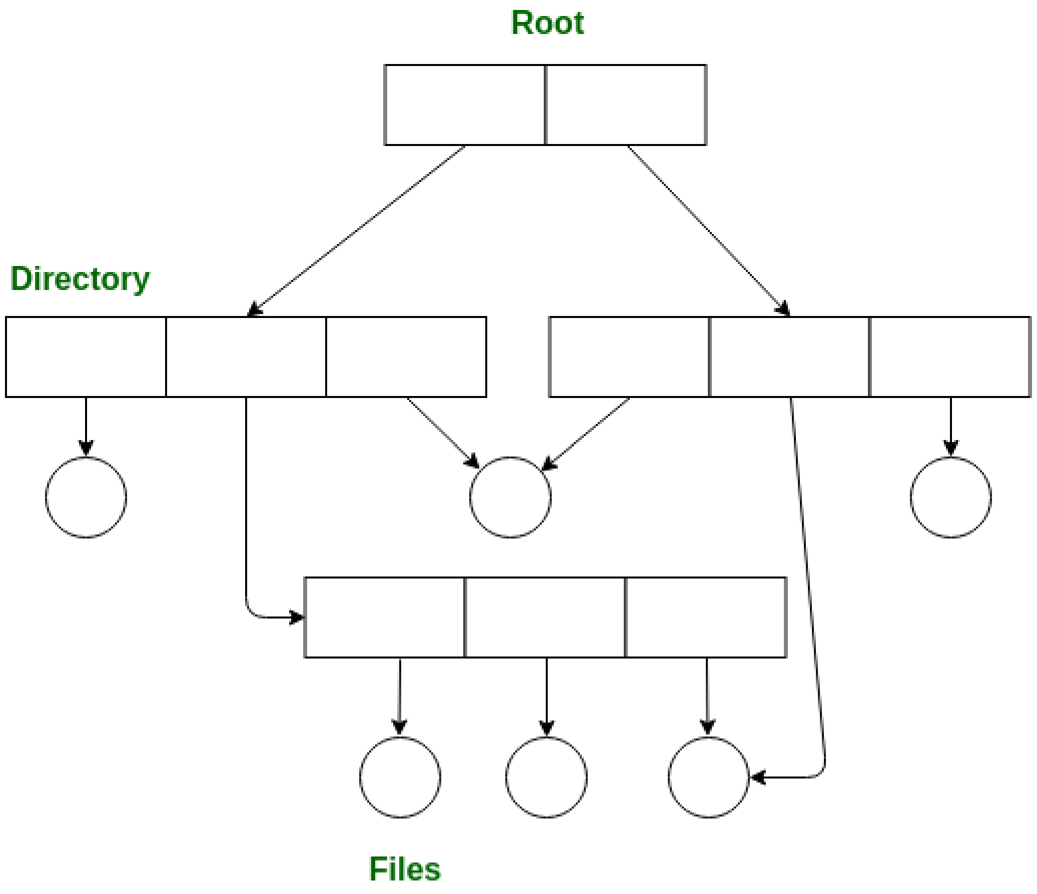
- Every file does not fit into the hierarchical model, files may be saved into multiple directories.
- We can not share files.
- It is inefficient, because accessing a file may go under multiple directories.

4. Acyclic graph directory –

An acyclic graph is a graph with no cycle and allows to share subdirectories and files. The same file or subdirectories may be in two different directories. It is a natural generalization of the tree-structured directory.

It is used in the situation like when two programmers are working on a joint project and they need to access files. The associated files are stored in a subdirectory, separating them from other projects and files of other programmers, since they are working on a joint project so they want the subdirectories to be into their own directories. The common subdirectories should be shared. So here we use Acyclic directories.

It is the point to note that shared file is not the same as copy file . If any programmer makes some changes in the subdirectory it will reflect in both subdirectories.



Advantages:

- We can share files.
- Searching is easy due to different-different paths.

