

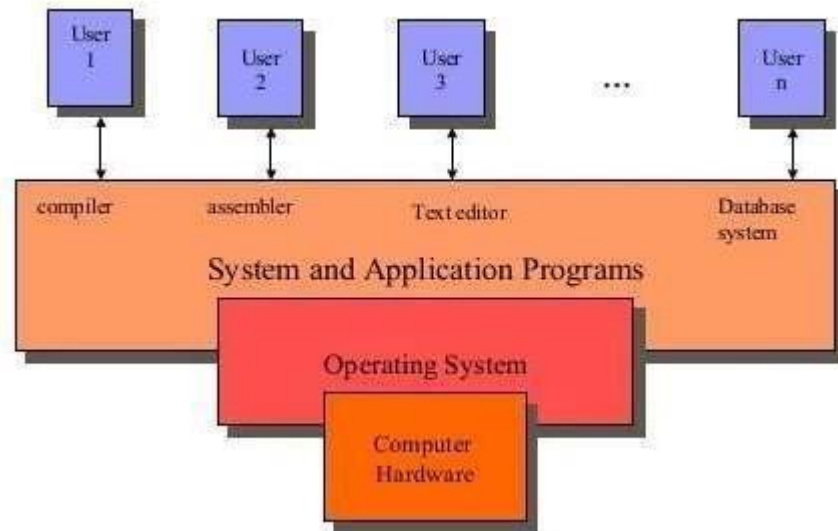
UNIT-1

Operating System Introduction-Structure-Simple batch,Multiprogramming,Time-shared,Personal Computer,Parallel,Distributed System, Real time System,System Components,OS services,System calls.

Process-Process concepts and scheduling, Operations on process, Cooperating process, Threads

Introduction of Operating System

- An OS acts as an interface between user and system hardware.
- Computer consists of the hardware, Operating System, system programs, application programs.
- The hardware consists of memory, CPU, ALU, I/O device, storage device and peripheral device.
- System program consists of compilers, loaders, editors, OS etc.
- Application program consists of database programs, business programs.
- Every computer must have an OS to run other programs.
- The OS controls & coordinates the use of the hardware among the various system programs and application programs for various tasks.
- It simply provides an environment within which other programs can do useful work.



OPERATING SYSTEM

Definition

- In the 1960's one might have defined OS as **“The software that controls the hardware”**.
- Operating System performs all the basic tasks like managing files, processes,

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and memory. Thus operating system acts as the manager of all the resources, i.e. **resource manager**.

- Operating system becomes an interface between the user and the machine. It is one of the most required software that is present in the device.
- Operating System is a type of software that works as an interface between the system program and the hardware.

Concept of OS

- The OS is a set of special programs that run on a computer system that allow it to work properly.
- It performs basic tasks as recognizing input from the keyboard, keeping track of files and directories on the disk, sending output to the display screen and controlling a peripheral device.
- The OS must support the following tasks. They are,
 - Provide the facilities to create, modification of program and data file using an editor.
 - Access to the compiler for translating the user program from high-level language to machine language.
 - Provide a loader program to move the compiled program code to the computer memory for execution.

Types of Operating Systems

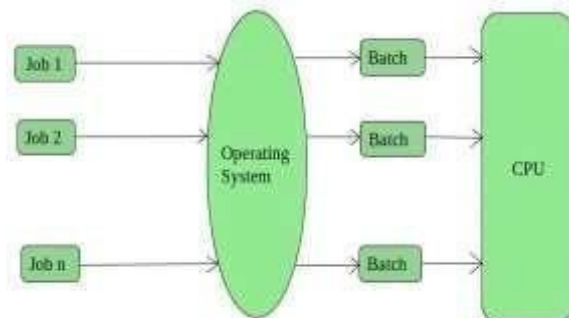
There are several types of Operating Systems which are mentioned below.

- Batch Operating System
- Multi-Programming System
- Time-Sharing Operating System
- Personal Computers
- Parallel Operating System
- Distributed Operating System
- Real-Time Operating System

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 the same requirement and groups them into batches. It is the responsibility of the operator to sort jobs with similar needs.

Advantages



- Processors of the batch systems know how long the job would be when it is in the queue.
- Multiple users can share the batch systems.
- The idle time for the batch system is very less.
- It is easy to manage large work repeatedly in batch systems.

Disadvantages

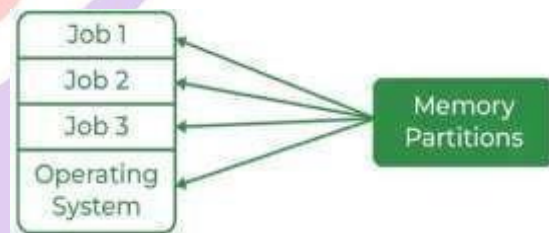
- The computer operator should be well known with batch systems.
- Batch systems are hard to debug.
- It is sometimes costly.
- The other jobs will have to wait for an unknown time if any job fails.
- It is very difficult to guess or know the time required for any job to complete.

Examples

Payroll Systems, Bank Statements, etc.

2. Multi-Programming Operating System

Multiprogramming Operating Systems can be simply illustrated as more than one program is present in the main memory and any one of them can be kept in execution. This is basically used for better execution of resources.



Advantages of Multi-Programming Operating System

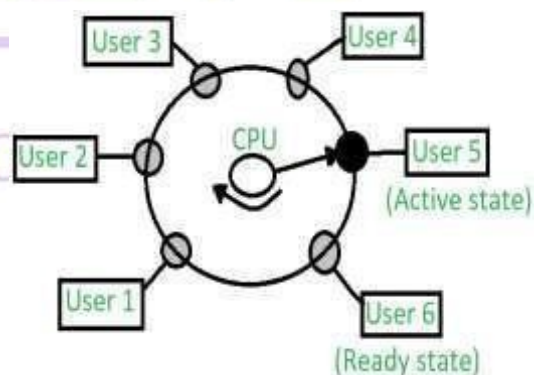
- Multiprogramming increases the throughput of the system.
- It helps in reducing the response time.

Disadvantages of Multi-Programming Operating System

- There is not any facility for user interaction of system resources with the system.

3. Time-Sharing Operating Systems

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



Advantages

- Each task gets an equal opportunity.
- Fewer chances of duplication of software.
- CPU idle time can be reduced.
- **Resource Sharing:** Time-sharing systems allow multiple users to share hardware resources such as the CPU, memory, and peripherals, reducing the cost of hardware and increasing efficiency.
- **Improved Productivity:** Time-sharing allows users to work concurrently, thereby reducing the waiting time for their turn to use the computer. This increased productivity translates to more work getting done in less time.
- **Improved User Experience:** Time-sharing provides an interactive environment that allows users to communicate with the computer in real time, providing a better user experience than batch processing.

Disadvantages

- Reliability problem.
- One must have to take care of the security and integrity of user programs and data.
- Data communication problem.
- **High Overhead:** Time-sharing systems have a higher overhead than other operating systems due to the need for scheduling, context switching, and other overheads that come with supporting multiple users.
- **Complexity:** Time-sharing systems are complex and require advanced software to manage multiple users simultaneously. This complexity increases the chance of bugs and errors.
- **Security Risks:** With multiple users sharing resources, the risk of security breaches increases. Time-sharing systems require careful management of user access, authentication, and authorization to ensure the security of data and software.
- - sharing operating system that allows multiple users to access a Windows server remotely. Users can run their own applications and access shared resources, such as printers and network storage, in real-time.

4. Personal Computer

A personal computer (PC) is a microcomputer designed for use by one person at a time.

