

2026

CS 332

Subject 2

NJIT

A white curved line that starts under the 'N' and sweeps upwards and to the right, ending under the 'T'.

New Jersey's Science &
Technology University

THE EDGE IN KNOWLEDGE

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The yellowish/brownish notes are copyright the textbook author.

The bluish notes are copyright the instructor and are add-ons and provide more explanation or additional details



Module 1

*Operating
Systems:
Internals
and Design
Principles*

Chapter 2

Operating System Overview

Ninth Edition
By William Stallings

Operating System

- A program that controls the execution of application programs
- An interface between applications and hardware

Main objectives of an OS:

- Convenience
- Efficiency
- Ability to evolve

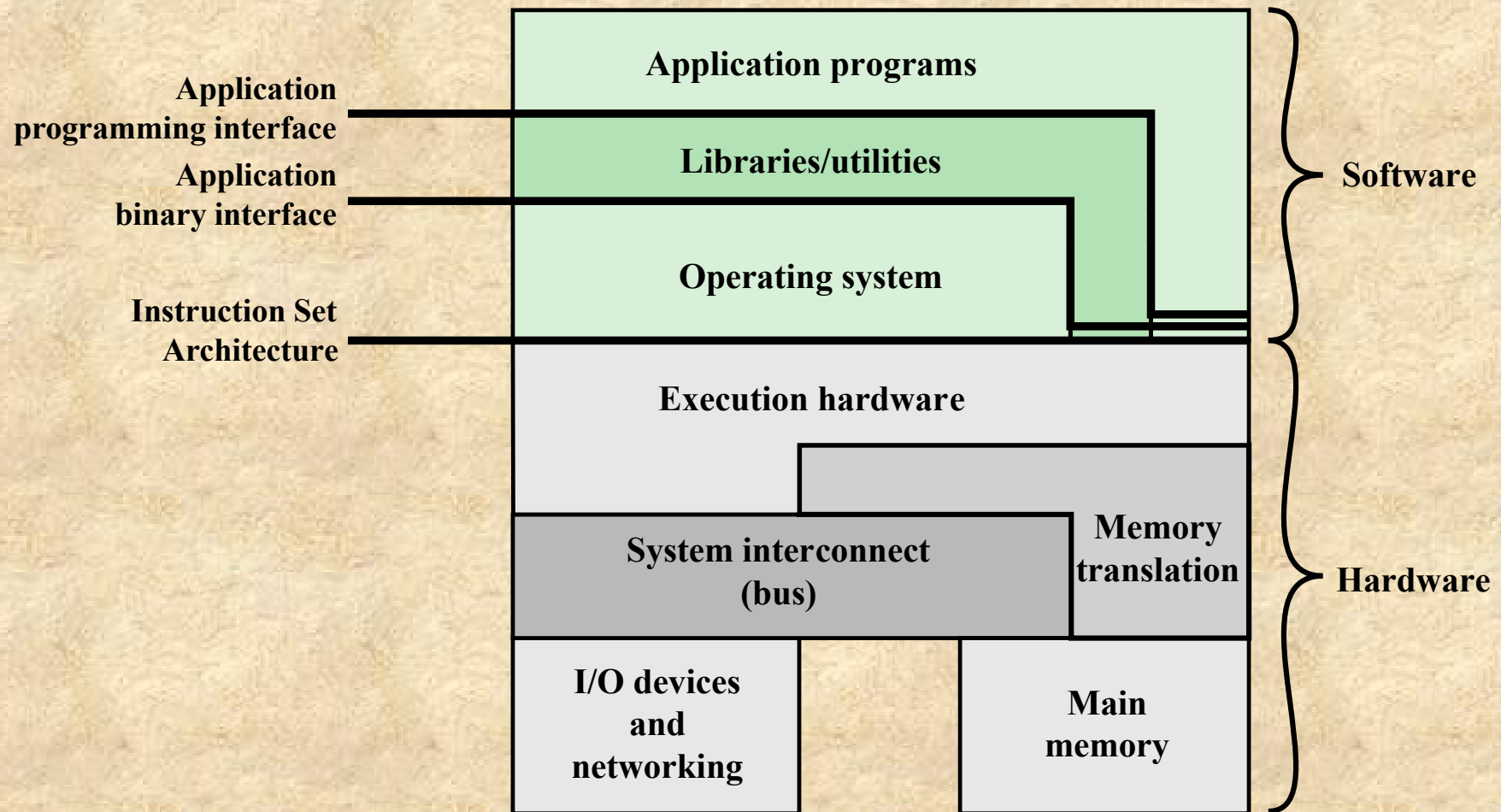


Figure 2.1 Computer Hardware and Software Structure

Operating System Services

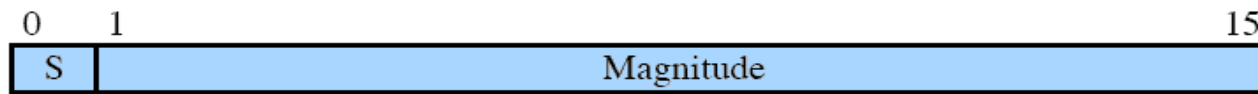
- Program development
- Program execution
- Access I/O devices
- Controlled access to files
- System access
- Error detection and response
- Accounting

Key Interfaces

- Instruction set architecture (ISA)
- Application binary interface (ABI)
- Application programming interface (API)



(a) Instruction format



(b) Integer format

Program counter (PC) = Address of instruction
Instruction register (IR) = Instruction being executed
Accumulator (AC) = Temporary storage

(c) Internal CPU registers

0001 = Load AC from memory
0010 = Store AC to memory
0101 = Add to AC from memory

(d) Partial list of opcodes

Figure 1.3 Characteristics of a Hypothetical Machine



ABI: How to call functions , which registers to use

ABI: Parameter passing through registers

ABI: Parameter passing through stack

```
int f(int x, int y, int z) {  
    int b,c;  
    ...  
}
```



For example FILE I/O in Unix/Linux

lseek

creat

open

close

read

write

Run programs

fork

exec

The Operating System as Resource Manager

- The OS is responsible for controlling the use of a computer's resources, such as I/O, main and secondary memory, and processor execution time

Evolution of Operating Systems

- A major OS will evolve over time for a number of reasons:

Hardware upgrades

New types of hardware

New services

Fixes



Monitor Program:
(Resident Program):

