LAB MANUAL

CIC-353 Operating Systems Lab



Maharaja Agrasen Institute of Technology, PSP area, Sector – 22, Rohini, New Delhi – 110085 (Affiliated to Guru Gobind Singh Indraprastha, New Delhi)

MAHARAJA AGRASEN INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

VISION

To attain global excellence through education, innovation, research, and work ethics with the commitment to serve humanity.

MISSION

- M1. To promote diversification by adopting advancement in science, technology, management, and allied discipline through continuous learning
- M2. To foster moral values in students and equip them for developing sustainable solutions to serve both national and global needs in society and industry.
- M3. To digitize educational resources and process for enhanced teaching and effective learning.
- M4. To cultivate an environment supporting incubation, product development, technology transfer, capacity building and entrepreneurship.
- M5. To encourage faculty-student networking with alumni, industry, institutions, and other stakeholders for collective engagement.

Department of Computer Science & engineering

VISION

"To attain global excellence through education, innovation, research, and work ethics in the field of Computer Science and engineering with the commitment to serve humanity."

MISSION

M1 To lead in the advancement of computer science and engineering through internationally recognized education. research and M2 To prepare students for full and ethical participation in a diverse society and lifelong encourage learning. M3 To foster development of problem solving and communication skills as an of integral component the profession. M4 To impart knowledge, skills and cultivate an environment supporting incubation, product development, technology transfer, capacity building and entrepreneurship in the field of computer science and engineering. M5 To encourage faculty, student's networking with alumni, industry, institutions, and other stakeholders for collective engagement.

Course Objectives

| Course O | Course Objectives | | | | | | |
|----------|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 1. | To understand the basics of OS and their functions. To learn the scheduling policies of various operating system. | | | | | | |
| 2. | learn memory management methods. | | | | | | |
| 3. | To understand the characterization of deadlock, system deadlock, preventing deadlock, avoiding deadlock and related concepts. | | | | | | |
| 4. | To understand the meaning of a file, structure of the directories, file structure system and implementation, free-space management. | | | | | | |

| CIC353.1 | Understand the role of operating system in computing device, and ability to understand paging and segmentation methods of memory binding and their pros & cons. |
|----------|---|
| CIC353.2 | Understand scheduling of process over a processor. Ability to use concepts of semaphore and its usage in process synchronization. |
| CIC353.3 | Ability to synchronize programs and make the system deadlock free. |
| CIC353.4 | Ability to understand the system like access methods, directory structures, file space allocation in disk and free space management in disk. Ability to understand disk scheduling and disk recovery procedure. |

| | PO1 | PO2 | PO3 | PO4 | PO5 | PO6 | PO7 | PO8 | PO9 | PO10 | PO11 | PO12 |
|----------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|------|------|
| CIC353.1 | 3 | 3 | 2 | - | 3 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| CIC353.2 | 3 | 3 | - | - | 2 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| CIC353.3 | 3 | 2 | 3 | - | 2 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| CIC353.4 | 3 | 3 | - | - | 2 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |

| | PSO1 | PSO2 | PSO3 |
|----------|------|------|------|
| CIC353.1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| CIC353.2 | 1 | - | 1 |
| CIC353.3 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| CIC353.4 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

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1. LAB DETAILS (H/W AND S/W)

Software requirements: Linux's Shell

Operating System: Fedora

Hardware requirements:

Windows and Linux: Intel 64/32, Athlon 64/32, Opteron processor

2 GB RAM

80 GB hard disk space

2. FORMAT OF THE LAB FILE TO BE PREPARED BY THE STUDENTS

1. The front page of the lab record prepared by the students should have a cover page as displayed below.

NAME OF THE LAB

Font should be (Size 20", italics bold, Times New Roman)

Faculty name Student name Font should be (12",

Times Roman)

Font should be (12", Times Roman) Roll No.:

Semester:

Group:



Maharaja Agrasen Institute of Technology, PSP Area, Sector – 22, Rohini, New Delhi – 110085 Font should be (18", Times Roman)

- 2. Lab file should include Vision and Mission of the Institute and the Department.
- 3. Rubrics Evaluation
- 4. Index for the Lab File is as follows:

OPERATING SYSTEMS LAB

PRACTICAL RECORD

PAPER CODE : CIC - 353

Name of the student

University Roll No. :

Branch :

Section/ Group :

PRACTICAL DETAILS

a) Experiments according to the list provided by GGSIPU

| Experiment No. | Date | Experiment Name | Mai | ·ks | | | | Total Marks | Signature |
|----------------|------|------------------------|-----|-----|-----------|----|-----------|----------------|-----------|
| | | | R1 | R2 | R3 | R4 | R5 | | |
| 1. | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. | | | | | • | | | | |
| 3. | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. | | | | | | | | | |

b) Experiments beyond the list provided by GGSIPU

| Experiment No. | Date | Experiment Name | Marks | | | | | Total Marks | Signature |
|----------------|------|-----------------|-------|----|----|----|----|----------------|-----------|
| | | | R1 | R2 | R3 | R4 | R5 | | |
| 1. | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. | | | | | | | | | |

3. LIST OF EXPERIMENTS (As prescribed by G.G.S.I.P.U)

OPERATING SYSTEMS LAB

Paper Code: CIC - 353 L T/P C
Paper: Operating Systems Lab 0 2 1

List of Experiments:

- 1. Write a program to implement CPU scheduling for first come first serve.
- 2. Write a program to implement CPU scheduling for shortest job first.
- 3. Write a program to perform priority scheduling.
- 4. Write a program to implement CPU scheduling for Round Robin.
- 5. Write a program for page replacement policy using a) LRU b) FIFO c) Optimal.
- 6. Write a program to implement first fit, best fit and worst fit algorithm for memory management.
- 7. Write a program to implement reader/writer problem using semaphore.
- 8. Write a program to implement producer-consumer problem using semaphore.
- 9. Write a program to implement Banker's algorithm for deadlock avoidance.
- 10. write C program to implement the various File Organization Techniques.

4. OPERATING SYSTEMS LAB

(Beyond the syllabus prescribed by G.G.S.I.P.U)

Paper Code: CIC-353 L T/P C

Paper: Operating Systems Lab 0 2 1

List of Experiments:

- 1. Introduction to Linux and Vi editor.
- 2. Write a program to find the greatest of three numbers (numbers passed as command line parameters)
- 3. Write a script to check whether the given no. is even/odd
- 4. Write a script to calculate the average of n numbers
- 5. Write a script to check whether the given number is prime or not
- 6. Write a program to check whether the given input is a number or a string
- 7. Write a program to compute no. of characters and words in each line of given file
- 8. Write a program to print the Fibonacci series upto n terms
- 9. Write a program to calculate the factorial of a given number
- 10. Write a program to calculate the sum of digits of the given number
- 11. Write a program to check whether the given string is a palindrome

5. MARKING SCHEME FOR THE PRACTICAL EXAMS

There will be two practical exams in each semester.

- i. Internal Practical Exam
- ii. External Practical Exam

INTERNAL PRACTICAL EXAM

It is taken by the respective faculty of the batch.

MARKING SCHEME FOR THIS EXAM IS:

Total Marks: 40

Division of 10 marks per practical is as follows:

Rubrics for Lab Assessment

| ſ | Rubrics | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--|--|--|
| l | Rubrics | Missing | Inadequate | Needs Improvement | Adequate | | |
| | Is able to identify the problem to be solved and define the objectives of the experiment. | No mention is made | the problem to be solved but it is described in a confusing manner, objectives are not relevant, objectives contain | Objectives are conceptually correct and measurable but may be incomplete in scope or | clearly stated. Objectives are complete, specific, concise, and measurable. They are written using correct technical | | |
| | Is able to design a reliable experiment that solves the problem. | | The experiment attempts to solve the problem but due to the nature of the design the data will not lead to a reliable solution. | the nature of the design there | The experiment solves the problem and has a high likelihood of producing data that will lead to a reliable solution. | | |
| | the details of an experimental procedure | and/or experimental procedure is missing | Diagrams are present but unclear and/or experimental procedure is present but important details are missing. | procedure are present but with | Diagrams and/or experimental procedure are clear and complete. | | |
| | Is able to record and represent data in a meaningful way. | Data are either absent or incomprehensible. | Some important data are absent or incomprehensible. | All important data are present, but recorded in a way that requires some effort to comprehend. | All important data are present, organized and recorded clearly. | | |
| | Is able to make a judgment about the results of the experiment. | No discussion is presented about the results of the experiment | A judgment is made about the results but it is not reasonable | An acceptable judgment is made about the result, but the reasoning is flawed or incomplete. | An acceptable judgment is made about the result, with clear reasoning. The effects of assumptions and experimental uncertainties are considered. | | |

Each experiment will be evaluated out of 10 marks. At the end of the semester average of 8 best performed practical will be considered as marks out of 40.

EXTERNAL PRACTICAL EXAM

It is taken by the concerned lecturer of the batch and by an external examiner. In this exam student needs to perform the experiment allotted at the time of the examination, a sheet will be given to the student in which some details asked by the examiner needs to be written and at the last viva will be taken by the external examiner.

MARKING SCHEME FOR THIS EXAM IS:

| Total Marks: | 60 | |
|----------------------|------------------------------|----|
| Division of 60 marks | is as follows | |
| 1. | Sheet filled by the student: | 20 |
| 2. | Viva Voice: | 15 |
| 3. | Experiment performance: | 15 |
| 4. | File submitted: | 10 |
| NOTE: | | |

- Internal marks + External marks = Total marks given to the students (40 marks) (60 marks) (100 marks)
- Experiments given to perform can be from any section of the lab.

6. INTRODUCTION TO OPERATING SYSTEM LAB

6.1 Introduction to Operating System

An operating system (OS) is the software component of a computer system that is responsible for the management and coordination of activities and the sharing of the resources of the computer. The OS acts as a host for application programs that are run on the machine. As a host, one of the purposes of an OS is to handle the details of the operation of the hardware. This relieves application programs from having to manage these details and makes it easier to write applications. Almost all computers use an OS of some type.

OSs offer a number of services to application programs and users. Applications access these services through application programming interfaces (APIs) or system calls. By using these interfaces, the application can request a service from the OS, pass parameters, and receive the results of the operation. Users may also interact with the OS by typing commands or using a graphical user interface (GUI).