Prior to the PC, computers were designed for -- and only affordable for -- companies that attached terminals for multiple users to a single large mainframe computer whose resources were shared among all users. By the 1980s, technological advances made it feasible to build a small computer that an

individual could download and use as a word processor and for other computing functions.

Whether they are home computers or business ones, PCs can be used to store, retrieve and process data of all kinds. A PC runs firmware that supports an operating system (OS), which supports a spectrum of other software. This software lets consumers and business users perform a range of general-purpose tasks, such as the following:

- word processing
- spreadsheets
- email
- instant messaging
- accounting
- database management
- internet access
- listening to music
- network-attached storage
- graphic design
- music composition
- video gaming
- software development
- network reconnaissance
- multimedia servers
- wireless network access hotspots
- video conferencing

Types

Personal computers fall into various categories, such as the following:

- **Desktop computers** usually have a tower, monitor, keyboard and mouse.
- **Tablets** are mobile devices with a touch screen display.
- **Smartphones** are phones with computing capabilities.
- **Wearables** are devices users wear, such as smartwatches and various types of smart clothing.
- **Laptop computers** are portable personal computers that usually come with an attached keyboard and trackpad.
- **Notebook computers** are lightweight laptops.
- **Handheld computers** include advanced calculators and various gaming devices.

5. Parallel Operating System

Parallel Systems are designed to speed up the execution of programs by dividing the programs into multiple fragments and processing these fragments at the same time.

Advantages

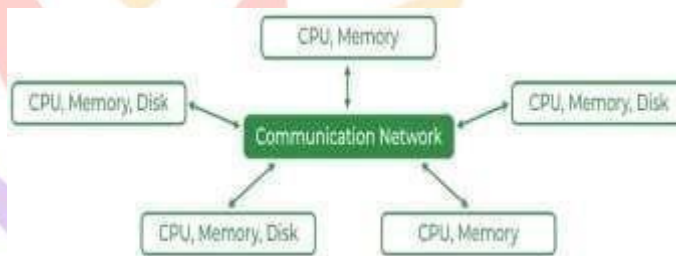
- **High Performance:** Parallel systems can execute computationally intensive tasks more quickly compared to single processor systems.
- **Cost Effective:** Parallel systems can be more cost-effective compared to distributed systems, as they do not require additional hardware for communication.

Disadvantages

- **Limited Scalability:** Parallel systems have limited scalability as the number of processors or cores in a single computer is finite.
- **Complexity:** Parallel systems are more complex to program and debug compared to single processor systems.
- **Synchronization Overhead:** Synchronization between processors in a parallel system can add overhead and impact performance.

6. Distributed Operating System

These types of operating systems are a recent advancement in the world of computer technology and are being widely accepted all over the world and, that too, at a great pace.



Various autonomous interconnected computers communicate with each other using a shared communication network. Independent systems possess their own memory unit and CPU. These are referred to as loosely coupled systems or distributed systems. These systems' processors differ in size and function.

The major benefit of working with these types of the 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 some other system connected within this network i.e., remote access is enabled within the devices connected in that network.

Types of Distributed Systems

The nodes in the distributed systems can be arranged in the form of client/server systems or peer to peer systems. Details about these are as follows –

Client/Server Systems

In client server systems, the client requests a resource and the server provides that resource. A server may serve multiple clients at the same time while a client is in contact with only one server. Both the client and server usually communicate via a computer network and so they are a part of distributed systems.

Peer to Peer Systems

The peer to peer systems contain nodes that are equal participants in data sharing. All the tasks are equally divided between all the nodes. The nodes interact with each other as required to share resources. This is done with the help of a network.

Advantages

- Failure of one will not affect the other network communication, as all systems are independent of 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

- Failure of the main network will stop the entire communication.
- To establish distributed systems the language is used 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.

Example: LOCUS

7. Real-Time Operating System

These types of OSs serve 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 that are very strict like missile systems, air traffic control systems, robots, etc.

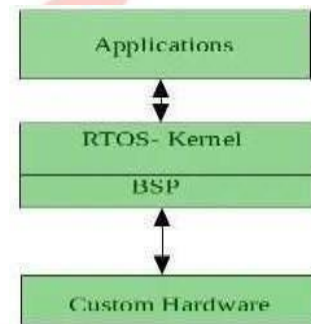
Types:

1. Hard Real-Time Systems

Hard Real-Time OSs are meant for 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 airbags which are required to be readily available in case of an accident. Virtual memory is rarely found in these systems.

2. Soft Real-Time Systems

These OSs are for applications where time constraint is less strict.



Advantages

- **Maximum Consumption:** Maximum utilization of devices and systems, thus more output from all the resources.
- **Task Shifting:** The time assigned for shifting tasks in these systems is very less. For example, in older systems, it takes about 10 microseconds in shifting from one task to another, and in the latest systems, it takes 3 microseconds.

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- **Focus on Application:** Focus on running applications and less importance on applications that are in the queue.
- **Real-time operating system in the embedded system:** Since the size of programs is 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 types of systems.

Disadvantages

- **Limited Tasks:** Very few tasks run at the same time and their concentration is very less on a 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 respond earliest to interrupts.
- **Thread Priority:** It is not good to set thread priority as these systems are very less prone to switching tasks.

Examples

Scientific experiments, medical imaging systems, industrial control systems, weapon systems, robots, air traffic control systems, etc.

Operating System Services

- **User Interface** - User interface is essential and all operating systems provide it. Users either interface with the operating system through command-line interface (CUI) or graphical user interface (GUI). Command interpreter executes next user-specified command. A GUI offers the user a mouse-based window and menu system as an interface.
- **Program execution** - The system must be able to load a program into memory and to run that program, end execution, either normally or abnormally (indicating error)
- **I/O operations** - A running program may require I/O, which may involve a file or an I/O device.
- **File-system manipulation** - The file system is of particular interest. Obviously, programs need to read and write files and directories, create and delete them, search them, list file information, permission management.
- **Communications** - Processes may exchange information, on the same

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computer or between computers over a network. Communications may be via shared memory or through message passing (packets moved by the OS)

- **Error detection** – OS needs to be constantly aware of possible errors that may occur in the CPU and memory hardware, in I/O devices, in user program. For each type of error, OS should take the appropriate action to ensure correct and consistent computing. Debugging facilities can greatly enhance the user's and programmer's abilities to efficiently use the system.

Another set of OS functions exists for ensuring the efficient operation of the system itself via resource sharing

- **Resource allocation** - When multiple users or multiple jobs running concurrently, resources must be allocated to each of them. Many types of resources such as CPU cycles, main memory, and file storage may have special allocation code, others such as I/O devices may have general request and release code.
- **Accounting** - To keep track of which users use how much and what kinds of computer resources
- **Protection and security** - The owners of information stored in a multiuser or networked computer system may want to control use of that information, concurrent processes should not interfere with each other. **Protection** involves ensuring that all access to system resources is controlled. **Security** of the system from outsiders requires user authentication, extends to defending external I/O devices from invalid access attempts. If a system is to be protected and secure, precautions must be instituted throughout it. A chain is only as strong as its weakest link.