A main memory resident program that is a primitive form of an operating system that always is in main memory. Originally it was the interrupt handling routine (interrupt monitor)
The term was used in the early era of computing

OS: The development of the original monitor program into what is known as an operating system

Kernel: The part of OS most frequently-used (including its data structures) that stays in (main) memory all the time

An early OS (Monitor) was by default a kernel as it was always memory **resident**

Example 1: The Linux OS consists of the Linux Kernel plus other components that are part of the Linux Operating System.

Example 2: The Android OS consists of the Linux Kernel plus other services that are unique into what is known as Android.



Monolithic Kernel: A single kernel containing all kernel functionality

Microkernel: Many smaller kernels providing the services of a monolithic kernel; each microkernel providing through system calls specific OS services in kernel space (def on next slide).

Example 1. Mach OS was/had a microkernel. Apple OS was based on the Mach OS

Example 2. Windows NT was also based on Mach OS but provided Windows functionality

Example 3. Windows 10 is not a microkernel...

Example 4. Linux's kernel is a monolithic kernel. (Linux has some modularity with its kernel module though.)



Privileged instructions or code:

- (a) system function (calls) : eg printf, cout, println
- (b) kernel code
- (c) interrupt activity
- (d) I/O device drive code (sensitive code)
- etc

AND their DATA (includes registers)

utilize special memory area that is
privileged (protected) space and known as

monitor space

system space

kernel space

Such code is executed in

privileged mode

also known as

monitor mode, system mode, or

kernel mode

i.e. privileged execution involved and CPU is in
privileged mode (Intel uses the term ring level to
describe it with privileged mode being ring level 0 or
lower)

**Kernel stack is used for function calls and function
variables**

Unprivileged instructions or code

- (a) User function (calls)

or in general any instruction or code that is
NOT privileged,

utilize regular memory area that is

unprivileged (unprotected) space and known as
user space

Such code is executed in

unprivileged mode

also known as

user mode

CPU is in user mode during that execution
(Intel ring level 3)

