Operating System Notes Saket

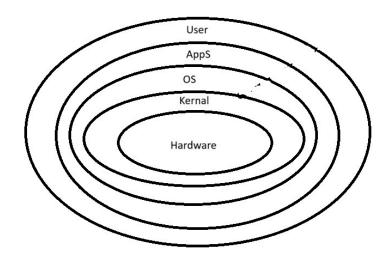
Date: 24-02-2025

Session-1: Introduction to Operating System What is an Operating System (OS)?

An Operating System is system software that manages hardware resources and provides services for application software and users. It acts as an interface between users and the hardware.

Main Functions of an OS:

- Hardware Manager: Manages all hardware resources (CPU, RAM, I/O devices).
- Process Manager: Supervises tasks/processes/jobs being executed by the CPU.
- Memory Manager: Allocates and deallocates memory dynamically.
- Interface Between User & Hardware: Provides a platform for application execution.
- Illustration (From Book Reference)



Feature	Operating System	Application Software
Installation	Installed on hard drive	Installed under OS layer
Execution	Runs directly on hardware	Runs on OS
Purpose	Manages system resources	Performs specific user tasks
Examples	Windows, Linux, macOS	MS Word, VLC, Photoshop

★ Key Point: An application software depends on OS, but OS does not depend on application software.

Booting Process

Booting refers to loading the OS from the hard drive into main memory (RAM).

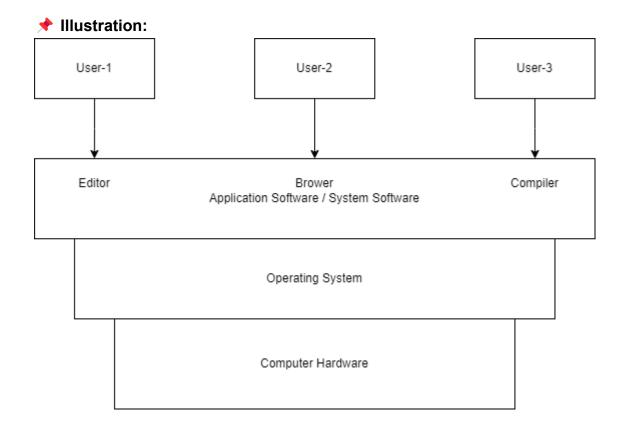
- Types of Booting:
- 1. Cold Booting → Starting the system from a power-off state (Initial OS load).
- 2. Hot Booting → Restarting the system while it's already running (OS reloads into RAM).

Why is an OS Hardware Dependent?

- An OS is hardware-dependent because:
- OS interacts with hardware via **device drivers** specific to each component.
- ☑ Different hardware architectures (x86, ARM, RISC-V) require compatible OS versions.
- Embedded systems require customized OS versions tailored for performance constraints.

Different Components of OS

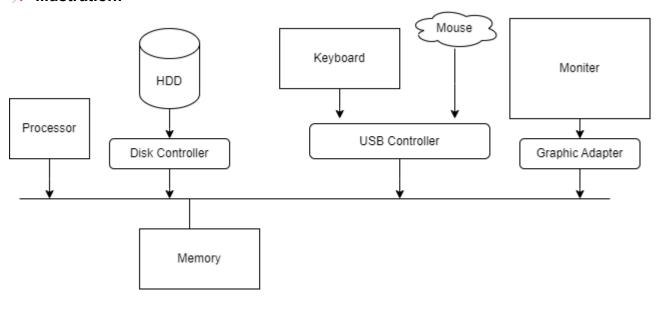
- ★ Major OS Components:
- Kernel → Core system controlling hardware & processes.
- Process Management → Handles CPU scheduling & multitasking.
- Memory Management → Allocates RAM efficiently.
- File System → Manages file storage & retrieval.
- Device Management → Handles I/O devices via drivers.
- Security Management → Protects system data & access control.



Basic Computer Organization Required for OS

- **★** System Components:
- CPU → Executes instructions.
- **▼ RAM** → Stores active processes.
- ✓ Storage (HDD/SSD) → Stores OS & programs.
- ✓ I/O Devices → Keyboard, Mouse, Monitor, Printers.

★ Illustration:



Examples of Well-Known Operating Systems

★ Types of OS & Examples:

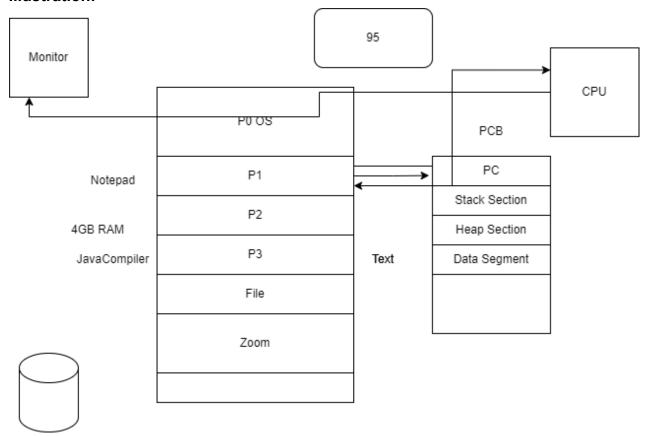
Category	Examples	Description
Mobile OS	Android, iOS	Designed for smartphones & tablets
Embedded OS	FreeRTOS, VxWorks	Used in IoT & real-time devices
Real-Time OS (RTOS)	HRT, SRT	Used for mission-critical systems
Desktop OS	Windows, macOS, Chrome OS	General-purpose computing
Server OS	Ubuntu Server, CentOS, Windows Server	Manages network services & databases

★ To-Do: "How are these OS types different from each other?"