System Calls

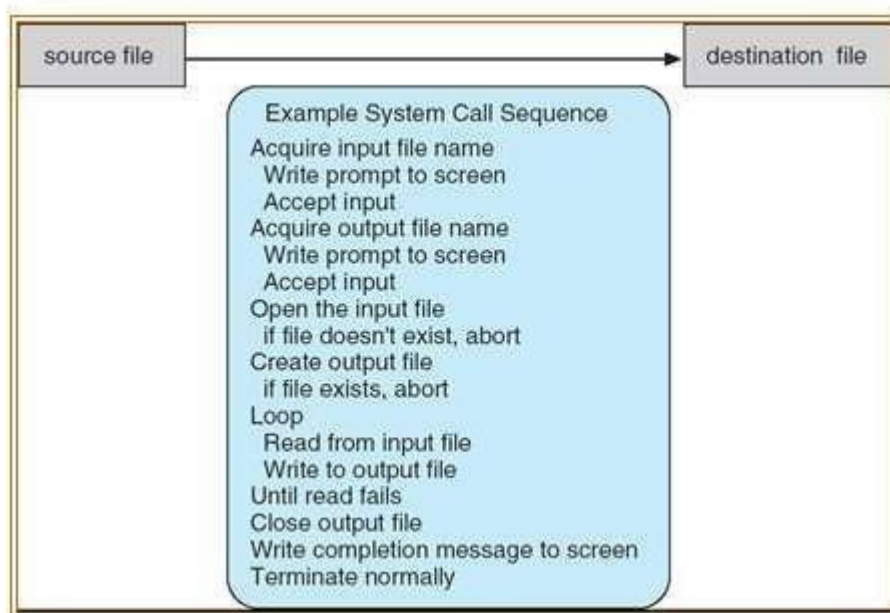
- A system call is a way for a user program to interface with the operating system. The program requests several services, and the OS responds by invoking a series of system calls to satisfy the request.
- A system call can be written in assembly language or a high-level language like C, C++ or Pascal.
- System calls are predefined functions that the operating system may directly invoke if a high-level language is used.
- A system call is a method for a computer program to request a service from the kernel of the operating system on which it is running.
- A system call is a method of interacting with the operating system via programs.
- A system call is a request from computer software to an operating system's kernel.

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- A simple system call may take few nanoseconds to provide the result, like retrieving the system date and time. A more complicated system call, such as connecting to a network device, may take a few seconds. Most operating systems launch a distinct kernel thread for each system call to avoid bottlenecks. Modern operating systems are multi-threaded, which means they can handle various system calls at the same time.
- The **Application Program Interface (API)** connects the operating system's functions to user programs. It acts as a link between the operating system and a process, allowing user-level programs to request operating system services. The kernel system can only be accessed using system calls. System calls are required for any programs that use resources.
- When computer software needs to access the operating system's kernel, it makes a system call. The system call uses an API to expose the operating system's services to user programs. It is the only method to access the kernel system. All programs or processes that require resources for execution must use system calls, as they serve as an interface between the operating system and user programs.

Example of System Calls

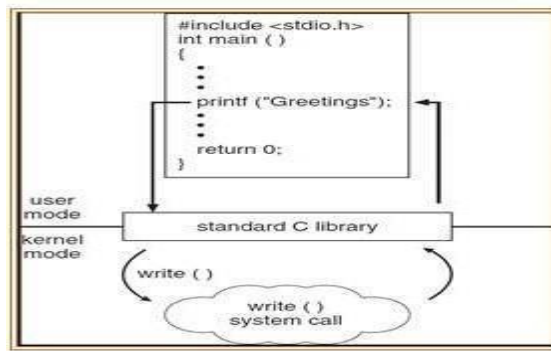
System call sequence to copy the contents of one file to another file



Standard C Library Example

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C program invoking printf() library call, which calls write() system call



There are various situations where we must require system calls in the operating system. Following of the situations are as follows:

1. It is must require when a file system wants to create or delete a file.
2. Network connections require the system calls to send and receive data packets.
3. If you want to read or write a file, you need to use system calls.
4. If you want to access hardware devices, including a printer, scanner, you need a system call.
5. System calls are used to create and manage new processes.

Types of System Calls

There are commonly five types of system calls. These are as follows:

1. **Process Control**
2. **File Management**
3. **Device Management**
4. **Information Maintenance**
5. **Communication**

Process Control

Process control is the system call that is used to direct the processes. Some process control examples include creating, load, abort, end, execute, process, terminate the process, etc.

File Management

File management is a system call that is used to handle the files. Some file management examples include creating files, delete files, open, close, read, write, etc.

Device Management

Device management is a system call that is used to deal with devices. Some examples of device management include read, device, write, get device attributes, release device, etc.

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InformationMaintenance

Information maintenance is a system call that is used to maintain information. There are some examples of information maintenance, including getting system data, set time or date, get time or date, set system data, etc.

Communication

Communication is a system call that is used for communication. There are some examples of communication, including create, delete communication connections, send, receive messages, etc.

Examples of Windows and Unix system calls

Process	Windows	Unix
ProcessControl	CreateProcess() ExitProcess() WaitForSingleObject()	Fork() Exit() Wait()
FileManipulation	CreateFile() ReadFile() WriteFile() CloseHandle()	Open() Read() Write() Close()
DeviceManagement	SetConsoleMode() ReadConsole() WriteConsole()	Ioctl() Read() Write()
InformationMaintenance	GetCurrentProcessID() SetTimer() Sleep()	Getpid() Alarm() Sleep()
Communication	CreatePipe() CreateFileMapping() MapViewOfFile()	Pipe() Shmget() Mmap()
Protection	SetFileSecurity() InitializeSecurityDescriptor() SetSecurityDescriptorGroup()	Chmod() Umask() Chown()

open()

The **open()** system call allows you to access a file on a file system. It allocates resources to the file and provides a handle that the process may refer to. Many processes can open a file at once or by a single process only. It's all based on the file system and structure.

read()

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It is used to obtain data from a file on the file system. It accepts three arguments in general:

- A file descriptor.
- A buffer to store or read data.
- The number of bytes to read from the file.

The file descriptor of the file to be read could be used to identify it and open it using **open()** before reading.

wait()

In some systems, a process may have to wait for another process to complete its execution before proceeding. When a parent process makes a child process, the parent process execution is suspended until the child process is finished. The **wait()** system call is used to suspend the parent process. Once the child process has completed its execution, control is returned to the parent process.

write()

It is used to write data from a user buffer to a device like a file. This system call is one way for a program to generate data. It takes three arguments in general:

- A file descriptor.
- A pointer to the buffer in which data is saved.
- The number of bytes to be written from the buffer.

fork()

Processes generate clones of themselves using the **fork()** system call. It is one of the most common ways to create processes in operating systems. When a parent process spawns a child process, execution of the parent process is interrupted until the child process completes. Once the child process has completed its execution, control is returned to the parent process.

close()

It is used to end file system access. When this system call is invoked, it signifies that the program no longer requires the file, and the buffers are flushed, the file information is altered, and the file resources are de-allocated as a result.

exec()

When an executable file replaces an earlier executable file in an already executing process, this system function is invoked. As a new process is not built, the old process identification stays, but the new process replaces data, stack, data, heap, etc.

exit()

The **exit()** is a system call that is used to end program execution. This call indicates that the thread execution is complete, which is especially useful in multi-threaded environments. The operating system reclaims resources spent by the process following the use of the **exit()** system function.

System components in OS:-

An operating system is a large and complex system that can only be created by partitioning into small parts. These pieces should be a well-defined part of the system, carefully defining inputs, outputs, and functions.

Although Windows, Mac, UNIX, Linux, and other OS do not have the same structure, most operating systems share similar OS system components, such as file, memory, process, I/O device management.

The components of an operating system play a key role to make a variety of computer system parts work together. There are the following components of an operating system, such as:

1. Process Management
2. File Management
3. Network Management
4. Main Memory Management
5. Secondary Storage Management
6. I/O Device Management
7. Security Management
8. Command Interpreter System

Operating system components help you get the correct computing by detecting CPU and memory hardware errors.