**User stack is used for user function calls and user
function variables**



Subject 1 type of context switch(es)

User Program A		to	Interrupt Handling Code
	and		
Interrupt Handling Code		to	User Program A

Subject 2 type of context switch

includes Subject 1 type of context switches i.e.

and it is more general

User Program A (user mode)	to	OS (system mode)
OS (system mode)	to	User Program A or B (user mode)

In general context switches involve mode switches

user mode	to	system mode
system mode	to	user mode

Example: ABC is CPU execution of three user programs (task or jobs) A, B and C.
 This actually means
 OS->A->OS->B->OS->C->OS a minimal of six context switches.
 If A is doing I/O for example more context switches are there because of I/O (interrupts)



```
myfunction()           //User program
    FILE *fp;          //user mode
    fp = fopen("myfile","rw"); //user mode ; user stack
    ....
}
FILE *fopen(...) {     // System Function Call
    KernelModeSwitch    // switch into kernel mode
    Retrieve user data  // register or user stack copied
    return value in a register / to kernel stack
    say AC ( Intel's AX) // still in kernel mode
    UserModeSwitch      // switch into user mode
    return              // user mode; ready to use
}                       // user stack
```

When the `fopen("myfile","rw")` line is executed in the user program the parameters "myfile" and "rw" are pushed into the user stack along with address of fp (return value) and the address of the next instruction in user program

Next the user program CALLS the address of fopen and alerts OS for a privileged instruction invocation.

Kernel/OS takes over until execution is complete, and then do we enter user mode (by the Kernel/OS that releases the privileged execution).

Types of context switches so far

Subject 1: User Program A to Interrupt(i.e. OS), and Interrupt (i.e. OS) to User Program A

Subject 2: See above or

User Program A to OS, and OS (other than Interrupt) to User Program A
 or

User Program A to OS, and OS to User Program B (later in Subject 2)



Job, Program, Task:
Code:

To be used interchangeably to mean same thing. But
Part of a program or the source code that generates an executable program or component of.

Program:

A (user) computer program in executable (machine code) form (eg payroll program). Short for executable program. Resides on disk

Task:

A (computer) program along with input files required to perform a certain task.

(eg payroll program plus data files to generate payroll for a given period)

Job:

Implies the use of a Job Control Language (JCL), a modern day script language, to describe for example how source code of program is to be compiled or how resulting machine code (executable) is to be used with data files to perform a task or both (aka script)

Tasks and Job

We might say a Job consists of multiple tasks!



Program:

Resides on disk. OS does not know about it.

Program in execution:

Resides in main memory (all or some parts of it) and OS(kernel) knows about it.

It is described by text+data + register file (of current execution) aka program state plus all the info available to the kernel re the program in execution.

Will be defined as '**process**' later on.

Long term scheduler: (Job scheduler)

Picks a program from SM and move it to MM to execute it. Available in Batched systems, MultiProgramming and Timesharing systems.

Short term scheduler: (CPU dispatcher)

