# OPERATING SYSTEM

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# Unit V File System:

Structures - Allocation Methods - Free Space Management. I/O System: Introduction - I/O Hardware - Application I/O Interface - Kernel I/O Subsystem - Disk Structure – Disk Scheduling - Disk Management – Swap-Space Management.

## FILE SYSTEMS

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.

#### SPACE ALLOCATION METHODS

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.
- An 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.

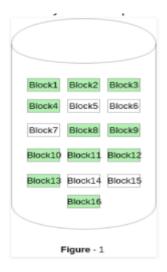
Directory contains the addresses of index blocks of files.

## FREE SPACE MANAGEMENT

The system keeps tracks of the free disk blocks for allocating space to files when they are created. Also, to reuse the space released from deleting the files, free space management becomes crucial. The system maintains a free space list which keeps track of the disk blocks that are not allocated to some file or directory. The free space list can be implemented mainly as:

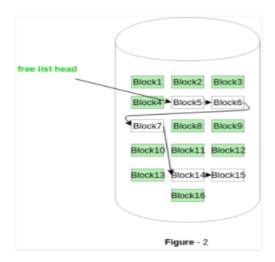
## 1. Bitmap or Bit vector –

A Bitmap or Bit Vector is series or collection of bits where each bit corresponds to a disk block. The bit can take two values: 0 and 1: 0 indicates that the block is allocated and 1 indicates a free block. The given instance of disk blocks on the disk in Figure 1 (where green blocks are allocated) can be represented by a bitmap of 16 bits as: 0000111000000110.



#### 2. Linked List

In this approach, the free disk blocks are linked together i.e. a free block contains a pointer to the next free block. The block number of the very first disk block is stored at a separate location on disk and is also cached in memory.



## 3. Grouping

This approach stores the address of the free blocks in the first free block. The first free block stores the address of some, say n free blocks. Out of these n blocks, the first n-1 blocks are actually free and the last block contains the address of next free n blocks. An advantage of this approach is that the addresses of a group of free disk blocks can be found easily.

## 4. Counting

This approach stores the address of the first free disk block and a number n of free contiguous disk blocks that follow the first block.

Every entry in the list would contain:

- Address of first free disk block
- A number n

# I/O SYSTEMS

One of the important jobs of an Operating System is to manage various I/O devices including mouse, keyboards, touch pad, disk drives, display adapters, USB devices, Bitmapped screen, LED, Analog-to-digital converter, On/off switch, network connections, audio I/O, printers etc.

An I/O system is required to take an application I/O request and send it to the physical device, then take whatever response comes back from the device and send it to the application. I/O devices can be divided into two categories

- Block devices A block device is one with which the driver communicates by sending entire blocks of data. For example, Hard disks, USB cameras, Disk-On-Key etc.
- Character devices A character device is one with which the driver communicates by sending and receiving single characters (bytes, octets). For example, serial ports, parallel ports, sound card etc

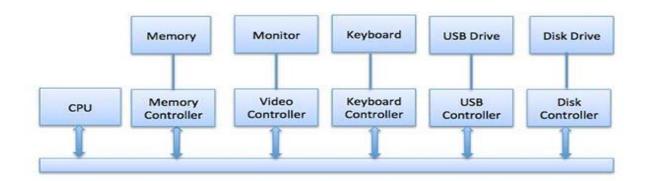
#### **Device Controllers**

Device drivers are software modules that can be plugged into an OS to handle a particular device. Operating System takes help from device drivers to handle all I/O devices.

The Device Controller works like an interface between a device and a device driver. I/O units (Keyboard, mouse, printer, etc.) typically consist of a mechanical component and an electronic component where electronic component is called the device controller.

There is always a device controller and a device driver for each device to communicate with the Operating Systems. A device controller may be able to handle multiple devices. As an interface its main task is to convert serial bit stream to block of bytes, perform error correction as necessary.

Any device connected to the computer is connected by a plug and socket, and the socket is connected to a device controller. Following is a model for connecting the CPU, memory, controllers, and I/O devices where CPU and device controllers all use a common bus for communication.