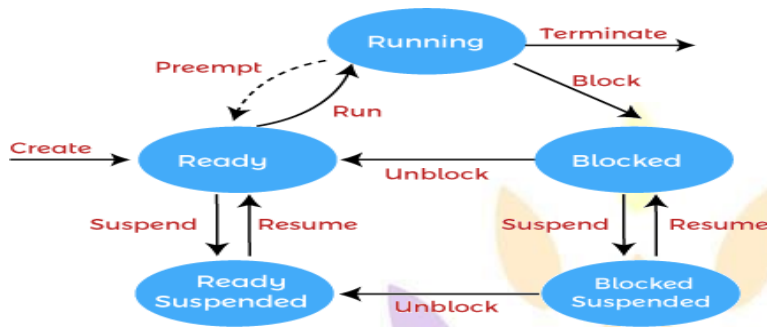
1. Process Management

The process management component is a procedure for managing many processes running simultaneously on the operating system. Every running software application program has one or more processes associated with them.

For example, when you use a search engine like Chrome, there is a process running for that browser program.

Process management keeps processes running efficiently. It also uses memory allocated to them and shutting them down when needed.

The execution of a process must be sequential so, at least one instruction should be executed on behalf of the process.



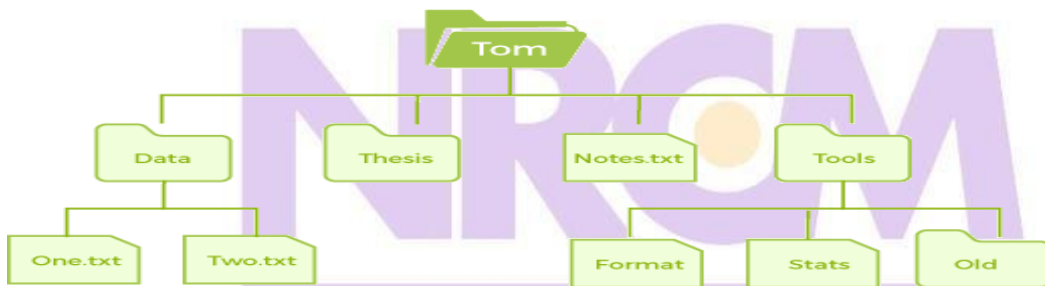
Functions of process management

Here are the following functions of process management in the operating system, such as:

- Process creation and deletion.
- Suspension and resumption.
- Synchronization process
- Communication process

2. File Management

A file is a set of related information defined by its creator. It commonly represents programs (both source and object forms) and data. Data files can be alphabetic, numeric, or alphanumeric.



Function of file management

The operating system has the following important activities in connection with file management:

- File and directory creation and deletion.
- For manipulating files and directories.
- Mapping files onto secondary storage.
- Backup files on stable storage media.

3. Network Management

Network management is the process of administering and managing computer networks. It includes performance management, provisioning of networks, fault analysis, and maintaining the quality of service.

Computer Networks

When we hook up computers together using data communication facilities, we call this a computer network.



A distributed system is a collection of computers or processors that never share their memory and clock. In this type of system, all the processors have their local memory, and the processors communicate with each other using different communication cables, such as fibre optics or telephoned lines.

The computers in the network are connected through a communication network, which can configure in many different ways. The network can fully or partially connect in network management, which helps users design routing and connection strategies that overcome connection and security issues.

Functions of Network management

Network management provides the following functions, such as:

- Distributed systems help you to various computing resources in size and function. They may involve mini computers, microprocessors, and many general-purpose computer systems.
- A distributed system also offers the user access to the various resources the network shares.
- It helps to access shared resources that help computation to speed up or offers data availability and reliability.

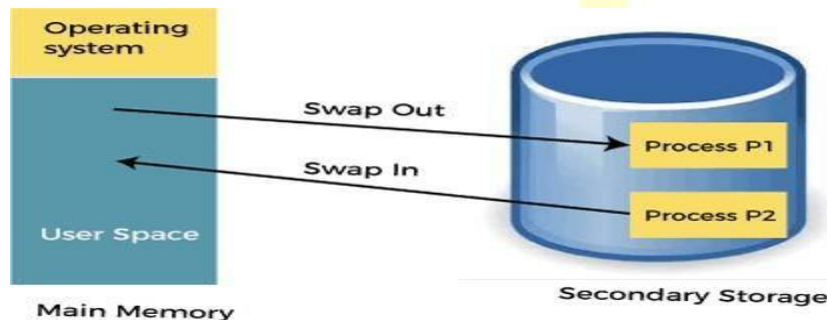
4. Main Memory management

Main memory is a large array of storage or bytes, which has an address. The memory management process is conducted by using a sequence of reads or writes of specific memory addresses.

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It should be mapped to absolute addresses and loaded inside the memory to execute a program. The selection of a memory management method depends on several factors.

However, it is mainly based on the hardware design of the system. Each algorithm requires corresponding hardware support. Main memory offers fast storage that can be accessed directly by the CPU. It is costly and hence has a lower storage capacity. However, for a program to be executed, it must be in the main memory.



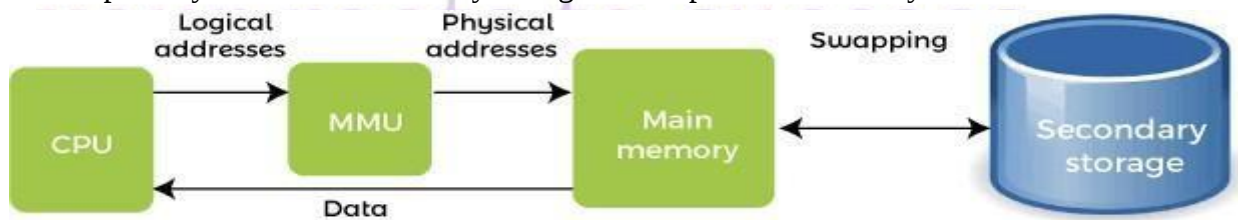
Functions of Memory management

An Operating System performs the following functions for Memory Management in the operating system:

- It helps you to keep track of primary memory.
- Determine what part of it are in use by whom, what part is not in use.
- In a multiprogramming system, the OS decides which process will get memory and how much.
- Allocates the memory when a process requests.
- It also de-allocates the memory when a process no longer requires or has been terminated.

5. Secondary-Storage Management

The most important task of a computer system is to execute programs. These programs help you to access the data from the main memory during execution. This memory of the computer is very small to store all data and programs permanently. The computer system offers secondary storage to backup the main memory.



Today modern computers use hard drives/SSD as the primary storage of both

programs and data. However, these secondary storage management also works with storage devices, such as USB flash drives and CD/DVD drives. Programs like assemblers and compilers are stored on the disk until it is loaded into memory, and then the disk is used as a source and destination for processing.

Functions of Secondary storage management

Here are some major functions of secondary storage management in the operating system:

- Storage allocation
- Freespace management
- Disk scheduling
-

6. I/O Device Management

One of the important use of an operating system that helps to hide the variations of specific hardware devices from the user.



Functions of I/O management

The I/O management system offers the following functions, such as:

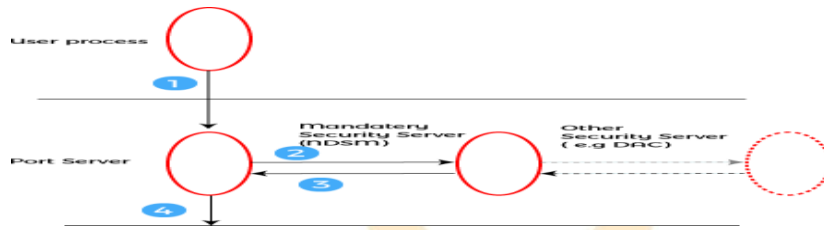
- It offers a buffer caching system
- It provides general device driver code
- It provides drivers for particular hardware devices.
- I/O helps you to know the individualities of a specific device.