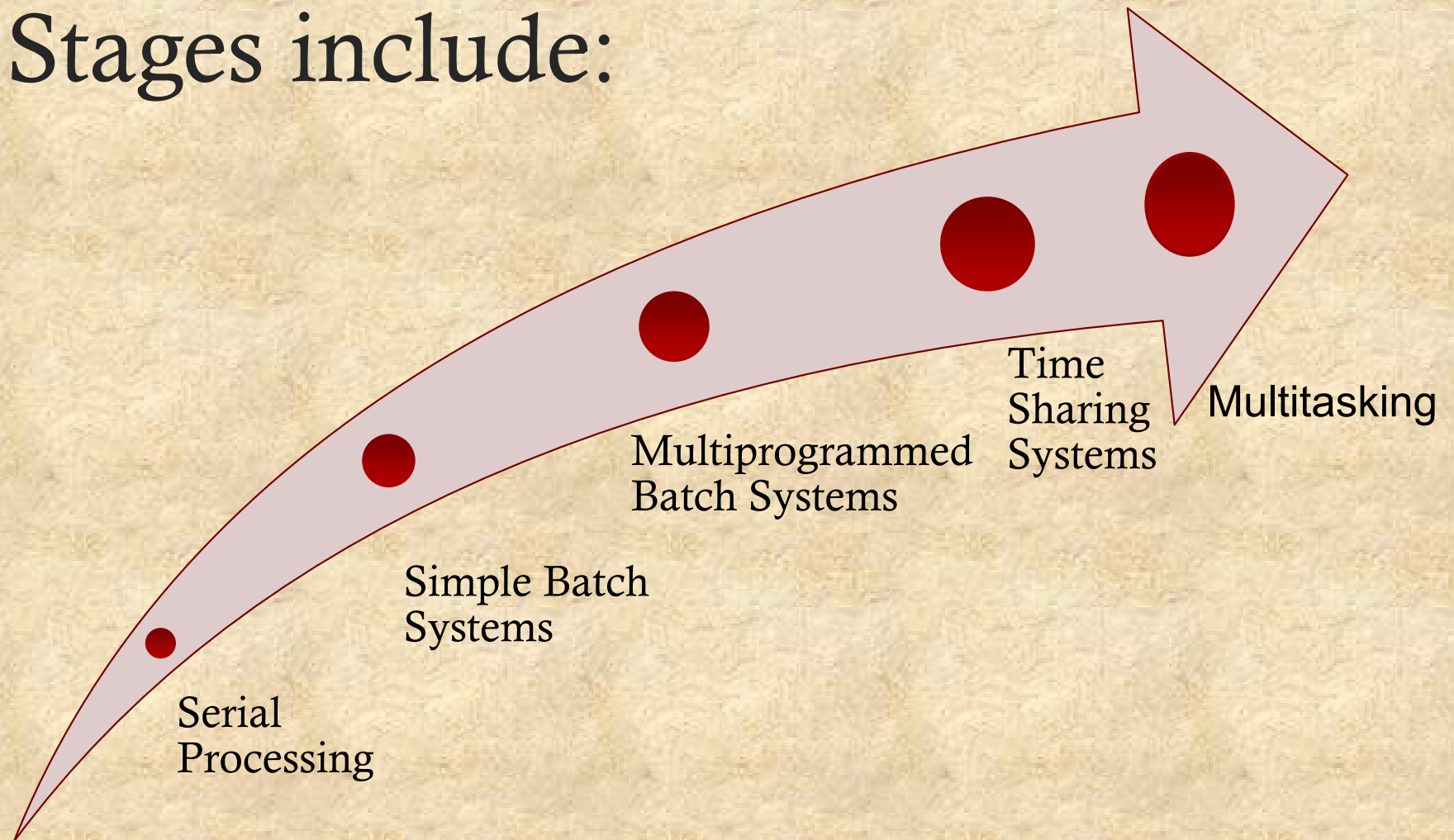
Picks a program in execution (process) and run it on the CPU next. Used in multiprogramming and time sharing and multitasking. Increasing complexity from former to latter.



Arrival time:	Time a program/job/etc arrives in a computer system/CPU and becomes a process!
Start time:	Time CPU starts executing an instruction of process
Finish(Completion) time:	Time it completes all of its execution (CPU and I/O)
Turnaround time(T_r):	Amount of time a job is in the system $T_r = \text{CompletionTime} - \text{ArrivalTime}$
Note:	ArrivalTime is not necessarily $t=0$. Watch out!
Response time:	Time by CPU to respond to program/job/etc since arrival $\text{ResponseTime} = \text{Start time} - \text{Arrival time}$
Service time (CPU time):	Amount of time a job is to use the CPU
I/O time:	Amount of time a job is waiting for I/O
Execution time:	Amount of time a job has used the CPU so far. $\text{Execution time} \leq \text{Service time}$
Mean Turnaround Time: (MTT)	Average T_r for all jobs/tasks/etc involved.
CPU utilization:	Percent of time CPU is busy executing a program/job/task
Throughput:	Number of job completed in a unit of time
CPU-bound job:	Job is using primarily the CPU
I/O-bound job:	Job is doing primarily I/O