# Synchronous vs asynchronous I/O

- Synchronous I/O In this scheme CPU execution waits while I/O proceeds
- Asynchronous I/O I/O proceeds concurrently with CPU execution

#### Communication to I/O Devices

The CPU must have a way to pass information to and from an I/O device. There are three approaches available to communicate with the CPU and Device.

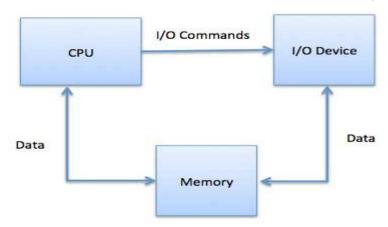
- Special Instruction I/O
- Memory-mapped I/O
- Direct memory access (DMA)

#### a. Special Instruction I/O

This uses CPU instructions that are specifically made for controlling I/O devices. These instructions typically allow data to be sent to an I/O device or read from an I/O device.

# b. Memory-mapped I/O

When using memory-mapped I/O, the same address space is shared by memory and I/O devices. The device is connected directly to certain main memory locations so that I/O device can transfer block of data to/from memory without going through CPU.



While using memory mapped IO, OS allocates buffer in memory and informs I/O device to use that buffer to send data to the CPU. I/O device operates asynchronously with CPU, interrupts CPU when finished.

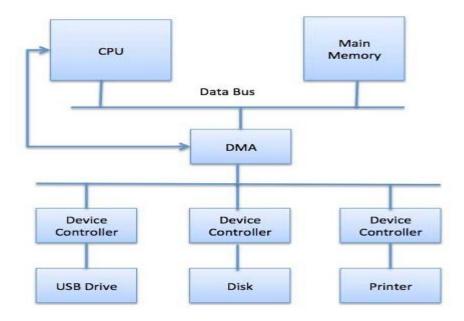
The advantage to this method is that every instruction which can access memory can be used to manipulate an I/O device. Memory mapped IO is used for most high-speed I/O devices like disks, communication interfaces.

# Direct Memory Access (DMA)

Slow devices like keyboards will generate an interrupt to the main CPU after each byte is transferred. If a fast device such as a disk generated an interrupt for each byte, the operating system would spend most of its time handling these interrupts. So a typical computer uses direct memory access (DMA) hardware to reduce this overhead.

Direct Memory Access (DMA) means CPU grants I/O module authority to read from or write to memory without involvement. DMA module itself controls exchange of data between main memory and the I/O device. CPU is only involved at the beginning and end of the transfer and interrupted only after entire block has been transferred.

Direct Memory Access needs a special hardware called DMA controller (DMAC) that manages the data transfers and arbitrates access to the system bus. The controllers are programmed with source and destination pointers (where to read/write the data), counters to track the number of transferred bytes, and settings, which includes I/O and memory types, interrupts and states for the CPU cycles.



The operating system uses the DMA hardware as follows

Step	Description
1	Device driver is instructed to transfer disk data to a buffer address X.
2	Device driver then instruct disk controller to transfer data to buffer.
3	Disk controller starts DMA transfer.
4	Disk controller sends each byte to DMA controller.
5	DMA controller transfers bytes to buffer, increases the memory address, decreases the counter C until C becomes zero.
6	When C becomes zero, DMA interrupts CPU to signal transfer completion.

# Polling vs Interrupts I/O

A computer must have a way of detecting the arrival of any type of input. There are two ways that this can happen, known as **polling** and **interrupts**. Both of these techniques allow the processor to deal with events that can happen at any time and that are not related to the process it is currently running.

# Polling I/O

Polling is the simplest way for an I/O device to communicate with the processor. The process of periodically checking status of the device to see if it is time for the next I/O

operation, is called polling. The I/O device simply puts the information in a Status register, and the processor must come and get the information.

Most of the time, devices will not require attention and when one does it will have to wait until it is next interrogated by the polling program. This is an inefficient method and much of the processors time is wasted on unnecessary polls.

Compare this method to a teacher continually asking every student in a class, one after another, if they need help. Obviously the more efficient method would be for a student to inform the teacher whenever they require assistance.