7. Security Management

The various processes in an operating system need to be secured from other activities. Therefore, various mechanisms can ensure those processes that want to operate files, memory CPU, and other hardware resources should have proper authorization from the operating system.

Security refers to a mechanism for controlling the access of programs, processes, or users to

the resources defined by computer control to be imposed, together with some means of enforcement.

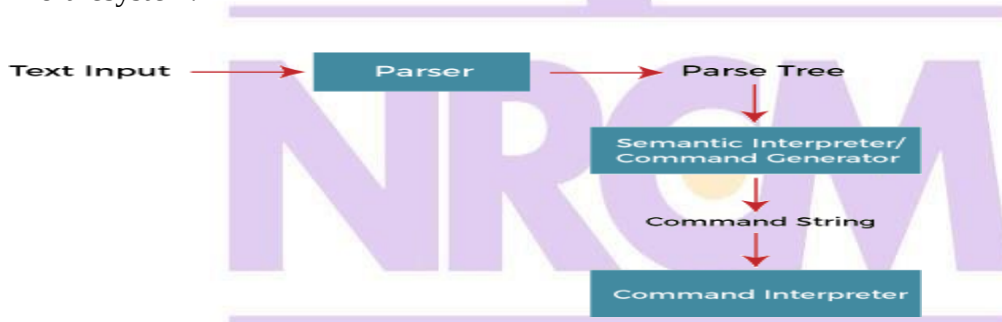


For example, memory addressing hardware helps to confirm that a process can be executed within its own address space. The time ensures that no process has control of the CPU without renouncing it. Lastly, no process is allowed to do its own I/O to protect, which helps you to keep the integrity of the various peripheral devices.

Security can improve reliability by detecting latent errors at the interfaces between component subsystems. Early detection of interface errors can prevent the foulness of a healthy subsystem by a malfunctioning subsystem. An unprotected resource cannot be misused by an unauthorized or incompetent user.

9. Command Interpreter System

One of the most important components of an operating system is its command interpreter. The command interpreter is the primary interface between the user and the rest of the system.



Many commands are given to the operating system by control statements. A program that reads and interprets control statements is automatically executed when a new job is started in a batch system or a user logs into a time-shared system. This program is variously called.

- The control card interpreter,
- The command-line interpreter,
- The shell (in UNIX), and soon.

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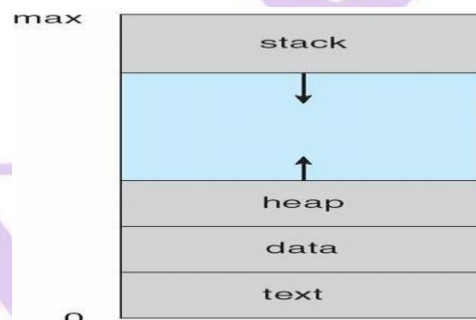
Its function is quite simple, get the next command statement, and execute it. The command statements deal with process management, I/O handling, secondary storage management, main memory management, file system access, protection, and networking.

PROCESS: A process can be thought of as a program in execution. A process is the unit of work in most systems.

A process will need certain resources—such as CPU time, memory, files, and I/O devices to accomplish its task. These resources are allocated to the process either when it is created or while it is executing.

Structure of a Process in Memory

- A process is more than the program code, which is sometimes known as the **text section**.
- It also includes the current activity, as represented by the value of the **program counter** and the contents of the processor's registers.
- A process generally also includes the process **stack**, which contains temporary data (such as function parameters, return addresses, and local variables).
- A **data section**, which contains global variables.
- A process may also include a **heap**, which is memory that is dynamically allocated during process run time.



When a Program becomes Process?

A program is a **passive** entity, such as a file containing a list of instructions stored on disk (Often called as **executable file**). In contrast, a process is an **active** entity, with a program counter specifying the next instruction to execute and a set of associated resources. A program becomes a process when an executable file is loaded into memory.

Two common techniques for loading executable files are double-clicking an icon representing the executable file and entering the name of the executable file on the command line (as in prog.exe or a.out).

If two processes are associated with the same program, are they the same or different? (Or) Explain if you run the same program twice, what section would be shared in memory?

Although two processes may be associated with the same program, they are nevertheless

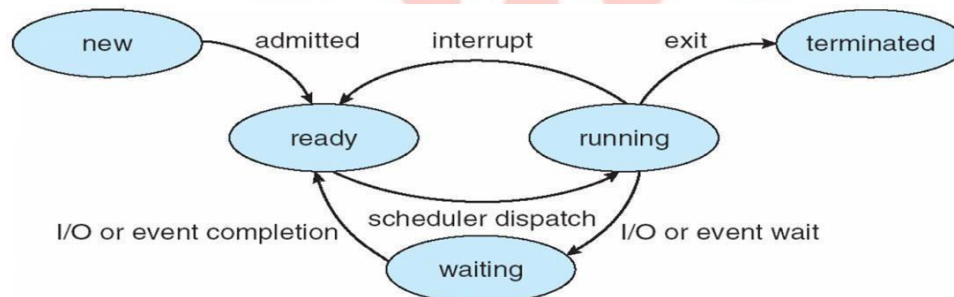
considered two separate execution sequences. For instance, several users may be running different copies of the mail program, or the same user may invoke many copies of the web browser program. Each of these is a separate process; and although the text sections are equivalent, the data, heap, and stack sections vary. It is also common to have a process that spawns many processes as it runs.

1. Process State

As a process executes, it changes **state**. The state of a process is defined in part by the current activity of that process.

A process may be in one of the following states:

- **New:** The process is being created.
- **Running:** Instructions are being executed.
- **Waiting:** The process is waiting for some event to occur (such as an I/O completion or reception of a signal).
- **Ready:** The process is waiting to be assigned to a processor.
- **Terminated:** The process has finished execution.



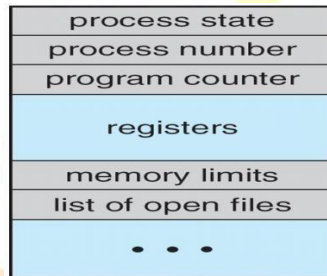
2. Process Control Block

Each process is represented in the operating system by a **Process Control Block (PCB)** or **Task Control Block**. It contains many pieces of information associated with a specific process, including these:

- **Process state:** The state may be new, ready, running, and waiting, halted, and soon.
- **Program counter.** The counter indicates the address of the next instruction to be executed for this process.
- **CPU registers.** The registers vary in number and type, depending on the computer architecture. They include accumulators, index registers, stack pointers, and general-purpose registers, plus any condition-code information. Along with the program counter, this state information must be saved when an interrupt occurs, to allow the process to be continued correctly afterward.
- **CPU-scheduling information.** This information includes a process priority, pointers to scheduling queues, and any other scheduling parameters.
- **Memory-management information.** This information may include such items as the value

of the base and limit registers and the page tables, or the segment tables, depending on the memory system used by the operating system.

- **Accounting information.** This information includes the amount of CPU and real time used, time limits, account numbers, job or process numbers, and so on.
- **I/O status information.** This information includes the list of I/O devices allocated to the process, a list of open files, and so on.



Process Scheduling

The objective of multiprogramming is to have some process running at all times, to maximize CPU utilization.

The objective of time sharing is to switch the CPU among processes so frequently that users can interact with each program while it is running.