Evolution of Operating Systems

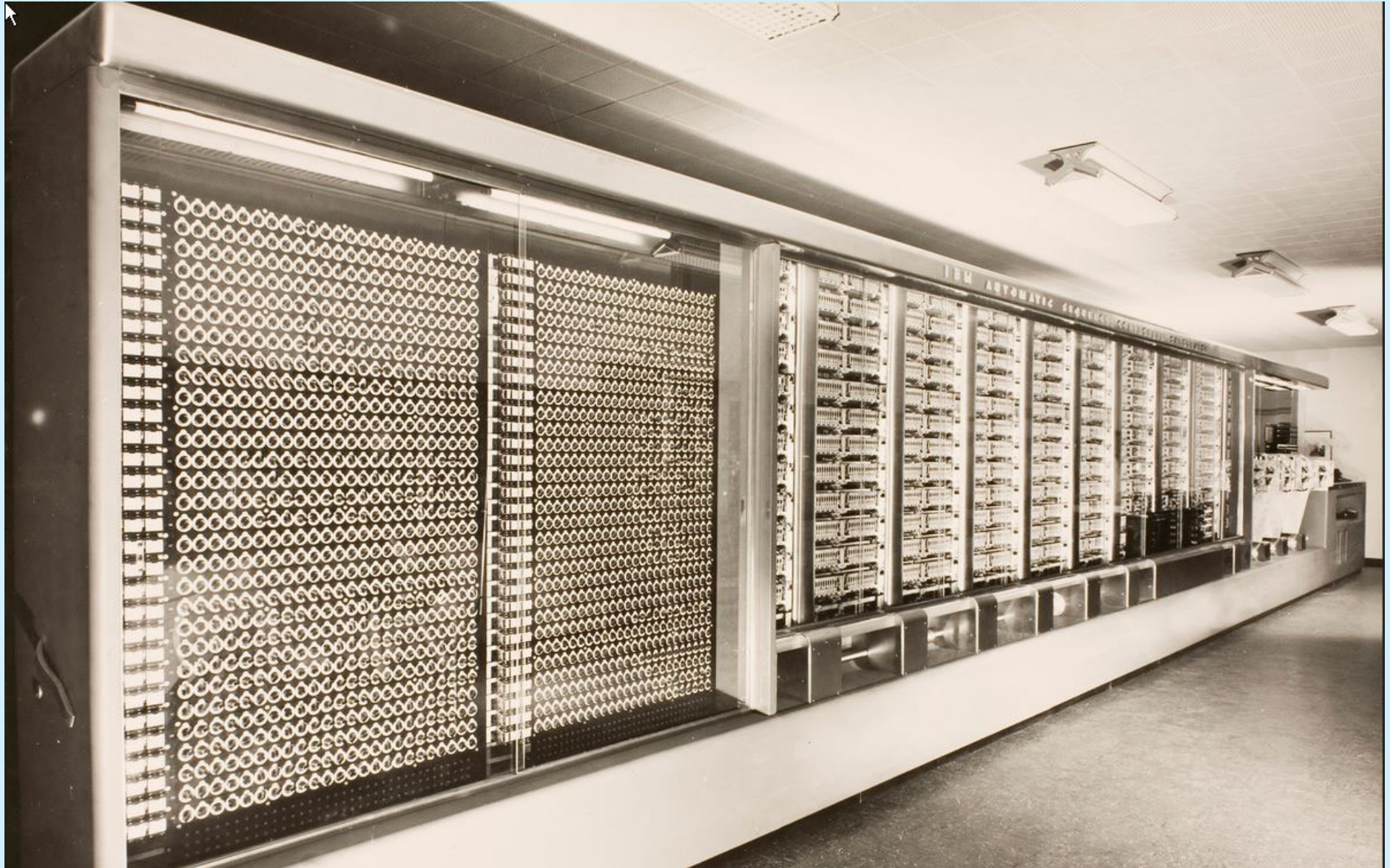
- Stages include:



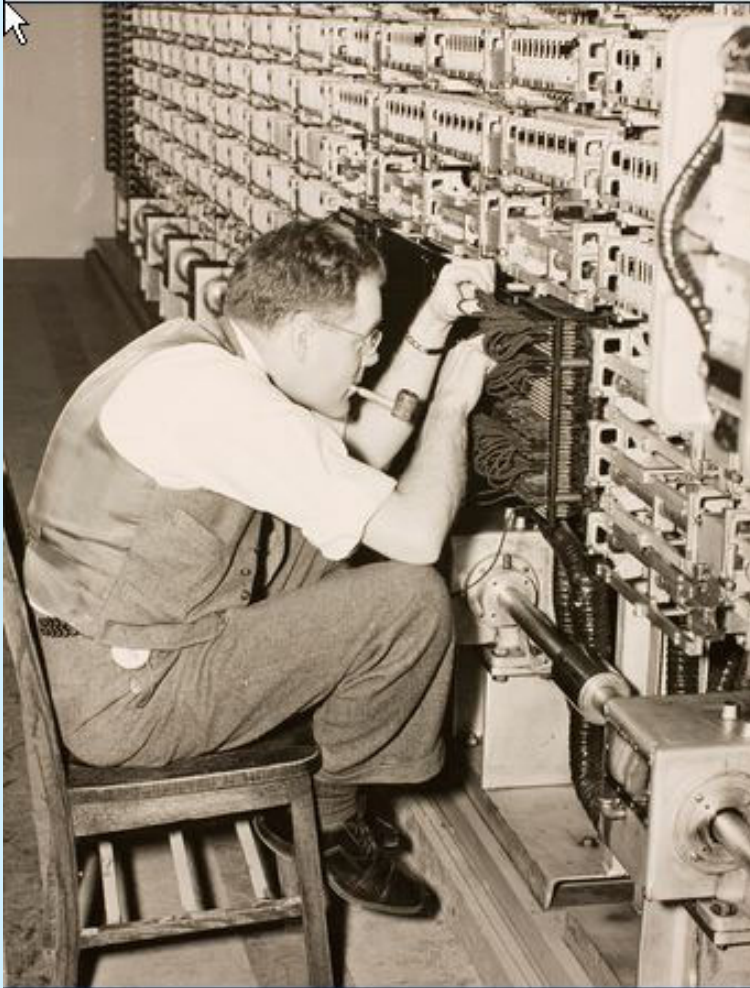
Harvard Mark I (1944)