Common contemporary OSs include Microsoft Windows, Mac OS X, and Linux. Microsoft Windows has a significant majority of market share in the desktop and notebook computer markets, while the server and embedded device markets are split amongst several OSs.

6.1.1 Linux

In this lab we will be working in Linux (also known as GNU/Linux), which is one of the most prominent examples of free software and open-source development which means that typically all underlying source code can be freely modified, used, and redistributed by anyone. The name "Linux" comes from the Linux kernel, started in 1991 by Linus Torvalds. The system's utilities and libraries usually come from the GNU operating system (which is why it is also known as GNU/Linux).

Linux is predominantly known for its use in servers. It is also used as an operating system for a wide variety of computer hardware, including desktop computers, supercomputers, video game systems, and embedded devices such as mobile phones and routers.

6.1.2 Design

Linux is a modular Unix-like OS. It derives much of its basic design from principles established in Unix during the 1970s and 1980s. Linux uses a monolithic kernel that handles process control, networking, and peripheral and file system access. The device drivers are integrated directly with the kernel. Much of Linux's higher-level functionality is provided by separate projects which interface with the kernel. The GNU userland is an important part of most Linux systems, providing the shell and Unix tools which carry out many basic OS tasks.

On top of the kernel, these tools form a Linux system with a GUI that can be used, usually running in the X Windows System (X).

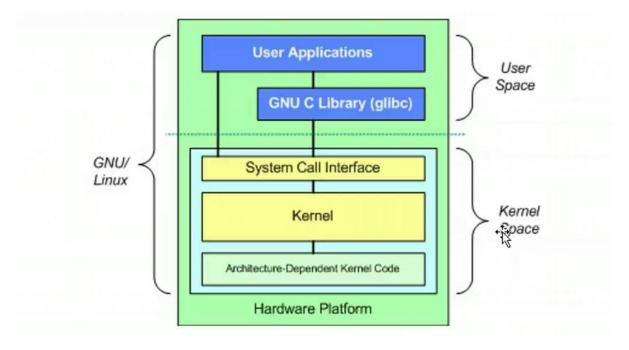


Figure 1:- Linux Architecture

Linux can be controlled by one or more of a text-based command line interface (CLI), GUI, or through controls on the device itself (like on embedded machines). Desktop machines have 3 popular user interfaces (UIs): KDE, GNOME, and Xfce. These UIs run on top of X, which provides network transparency, enabling a graphical application running on one machine to be displayed and controlled from another (that's like running a game on your computer but your friend's computer can control and see the game from his computer). The window manager provides a means to control the placement and appearance of individual application windows, and interacts with the X window system.

A Linux system usually provides a CLI of some sort through a shell. Linux distros for a server might only use a CLI and nothing else. Most low-level Linux components use the CLI exclusively. The CLI is particularly suited for automation of repetitive or delayed tasks, and provides very simple inter-process communication. A graphical terminal is often used to access the CLI from a Linux desktop.

6.1.2.1 Linux Shell

A shell is a special user program that provides an interface for the user to use operating system services. Shell accepts human-readable commands from users and converts them into something which the kernel can understand. It is a command language interpreter that executes commands read from input devices such as keyboards or from files. The shell gets started when the user logs in or starts the terminal

Command Line Shell

Shell can be accessed by users using a command line interface. A special program called Terminal in Linux/macOS, or Command Prompt in Windows OS is provided to type in the human-readable commands such as "cat", "ls" etc. and then it is being executed. The result is then displayed on the terminal to the user. A terminal in Ubuntu 16.4 system looks like this –

```
bash-2.05b$ pwd
/home/dstone
bash-2.05b$ cd /usr/portage/app-shells/bash
bash-2.05b$ 1s -al
total 68
druxr-xr-x
druxr-xr-x
                3 root root
                                4096 May 14 12:05
               26 root root
                                4096 May 17
                                               02:36
                                               22:35 ChangeLog
                1 root root 13710 May
                                            3
                                2924 May 14 12:05 Manifest
                1 root root
                                3720 May 14 12:05 bash-2.05b-r11.ebuild
                  root root
                                               20:05 bash-2.05b-r9.ebuild
                  root root
                                3516 May
                                               22:35 bash-3.0-r11.ebuild
                  root root
                                5083 May
                                      May 14 12:05 bash-3.0-r7.ebuild
                  root root
                                4038
                                3931 May 14 12:05 bash-3.0-r8.ebuild
                  root root
                                      Mar 29 21:11 bash-3.0-r9.ebuild
                                4267
                  root root
                                4096 May
                                           3 22:35 files
                  root root
                                 164 Dec 29
                                                2003 netadata.xnl
                1 root root
bash-2.05b$ cat netadata.xml
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="UTF-8"?>
<!DOCTYPE pkgmetadata SYSTEM "http://ини.gentoo.org/dtd/metadata.dtd">
<pkgmetadata>
<herd>base-system</herd>
</pkgmetadata>
bash-2.05b$ sudo /etc/init.d/bluetooth status
Password:
 * status:
               stopped
bash-2.05b$ ping -q -cl en.wikipedia.org
PING rr.chtpa.wikimedia.org (207.142.131.247) 56(84) bytes of data.
  - rr.chtpa.wikinedia.org ping statistics
1 packets transmitted, 1 received, 0% packet loss, time Oms rtt min/avg/max/mdev = 112.076/112.076/112.076/0.000 ms bash-2.05b$ grep -i /dev/sda /etc/fstab | cut --fields=-3 /dev/sda1 /mnt/usbkey
/dev/sda2
                              /mnt/ipod
bash-2.05b$ date
    May 25 11:36:56 PDT 2005
```

Figure 2:- Linux Command Line

There are several shells are available for Linux systems like –

- BASH (Bourne Again Shell) It is the most widely used shell in Linux systems. It is
 used as default login shell in Linux systems and in macOS. It can also be installed on
 Windows OS.
- CSH (C SHell) The C shell's syntax and its usage are very similar to the C programming language.
- KSH (Korn SHell) The Korn Shell was also the base for the POSIX Shell standard specifications etc.

 Each shell does the same job but understands different commands and provides different built-in functions

Note: we will be using BASH shell in our lab.

Terminal

A program which is responsible for providing an interface to a user, where user can access the shell. It basically allows users to enter commands and see the output of those commands in a text-based interface. Large scripts that are written to automate and perform complex tasks are executed in the terminal.

```
acer@acer-PC MINGW64 ~/Desktop/New folder/Code/shellscripts
$ bash hello.sh

This is a shell script

This takes a number and prints it's cube
Enter the number : 6
6 \( \lambda \) 3 = 216

acer@acer-PC MINGW64 ~/Desktop/New folder/Code/shellscripts
$
```

Figure 3: - Bash Shell Terminal

6.1.3 Development

The primary difference between Linux and many other OSs is that the Linux kernel and other components are free and open source software. Free software projects, although developed in a collaborative fashion, are often produced independently of each other. A Linux distribution, commonly called a "distro", is a project that manages a remote collection of Linux-based software, and facilitates installation of a Linux OS. Distros include system software and application software in the form of packages. A distribution is responsible for the default configuration of installed Linux systems, system security, and more generally integration of the different software packages into a coherent whole.

Linux is largely driven by its developer and user communities. Some vendors develop and fund their distros on a volunteer basis. Others maintain a community version of their commercial distros. In many cities and regions, local associations known as Linux Users

Groups (LUGs) promote Linux and free software. There are also many online communities that seek to provide support to Linux users and developers. Most distros also have IRC chatrooms or newsgroups for communication. Online forums are another means for support. Linux distros host mailing lists also.

Most Linux distros support dozens of programming languages. The most common collection of utilities for building both Linux applications and OS programs is found within the GNU toolchain, which includes the GNU Compiler Collection (GCC) and the GNU build system. GCC provieds compilers for Ada, C, C++, Java, and Fortran. Most distros also include support for Perl, Ruby, Python and other dynamic languages. The two main frameworks for developing graphical applications are those of GNOME and KDE.

As well as those designed for general purpose use on desktops and servers, distros may be specialized for different purposes including: computer architecture support, embedded systems, stability, security, localization to a specific region or language, targeting of specific user groups, support for real-time applications, or commitment to a given desktop environment. Linux runs on a more diverse range of computer architecture than any other OS.

Although there is a lack of Linux ports for some Mac OS X and Microsoft Windows programs in domains such as desktop publishing and professional audio, applications roughly equivalent to those available for OS X and Windows are available for Linux. Most Linux distros have some sort of program for browsing through a list of free software applications that have already been tested and configured for the specific distro. There are many free software titles popular on Windows that are available for Linux the same way there are a growing amount of proprietary software that is being supported for Linux.

6.2. Vi editor

In this lab we will be using Vi Editor for creating programs. The vi editor is elaborated as visual editor. It is installed in every Unix system. In other words, it is available in all Linux distros. It is user-friendly and works same on different distros and platforms. It is a very powerful application. An improved version of vi editor is vim.

The vi editor has two modes:

Command Mode:

In command mode, actions are taken on the file. The vi editor starts in command mode. Here, the typed words will act as commands in vi editor. To pass a command, you need to be in command mode.

Insert Mode: In insert mode, entered text will be inserted into the file. The Esc key will take you to the command mode from insert mode.

By default, the vi editor starts in command mode. To enter text, you have to be in insert mode, just type 'i' and you'll be in insert mode. Although, after typing i nothing will appear on the screen but you'll be in insert mode. Now you can type anything.

By default vi-editor opens in the command mode. In order to write the code we need to switch to insert mode. Press the 'i' key when command mode is ON to switch to insert mode.

To exit from insert mode press **Esc** key, you'll be directed to command mode. For saving the code that you have written you need to enter :wq after pressing the Esc key. If you are not sure which mode, you are in, press Esc key twice and you'll be in command mode.