To meet these objectives, the **process scheduler** selects an available process (possibly from a set of several available processes) for program execution on the CPU.

1. Scheduling Queues

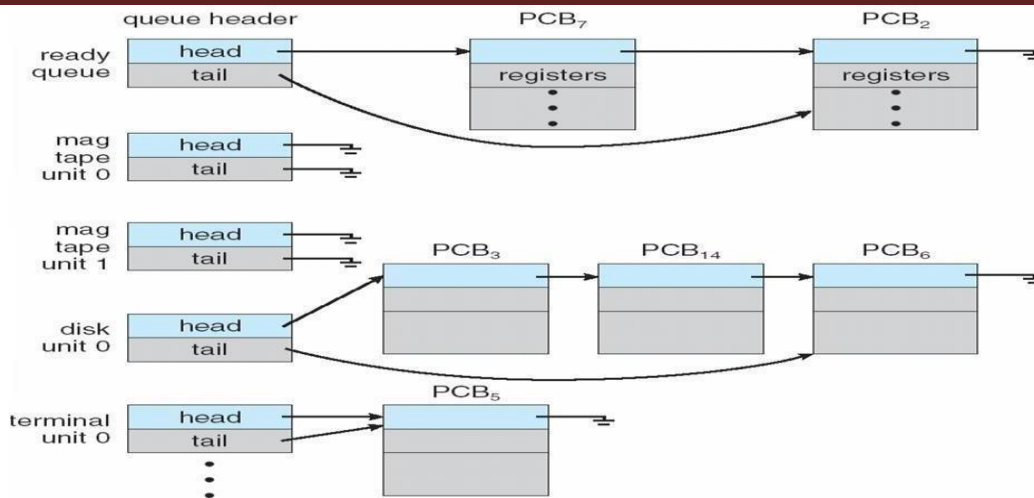
The following are the different queues available,

a. Job Queue

- As processes enter the system, they are put into a **job queue**, which consists of all processes in the system.

b. Ready Queue

- The processes that are residing in main memory and are ready and waiting to execute are kept on a list called the **ready queue**.
- This queue is generally stored as a linked list. A ready-queue header contains pointers to the first and final PCBs in the list. Each PCB includes a pointer field that points to the next PCB in the ready queue.



c. Device Queue

- The list of processes waiting for a particular I/O device is called a **device queue**.
- Each device has its own device queue.

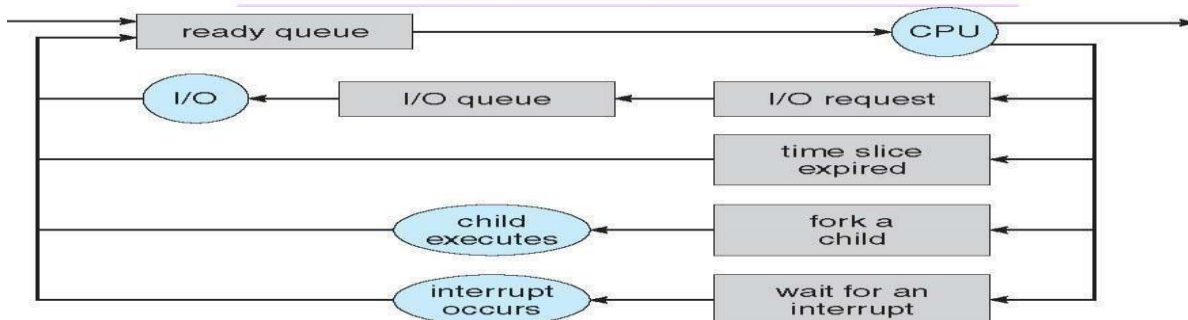
Queuing-diagram representation of process scheduling

A common representation of process scheduling is a **queuing diagram**. Each rectangular box represents a queue. Two types of queues are present: the ready queue and a set of device queues. The circles represent the resources that serve the queues, and the arrows indicate the flow of processes in the system.

A new process is initially put in the ready queue. It waits there until it is selected for execution, or **dispatched**. Once the process is allocated the CPU and is executing, one of several events could occur:

- The process could issue an I/O request and then be placed in an I/O queue.
- The process could create a new child process and wait for the child's termination.
- The process could be removed forcibly from the CPU, as a result of an interrupt, and be put back in the ready queue.

In the first two cases, the process eventually switches from the waiting state to the ready state and is then put back in the ready queue. A process continues this cycle until it terminates, at which time it is removed from all queues and has its PCB and resources deallocated.



2. Schedulers

Definition: A process migrates among the various scheduling queues throughout its lifetime. The operating system must select, for scheduling purposes, processes from these queues in some fashion. The selection process is carried out by the appropriate **scheduler**.

Types of Schedulers

a. Long-Term Scheduler or Job Scheduler

- Often, in a batch system, more processes are submitted than can be executed immediately. These processes are spooled to a mass-storage device (typically a disk), where they are kept for later execution.
- The **long-term scheduler**, or **job scheduler**, selects processes from this pool and loads them into memory for execution.
- The long-term scheduler executes much less frequently; minutes may separate the creation of one new process and the next.
- The long-term scheduler controls the **degree of multiprogramming** (the number of processes in memory).
- If the degree of multiprogramming is stable, then the average rate of process creation must be equal to the average departure rate of processes leaving the system. Thus, the long-term scheduler may need to be invoked only when a process leaves the system.
- Because of the longer interval between executions, the long-term scheduler can afford to take more time to decide which process should be selected for execution. It is important that the long-term scheduler select a good **process mix** of I/O-bound and CPU-bound processes.
- On some systems, the long-term scheduler may be absent or minimal.

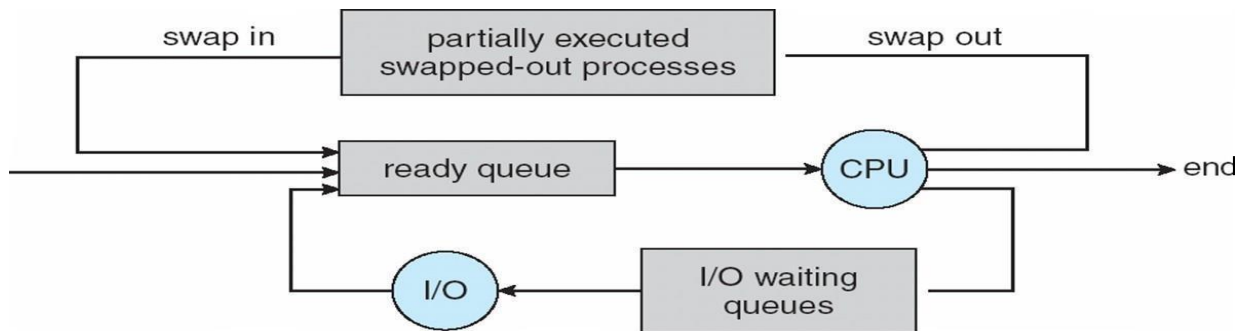
b. Short-Term Scheduler, or CPU Scheduler

- The **short-term scheduler**, or **CPU scheduler**, selects from among the processes that are ready to execute and allocates the CPU to one of them.
- The short-term scheduler must select a new process for the CPU frequently.
- A process may execute for only a few milliseconds before waiting for an I/O request. Often, the short-term scheduler executes at least once every 100 milliseconds.
- Because of the short time between executions, the short-term scheduler must be fast.

c. Medium-Term Scheduler

- Some operating systems, such as time-sharing systems, may introduce an additional, intermediate level of scheduling.
- The key idea behind a medium-term scheduler is that sometimes it can be advantageous to remove a process from memory (and from active contention for the CPU) and thus reduce the degree of multiprogramming.
- Later, the process can be reintroduced into memory, and its execution can be continued where it left off. This scheme is called **swapping**.
- The process is swapped out, and is later swapped in, by the medium-term scheduler. Swapping may be necessary to improve the process mix or because a change in memory

requirements has overcommitted available memory, requiring memory to be freed up.