Functions of an OS

- **★** Core OS Functionalities:
- Process Management
- Handles CPU scheduling (e.g., FCFS, SJF, Round Robin).
- Ensures smooth multitasking.

Illustration:



Memory Management

- Allocates memory to processes dynamically.
- Uses paging & segmentation.

Device Management

Manages hardware devices via device drivers.

Disk Management

Organizes data using file systems (NTFS, FAT32, ext4).

Security Management

• Includes firewalls, antivirus, authentication.

Topics for Tomorrow:

★ Upcoming Topics:

- User & Kernel Space
- Interrupts & System Calls
- Memory Hierarchy in Computers

Session-2: Introduction to Linux

What is Linux?

- **Linux is an open-source OS**, meaning its source code is available for modification.
- Developed by Linus Torvalds in 1991.
- Backed by an open-source community for continuous updates.

Features of Linux

- No Cost / Low Cost → Free to use.
- Multi-Tasking → Supports multiple processes at once.
- Security → Built-in permissions & encryption.
- Customizable → Users can modify kernel & utilities.
- Multi-User → Supports multiple users on the same system.
- Better File System → Supports ext4, XFS, Btrfs.
- CLI & GUI Support → Terminal-based & graphical interfaces.

Linux File System Hierarchy

★ Directory Structure in Linux:

Directory	Description
/	Root directory (Base of the filesystem)
/bin	Contains user binaries (e.g., ls, cp, mv)
/sbin	Stores system binaries (e.g., fdisk, fsck)
/etc	Contains configuration files (e.g., passwd , hosts)
/dev	Stores device files (e.g., /dev/sda for disks)
/proc	Holds process info (e.g., /proc/cpuinfo)
/var	Stores log & cache files
/tmp	Temporary files (Deleted on reboot)
/usr	User-related files & programs

Directory	Description
/home	User home directories (/home/user1)
/log	Stores system logs (May vary across distributions)

Basic Linux Commands

★ File & Directory Commands:

```
    ls → List files & directories
```

- cd <dir> → Change directory
- rm <file> → Remove a file
- rmdir <dir> → Remove a directory

Operators in Linux:

Here are your **OS Notes – Day 2 (Session 1)** without revision content:

OS Notes - Day 2

Date: 26-02-2025

Session 1

OS Introduction and Basic Functions User and Kernel Space & Mode

Definition:

User Space: Runs user applications with restricted access to hardware.

Kernel Space: Executes OS services and device drivers with full system access.

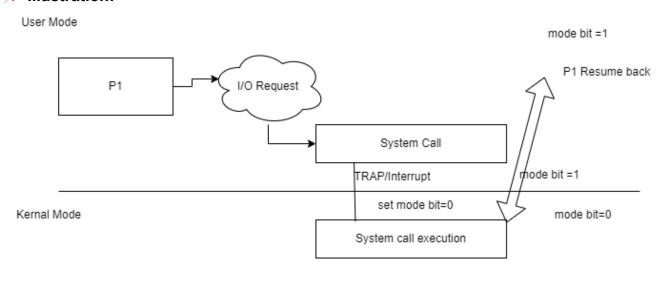
★ Modes:

- User Mode:
 - Runs normal applications (text editors, browsers, media players).
 - Cannot directly access hardware resources.

Kernel Mode:

- Runs OS core functions, device drivers, and memory management.
- Has **full privileges** over CPU, memory, and hardware.

★ Illustration:



Interrupts and System Calls

★ Interrupts:

Interrupts pause CPU execution to handle critical events (e.g., keyboard input, disk I/O).

System Calls:

System calls act as a bridge between user applications and the OS kernel.

★ Types of System Calls:

Category	System Calls	Description
File Management	<pre>open(), close(), read(), write(), delete()</pre>	Operations on files
Process Control	<pre>fork(), wait(), exec(), exit()</pre>	Process creation and execution
Device Management	<pre>ioctl() , read() , write()</pre>	Communicate with hardware devices
Information Retrieval	<pre>getpid(), sysinfo()</pre>	Retrieve system data

Category	System Calls	Description
IPC (Inter-Process Communication)	<pre>wait(), notify()</pre>	Process communication