Vi- editor Commands

Exit vi table:

| Commands | Action |
|----------|---------------------------------------|
| :wq | Save and quit |
| :w | Save |
| :q | Quit |
| :w fname | Save as fname |
| ZZ | Save and quit |
| :q! | Quit discarding changes made |
| :w! | Save (and write to non-writable file) |

To switch from command to insert mode:

| Command | Action |
|---------|--|
| I | Start typing before the current character |
| I | Start typing at the start of current line |
| A | Start typing after the current character |
| A | Start typing at the end of current line |
| О | Start typing on a new line after the current line |
| О | Start typing on a new line before the current line |

To move around a file:

| Commands | Action |
|----------|---------------|
| J | To move down |
| K | To move up |
| Н | To move left |
| L | To move right |

To jump lines:

| Commands | Action |
|----------|---|
| G | Will direct you at the last line of the file |
| | Will direct you to your last position in the file |

To delete:

| Commands | Action |
|----------|---|
| X | Delete the current character |
| X | Delete the character before the cursor |
| R | Replace the current character |
| xp | Switch two characters |
| dd | Delete the current line |
| D | Delete the current line from current character to the end of the line |
| dG | delete from the current line to the end of the file |

To repeat and undo:

| Commands | Action |
|----------|-------------------------|
| U | Undo the last command |
| | Repeat the last command |

Command to cut, copy and paste:

| Commands | Action |
|----------|-------------------------------|
| Dd | Delete a line |
| Yy | (yank yank) copy a line |
| P | Paste after the current line |
| P | Paste before the current line |

Command to cut, copy and paste in blocks:

| Commands | Action |
|-----------|--|
| <n>dd</n> | Delete the specified n number of lines |
| <n>yy</n> | Copy the specified n number of lines |

Start and end of line:

| Commands | Action |
|----------|--|
| Θ | Bring at the start of the current line |
| ۸ | Bring at the start of the current line |
| \$ | Bring at the end of the current line |
| Dθ | Delete till start of a line |
| d\$ | Delete till end of a line |

Joining lines:

| Commands | Action |
|----------|-------------------------|
| J | Join two lines |
| Yyp | Repeat the current line |
| Ddp | Swap two lines |

Move forward or backward:

| Commands | Action |
|-----------|--|
| W | Move one word forward |
| В | Move one word backward |
| <n>w</n> | Move specified number of words forward |
| Dw | Delete one word |
| Yw | Copy one word |
| <n>dw</n> | Delete specified number of words |

Search a string:

| Commands | Action |
|---------------|--|
| /string | Forward search for given string |
| ?string | Backward search for given string |
| /^string | Forward search string at beginning of a line |
| /string\$ | Forward search string at end of a line |
| N | Go to next occurrence of searched string |
| \ <he\></he\> | Search for the word he (and not for there, here, etc.) |
| /pl[abc]ce | Search for place, plbce, and plcce |

Replace all

Syntax:

1. :<startLine,endLine> s/<oldString>/<newString>/g

Example:

| Commands | Action |
|---------------------------|---|
| :1,\$ s/readable/changed/ | Replace forward with backward from first line to the last line |
| :3,6 s/letters/neww/g | Replace forward with backward from third line to the ninth line |

Text buffers:

| Commands | Action |
|----------|--|
| "add | Delete current line and put text in buffer a |
| "ap | Paste the line from buffer a |

6.3. Shell Scripting (Using BASH shell)

6.3.1 Writing a shell script

Following steps are required to write shell script:

- (1) Use any editor like vi or mcedit to write shell script. Save the file with the extension '.sh'
- (2) To execute the file we require to take the permission as follows

syntax:

chmod permission your-script-name ./ your-script-name

Examples: (if the file name is test.sh)

\$ chmod +x test.sh

\$./test.sh

6.3.2 Variables in Shell

In Linux (Shell), there are two types of variable:

(1) **System variables** - Created and maintained by Linux itself. This type of variable defined in CAPITAL LETTERS.

| System Variable | Meaning |
|-----------------|-------------------------------|
| BASH | Our shell name |
| | |
| BASH_VERSION | Our shell Version Name |
| COLUMNS | No. of columns for our screen |
| HOME | Our Home Directory |
| LOGNAME | Our logging Name |
| OSTYPE | Our OS type |
| SHELL | Our Shell Name |

NOTE: Some of the above settings can be different in your PC/Linux environment. You can print any of the above variables contains as follows:

\$ echo \$USERNAME

\$ echo \$HOME

Example:

- 1) If you want to print your home directory location then you give command:
- a)\$ echo \$HOME or b)\$ echo HOME
- (2) **User defined variables (UDV)** Created and maintained by user. This type of variable defined in lower letters. You can see system variables by giving command like \$ set, some of the important System variables are:

Defining User defined variables (UDV)

To define UDV use following syntax

Syntax:

variable name=value

'value' is assigned to given 'variable name' and Value must be on right side = sign.

Example:

```
value1 = 40

value2 = 29
```

Rules for Naming variable name (Both UDV and System Variable)

(1) Variable name must begin with Alphanumeric character or underscore character (_), followed by one or more Alphanumeric character. For e.g. valid shell variable are as follows

```
HOME
SYSTEM_VERSION
vech
no
```

- (2) Don't put spaces on either side of the equal sign when assigning value to variable. For e.g. In following variable declaration there will be no error
- (3) Variables are case-sensitive, just like filename in Linux. For e.g.

```
$ no=10
```

\$ No=11

\$ NO=20

\$ nO=2

Above all are different variable name, so to print value 20 we have to use \$ echo \$NO and not any of the following

\$ echo \$no # will print 10 but not 20

\$ echo \$No# will print 11 but not 20

\$ echo \$nO# will print 2 but not 20

(4) You can define NULL variable as follows (NULL variable is variable which has no value at the time of definition) For e.g.

\$ vech=

\$ vech=""

Try to print it's value by issuing following command

\$ echo \$vech

Nothing will be shown because variable has no value i.e. NULL variable.

(5) Do not use ?,* etc, to name your variable names.

6.3.4 Displaying or accessing the value stored in the variables :

To print or access UDV use following syntax

Syntax:

\$variablename

Define variable vech and n as follows:

\$ value1 = 40 \$ n=10

To print contains of variable 'vech' type

echo \$value1

echo Command

Use echo command to display text or value of variable.

echo [options] [string, variables...]

Displays text or variables value on screen.

Options

- -n Do not output the trailing new line.
- -e Enable interpretation of the following backslash escaped characters in the strings:

\a alert (bell)

\b backspace

\c suppress trailing new line

\n new line

```
\r carriage return
\t horizontal tab
\\ backslash
```

For e.g. \$ echo -e "An apple a day keeps away \a\t\tdoctor\n"

6.3.5 Input command in shell scripting

read command (input command)

In shell scripting, the read command captures user input and stores it in a variable. By default, it reads the entire line of user input until the user presses the Enter key.

Example:

\$num1 \$num2

echo "enter the value of first number" read num1 echo "enter the value of second number" read num2 echo num1 echo num2

6.3.6 Shell Arithmetic

| Operator | Description | Example | | |
|--|---|--|--|--|
| + (Addition) | Adds values on either side of the operator | `expr \$a + \$b` will give 30 | | |
| - (Subtraction) | Subtracts right hand operand from left hand operand | `expr \$a - \$b` will give - 10 | | |
| * (Multiplication) | (Multiplication) Multiplies values on either side of the operator | | | |
| / (Division) | Divides left hand operand by right hand operand | `expr \$b / \$a` will give 2 | | |
| % (Modulus) Divides left hand operand by right hand operand and returns remainder | | `expr \$b % \$a` will give 0 | | |
| = (Assignment) | Assigns right operand in left operand | a = \$b would assign value of b into a | | |

| == (Equality) | Compares two numbers, if both are same then returns true. | [\$a == \$b] would return false. |
|-------------------|--|------------------------------------|
| != (Not Equality) | Compares two numbers, if both are different then returns true. | [\$a != \$b] would return true. |

Note:

It is very important to understand that all the conditional expressions should be inside square braces with spaces around them, for example [\$a == \$b] is correct whereas, [\$a == \$b] is incorrect. All the arithmetical calculations are done using long integers.

Example:

```
a=10
b=20
val=`expr $a + $b`
echo "a + b : $val"
val=`expr $a - $b`
echo "a - b : $val"
val=`expr $a \* $b`
echo "a * b : $val"
val=`expr $b / $a`
echo "b / a : $val"
val=`expr $b % $a`
echo "b % a : $val"
```

output

a + b : 30 a - b : -10 a * b : 200 b / a : 2b % a : 0

6.3.7 Relational Operators

| Operator | Description | Example |
|----------|--|----------------------------|
| -eq | Checks if the value of two operands are equal or not; if yes, then the condition becomes true. | [\$a -eq \$b] is not true. |
| -ne | Checks if the value of two operands are equal or not; if values are not equal, then the condition becomes true. | [\$a -ne \$b] is true. |
| -gt | Checks if the value of left operand is greater than the value of right operand; if yes, then the condition becomes true. | [\$a -gt \$b] is not true. |
| -lt | Checks if the value of left operand is less than the value of right operand; if yes, then the condition becomes true. | [\$a -lt \$b] is true. |
| -ge | Checks if the value of left operand is greater than or equal to the value of right operand; if yes, then the condition becomes true. | [\$a -ge \$b] is not true. |
| -le | Checks if the value of left operand is less than or equal to the value of right operand; if yes, then the condition becomes true. | [\$a -le \$b] is true. |

Example:

```
a=10
b=20

if [ $a -eq $b ]

then

echo "$a -eq $b : a is equal to b"

else

echo "$a -eq $b: a is not equal to b"

fi

if [ $a -ne $b ]

then

echo "$a -ne $b: a is not equal to b"
```

```
else
  echo "$a -ne $b : a is equal to b"
fi
if [ $a -gt $b ]
then
  echo "$a -gt $b: a is greater than b"
  echo "$a -gt $b: a is not greater than b"
fi
if [ $a -lt $b ]
then
  echo "$a -lt $b: a is less than b"
  echo "$a -lt $b: a is not less than b"
fi
if [ $a -ge $b ]
  echo "$a -ge $b: a is greater or equal to b"
else
  echo "$a -ge $b: a is not greater or equal to b"
fi
if [ $a -le $b ]
then
  echo "$a -le $b: a is less or equal to b"
  echo "$a -le $b: a is not less or equal to b"
fi
```