3. Context Switch

Definition: Switching the CPU to another process requires performing a state save of the current process and a state restore of a different process. This task is known as a **context switch**.

When a context switch occurs, the kernel saves the context of the old process in its PCB and loads the saved context of the new process scheduled to run.

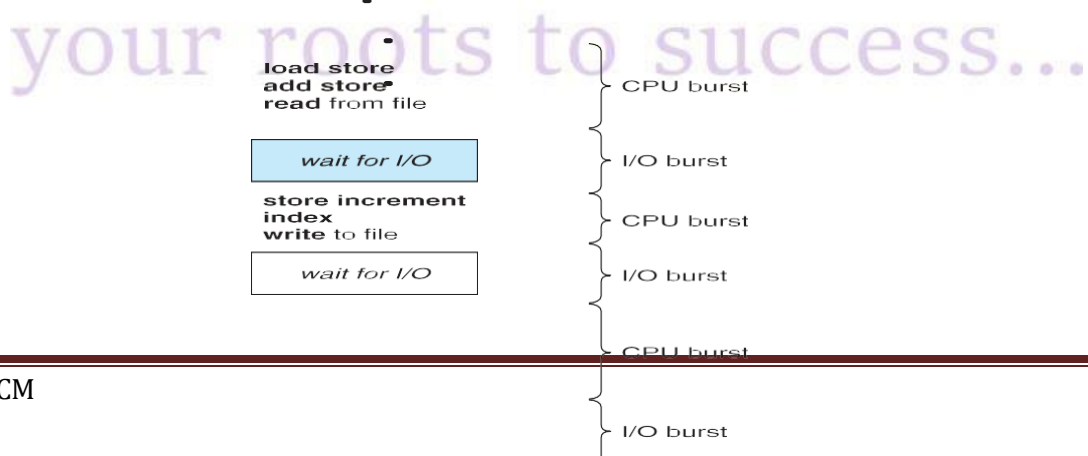
Overhead: Context-switch time is pure overhead, because the system does no useful work while switching.

Switching Speed: Switching speed varies from machine to machine, depending on the memory speed, the number of registers that must be copied, and the existence of special instructions (such as a single instruction to load or store all registers). A typical speed is a few milliseconds.

Hardware Support: Context-switch times are highly dependent on hardware support. A context switch here simply requires changing the pointer to the current register set. Of course, if there are more active processes than there are register sets, the system resorts to copying register data to and from memory, as before. Also, the more complex the operating system, the greater the amount of work that must be done during a context switch.

4. CPU-I/O Burst Cycle

The success of CPU scheduling depends on an observed property of processes: process execution consists of a **cycle** of CPU execution and I/O wait. Processes alternate between these two states. Process execution begins with a **CPU burst**. That is followed by an **I/O burst**, which is followed by another CPU burst, then another I/O burst, and so on. Eventually, the final CPU burst ends with a system request to terminate execution.



load store
add store
read from file

wait for I/O

Definition of NonPreemptiveScheduling

Under nonpreemptive scheduling, once the CPU has been allocated to a process, the process keeps the CPU until it releases the CPU either by terminating or by switching to the waiting state. This scheduling method was used by Microsoft Windows 3.x.

Definition of Preemptive Scheduling

Under this, a running process may be replaced by higher priority process at any time. Used from Windows 95 to till now. Incurs the cost associated with access to shared data. It also affects the design of OS.

Dispatcher

Another component involved in the CPU-scheduling function is the **dispatcher**. The dispatcher is the module that gives control of the CPU to the process selected by the short-term scheduler. This function involves the following:

- Switching context
- Switching to user mode
- Jumping to the proper location in the user program to restart that program

The dispatcher should be as fast as possible, since it is invoked during every process switch.

Dispatch Latency: The time it takes for the dispatcher to stop one process and start another running is known as the **dispatch latency**.

Operations on processes (OR) System call interface for process management - fork, exit, wait, waitpid, exec

The processes in most systems can execute concurrently, and they may be created and deleted dynamically. Thus, these systems must provide a mechanism for process creation and termination.

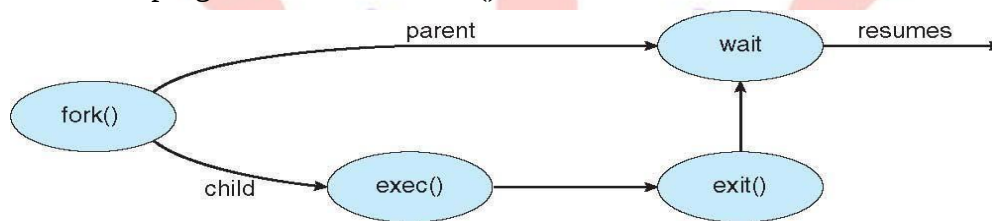
a. Process Creation

During the course of execution, a process may create several new processes. The creating process is called a parent process, and the new processes are called the children of that process. Each of these new processes may in turn create other processes, forming a **tree** of processes.

System Calls

- **fork()**
 - Most operating systems (including UNIX, Linux, and Windows) identify processes according to a unique **process identifier** (or **pid**), which is typically an integer number.

- A new process is created by the `fork ()` system call. The new process consists of a copy of the address space of the original process.
- This mechanism allows the parent process to communicate easily with its child process. Both processes (the parent and the child) continue execution at the instruction after the `fork ()`, with one difference: the return code for the `fork ()` is zero for the new (child) process, whereas the (nonzero) process identifier of the child is returned to the parent.
- **exec()**
 - After a `fork ()` system call, one of the two processes typically uses the `exec ()` system call to replace the process's memory space with a new program.
 - The `exec ()` system call loads a binary file into memory and starts its execution. In this manner, the two processes are able to communicate and then go their separate ways.
- **wait()**
 - The parent can then create more children; or, if it has nothing else to do while the child runs, it can issue a `wait ()` system call to move itself off the ready queue until the termination of the child. Because the call to `exec ()` overlays the process's address space with a new program, the call to `exec ()` does not return control unless an error occurs.



b. Process Termination

A process terminates when it finishes executing its final statement and asks the operating system to delete it by using the `exit ()` system call. At that point, the process may return a status value (typically an integer) to its parent process (via the `wait()` system call). All the resources of the process—including physical and virtual memory, open files and I/O buffers—are deallocated by the operating system.

Termination can occur in other circumstances as well. A process can cause the termination of another process via an appropriate system call (for example, `TerminateProcess()` in Windows). Usually, such a system call can be invoked only by the parent of the process that is to be terminated. Otherwise, users could arbitrarily kill each other's jobs.

COOPERATING PROCESSES

- The concurrent processes executing in the OS may be either independent process or cooperating process.
- Independent process **cannot** affect or be affected by the execution of another process.
- Cooperating process **can** affect or be affected by the execution of another

process.

Advantages of process cooperation

1. **Information sharing:** several users may be interested in the same piece of information.
2. **Computations speed-up:** If we want a particular task to run faster, we must break it into subtasks and run in parallel.
3. **Modularity:** Constructing the system in modular fashion, dividing the system functions into separate process.
4. **Convenience:** User will have many tasks to work in parallel (Editing, compiling, printing).

Processes can communicate with each other through both:

- Shared Memory
- Message passing

The following figure shows a basic structure of communication between processes via the shared memory method and via the message passing method.