Example:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <unistd.h>
int main() {
    printf("Process ID: %d\n", getpid()); // Get process ID using system call
    return 0;
}
```

Types of Operating Systems

★ Major OS Types:

Туре	Description	Example
Batch OS	Executes jobs in batches, no user interaction	IBM OS/360
Multiprogramming OS	Runs multiple processes simultaneously	UNIX
Multitasking OS	Allows multiple applications to run at the same time	Windows, macOS
Multiprocessing OS	Uses multiple CPUs for parallel execution	Linux, Unix
Clustered OS	Manages multiple computers as one system	Google Cloud OS
Distributed OS	Spreads processing tasks across networked computers	Amoeba OS
Embedded OS	Runs on specialized devices (low resource usage)	FreeRTOS, QNX

Mam RAM CPU OS P1 P2 CPU1 CPU3

Process Management

Definition:

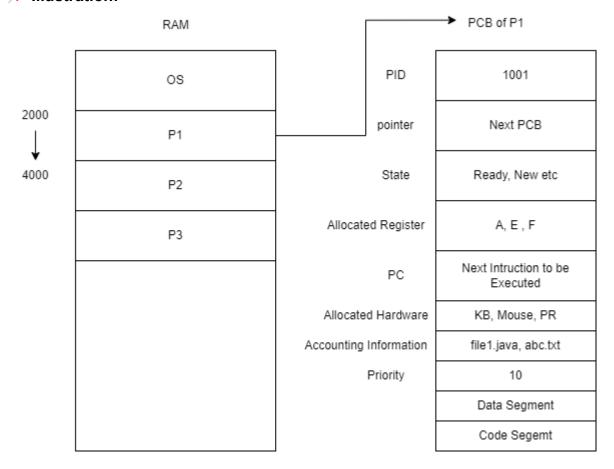
A process is a program loaded into RAM for execution.

- ★ Process Types:
- Preemptive Process: Can be interrupted and resumed later.
- Non-Preemptive Process: Runs without interruption until completion.
- ★ Process Control Block (PCB):

Each process has a **PCB** storing:

- Process ID
- ✓ State (Ready, Running, Blocked, etc.)
- Program Counter
- CPU Registers

† Illustration:

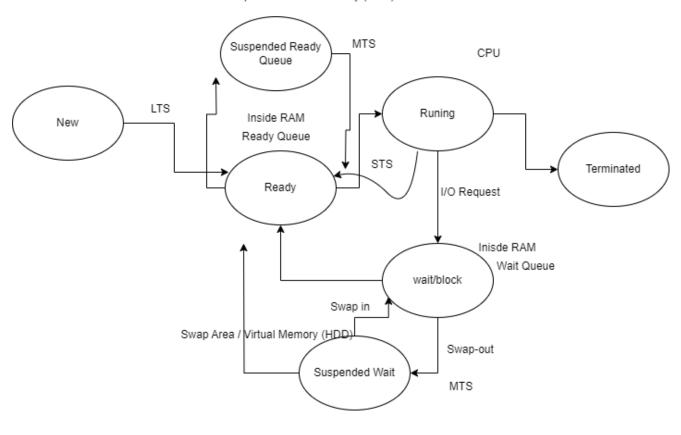


Process Life Cycle

- **★** Five States of a Process:
- **1 New** → Process is created.
- **2 Ready** → Waiting for CPU allocation.
- **3 Running** → Currently executing instructions.
- Blocked → Waiting for I/O completion.
- **5 Terminated** → Process execution finishes.

Illustration:

Swap Area / Virtual Memory (HDD)



Schedulers & Scheduling Algorithms

* Schedulers:

- **Short-Term Scheduler** → Selects process for CPU execution.
- Medium-Term Scheduler → Swaps processes between RAM and disk.
- Long-Term Scheduler → Controls which processes enter the system.

Scheduling Algorithms:

FCFS (First Come First Serve):

- Executes processes in order of arrival.
- Non-preemptive (Once started, it runs until completion).

Illustration:

PID	Arrival Time	Burst Time	Response Time	Waiting Time	TAT			
P1	0	4	0	0	4			
P2	1	6	4	3	9			
P3	2	2	10	8	10			
P4	3	8	12	9	17			
P5	4	10	20	16	26			
			Avg RT	Avg WT	Avg TAT			
		C	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	
		Gantt Chart	0	4	10	12	20	30
		FCFS						

Schedulers & Scheduling Algorithms – Detailed Explanation

Schedulers and scheduling algorithms are **essential for process management** in an operating system. They determine **which process gets the CPU and for how long**, ensuring efficient execution of multiple processes.

What is a Scheduler?

A **scheduler** is a system component that manages **process execution** by selecting which process runs next. The OS contains **three types of schedulers**, each responsible for different stages of process execution.

★ Three Types of Schedulers:

Scheduler	Function	Affects Which States?	Frequency of Execution
Long-Term Scheduler (Job Scheduler)	Decides which processes enter the ready queue from the new state	New → Ready	Low (Seconds/Minutes)
Short-Term Scheduler (CPU Scheduler)	Selects which process runs on the CPU next	Ready → Running	Very High (Milliseconds)
Medium-Term Scheduler (Swapper)	Swaps processes in and out of RAM to optimize memory usage	Running/Blocked → Suspended	Medium (Seconds)

1. Long-Term Scheduler (Job Scheduler)

- Function: Controls which processes are admitted into the system for execution.
- Key Role: Regulates the degree of multiprogramming (number of processes in memory).
- If Too Many Processes: System may slow down due to overloaded memory.
- If Too Few Processes: CPU remains idle, leading to poor resource utilization.
- Example: A user starts multiple programs (browser, video player, text editor). The OS
 decides which ones enter RAM based on availability.

Effect on Process Life Cycle:

New → Ready (Moves selected processes to memory).

2. Short-Term Scheduler (CPU Scheduler)

- Function: Decides which process gets CPU time from the ready queue.
- Key Role: Ensures that processes execute efficiently.
- Executes Frequently: Runs every few milliseconds to switch processes rapidly.
- **Example:** If you're playing music while using a web browser, the CPU scheduler **switches tasks** between them rapidly, making it seem like both run simultaneously.

Effect on Process Life Cycle:

- Ready → Running (Selects process for CPU execution).
- Running → Ready (If preempted, moves back to ready queue).

3. Medium-Term Scheduler (Swapper)

- Function: Swaps processes between RAM and disk to manage memory efficiently.
- Key Role: Helps free up RAM when memory is full.
- Example: If a background process (e.g., a minimized browser tab) is inactive, the OS moves it to the swap area on disk. It gets restored when needed.

Effect on Process Life Cycle:

- Running/Blocked → Suspended (Moves process to disk).
- Suspended → Ready (Brings it back when memory is available).

What is a Scheduling Algorithm?

A scheduling algorithm determines how the CPU is assigned to processes in the ready queue.

- → Objectives of CPU Scheduling:
- Maximize CPU Utilization → Keep CPU busy.
- **✓ Minimize Waiting Time** → Reduce time spent **waiting** in the ready queue.
- **✓ Minimize Turnaround Time** → Shorten total process execution time.
- ✓ Ensure Fairness → Every process gets CPU time.
- Scheduling Algorithms are divided into:
- Non-Preemptive: Once a process starts executing, it cannot be interrupted until it finishes.
- Preemptive: A process can be interrupted and moved back to the ready queue if a higher-priority process arrives.

CPU Scheduling Algorithms (With Examples & Diagrams)

1. First Come, First Serve (FCFS) – Non-Preemptive

- Processes are scheduled based on arrival time (FIFO First In, First Out).
- **Disadvantage:** Causes **convoy effect** a short job waits for a long job to finish.

📌 Example:

Process	Arrival Time (AT)	Burst Time (BT)	Completion Time (CT)	Turnaround Time (TAT)	Waiting Time (WT)
P1	0	8	8	8 - 0 = 8	0
P2	1	4	12	12 - 1 = 11	8 - 1 = 7
P3	2	9	21	21 - 2 = 19	12 - 2 = 10

Gantt Chart:

```
1 | P1 | P2 | P3 |
2 0 8 12 21
```

2. Shortest Job First (SJF) – Preemptive & Non-Preemptive

- Selects the process with the shortest burst time.
- Preemptive SJF (Shortest Remaining Time First SRTF) allows process preemption.
- Example (Non-Preemptive SJF):

Process	Arrival Time	Burst Time	Completion Time	Turnaround Time	Waiting Time
P1	0	8	8	8	0
P2	1	4	12	11	7
P3	2	9	21	19	10

★ Gantt Chart:

```
1  | P2 | P1 | P3 |
2  1  5  13  22
```

★ Avg Waiting Time (AWT) = 5.67 ms

3. Priority Scheduling – Preemptive & Non-Preemptive

- Assigns a priority to each process; the CPU selects the highest priority process.
- Preemptive Priority Scheduling: If a higher-priority process arrives, it interrupts the current process.
- **★** Example (Lower number = Higher priority):

Process	Arrival Time	Burst Time	Priority	Completion Time	Turnaround Time	Waiting Time
P1	0	8	2	8	8	0
P2	1	4	1	5	4	0
P3	2	9	3	21	19	10

★ Gantt Chart:

★ Avg Waiting Time (AWT) = 3.33 ms

4. Round Robin (RR) – Preemptive

- Each process gets a fixed time slice (Time Quantum).
- If a process doesn't finish within the time slice, it goes back to the queue.
- **★** Example (Time Quantum = 4 ms):

Process	Arrival Time	Burst Time	Completion Time	Turnaround Time	Waiting Time
P1	0	8	16	16	8
P2	1	4	5	4	0
P3	2	9	21	19	10

★ Gantt Chart:

```
1  | P1 | P2 | P3 | P1 | P3 |
2  0  4  8  12  16  21
```

Avg Waiting Time (AWT) = 6 ms

Here's a **detailed explanation** of your **Linux Notes – Day 2**, expanding on key concepts, commands, and shell scripting.

Session 2

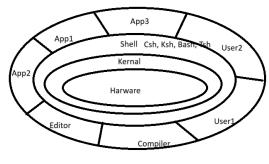
Linux and Useful Commands



- ★ Linux is an open-source operating system, meaning its source code is freely available for modification and distribution.
- Founder: Linus Torvalds (1991)
- Community-driven: Updated and maintained by an open-source community.

★ Features of Linux

- √ No Cost / Low Cost → Available for free, reducing software costs.
- ✓ Multi-Tasking → Runs multiple applications simultaneously.
- ✓ Security → User permissions, encryption, and firewalls for secure computing.
- ✓ **Multi-User Support** → Supports multiple users at the same time.
- √ Stable & Scalable → Used in servers, desktops, and embedded devices.
- ✓ Networking → Efficient networking capabilities, making it ideal for servers.
- ✓ CLI & GUI → Supports command-line (CLI) and graphical user interface (GUI).
- ✓ Better File System → Supports ext4, XFS, Btrfs, ZFS (better than FAT32/NTFS).
- **★** Illustration Linux System Architecture:



Layered Archi of Unix/Linux OS

Linux File System Basics

★ Linux follows a hierarchical directory structure starting from / (root).

Directory	Description
/	Root directory (Base of the filesystem)
/bin	User binary files (e.g., ls, cp, mv)
/sbin	System binary files (for admin tasks)

Directory	Description				
/etc	Configuration files for system settings				
/dev	Stores device files (e.g., /dev/sda for disks)				
/proc	Virtual directory for process information				
/var	Stores logs, caches, and variable files				
/tmp	Temporary files (deleted on reboot)				
/usr	User-related programs and libraries				
/home	User home directories (/home/user1)				
/boot	Bootloader files for starting Linux				
/opt	Optional software packages				
/lib	System libraries required for OS functionality				

Important Linux Commands

Linux is primarily controlled via the **command line (CLI)**.

File & Directory Management Commands:

- pwd → Print the current working directory.
- Is → List files and directories.
- \vee nano <file> \rightarrow Open the nano text editor.
- \checkmark touch <file> \rightarrow Create a **new file**.
- ✓ mkdir <dir> → Create a new directory.
- \vee rm <file> \rightarrow Remove a **file**.
- rmdir <dir> → Remove an empty directory.
- cd <dir> → Change the current directory.
- \checkmark chmod 755 file \rightarrow Change file permissions.
- ightharpoonup change file ownership.

Illustration:

Linux command Format



Example: cat abc.txt -n

What is a Shell in Linux?

- ★ The Shell is an interface between the user and the Linux kernel.
- ✓ It takes user commands, interprets them, and sends them to the OS for execution.
- √ Users can interact with the shell via terminal commands or shell scripts.
- ★ Types of Shells in Linux:

Shell Type	Path	Description
Bourne Shell (sh)	/bin/sh	The original Unix shell
Bash (Bourne Again Shell)	/bin/bash	Most commonly used default Linux shell
Restricted Bash (rbash)	/bin/rbash	A limited version of Bash
Dash	/bin/dash	A lightweight shell , faster than Bash
Tmux	/usr/bin/tmux	A terminal multiplexer
Screen	/usr/bin/screen	Allows multiple terminal sessions

★ Shell Variables

- **★** Shell variables store values for use in scripts.
- ✓ Can store strings, numbers, and command outputs.
- √ No need to specify variable types.

* Example:

```
1 X=100  # Assigns 100 to variable X
2 Y="Linux"  # Assigns "Linux" to variable Y
3
4 echo $X  # Prints 100
5 echo $Y  # Prints Linux
```

Reading Input in Shell Scripts:

```
1  echo "Enter your name:"
2  read name
3  echo "Hello, $name!"
```

Printing Output:

♦ Operators in Linux

Redirection Operators (>, >>, <)</p>

Used to redirect input/output.

```
√ > → Overwrites a file
```

- $\checkmark >> \rightarrow$ Appends to a file
- ✓ < → Takes input from a file</p>

* Example:

```
1 echo "Hello World" > file.txt # Creates file.txt and writes "Hello
World"
2 echo "Another Line" >> file.txt # Appends "Another Line" to file.txt
3 cat < file.txt # Reads contents of file.txt</pre>
```

Pipe Operator (|)

- ★ Used to pass output of one command as input to another.
- * Example:

```
cat file.txt | grep "error" # Finds "error" in file.txt
ls -l | less # Displays long list format in a paginated view
```

★ File Permissions & Access Control

- ★ Linux assigns three types of permissions to each file:
- Read (r) → View file contents.
- Write (w) → Modify file contents.
- **Execute** (x) → Run the file as a program.
- ★ File Permission Representation:

```
1 -rwxr-xr-- 1 user group 4096 Feb 25 10:00 file.txt
```

Breakdown of Permissions:

Symbol	Owner	Group	Others
rwx	Read, Write, Execute	Read, Execute	Read

Changing File Permissions:

```
chmod 755 file.txt # Owner: rwx, Group: r-x, Others: r-x
chmod 644 file.txt # Owner: rw-, Group: r--, Others: r--
```

Changing File Ownership:

```
chown user:group file.txt # Assigns ownership to user and group
```

★ Shell Programming Basics

★ Shell scripts automate repetitive tasks in Linux.

Conditional Statements (if-else)

```
if [ $X -gt 10 ]
then
echo "X is greater than 10"
else
echo "X is 10 or less"
fi
```

Loops in Shell Scripts

For Loop