Output

```
10 -eq 20: a is not equal to b
10 -ne 20: a is not equal to b
10 -gt 20: a is not greater than b
10 -lt 20: a is less than b
10 -ge 20: a is not greater or equal to b
10 -le 20: a is less or equal to b
```

6.3.8 Boolean Operators

| Operator | Description | Example |
|----------|--|---|
| ! | This is logical negation. This inverts a true condition into false and vice versa. | [! false] is true. |
| -O | This is logical OR. If one of the operands is true, then the condition becomes true. | [\$a -lt 20 -o \$b -gt 100] is true. |
| -a | This is logical AND. If both the operands are true, then the condition becomes true otherwise false. | [\$a -lt 20 -a \$b -gt 100] is false. |

Example:

```
a=10
b = 20
if [ $a != $b ]
  echo "$a != $b : a is not equal to b"
else
  echo "$a != $b: a is equal to b"
if [ $a -lt 100 -a $b -gt 15 ]
  echo "$a -lt 100 -a $b -gt 15 : returns true"
  echo "$a -lt 100 -a $b -gt 15 : returns false"
if [ $a -lt 100 -o $b -gt 100 ]
  echo "$a -lt 100 -o $b -gt 100 : returns true"
else
  echo "$a -lt 100 -o $b -gt 100 : returns false"
fi
if [ $a -lt 5 -o $b -gt 100 ]
  echo "$a -lt 100 -o $b -gt 100 : returns true"
  echo "$a -lt 100 -o $b -gt 100 : returns false"
fi
```

Output

10 != 20 : a is not equal to b

```
10 -lt 100 -a 20 -gt 15 : returns true
10 -lt 100 -o 20 -gt 100 : returns true
10 -lt 5 -o 20 -gt 100 : returns false
```

6.3.9 String operators

| Operator | Description | Example | |
|----------|--|----------------------------|--|
| = | Checks if the value of two operands are equal or not; if yes, then the condition becomes true. | [\$a = \$b] is not true. | |
| != | Checks if the value of two operands are equal or not; if values are not equal then the condition becomes true. | [\$a != \$b] is true. | |
| -Z | Checks if the given string operand size is zero; if it is zero length, then it returns true. | [-z \$a] is not true. | |
| -n | Checks if the given string operand size is non-zero; if it is nonzero length, then it returns true. | [-n \$a] is not false. | |
| str | Checks if str is not the empty string; if it is empty, then it returns false. | [\$a] is not false. | |

Example:

```
a="abc"
b="efg"
if [$a = $b]
then
 echo "a = b : a is equal to b"
  echo "$a = $b: a is not equal to b"
fi
if [ $a != $b ]
 echo "$a != $b : a is not equal to b"
else
  echo "$a != $b: a is equal to b"
fi
if [ -z $a ]
then
 echo "-z $a : string length is zero"
else
```

```
echo "-z $a : string length is not zero"

fi

if [ -n $a ]

then
   echo "-n $a : string length is not zero"

else
   echo "-n $a : string length is zero"

fi

if [ $a ]

then
   echo "$a : string is not empty"

else
   echo "$a : string is empty"

fi
```

Output

abc = efg: a is not equal to b abc!= efg: a is not equal to b -z abc: string length is not zero -n abc: string length is not zero abc: string is not empty

7. Instruction for each lab experiment

EXPERIMENT 1

AIM: Write a program to implement CPU scheduling for First Come First Serve (FCFS).

INTRODUCTION:

We are given n processes and their burst times. We need to use the FCFS scheduling method to find the average wait time and average turnaround time. The easiest schedule method is first in, first out (FIFO), which is also written as first come, first served (FCFS). FIFO just puts processes in the queue in the order that they come in. In this, the first process will be run first, and the next process won't begin until the first one is finished.

- 1. Completion Time: Time at which process completes its execution.
- 2. Turn Around Time: Time Difference between completion time and arrival time. Turn Around Time = Completion Time Arrival Time
- 3. Waiting Time(W.T): Time Difference between turn around time and burst time.
- 4. Waiting Time = Turn Around Time Burst Time

Pseudo-Code (Non- preemptive FCFS)

- 1. Input number of processes (n)
- 2. Create an array of structures to hold process information:
 - Process ID (PID)
 - Arrival Time (AT)
 - Burst Time (BT)
 - Waiting Time (WT)
 - Turnaround Time (TAT)
 - Completion Time (CT)
- 3. For each process from 1 to n:
 - a. Input Process ID, Arrival Time, and Burst Time
- 4. Sort the processes based on Arrival Time (AT) (If two processes have the same arrival time, maintain their order)
- 5. Initialize:
 - Current Time (CT) = 0
 - Total Waiting Time = 0
 - Total Turnaround Time = 0
- 6. For each process i from 1 to n:
 - a. If CT < AT[i]:

- CT = AT[i] // Wait for the next process to arrive
- b. Update Completion Time (CT):
 - -CT = CT + BT[i]
- c. Calculate Waiting Time (WT) for process i:
 - -WT = CT AT[i] BT[i]
- d. Calculate Turnaround Time (TAT) for process i:
 - -TAT = WT + BT[i]
- e. Update Total Waiting Time and Total Turnaround Time:
 - Total Waiting Time += WT
 - Total Turnaround Time += TAT
- 7. Calculate Average Waiting Time and Average Turnaround Time:
 - Average WT = Total Waiting Time / n
 - Average TAT = Total Turnaround Time / n
- 8. Output:
 - Print process details (PID, AT, BT, WT, TAT, CT)
 - Print Average Waiting Time and Average Turnaround Time
 - Print the Gannt Chart

Expected Output

Enter number of processes: 3

Enter arrival time for process 1: 0

Enter burst time for process 1: 5

Enter arrival time for process 2: 1

Enter burst time for process 2: 3

Enter arrival time for process 3: 2

Enter burst time for process 3: 8

Process ID Arrival Time Burst Time Waiting Time Turnaround Time

| 1 | 0 | 5 | | 0 | | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 2 | 1 | 3 | 5 | | 8 | |
| 3 | 2 | 8 | 8 | | | 16 |

Average waiting time = 4.33

Average turnaround time = 9.67

Gannt chart for the FCFS for the given processes is :

Practice Questions

- 1. Write a program to handle the scenario where multiple processes have the same arrival time. How does FCFS handle this case, and how do the waiting times differ when all processes arrive simultaneously?
- 2. Create a program that handles the case where the CPU is idle for some time before the arrival of the first process. Assume the CPU remains idle if no process has arrived.

Viva Questions

- 1. What are the disadvantages of FCFS scheduling?
- 2. Is FCFS a preemptive or non-preemptive scheduling algorithm? Why?
- 3. Can FCFS scheduling cause starvation?
- 4. How does FCFS deal with context switching?

AIM: Write a program to implement CPU scheduling for the shortest job first.

Introduction:

Shortest job first (SJF), also written as shortest job next, is a scheduling algorithm that chooses the waiting process with the shortest execution time to run next.

- Sort all the processes according to the arrival time.
- Then select a process that has minimum arrival time and minimum Burst time.
- After completion of the process make a pool of processes that arrives afterward till the completion of the previous process and select that process among the pool which has minimum Burst time.

Psuedo- code (Non- preemptive SJF)

- 1. Input number of processes (n)
- 2. Create an array of structures to hold process information:
 - Process ID (PID)
 - Arrival Time (AT)
 - Burst Time (BT)
 - Waiting Time (WT)
 - Turnaround Time (TAT)
 - Completion Time (CT)
- 3. For each process from 1 to n:
 - a. Input Process ID, Arrival Time, and Burst Time
- 4. Sort the processes based on Arrival Time first.

 (If two processes have the same arrival time, sort by Burst Time)
- 5. Initialize:
 - Current Time (CT) = 0
 - Total Waiting Time = 0
 - Total Turnaround Time = 0
 - Completed Processes = 0
- 6. While Completed Processes < n:
 - a. Find all processes that have arrived by CT (i.e., AT <= CT).
 - b. If there are no processes that have arrived:
 - Increment CT by 1 (to wait for the next process)
 - Continue to the next iteration.

- c. From the available processes, select the one with the shortest Burst Time (BT).
- d. Update the Completion Time (CT) for the selected process:
 - CT = CT + Burst Time of selected process
- e. Calculate Waiting Time (WT) and Turnaround Time (TAT):
 - -WT = CT AT BT
 - -TAT = WT + BT
- f. Update Total Waiting Time and Total Turnaround Time:
 - Total Waiting Time += WT
 - Total Turnaround Time
- 7. Output:
 - Print process details (PID, AT, BT, PR, WT, TAT, CT)
 - Print Average Waiting Time and Average Turnaround Time
 - Print the Gannt Chart

Expected Output

Enter number of processes: 3

Enter arrival time for process 1: 0

Enter burst time for process 1: 8

Enter arrival time for process 2: 1

Enter burst time for process 2: 4

Enter arrival time for process 3: 2

Enter burst time for process 3: 9

Process ID Arrival Time Burst Time Waiting Time Turnaround Time Completion Time

| 1 | 0 | 8 | 3 | 11 | 11 |
|---|---|---|----|----|----|
| 2 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 4 | 5 |
| 3 | 2 | 9 | 11 | 20 | 22 |

Average waiting time = 4.67

Average turnaround time = 11.67

Gannt chart for the FCFS for the given processes is:

- 1. Write a program that accounts for idle time in the CPU when no processes are ready to execute. Show how this affects waiting and turnaround times.
- 2. Write a program to analyze how the order of process arrival affects the scheduling results in SJF.

- 1. In which order are the processes executed in the order of the shortest burst time (SJF) if multiple processes have the same burst time?
- 2. How does SJF handle idle CPU time when no processes are ready to execute?
- 3. In what scenarios is SJF most applicable? Provide examples from real-world systems.

AIM: Write a program to perform priority scheduling.

Introduction

Priority scheduling

Every process is given a first arrival time (less arrival time process first). If two processes have the same arrival time, the goals are compared (highest process first). Also, if two processes have the same importance, compare them based on their process number (first process number less). This process is done over and over while all the others are running.