 sites.harvard.edu/~chsi/markone/crew.html



 sites.harvard.edu/~chsi/markone/crew.html



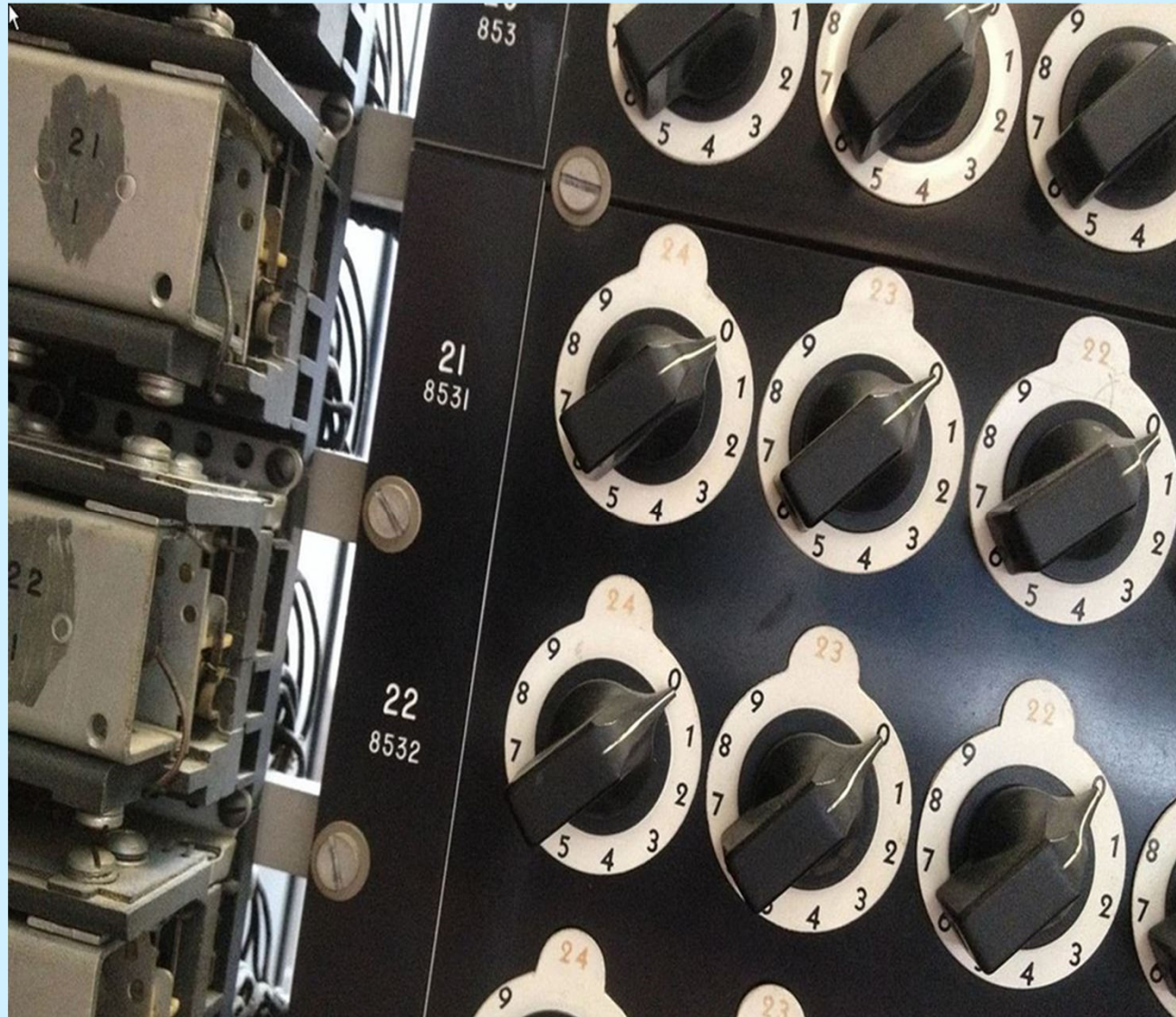
Harvard Mark I

Grace Murray Hopper (seated, second from right) and Howard Aiken (seated, centre), along with other members of the Bureau of Ordnance Computation Project, in front of the Harvard Mark I computer at Harvard University, 1944.

U.S. Department of Defense

Debugging ?

Havard Mark I : I/ of I/O





1. Serial Processing

Serial Processing

Earliest Computers:

- No operating system
 - Programmers interacted directly with the computer hardware
- Computers ran from a console with display lights, toggle switches, some form of input device, and a printer
- Users have access to the computer in “series”

Problems:

- Scheduling:
 - Most installations used a hardcopy sign-up sheet to reserve computer time
 - Time allocations could run short or long, resulting in wasted computer time
- Setup time
 - A considerable amount of time was spent on setting up the program to run

1. Serial Processing



Serial processing or Serial computing (or UniProgramming):

A user or job has exclusive access to a computer system and all of its resources.

SerialProcessing-1 (by hand 1940s-1950s).

Have: Nothing (bare metal)

Programmer is Sysadmin. Goes into room (reservation 9am to 10am) and spends time to load data (eg 30 + 30 rows of Harvard Mark I). Code is in the form of punched paper. When done with 60 numbers, programmer executes program by pressing a button.

Output through a telegraphic printer (long narrow paper i.e. one long line of output) slow and blocks CPU (programmed I/O also known as blocked I/O) or inspection of memory!

Most of the time wasted in computer preparation.

(In Harvard Mark I only data in main memory ; program was in punched tape.)

Computer idle time: ~1hour because of preparation

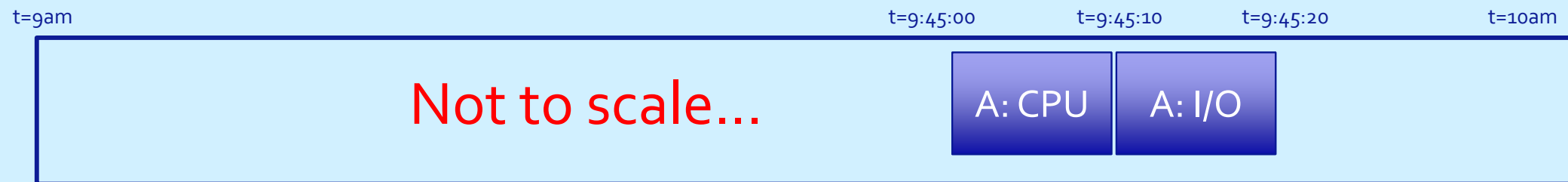


SerialProcessing-1: User A books system 9-10am. **Have: nothing but computer**
Program A is 10s CPU, 10s I/O;

CPU utilization: $10s/1hr = 10s/3600s \sim 0\%$

Throughput: 1job/hour

No need to deal with turnaround time





SerialProcessing-2 (by punch cards to CPU directly). Have: Punch cards

Programmer prepares program in punched cards and also the program!