```
for i in 1 2 3 4 5
do
echo "Iteration $i"
done
```

While Loop

```
1  X=1
2  while [ $X -le 5 ]
3  do
4   echo "Loop iteration: $X"
5   X=$((X + 1))
```

★ To Be Discussed Tomorrow Evening (27-02-2025)

- Advanced Linux Topics:
- Advanced Operators (Redirection, Pipe, etc.)
- File Permissions & Access Control Lists
- More Shell Programming Wildcards, Regular Expressions
- Command Line Arguments in Shell Scripts
- Decision Loops (if-else, case, while, for, until)
- Arithmetic Expressions & Shell Scripting Examples

OS Notes - Day 3

m Date: 27-02-2025

session 1

Memory Hierarchy - Detailed Explanation

★ What is Memory Hierarchy?

Memory hierarchy is the **structured arrangement of memory components** in a computer system, organized to **optimize speed, cost, and capacity**.

📌 Key Idea:

- Faster memories are expensive & small, while slower memories are cheaper & large.
- Frequently used data is stored in faster memory (Registers, Cache).
- Less frequently used data is stored in slower memory (RAM, Disk).
- Illustration of Memory Hierarchy:

```
Registers | (Inside CPU, Fastest, Smallest) |
| Cache (L1, L2, L3) | (Fast, Stores Recent Data) |
| Main Memory (RAM) | (Larger but Slower) |
| Secondary Storage | (Hard Drive, SSD, Persistent) |
| Tertiary Storage | (Cloud, Magnetic Tape) |
| Slower Access, Higher Capacity, Lower Cost
```

Levels of Memory Hierarchy

Registers (Fastest, Inside CPU)

✓ Location: Inside the CPU.

√ Characteristics:

- Fastest memory, directly accessible by the CPU.
- Limited number (usually 32 or 64 registers per CPU).
- Stores temporary data for arithmetic/logical operations.

✓ Use: Holds the operands and results of CPU instructions.

Example:

• When executing A + B, values of A and B are stored in registers for guick addition.

Cache Memory (High-Speed Buffer)

- ✓ Purpose: Acts as a bridge between CPU and RAM to reduce access time.
- √ Types of Cache:
 - L1 (Level 1) Cache → Fastest but smallest, located inside the CPU core.
 - L2 (Level 2) Cache → Larger than L1, but slightly slower.
 - L3 (Level 3) Cache → Shared among multiple CPU cores, improves multitasking.
 ✓ Characteristics:
 - Stores frequently accessed data to reduce memory access time.
 - Works based on locality principles:
 - Temporal Locality: Recently used data is likely to be used again soon.
 - Spatial Locality: Data near recently used data is likely to be accessed soon.

* Example:

 If a program frequently accesses an array, cache stores nearby elements to speed up access.

Main Memory (RAM - Random Access Memory)

✓ Purpose: Stores active processes and data for quick CPU access.

√ Characteristics:

- Larger capacity than Cache, but slower.
- Volatile (Data lost when power is off).

✓ Use: Holds running programs, operating system, and frequently accessed data.

* Example:

 When opening an application (e.g., MS Word), it is loaded from disk into RAM for faster access.

Secondary Storage (Hard Drive & SSDs)

- ✓ Purpose: Permanent storage for files, programs, and the OS.
- ✓ Examples: Hard Disk Drives (HDDs), Solid-State Drives (SSDs).
- √ Characteristics:
 - Non-volatile (Retains data after shutdown).
 - Much larger capacity than RAM.
 - Slower than RAM but cheaper per GB.

📌 Example:

 When you save a file, it is written to the hard disk instead of RAM for long-term storage.

📌 Comparison: HDD vs. SSD

Feature	HDD (Hard Disk Drive)	SSD (Solid-State Drive)
Speed	Slower	Much Faster
Durability	Less Durable (Moving Parts)	More Durable (No Moving Parts)
Cost	Cheaper per GB	More Expensive per GB

Tertiary/External Storage

- ✓ Purpose: Backup, Archival, and Rarely Accessed Data.
- ✓ Examples: Magnetic Tape, Optical Discs (CD/DVD), Cloud Storage.
- √ Characteristics:
 - Very high capacity, but slowest access speed.
 - Used for long-term storage or disaster recovery.

* Example:

- Magnetic tapes store archived data in large data centers.
- Cloud storage (Google Drive, Dropbox) allows off-site backups.

★ Key Takeaways

- Speed vs. Cost Trade-off:
 - Faster memory = More expensive, Smaller size.
- Slower memory = Cheaper, Larger capacity.
- Why Use a Hierarchy?
 - Registers are limited, so we use Cache.
 - Cache is expensive, so we use RAM.
 - RAM is volatile, so we use HDD/SSD.
 - HDD/SSD is slow, so we use Cache again.
- Locality Principles:
- Temporal Locality: If data is used once, it is likely to be used again soon.
- Spatial Locality: If data at a memory location is accessed, nearby memory locations are likely to be accessed next.

★ Real-World Analogy: Memory Hierarchy as a Kitchen Setup

Imagine a chef cooking in a kitchen:

Memory Level	Kitchen Equivalent	Speed
Registers	Ingredients in chef's hands	
Cache Memory	Ingredients on the kitchen counter	Very Fast
RAM (Main Memory)	Ingredients in the fridge	∳ Fast
Hard Drive (HDD/SSD)	Ingredients in a grocery store	
Tertiary Storage (Backup)	Ingredients stored in a warehouse	Slowest

★ Key Idea: The chef uses the fastest and closest memory (Registers & Cache) most often, while accessing the fridge (RAM) or store (HDD) only when necessary.

Process Scheduling Algorithms

Process Scheduling Algorithms – Detailed Explanation

Process scheduling algorithms determine which process the CPU executes next from the ready queue. The goal is to optimize CPU utilization, minimize waiting time, and improve system responsiveness.

★ 1. Shortest Job First (SJF) Scheduling

★ Definition:

- The CPU selects the process with the smallest execution time (CPU burst) first.
- Goal: Minimizes average waiting time, making it the optimal algorithm in ideal conditions.
- Key Characteristics:
- Best average waiting time if all processes arrive at the same time.
- ✓ Works well for batch systems where CPU burst times are known.
- X Starvation Issue: Longer processes may wait indefinitely if shorter jobs keep arriving.
- ★ Two Types of SJF:

Non-Preemptive SJF

- Once a process starts execution, it runs until completion (No interruptions).
- Use Case: Best for batch systems with predictable CPU bursts.

★ Example – Non-Preemptive SJF:

Process	Arrival Time (AT)	Burst Time (BT)	Completion Time (CT)	Turnaround Time (TAT = CT - AT)	Waiting Time (WT = TAT - BT)
P1	0	8	8	8 - 0 = 8	0
P2	1	4	12	12 - 1 = 11	7
P3	2	9	21	21 - 2 = 19	10

★ Gantt Chart for Non-Preemptive SJF:

```
1  | P2  | P1  | P3  |
2  0  4  12  21
```

★ Avg Waiting Time (AWT) = (0+7+10)/3 = 5.67 ms

★ Illustration:

PID	Arrival Time	Burst Time	Response Time	Waiting Time	TAT		
P1	0	4	5	5	9		
P2	0	2	0	0	2		
P3	0	6	9	9	15		
P4	0	3	2	2	5		
			P2	P4	P1	P3	
		Gantt Chart	0	2	5	9	15
					4	8.5	

Preemptive SJF (Shortest Remaining Time First - SRTF)

- A new process can preempt the current running process if it has a shorter burst time.
- Use Case: Best for time-sharing or interactive systems.

★ Example – Preemptive SJF (SRTF):

Process	Arrival Time	Burst Time	Completion Time	Turnaround Time	Waiting Time
P1	0	8	13	13	5
P2	1	4	5	4	0
P3	2	9	21	19	10

Gantt Chart for Preemptive SJF (SRTF):

```
1  | P2 | P1 | P3 |
2  1  5  13  21
```

Avg Waiting Time (AWT) = 5.67 ms

★ Illustration:

PID	Arrival Time	Burst Time	2nd Second	3rd Second			Response Time	Waiting Time	TAT
P1	0	4	3	3			0	2	6
P2	0	5	5	5			6	6	11
P3	1	2	1	0			1	0	2
P4	2	9	9	9			11	9	18
	SJF with Prem								
		Gantt Chart		P3	Р3	P1	P2	P4	
		Gantt Chart	0	1	2	3	6	11	20

2. Priority Scheduling

★ Definition:

- Each process is assigned a priority, and the CPU selects the highest-priority process first.
- Priority can be static (fixed) or dynamic (changes over time).
- ★ Key Characteristics:
- Ensures important tasks run first (e.g., real-time OS).
- Used in scheduling system processes.
- X Starvation Issue: Low-priority processes may never execute.
- Solution: Aging (gradually increasing priority of waiting processes).
- Two Types of Priority Scheduling:

Preemptive Priority Scheduling

- A higher-priority process can interrupt a lower-priority running process.
- Use Case: Real-time systems (e.g., medical monitoring, airline systems).

Non-Preemptive Priority Scheduling

- A running process is not interrupted, even if a higher-priority process arrives.
- Use Case: Suitable for batch systems where tasks must finish once started.

Example – Priority Scheduling:

Process	Arrival Time	Burst Time	Priority	Completion Time	Turnaround Time	Waiting Time
P1	0	8	2	8	8	0
P2	1	4	1	5	4	0
P3	2	9	3	21	19	10

Gantt Chart for Priority Scheduling:

```
| P2 | P1 | P3 |
    5
1
          13
               22
```

Avg Waiting Time (AWT) = 3.33 ms

★ Illustration:

PID	Arrival Time	Priority	Burst Time	Response Time	Waiting Time	TAT			
P1	0	7	4	0	10	14			
P2	0	5	6	14	14	20			
P3	1	2	7	20	19	26			
P4	2	10	10	2	0	10			
	Duitanika	C	P1	P1	P4	P1	P2	P3	
	Priority	Gantt Chart	0	1	2	12	14	20	27

📌 3. Round Robin (RR) Scheduling

Definition:

- Each process gets a fixed time slice (Time Quantum).
- If a process doesn't finish within its time slice, it is moved to the back of the queue.
- Used in multi-user and time-sharing systems.

- ★ Key Characteristics:
- Fair Scheduling: Every process gets CPU time.
- Good for interactive systems.
- Ensures no process is starved.
- X Too small a quantum = Too many context switches (overhead).
- X Too large a quantum = Behaves like FCFS.
- ★ Example Round Robin (Time Quantum = 4 ms):

Process	Arrival Time	Burst Time	Completion Time	Turnaround Time	Waiting Time
P1	0	8	16	16	8
P2	1	4	5	4	0
P3	2	9	21	19	10

★ Gantt Chart for Round Robin (Time Quantum = 4):