Figure 1 - Shared Memory and Message Passing

(i) Shared Memory

Communication between processes using shared memory requires processes to share some variable, and it completely depends on how the programmer will implement it.

One way of communication using shared memory can be imagined like this: Suppose process1 and process2 are executing simultaneously, and they share some resources or use some information from another process. Process1 generates information about certain computations or resources being used and keeps it as a record in shared memory. When process2 needs to use the shared information, it will check in the record stored in shared memory and take note of the information generated by process1 and act accordingly.

Processes can use shared memory for extracting information as a record from another process as well as for delivering any specific information to other processes.

Ex: Producer-Consumer problem

A producer process produces information that is consumed by a consumer

process. For example, a print program produces characters that are consumed by the printer driver.

A producer can produce one item while the consumer is consuming another item. The Producer and Consumer must be synchronized. The consumer does not try to consume an item, the consumer must wait until an item is produced.

Unbounded-Buffer

- no practical limit on the size of the buffer.
- Producer can produce any number of items.
- Consumer may have to wait

Bounded-Buffer

- assume that there is a fixed buffer size.

Bounded-Buffer–Shared-Memory Solution:

Shared data

```
#define BUFFER_SIZE 10
typedef struct
{
    ...
} item;
item buffer[BUFFER_SIZE];
int in = 0;
int out = 0;
```

Bounded-Buffer–Producer Process:

```
item nextProduced; while
(1)
{
    while(((in+1)%BUFFER_SIZE)==out); /*do nothing
    */buffer[in]=nextProduced;
    in=(in+1)%BUFFER_SIZE;
}
```

Bounded-Buffer–Consumer Process:

```
item nextConsumed;
while (1)
{
    while(in==out); /*do nothing
    */next Consumed = buffer[out];
    out=(out+1)%BUFFER_SIZE;
}
```

(ii) Messaging Passing Method

In this method, processes communicate with each other without using any kind of shared memory. If two processes want to communicate with each other, they proceed as follows



- Establish a communication link (if a link already exists, no need to establish it again.)
- Start exchanging messages using basic primitives.
- The message size can be of fixed size or of variable size. If it is of fixed size, it is easy for an OS designer but complicated for a programmer and if it is of variable size then it is easy for a programmer but complicated for the OS designer.
- Cooperating process to communicate with each other via an inter process communication (IPC).
- IPC provides a Mechanism to allow processes to communicate and to synchronize their actions.
- If P and Q want to communicate, a communication link exists between them and exchange messages via send/receive. OS provides this facility.
- IPC facility provides two operations:
 - Send(message)**—message size fixed or variable.
 - Receive(message)**
- Implementation of communication link by following.
 - physical (e.g., shared memory, hardware bus)
 - logical (e.g., logical properties)

Methods for logical implementation of a link

- i. Direct communication.
- ii. Indirect communication.

Direct Communication

- Each process must name each other explicitly:
 - **Send(P, message)**—send a message to process P.
 - **Receive(Q, message)**—receive a message from process Q.
- Links are established automatically.

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- A link is associated with exactly one pair of communicating processes.
- Between each pair there exist exactly one link.
- The link may be unidirectional, but is usually bi-directional.
- This exhibits both symmetry and asymmetry in addressing

Symmetry:

Both the sender and the receiver processes must name the other to communicate.

Asymmetry:

Only the sender names the recipient, the recipient is not required to name the sender. The send and receive primitives are as follows.

- Send(P, message) – send a message to process P.
- Receive(id, message) – receive a message from any process.

Disadvantage of direct communication

Changing a name of the process creates problems.

Indirect Communication

- The messages are sent and received from mailboxes (also referred to as ports).
- A mailbox is an object
- Process can place messages.
- Process can remove messages.
- Two processes can communicate only if they have a shared mailbox.
- Primitives are defined as:
 - send(A, message)** – send a message to mailbox A
 - receive(A, message)** – receive a message from mailbox A.
- A mailbox may be owned either by a process or by the OS.
- If the mailbox is owned by a process, then we distinguish b/w the owner (who can only receive msg through this mailbox) and the user (who can only send msg to the mailbox).
- A mailbox may be owned by the OS independent and provide a mechanism,
 - create a mailbox
 - receive messages through mailbox
 - destroy a mailbox.

Mailbox sharing problem

The processes P1, P2, and P3 all share mailbox A. Processes P1, sends; P2 and P3 receive the message from A. Who gets a message?

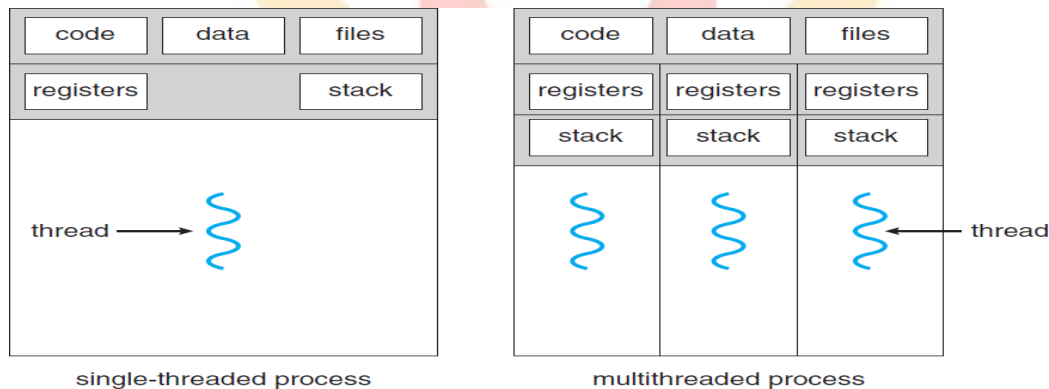
Solutions

- Allow a link to be associated with at most two processes.
- Allow only one process at a time to execute a receive operation.
- Allow the system to select arbitrarily the receiver. The system may identify the receiver to the sender.

Defining Thread

Thread is a basic unit of CPU utilization; it comprises a thread ID, a program counter, a register set, and a stack. It shares with other threads belonging to the same process its code section, data section, and other operating-system resources, such as open files and signals.

A traditional (or **heavyweight**) process has a single thread of control. If a process has multiple threads of control, it can perform more than one task at a time.



Single Thread

- A process is a program that performs a single thread of execution.
 - For example, when a process is running a word-processor program, a single thread of instructions is being executed.
 - This single thread of control allows the process to perform only one task at a time. The user cannot simultaneously type in characters and run the spell checker within the same process, for example.
- Multi Thread**
- Most modern operating systems have extended the process concept to allow a process to have multiple threads of execution and thus to perform more than one task at a time.
 - This feature is especially beneficial on multicore systems, where multiple threads can run in parallel.
 - On a system that supports threads, the PCB is expanded to include information for each thread. Other changes throughout the system are also needed to support threads.

Multithreading Models

Support for threads may be provided either at the user level, for **user threads**, or by the kernel, for **kernel threads**. User threads are supported above the kernel and are managed without

kernel support, whereas kernel threads are supported and managed directly by the operating system. Virtually all contemporary operating systems—including Windows, Linux, Mac OS X, and Solaris support kernel threads.

Ultimately, a relationship must exist between user threads and kernel threads. The following are the three common ways of establishing such a relationship: the many-to-one model, the one-to-one model, and the many-to-many models.

1. Many-to-One Model

- The many-to-one model maps many user-level threads to one kernel thread.

2. One-to-One Model

- The one-to-one model maps each user thread to a kernel thread.

3. Many-to-Many Model

- It multiplexes many user-level threads to a smaller or equal number of kernel threads.