- 1. list the processes along with their start time, end time, and importance.
- 2. The process with the earliest arrival time will be scheduled first. If more than one process has the earliest arrival time, the process with the highest priority will be scheduled first.
- 3. Now, more processes will be scheduled based on when they arrive and how important they are. That is, we're thinking that lower numbers mean more important things. If two of their priorities are the same, put them in order by process number.

Psuedo - Code (Non- Preemptive Priority)

- 1. Input number of processes (n)
- 2. Create an array of structures to hold process information:
 - Process ID (PID)
 - Arrival Time (AT)
 - Burst Time (BT)
 - Priority (PR)
 - Waiting Time (WT)
 - Turnaround Time (TAT)
 - Completion Time (CT)
- 3. For each process from 1 to n:
 - a. Input Process ID, Arrival Time, Burst Time, and Priority
- 4. Sort the processes based on Arrival Time first and then by Priority (higher priority first)
- 5. Initialize:
 - Current Time (CT) = 0
 - Total Waiting Time = 0
 - Total Turnaround Time = 0

- 6. While there are processes left to execute:
 - a. Select the process with the highest priority that has arrived (i.e., whose AT <= CT)
 - b. If no process is available to execute, increment CT until a process arrives.
 - c. Update the Completion Time (CT) for the selected process:
 - CT = CT + Burst Time of selected process
 - d. Calculate Waiting Time (WT) and Turnaround Time (TAT):
 - -WT = CT AT BT
 - -TAT = WT + BT
 - e. Update Total Waiting Time and Total Turnaround Time
- 7. Calculate Average Waiting Time and Average Turnaround Time:
 - Average WT = Total Waiting Time / n
 - Average TAT = Total Turnaround Time / n
- 8. Output:
 - Print process details (PID, AT, BT, PR, WT, TAT, CT)
 - Print Average Waiting Time and Average Turnaround Time
 - Print the Gannt Chart

Expected Output

Enter number of processes: 3

Enter arrival time for process 1: 0

Enter burst time for process 1: 4

Enter priority of process 1: 2

Enter arrival time for process 2: 1

Enter burst time for process 2: 2

Enter priority of process 2: 1

Enter arrival time for process 3: 2

Enter burst time for process 3: 1

Enter priority of process 3: 3

Process ID Arrival Time Burst Time Waiting Time Turnaround Time

| P1 | 0 | 4 | 2 | 0 | 4 | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| P2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 5 | 5 |
| P3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 5 | i |

Average waiting time = 2.33

Average turnaround time = 4.67

Gannt chart for the non-preemptive priority scheduling algorithm for the given processes is:

1. Given a set of processes with different burst times and priorities, compare the average waiting time and turnaround time between non-preemptive and preemptive priority scheduling. Use the following processes:

Process D: Burst time = 8, Priority = 2 Process E: Burst time = 4, Priority = 1 Process F: Burst time = 9, Priority = 3

- 1. Describe the aging technique in priority scheduling. How does it help to mitigate the issue of starvation?
- 2. Explain how context switching affects the performance of priority scheduling. How does it differ from other scheduling methods?
- 3. In what real-world scenarios or systems is priority scheduling most beneficial? Provide specific examples.

AIM: Write a program to implement CPU scheduling for Round Robin.

Introduction:

The Round Robin CPU scheduling algorithm is a widely used technique in operating systems for managing the allocation of the central processing unit (CPU) among several processes. This algorithm operates on The algorithm primarily emphasizes the utilization of the Time Sharing approach. The temporal duration during which a process or task is permitted to execute in a preemptive manner is referred to as the time quantum.

Every process or job in the ready queue is allocated the CPU for a specific time period. If the process finishes execution within this time, it will terminate. Otherwise, the process will return to the waiting table and wait for its next turn to complete execution.

Pseudo- Code:

1. **Initialization**:

- o processes: Array of process identifiers.
- o burstTime: Array of burst times for each process.
- o priority: Array indicating the priority of each process (lower number means higher priority).
- o waiting Time: Array to store the waiting time for each process.
- o turnaroundTime: Array to store the turnaround time for each process.

2. Creating a Process List:

o Create a list of processes with their burst times and priorities.

3. **Sorting**:

 Sort the processList based on priority. This means that processes with higher priority will come first.

4. Calculating Waiting and Turnaround Time:

- For each process in the sorted list, calculate the waiting time and update the current time.
- The turnaround time is then calculated for each process as the sum of its burst time and waiting time.

5. **Output**:

o Finally, print the burst time, priority, waiting time, and turnaround time for each process. Also print the Gannt Chart for the same.

Expected output

Enter number of processes: 3

Enter burst time for process 1: 10

Enter burst time for process 2: 5

Enter burst time for process 3: 8

Enter the time quantum: 2

| Process 1 | ID Burst Time | Waiting Time | Turnaround Time |
|-----------|---------------|--------------|------------------------|
| P1 | 10 | 14 | 24 |
| P2 | 5 | 10 | 15 |
| P3 | 8 | 13 | 21 |

Gannt Chart for round robin scheduling is:

| P1 | P2 | P | 23 P | 2 1 1 | P2 F | 23 F | P1 P | 2 F | 23 | P | 1 | |
|----|----|---|--------|----------------|--------|--------|--------|-------|----|----|----|----|
| 0 | 2 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 10 | 12 | 14 | 16 | 18 | 20 | 22 | 24 |

1. Consider the following processes with their burst times and a time quantum of 3 seconds:

P1: 8, P2: 6, P3: 4

Calculate the waiting time and turnaround time for each process.

2. Given the processes with the following burst times and a time quantum of 2 seconds: P1: 10, P2: 5, P3: 8

Draw the Gantt chart and calculate each process's waiting time and turnaround time.

- 1. How does the Round Robin scheduling algorithm can be compared to FCFS and SJF scheduling algorithms in terms of average waiting time and turnaround time?
- 2. Explain how the Round Robin scheduling algorithm can be used in a multi-user operating system environment. What are the benefits and drawbacks?

AIM: Write a program for page replacement policy using a) LRU b) FIFO c) Optimal page replacement algorithm.

Introduction:

Page replacement algorithms are a crucial component of operating systems that manage memory. These algorithms determine which pages in memory should be replaced when a new page needs to be loaded. In operating systems, that employ paging as a memory management technique, the utilization of page replacement algorithms becomes necessary to determine which page should be replaced when a new page is introduced. If a new page is referenced but is not currently residing in memory, a page fault occurs, prompting the Operating System to replace one of the existing pages with the newly required page. Various page replacement algorithms propose distinct methods for determining which page to replace. The primary objective of all algorithms is to minimize the occurrence of page faults.

First In First Out (FIFO)

The First In First Out (FIFO) page replacement technique is a commonly used method in computer operating systems for managing memory. This algorithm involves the operating system maintaining a queue to track all pages currently residing in the memory, with the oldest page positioned at the front of the queue. When a page is required to be replaced, the page located at the front of the queue is chosen for removal.

Pseudo- code

Let capacity be the number of pages that memory can hold. Let set be the current set of pages in memory.

- 1- Start traversing the pages.
- i) If set holds less pages than capacity.
 - a) Insert page into the set one by one until the size of set reaches capacity or all page requests are processed.
 - b) Simultaneously maintain the pages in the queue to perform FIFO.
- c) Increment page fault
- ii) Else

If current page is present in set, do nothing. Else

- a) Remove the first page from the queue as it was the first to be entered in the memory
- b) Replace the first page in the queue with

the current page in the string.

- c) Store current page in the queue.
- d) Increment page faults.

Return page faults.

Least Recently used (LRU)

The Least Recently Used(LRU) algorithm is a type of Greedy algorithm that selects the page to be replaced based on its least recent usage. The concept is founded upon the principle of location of reference, whereby the page that has been least recently used is improbable to be accessed.

Pseudo- code

Let capacity be the number of pages that memory can hold. Let set be the current set of pages in memory.

- 1- Start traversing the pages.
- i) If set holds less pages than capacity.
- a) Insert page into the set one by one until the size of set reaches capacity or all page requests are processed.
- b) Simultaneously maintain the recent occurred index of each page in a map called indexes.
- c) Increment page fault
- ii) Else

If current page is present in set, do nothing. Else

- a) Find the page in the set that was least recently used. We find it using index array. We basically need to replace the page with minimum index.
- b) Replace the found page with current page.
- c) Increment page faults.
- d) Update index of current page.
- 2. Return page faults.

Optimal Page Replacement Algorithm

The Optimal page replacement algorithm is often regarded as the most favorable approach for page replacement in computer systems. The algorithm described herein is designed to replace a page in the frames of secondary memory based on its anticipated future demand relative to other pages. The occurrence of a replacement is triggered by the presence of a page fault. The primary objective of this algorithm is to reduce the occurrence of page faults.

Pseudo-Code

- 1.Create an empty vector to represent the frames.
- 2. For each page in the page reference sequence:
 - a. If the page is found in the current frame, it is considered a hit.
 - b. If the page is not found in the current frame, it is considered a miss.
 - i. If there is space available in the frames, the page is added to the frame.
 - ii. If there is no space available in the frames, find the page that will not be used for the longest duration of time in the future.
 - iii. Replace the page in the frame with the one that caused the miss.
- 3.Return the number of page faults.

Expected output

Enter the reference string: 7, 0, 1, 2, 0, 3, 0, 4, 2, 3, 0, 3, 2

Enter the number of frames: 3

Execution of LRU Page Faults: 9

Final Pages in Memory: [0, 2, 3]

Execution of FIFO Page Faults: 10

Final Pages in Memory: [2, 3, 0]

Execution of Optimal Page Replacement

Page Faults: 7

Final Pages in Memory: [0, 3, 2]

Given the reference string: 2, 5, 2, 1, 5, 2, 5, 1, 2, 5, 1, 5

- 1. Assume 3 frames in memory. Calculate the number of page faults using:
 - a. FIFO
 - b. LRU
 - c. Optimal
- 2. Which algorithm performs best when repeated accesses to the same pages occur?

- 1. Explain why the Optimal page replacement algorithm cannot be implemented in practice. In which scenarios would it be closest to real-world usage?
- 2. Explain the concept of a "page fault." How is it handled by the operating system?
- 3. Can FIFO lead to Belady's anomaly? If yes, explain with an example.
- 4. What is the significance of page replacement algorithms in managing virtual memory?
- 5. How does increasing the number of frames in the system affect the performance of different page replacement algorithms?