# Interrupts I/O

An alternative scheme for dealing with I/O is the interrupt-driven method. An interrupt is a signal to the microprocessor from a device that requires attention.

A device controller puts an interrupt signal on the bus when it needs CPU's attention when CPU receives an interrupt, It saves its current state and invokes the appropriate interrupt handler using the interrupt vector (addresses of OS routines to handle various events). When the interrupting device has been dealt with, the CPU continues with its original task as if it had never been interrupted.

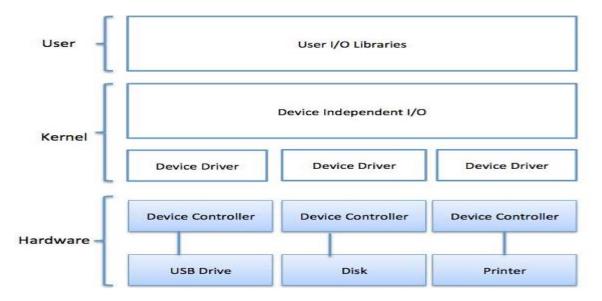
# APPLICATION I/O INTERFACE

There is need of surface whenever any CPU wants to communicate with I/O devices. The interface is used to interpret address which is generated by CPU. Thus, surface is used to communicate to I/O devices i.e. to share information between CPU and I/O devices interface is used which is called as I/O Interface.

I/O software is often organized in the following layers –

- User Level Libraries This provides simple interface to the user program to perform input and output. For example, stdio is a library provided by C and C++ programming languages.
- **Kernel Level Modules** This provides device driver to interact with the device controller and device independent I/O modules used by the device drivers.
- **Hardware** This layer includes actual hardware and hardware controller which interact with the device drivers and makes hardware alive.

A key concept in the design of I/O software is that it should be device independent where it should be possible to write programs that can access any I/O device without having to specify the device in advance. For example, a program that reads a file as input should be able to read a file on a floppy disk, on a hard disk, or on a CD-ROM, without having to modify the program for each different device.



# Kernel I/O Subsystem

Kernel I/O Subsystem is responsible to provide many services related to I/O. Following are some of the services provided.

- **Scheduling** Kernel schedules a set of I/O requests to determine a good order in which to execute them. When an application issues a blocking I/O system call, the request is placed on the queue for that device. The Kernel I/O scheduler rearranges the order of the queue to improve the overall system efficiency and the average response time experienced by the applications.
- **Buffering** Kernel I/O Subsystem maintains a memory area known as **buffer** that stores data while they are transferred between two devices or between a device with an application operation. Buffering is done to cope with a speed mismatch between the producer and consumer of a data stream or to adapt between devices that have different data transfer sizes.
- Caching Kernel maintains cache memory which is region of fast memory that holds copies of data. Access to the cached copy is more efficient than access to the original.
- **Spooling and Device Reservation** A spool is a buffer that holds output for a device, such as a printer, that cannot accept interleaved data streams. The spooling system copies the queued spool files to the printer one at a time. In some operating systems, spooling is managed by a system daemon process. In other operating systems, it is handled by an in kernel thread.
- Error Handling An operating system that uses protected memory can guard against many kinds of hardware and application errors.

#### DISK SCHEDULING

As we know, a process needs two type of time, CPU time and IO time. For I/O, it requests the Operating system to access the disk.

However, the operating system must be fare, in order to satisfy each request and at the same time, operating system must maintain the efficiency and speed of process execution. The technique that operating system uses to determine the request which is to be satisfied next is called disk scheduling.

Let's discuss some important terms related to disk scheduling.

#### Seek Time

Seek time is the time taken in locating the disk arm to a specified track where the read/write request will be satisfied.

## Rotational Latency

It is the time taken by the desired sector to rotate itself to the position from where it can access the R/W heads.

#### Transfer Time

It is the time taken to transfer the data.

#### Disk Access Time

Disk access time is given as,

Disk Access Time = Rotational Latency + Seek Time + Transfer Time

# • Disk Response Time

It is the average of time spent by each request waiting for the IO operation.