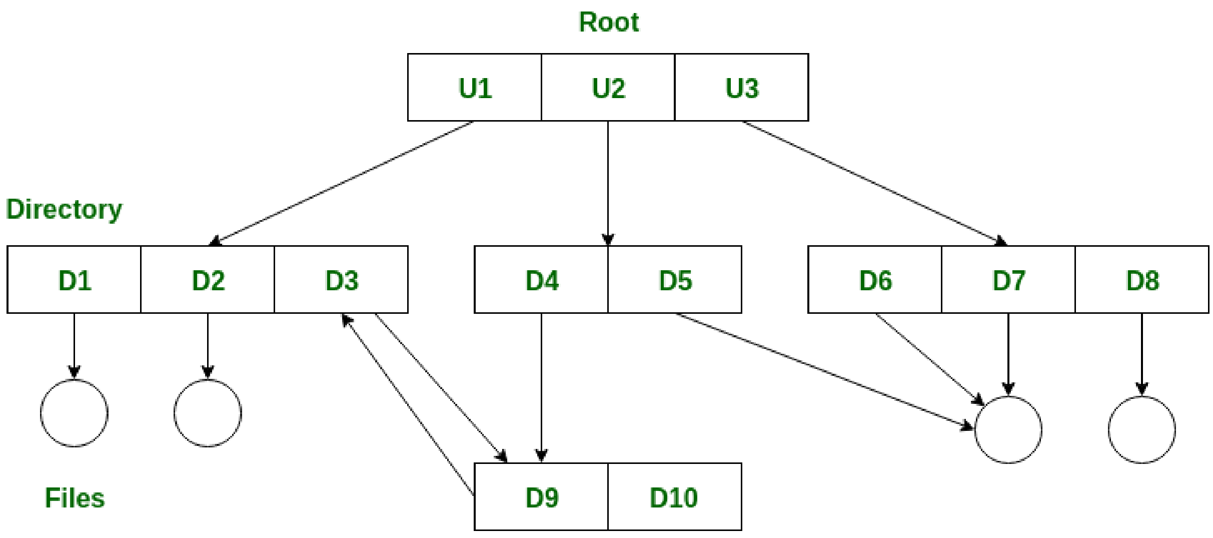
Disadvantages:

- We share the files via linking, in case of deleting it may create the problem,
- If the link is softlink then after deleting the file we left with a dangling pointer.
- In case of hardlink, to delete a file we have to delete all the reference associated with it.

5. General graph directory structure –

In general graph directory structure, cycles are allowed within a directory structure where multiple directories can be derived from more than one parent directory.

The main problem with this kind of directory structure is to calculate total size or space that has been taken by the files and directories.



Advantages:

- It allows cycles.
- It is more flexible than other directories structure.

Disadvantages:

- It is more costly than others.
- It needs garbage collection.

File Protection

Preventing accidental erasing of data. Physical file protection is provided on the storage medium by turning a switch, moving a lever or covering a notch. Writing is prohibited even if the software directs the computer to do so. For example, on the eariler half-inch tape, a plastic ring in the center of the reel was removed (no ring-no write).

Logical file protection is provided by the operating system, which can designate files as read only. This allows both regular (read/write) and read only files to be stored on the same disk volume. Files can also be designated as hidden files, which makes them invisible to most software programs.

Important Questions

Unit-1

Q. What is an operating system? Discuss Different types of operating system?

Q. Functions of operating system?

Q. Characteristics of operating system?

Unit-2

Q. Process states

Q. Process control block

Q. Convey effect

Q. Scheduling Algorithms

Q. Deadlock and its condition and prevention

Q. Deadlock Recovery

Q. Deadlock avoidance and Banker's algorithm

Unit-3

Q, Paging with example

Q. Segmentation with example

Q. Virtual Memory

Q. Demand Paging

Q. Physical and logical address

Unit -4

Q. File

Q. File Accessing methods

Q. File allocation methods

Q. Operations on file

Q. Structure of directory
Q. File naming and its attributes

THANK YOU