AIM: Write a program to implement first fit, best fit and worst fit algorithm for memory management.

Introduction:

First Fit Algorithm

The first fit algorithm allocates a partition in Main Memory by selecting the first available partition that is large enough from the top.

Pseudo- code

- 1- Input memory blocks with size and processes with size.
- 2- Initialize all memory blocks as free.
- 3- Start by picking each process and check if it can be assigned to the current block.
- 4- If size-of-process <= size-of-block if yes then assign and check for the next process.
- 5- If not then keep checking the further blocks.

Best Fit Algorithm

The best fit allocation strategy assigns a process to the smallest available partition that is sufficient to accommodate it, among all the free partitions.

Pseudo- code

- 1- Input memory blocks and processes with sizes.
- 2- Initialize all memory blocks as free.
- 3- Start by picking each process and find the minimum block size that can be assigned to current process i.e., find min(bockSize[1], blockSize[2],....blockSize[n]) > processSize[current], if found then assign it to the current process.
- 5- If not then leave that process and keep checking the further processes.

Worst Fit Algorithm

The Worst Fit algorithm assigns a process to the partition that is the largest among the available partitions in the main memory and is sufficient to accommodate the process. If a substantial process occurs at a subsequent step, it may exceed the available memory capacity and be unable to be accommodated.

Pseudo- code

- 1- Input memory blocks and processes with sizes.
- 2- Initialize all memory blocks as free.
- 3- Start by picking each process and find the maximum block size that can be assigned to current process i.e., find max(bockSize[1], blockSize[2],....blockSize[n]) > processSize[current], if found then assign it to the current process.
- 5- If not then leave that process and keep checking the further processes.

Expected Output

Enter the memory blocks size: 150 KB, 350 KB, 500 KB, 250 KB, 600 KB Enter the processes size: 100 KB, 300 KB, 250 KB, 425 KB

First-fit Algorithm
Final allocation left:

Block 1: 50 KB left

Block 2: 50 KB left Block 3: 500 KB left

Block 3: 500 KB left

Block 5: 175 KB left

Best- fit Algorithm

Final allocation left:

Block 1: 50 KB left

Block 2: 50 KB left Block 3: 500 KB left

Block 4: 0 KB left

Block 5: 175 KB left

Worst- fit Algorithm

Final allocation left:

Block 1: 150 KB left

Block 2: 350 KB left

Block 3: 75 KB left

Block 4: 250 KB left

Block 5: 200 KB left

1. A system has the following available memory blocks:

Blocks: 150 KB, 350 KB, 500 KB, 250 KB, 600 KB

Processes: 100 KB, 300 KB, 250 KB, 425 KB

Using the First-Fit allocation algorithm, which process goes into which block?

Calculate the remaining memory in each block after allocation.

2. Suppose a 200 KB process arrives after all previous allocations. Using Best-Fit, where would it be placed?

3. What impact does the Best-Fit algorithm have on fragmentation?

4. Given the following sequence of process requests and memory blocks, analyze the allocations using all three algorithms:

Blocks: 120 KB, 400 KB, 150 KB, 500 KB, 300 KB

Processes: 110 KB, 410 KB, 120 KB, 280 KB, 350 KB

Which algorithm performs the best in this case and why?

5. Compare and contrast First-Fit, Best-Fit, and Worst-Fit in terms of:

Fragmentation (internal and external)

Speed of allocation

Memory utilization efficiency

Viva questions (Memory Management)

- 1. Explain why Best-Fit tends to minimize internal fragmentation but may increase external fragmentation.
- 2. A system is using Worst-Fit allocation, but fragmentation has increased over time. Suggest strategies or algorithms that could be used to reduce fragmentation.
- 3. In real-world operating systems, why might a hybrid approach (combining elements of First-Fit, Best-Fit, and Worst-Fit) be used instead of sticking to a single strategy?

AIM: Write a program to implement reader/writer problem using semaphore.

Introduction

A single dataset is distributed among multiple processes. Once an author is prepared, they proceed to engage in the act of writing. The act of writing is limited to a single writer at any one moment. In the context where a process is engaged in writing, it is not possible for any other process to perform a read operation on the same data. If there is a minimum of one individual engaged in the act of reading, it is not possible for any other process to engage in the act of writing. It is possible for readers to engage in passive consumption of text without actively engaging in the act of writing.

Utilization of semaphores is done to ensure that a reader's access to the vital region is uninterrupted, from the moment they enter until they exit. This is crucial in preventing any interference from writers, which could potentially lead to data inconsistency. A semaphore is employed to enforce mutual exclusion between writers and readers using a shared resource, ensuring that authors are prohibited from accessing the resource while one or more readers are currently accessing it. The concept of priority entails that no reader should have a delay if the share is presently accessible for reading.

Solution is implemented using three variables:

mutex, wrt, and readcnt.

The semaphore mutex is employed to provide mutual exclusion during the update of readent, which occurs when any reader enters or exits the crucial region. The semaphore wrt is utilized by both readers and writers.

The variable "readont" represents the count of processes now engaged in reading within the critical area. Its initial value is set to 0.

The functions pertaining to semaphores are as follows:

- 1. The function wait() is used to decrement the value of a semaphore.
- 2. The function signal() is used to increment the value of a semaphore.

Pseudo- Code

Note:- The signal "wrt" is queued on both readers and writers in a way that gives readers priority if writers are also there. This means that no reader is waiting just because a writer asked to go to the critical part.

Writer's Process

1. The writer asks for entry to the critical area.

- 2. It goes in and writes if it's allowed, which means wait() returns true. It waits if it's not allowed to.
- 3. It leaves the important part.

```
do {
    // writer requests for critical section
    wait(wrt);

    // performs the write

    // leaves the critical section
    signal(wrt);
} while(true);
```

Reader's Process

- 1. The reader asks for the entry to the critical part.
- 2. If it's allowed, it adds one to the number of readers in the critical part. If this reader is the first one to come in, it locks the wrt semaphore so that writers can't come in while readers are already there.
- 3. Then, it tells the mutex that any other reader can come in while others are still reading.
- 4. The program leaves the critical part after reading. It checks to see if there are any more readers inside before leaving and sends the "wrt" semaphore, which means that the writer can now enter the critical area.
- 5. It waits if it's not allowed to.

```
do {
    // Reader wants to enter the critical section
    wait(mutex);

    // The number of readers has now increased by 1
    readcnt++;

    // there is atleast one reader in the critical section
    // this ensure no writer can enter if there is even one reader
    // thus we give preference to readers here
    if (readcnt==1)
        wait(wrt);

    // other readers can enter while this current reader is inside
    // the critical section
    signal(mutex);
```

```
// current reader performs reading here
wait(mutex); // a reader wants to leave

readcnt--;

// that is, no reader is left in the critical section,
if (readcnt == 0)
    signal(wrt); // writers can enter

signal(mutex); // reader leaves
} while(true);
```

Expected Output

When reader and writer are given equal priority

Reader 1 starts reading

Reader 1 finishes reading

Writer 1 starts writing

Writer 1 finishes writing

Reader 2 starts reading

Reader 3 starts reading

Reader 2 finishes reading

Reader 3 finishes reading

Writer 2 starts writing

Writer 2 finishes writing

- 1. What is the difference between the first, second, and third variants of the Readers-Writers problem?
 - (Readers-priority, Writers-priority, Fair solution)
- 2. Write pseudocode for the second Readers-Writers problem (where writers have priority). Ensure mutual exclusion is maintained for both readers and writers.
- 3. Write pseudocode for the fair solution to the Readers-Writers problem where neither readers nor writers are starved.

- 1. What role do semaphores play in solving the Readers-Writers problem?
- 2. Explain the difference between binary semaphores and counting semaphores in the context of the Readers-Writers problem.
- 3. Why do we use multiple semaphores in the Readers-Writers solution?
- 4. Why do we need a semaphore or mutex to protect the read_count variable?
- 5. How would you modify the Readers-Writers solution to ensure fairness between readers and writers?

AIM: Write a program to implement producer-consumer problem using semaphore.

Introduction:

A buffer of a predetermined size is available. A producer has the capability to manufacture a product and afterwards store it within a designated buffer. Consumers have the ability to select and afterwards utilize various things. It is imperative to establish a mechanism wherein the producer is prohibited from placing an item in the buffer simultaneously with the consumer's consumption of any item. The important section in this challenge pertains to the buffer. To solve this problem, pair of counting semaphores is utilized, namely Full and Empty. The variable "Full" is responsible for monitoring the quantity of items currently present in the buffer, whereas the variable "Empty" is responsible for keeping track of the number of slots that are not currently occupied.

Producer:

The number of "empty" goes down by one when the producer makes an item, since one slot is now full. The mutex's value is also lowered so that the user can't get to the buffer. The value of "full" has gone up by 1 now that the producer has put the thing down. The mutex's value also goes up by one because the producer's job is done and the user can now access the buffer.

Consumer: Since the consumer is taking an item out of the buffer, the value of "full" goes down by one and the value of the mutex goes down as well. This means that the creator can't access the buffer right now. The value of "empty" has gone up by 1 since the consumer has used up the thing. The mutex's number has also been raised, which means that the producer can now access the buffer.