```
1  | P1 | P2 | P3 | P1 | P3 |
2  0  4  8  12  16  21
```

- ★ Avg Waiting Time (AWT) = 6 ms
- **†** Illustration:

PID	Arrival Time	Burst Time	Response Tim	ne Waiting Time		TAT		u= 2ms						
P1	0	4	0	6		10								
P2	0	6	2	10		16								
P3	0	2	4	4		6								
P4	0	10	6	12		22								
		Gantt Chart	P1	P2	P3	P4	P1	P2	P4	P2	P4	P4	P4	
		Gantt Chart	0	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22

Impact of Reduced Quantum in Round Robin

If time quantum is too small, processes are switched too frequently, causing high context-switching overhead.

Example with Reduced Quantum:

PID	Arrival Time	Burst Time	Response Time	Waiting Time		TAT		u= 2ms						
P1	0	4	0	6		10								
P2	0	5	2	10		15								
P3	0	2	4	4		6								
P4	0	10	6	11		21								
									•					
			P1	P2	P3	P4	P1	P2	P4	P2	P4	P4	P4	
		Gantt Chart	0	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	15	17	19	21

★ Summary of Scheduling Algorithms

Algorithm	Preemptive?	Optimal Waiting Time?	Starvation Risk?	Best For
FCFS	× No	× No	Yes (Long jobs delay short jobs)	Simple batch processing
SJF (Non- Preemptive)	× No	✓ Yes	Yes (Starvation of long jobs)	Ideal if burst time is known
SJF (Preemptive - SRTF)	✓ Yes	✓ Yes	✓ Yes	Best for multitasking
Priority (Non- Preemptive)	× No	× No	✓ Yes	Used in critical systems
Priority (Preemptive)	✓ Yes	× No	✓ Yes	Real-time OS (e.g., medical systems)
Round Robin (RR)	✓ Yes	× No	× No	Time-sharing systems

★ Key Takeaways

- ✓ SJF minimizes average waiting time but causes starvation.
- ✓ Priority Scheduling ensures important tasks run first but can cause starvation.
- ✓ Round Robin guarantees fairness but depends on quantum size.
- √ Choosing the best algorithm depends on system requirements.

Memory Hierarchy

→ Definition: A structured arrangement of different storage types in a computer system, balancing **speed**, **cost**, **and capacity**.

Levels of Memory Hierarchy

Memory Level	Characteristics	Speed	Size
Registers	Inside the CPU, extremely fast, very limited in size		◆ Smallest
Cache Memory (L1, L2, L3)	Holds frequently accessed data to speed up processing	✓ Very Fast	◆ Small
Main Memory (RAM)	Stores actively used data & programs	∳ Fast	◆ Moderate
Secondary Storage (HDD/SSD)	Long-term storage (disk-based)	<u>∡</u> Slower	◆ Large
Tertiary Storage (Tape, Optical Disks)	Used for backup & archives	Slowest	Very Large

★ Key Takeaways:

- √ Speed vs. Cost Trade-off → Faster memory is more expensive per bit.
- √ Locality Principle:
 - Temporal Locality → Recently accessed data is likely to be used again.
 - Spatial Locality → Nearby data is likely to be accessed soon.

★ Linux Useful Commands & Shell Scripting

Shell Scripting – Decision Loops

★ If-Else Statement

```
if [ condition ]
then
statement
else
statement
fi
```

🖈 Example:

```
1  echo "Enter a number:"
2  read num
3  if [ $num -eq 5 ]
4  then
5   echo "Number is 5"
6  else
7  echo "Number is not 5"
8  fi
```

★ 2 Nested If-Else

```
1 if [ condition ]
2
   then
    if [ condition ]
3
      then
5
           statement
6
      else
7
           statement
      fi
8
    else
      if [ condition ]
10
11
      then
12
           statement
      fi
13
14 fi
```

* Example:

```
echo "Enter three numbers:"
2 read num1 num2 num3
    if [ $num1 -gt $num2 ]
3
4
    then
5
        if [ $num1 -gt $num3 ]
        then
6
           echo "$num1 is the largest"
7
8
            echo "$num3 is the largest"
9
10
        fi
11
        if [ $num2 -gt $num3 ]
12
        then
13
            echo "$num2 is the largest"
14
15
        else
16
            echo "$num3 is the largest"
       fi
17
   fi
18
```

Loops in Shell Scripting

★ 1 For Loop (Repeats code **n times**)

```
for variable in value1 value2 value3
do
echo $variable
done
```

* Example:

```
for num in 1 2 3 4 5
do
echo "Number: $num"
done
```

***** Example with Sum Calculation:

```
1   sum=0
2   for num in 1 2 3 4 5
3   do
4      sum=$((sum + num))
5   done
6   echo "Sum is: $sum"
```