Pseudo- code

Shared Variables

```
Semaphore mutex = 1 // Used to ensure mutual exclusion.

Semaphore empty = N // N is the buffer size, initially all slots are empty.

Semaphore full = 0 // Initially, no slots are full.

Buffer buffer[N] // Shared buffer of size N.

int in = 0, out = 0 // Indices to track insertion and removal in the circular buffer.
```

Producer

```
Producer() {
  while (true) {
     int item = produce_item(); // Produce an item.
     wait(empty);
                            // Wait if buffer is full.
     wait(mutex);
                            // Enter critical section.
     buffer[in] = item;
                             // Add the item to the buffer.
     in = (in + 1) \% N;
                             // Update the circular buffer index.
     signal(mutex);
                            // Exit critical section.
     signal(full);
                          // Signal that an item has been added.
  }
}
Consumer
Consumer() {
  while (true) {
     wait(full);
                          // Wait if the buffer is empty.
                            // Enter critical section.
     wait(mutex);
    int item = buffer[out];
                               // Remove an item from the buffer.
     out = (out + 1) \% N;
                               // Update the circular buffer index.
     signal(mutex);
                             // Exit critical section.
     signal(empty);
                             // Signal that a slot in the buffer is now empty.
                                 // Consume the removed item.
    consume item(item);
  }
}
Expected Output
Producers P1 and P2 are generating items.
Consumers C1 and C2 are consuming items.
The buffer size is 5.
Producer P1: Produced item 1
Producer P1: Inserted item 1 into the buffer at position 0
Producer P2: Produced item 2
Producer P2: Inserted item 2 into the buffer at position 1
Consumer C1: Consumed item 1 from buffer position 0
Consumer C2: Consumed item 2 from buffer position 1
Producer P1: Produced item 3
Producer P1: Inserted item 3 into the buffer at position 2
```

Producer P2: Produced item 4

Producer P2: Inserted item 4 into the buffer at position 3

Producer P1: Produced item 5

Producer P1: Inserted item 5 into the buffer at position 4

Producer P2: Produced item 6

Producer P2: Buffer is full, waiting...

Consumer C1: Consumed item 3 from buffer position 2

Consumer C2: Consumed item 4 from buffer position 3

Producer P2: Inserted item 6 into the buffer at position 0

Producer P1: Produced item 7

Producer P1: Inserted item 7 into the buffer at position 1

Consumer C1: Consumed item 5 from buffer position 4

Consumer C2: Consumed item 6 from buffer position 0

Consumer C1: Consumed item 7 from buffer position 1

Producer P2: Produced item 8

Producer P2: Inserted item 8 into the buffer at position 2

- 1. Write the pseudocode for the producer and consumer processes using semaphores for synchronization.
- 2. Modify the pseudocode for the Producer-Consumer Problem to allow multiple producers and multiple consumers accessing the shared buffer.
- 3. How would you modify the Producer-Consumer pseudocode to handle the case where producers and consumers operate at different speeds (e.g., consumers are faster than producers)?
- 4. If the buffer size is 5, write the steps for the following sequence of actions:

Two producers insert items.

One consumer consumes an item.

Two more items are inserted.

One more consumer consumes an item.

5. Explain how a circular buffer is used in the Producer-Consumer Problem and write pseudocode to manage insertion and removal using circular buffer logic.

- 1. How is the Producer-Consumer Problem related to real-world scenarios like message queues, web servers, or file system buffers? Give examples.
- 2. In a real-time system, why is it important to ensure that producers and consumers are properly synchronized? Give an example.
- 3. What would happen if a producer crashes while holding the mutex lock? How can you design the system to recover from such failures?
- 4. Why do we need synchronization mechanisms in the Producer-Consumer Problem?

AIM: Write a program to implement Banker's algorithm for deadlock avoidance.

Introduction

The banker's algorithm is a way to distribute resources and avoid deadlocks. It checks to see if the distribution is safe by simulating it for the maximum amount of all resources that can be used. It then does a "s-state" check to see if there are any activities that could happen before deciding if the distribution should be allowed to continue.

To use the Banker's Algorithm, we require data structures. Let 'n' be the number of processes in the system and 'm' be the number of resource types.

Data structure required are:-

Available

- It's a data structure of type 1D array, size of the structure is m, and it stores how many of each type of resource are available.
- If Available[j] = k, it means that there are 'k' instances of the resource type. Rj

Max

- It is a two-dimensional collection of size 'n*m' that shows how much each process in a system can handle at most.
- Max[i, j] = k means that process Pi can only ask for a certain number of cases of resource type Rj.

Allocation

- It is a two-dimensional collection of size 'n*m' that shows how many of each type of resource is currently assigned to each process.
- If allocation[i, j] = k, it means the process Pi has been given 'k' instances of resource type right now Rj.

Need

- It is a two-dimensional collection of size 'n*m' that shows how many resources that each process still needs.
- If [i, j] = k, the process is done. Pi needs 'k' instances of resource type right now. Rj
- Max [i, j] Allocation [i, j] = Need [i, j]

Note: Allocation lists the resources that are already assigned to process P_i , and Need_i lists the extra resources that process P_i may still need to finish its job.

Pseudo Code

```
finish = [False] * P // Finish[i] = True if process i has finished
  // Safe sequence to store the order of execution
  safeSequence = []
  // Find a process that can finish
  while (True):
     found = False
     for i from 0 to P-1: // P is the number of processes
       // Check if process i can finish
       if (finish[i] == False) and (Need[i] <= work):
          // Simulate allocation of resources
          work = work + Allocation[i] // Update work
          finish[i] = True
                                // Mark process as finished
                                      // Add process to safe sequence
          safeSequence.append(i)
          found = True
    if not found:
       break // No process can finish, exit loop
  // Check if all processes finished
  if all(finish):
     print("System is in a safe state.")
     print("Safe sequence is: " + safeSequence)
     return True
  else:
     print("System is not in a safe state.")
     return False
// Function to request resources
function requestResources(process_id, request):
  // Check if request <= Need
  if request > Need[process_id]:
     print("Error: Process has exceeded its maximum claim.")
    return False
  // Check if request <= Available
  if request > Available:
     print("Process must wait, resources not available.")
    return False
  // Pretend to allocate resources
  Available = Available - request
  Allocation[process id] = Allocation[process id] + request
  Need[process_id] = Need[process_id] - request
  // Check if the new state is safe
  if isSafe():
     return True // Resources allocated
```

```
else:
    // Rollback
     Available = Available + request
     Allocation[process_id] = Allocation[process_id] - request
     Need[process_id] = Need[process_id] + request
     print("Resources cannot be allocated, system not safe.")
     return False
// Main function
function bankersAlgorithm():
  // Initialize Available, Max, and Allocation matrices
  // Call requestResources for the processes as needed
Expected Output
Enter the available resources
Available = [3, 2, 2]
Enter the Max Demand Matrix
Max = [
  [7, 5, 3], // Process P0
  [3, 2, 2], // Process P1
  [9, 0, 2], // Process P2
  [2, 2, 2], // Process P3
  [4, 3, 3] // Process P4
Enter the Allocation Matrix
Allocation = [
  [0, 1, 0], // Process P0
  [2, 0, 0], // Process P1
  [3, 0, 2], // Process P2
  [2, 1, 1], // Process P3
  [0, 0, 2] // Process P4
1
Enter the Need Matrix
Need = [
  [7, 4, 3], // Process P0
  [1, 2, 2], // Process P1
  [6, 0, 0], // Process P2
  [0, 1, 1], // Process P3
  [4, 3, 1] // Process P4
1
Enter the process P1 request:
Request = [1, 0, 2] // P1 requests 1 unit of Resource 0, 0 units of Resource 1, and 2 units of
```

Resource 2

```
After implementing Banker's algorithm:
```

Available = Available - Request = [3, 2, 2] - [1, 0, 2] = [2, 2, 0]

Allocation[P1] = Allocation[P1] + Request = [2, 0, 0] + [1, 0, 2] = [3, 0, 2]

Need[P1] = Need[P1] - Request = [1, 2, 2] - [1, 0, 2] = [0, 2, 0]

1. If the initial Available resources are [3, 2, 2], and the following resources are allocated:

P0: [0, 1, 0]

P1: [2, 0, 0]

P2: [3, 0, 2]

P3: [2, 1, 1]

P4: [0, 0, 2]

What are the Max needs for each process if they all have the same maximum demand of resources as shown in the allocation?

2. What would happen if a process requests more resources than it has declared as its maximum demand?

- 1. If the system is in a safe state with a safe sequence of execution, what happens if a new process arrives that requires resources? How does the Banker's Algorithm handle this situation?
- Describe a real-world scenario where the Banker's Algorithm could be applied effectively.
- 3. Discuss the limitations of the Banker's Algorithm. In what scenarios might it not be feasible to use this algorithm?
- 4. What would happen if a resource request is made after all processes have declared their maximum needs but before they start executing? How should the algorithm respond?

Shell scripting Programs

Q1. Script to sum to nos

```
#
if [ $# -ne 2 ]
then
   echo "Usage - $0 x y"
   echo " Where x and y are two nos for which I will print sum"
   exit 1
fi
   echo "Sum of $1 and $2 is `expr $1 + $2`"
```

Q2. Script to find out biggest number.

```
if [ $# -ne 3 ]
then
       echo "$0: number1 number2 number3 are not given" >&2
  exit 1
n1 = \$1
n2 = $2
n3 = \$3
if [ $n1 -gt $n2 ] && [ $n1 -gt $n3 ]
then
       echo "$n1 is Bigest number"
elif [ $n2 -gt $n1 ] && [ $n2 -gt $n3 ]
then
       echo "$n2 is Bigest number"
elif [ $n3 -gt $n1 ] && [ $n3 -gt $n2 ]
then
  echo "$n3 is Bigest number"
elif [$1 -eq $2] && [$1 -eq $3] && [$2 -eq $3]
then
       echo "All the three numbers are equal"
else
  echo "I can not figure out which number is biger"
fi
```

Q3. Write script to print nos as 5,4,3,2,1 using while loop.

```
i=5
while test $i != 0
do
echo "$i
"
i=`expr $i - 1`
done
#
```

Q.4. Write Script, using case statement to perform basic math operation as follows:

```
+ addition- subtractionx multiplication/ division
```

```
if test $\# = 3
then
         case $2 in
          +) let z=$1+$3;;
          -) let z=$1-$3;;
          /) let z=$1/$3;;
          x|X) let z=$1*$3;;
          *) echo Warning - $2 invalied operator, only +,-,x,/ operator allowed
            exit;;
         esac
         echo Answer is $z
else
         echo "Usage - $0 value1 operator value2"
         echo "
                    Where, value1 and value2 are numeric values"
                         operator can be +,-,/,x (For Multiplication)"
         echo "
fi
```

Q5. Write Script to see current date, time, username, and current directory.

```
echo "Hello, $LOGNAME"
echo "Current date is `date`"
echo "User is `who i am`"
echo "Current direcotry `pwd`"
```

Q6. Write script to print given number in reverse order, for eg. If no is 123 it must print as 321.

```
if [ $# -ne 1 ]
then
  echo "Usage: $0 number"
  echo "
            I will find reverse of given number"
            For eg. $0 123, I will print 321"
  echo "
  exit 1
fi
n=$1
rev=0
sd=0
while [ $n -gt 0 ]
do
  sd=`expr $n % 10`
  rev=`expr $rev \* 10 + $sd`
  n=`expr $n / 10`
done
  echo "Reverse number is $rev"
```

C/C++ Programs

Sample code of banker's algorithm

```
int main()
int Max[10][10], need[10][10], alloc[10][10], avail[10], completed[10], safeSequence[10];
int p, r, i, j, process, count;
count = 0;
printf("Enter the no of processes : ");
scanf("%d", &p);
for(i = 0; i < p; i++)
         completed[i] = 0;
printf("\n\nEnter the no of resources : ");
scanf("%d", &r);
printf("\n\nEnter the Max Matrix for each process : ");
for(i = 0; i < p; i++)
         printf("\nFor process %d: ", i + 1);
         for(j = 0; j < r; j++)
                    scanf("%d", &Max[i][j]);
}
printf("\n\nEnter the allocation for each process : ");
for(i = 0; i < p; i++)
{
         printf("\nFor process %d: ",i + 1);
         for(j = 0; j < r; j++)
                    scanf("%d", &alloc[i][j]);
}
printf("\n\nEnter the Available Resources : ");
for(i = 0; i < r; i++)
                    scanf("%d", &avail[i]);
         for(i = 0; i < p; i++)
                    for(j = 0; j < r; j++)
                              need[i][j] = Max[i][j] - alloc[i][j];
do
         printf("\n Max matrix:\tAllocation matrix:\n");
```

```
for(i = 0; i < p; i++)
                    for(j = 0; j < r; j++)
                              printf("%d ", Max[i][j]);
                    printf("\t'");
                    for(j = 0; j < r; j++)
                              printf("%d ", alloc[i][j]);
                    printf("\n");
          }
         process = -1;
         for(i = 0; i < p; i++)
                    if(completed[i] == 0)//if not completed
                    {
                              process = i;
                              for(j = 0; j < r; j++)
                                        if(avail[j] < need[i][j])</pre>
                                                  process = -1;
                                                  break;
                                        }
                              }
                    if(process !=-1)
                              break;
          }
         if(process != -1)
                    printf("\nProcess %d runs to completion!", process + 1);
                    safeSequence[count] = process + 1;
                    count++;
                    for(j = 0; j < r; j++)
                    {
                              avail[j] += alloc[process][j];
                              alloc[process][j] = 0;
                              Max[process][j] = 0;
                              completed[process] = 1;
                    }
\ while (count != p && process != -1);
if(count == p)
         printf("\nThe system is in a safe state!!\n");
                                                70
```

```
printf("Safe Sequence : < ");</pre>
         for(i = 0; i < p; i++)
                             printf("%d ", safeSequence[i]);
         printf(">\n");
}
else
         printf("\nThe system is in an unsafe state!!");
getch();
         Sample code of two-level directory organization
Q2.
#include<stdio.h>
struct
char dname[10],fname[10][10];
int fcnt;
}dir[10];
void main()
int i,ch,dcnt,k;
char f[30], d[30];
clrscr();
dcnt=0;
while(1)
printf("\n\n 1. Create Directory\t 2. Create File\t 3. Delete File");
printf("\n 4. Search File \t \t 5. Display \t 6. Exit \t Enter your choice -- ");
scanf("%d",&ch);
switch(ch)
case 1: printf("\n Enter name of directory -- ");
scanf("%s", dir[dcnt].dname);
dir[dcnt].fcnt=0;
dcnt++;
printf("Directory created");
case 2: printf("\n Enter name of the directory -- ");
scanf("%s",d);
for(i=0;i<dcnt;i++)
if(strcmp(d,dir[i].dname)==0)
printf("Enter name of the file -- ");
scanf("%s",dir[i].fname[dir[i].fcnt]);
dir[i].fcnt++;
printf("File created");
break;
}
```

```
if(i==dcnt)
printf("Directory %s not found",d);
break;
case 3: printf("\nEnter name of the directory -- ");
scanf("%s",d);
for(i=0;i<dcnt;i++)
if(strcmp(d,dir[i].dname)==0)
printf("Enter name of the file -- ");
scanf("%s",f);
for(k=0;k<dir[i].fcnt;k++)</pre>
if(strcmp(f, dir[i].fname[k])==0)
printf("File %s is deleted ",f);
dir[i].fcnt--;
strcpy(dir[i].fname[k],dir[i].fname[dir[i].fcnt]);
goto jmp;
}
printf("File %s not found",f);
goto jmp;
printf("Directory %s not found",d);
jmp: break;
case 4: printf("\nEnter name of the directory -- ");
scanf("%s",d);
for(i=0;i<dcnt;i++)
if(strcmp(d,dir[i].dname)==0)
printf("Enter the name of the file -- ");
scanf("%s",f);
for(k=0;k<dir[i].fcnt;k++)
if(strcmp(f, dir[i].fname[k]) == 0)
printf("File %s is found ",f);
goto jmp1;
printf("File %s not found",f);
goto jmp1;
```

```
printf("Directory %s not found",d);
jmp1: break;
case 5: if(dcnt==0)
printf("\nNo Directory's ");
else
{
    printf("\nDirectory\tFiles");
    for(i=0;i<dcnt;i++)
{
    printf("\n%s\t\t",dir[i].dname);
    for(k=0;k<dir[i].fcnt;k++)
    printf("\t%s",dir[i].fname[k]);
}
}
break;
default:exit(0);
}}getch();}</pre>
```

8. Complete Set of Viva – Questions

- 1. What is an operating system? What are the functions of the operating system?
- 2. Describe the user's view of the operating system.
- 3. Name two devices that are used as input devices only. Name two devices that are used as output devices only.
- 4. Name at least one device that can be used as an input as well as output device.
- 5. Explain the difference between multi-programming and time sharing.
- 6. When do we say a system is "multi-programming"? When do we say it is an "on-line" system?
- 7. Give an example of an operational environment when the system would have to be both multi-programming and on-line system.
- 8. Explain the difference between platform and environment.
- 9. What are some of the options available in UNIX command ps? Give description of at least two options.
- 10. Give examples of at least two applications which in your opinion are real-time applications. Support your example with appropriate rationale.
- 11. For the file extensions given below indicate the corresponding file type and the usually associated purpose. a. BAT, exe, zip, au b. bin, lib, tex, gif, ar
- 12. Describe the file system organization. Describe how file hierarchy is managed?
- 13. Describe at least three file operations.
- 14. What is the short cut to move up one level from current directory?
- 15. What is the role of an inode?
- 16. What is the difference between a program and a process?
- 17. What is CPU utilization?
- 18. What is the motivation for Multi-programming and Time sharing.
- 19. What is "response time"?
- 20. With the help of a state transition diagram, explain various states of a process.
- 21. What is a zombie process and how it may manifest itself?
- 22. Explain the architecture of the simple operating system employing queue data structures?

- 23. What is the motivation for main memory management?
- 24. What is the impact of fixed partitioning on fragmentation?
- 25. Give the relative advantages and disadvantages of load time dynamic linking and runtime dynamic linking. Differentiate them from static linking.
- 26. Explain the process of linking and loading?
- 27. Give arguments to support variable partitioning for main memory management.
- 28. What is meant by virtual memory? With the help of a block diagram explain the data structures used.
- 29. Describe first-fit and best-fit strategies for disk space allocation, with their merits and demerits.
- 30. What is a page and what is a frame. How are the two related?
- 31. What is swapping? Why does one need to swap areas of memory?
- 32. Discuss virtual memory management scheme. Compare any two page replacement policies
- 33. Explain the software and hardware methods of implementing page lookup tables.
- 34. Explain the concept of buffering? How is the double buffering schem.
- 35. Explain the concepts of spooling.
- 36. How is the information organized along sectors on a disk?
- 37. What is a cylinder? Explain different forms of latencies in a disk using diagrams.
- 38. What is disk scheduling?
- 39. Explain the difference between shortest seek first and the elevator algorithm scheduling.
- 40. Which policy would you recommend for scheduling to retrieve inform disc.
- 41. Give constructional feature of a disk. Explain rotational delay.
- 42. What is mutual exclusion? Depict a scenario where mutual exclusion is required.
- 43. What is a dead-lock? List the necessary conditions for a deadlock to occur.
- 44. Bring out the difference between Deadlock avoidance and deadlock prevention scheme.
- 45. Explain why having multiple copies of a resource does not prevent deadlocks from happening.
- 46. Define the critical section problem and explain the necessary characteristics of a correct solution.
- 47. With the help of the model of resource management, explain the tasks and goals of the resource manager.

- 48. When does deadlock happen? How does Banker's algorithm avoid the deadlock condition?
- 49. Explain critical region and mutual exclusion with respect to produce consumer problem.
- 50. What are semaphores? What are binary semaphores?
- 51. What is the motivation for establishing inter-process communication?
- 52. What are system calls? Explain the system call flow with the help of a block diagram.
- 53. Describe at least three environmental variables that are carried by the child process from the description of parent process.
- 54. Differentiate between different exec system calls.
- 55. What are the limitations of a pipe as an IPC mechanism?
- 56. From point of view of requirements, how is a real-time operating system different from general purpose operating system?
- 57. What is a hard real-time system and how can we differentiate it from a soft real-time system?
- 58. How does a device drive in a RTOS differ from the usual?
- 59. What is a micro-kernel?
- 60. What is an embedded system? Give at least two examples of embedded systems.
- 61. Describe the general strategy to define priority structure in a RTOS.
- 62. How does one determine "schedulability" in RTOS? In which context it is required?
- 63. List all the files in the current directory with names not exceeding two characters.
- 64. What is Kernal? Describe the steps involved in booting.
- 65. Describe how the user and kernel space is divided and used in UNIX operating system.
- 66. What are system calls? Describe any two system calls and the action take calls are made.
- 67. How is the system calls used in application programs?
- 68. Describe the role of a scheduler.
- 69. Explain user interface and process management in UNIX.
- 70. What are the Kernel's responsibilities to facilitate I/O transfer?