(Von-Neumann architecture now or maybe.)

Submits cards to a SysAdmin who feeds cards into a punch card reader that initializes computer accordingly. Execution follows.

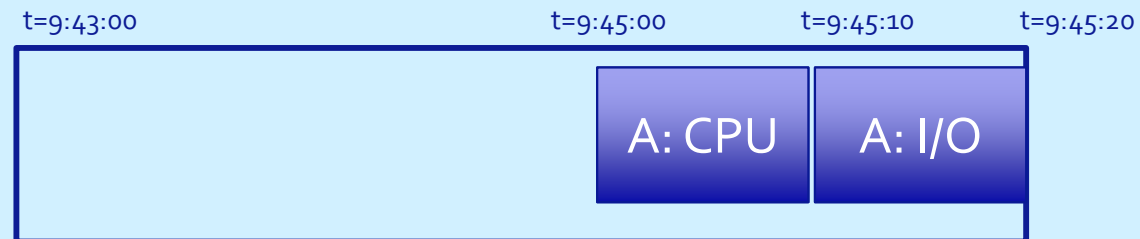
Computer idle time: Several minutes to read punched cards (I/O) and set computer.



SerialProcessing-2: User A arrives at 9:43:00 sharp and gives immediately punched cards and paper to Assistant sysadmin. Computer on standby. Assistant takes cards to computer room and feeds them into computer. Processing starts at 9:45:00. (Appointment time was 9:43:00)
Program A is 10s CPU, 10s I/O.

CPU utilization: $10s / 2min + 20s = 10s / 140 \sim 8\%$

Throughput: $\sim 20 \text{ job/hour}$





SerialProcessing-3.

Have: Punch cards, SM (HDD or Tape)

Programmer prepares data and program

(a) in punched cards (binary code aka executable aka exec)

or

(b) in punched card have source code in in a higher-level language
(eg assembly, then Fortran, then Cobol)

or

(c) submits a tape with the exec as in case (a) or code as in case (b).

Eventually exec gets transferred into a magnetic tape drive (or HDD). [It is possible that a (separate) computer will compile+assemble source code into exec then into Tape or HDD.] (Main) computer might be busy with other programs.

Sysadmin, when (Main) computer gets idle, transfers program from (HDD, Tape) into MM.

Exec program is brought into main memory in ~10s (tape drive) or 0.2s (1960s HDD).

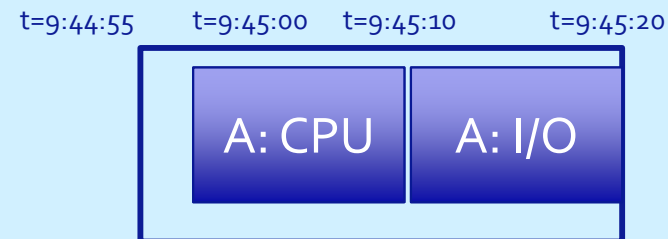
Computer idle time: few to no more than one second because of data transfer



SerialProcessing-3: Arrival time of user is irrelevant. Loading of the exec from SM(tape drive or HDD) into the CPU is relevant. In 1950s to 1960s it could take from one sec (HDD) to a couple of seconds(tape drive) depending on exec size

CPU utilization: $10s/25 = 40\%$

Throughput: $\sim 144 \text{ job/hour}$





SerialProcessing-5 : Modern day view, primitive OS style.

Two programs A and B are to use a computer

A is 10s CPU and 10s I/O afterwards

B is 10s CPU only.

Arrival times $t=0s$ for A and B (arrival time usage fluid)

Schedule : A B

A in system 0-20s; B in system 20-30s

$Tr(A)=20s$ $Tr(B)=30s$; $Tr(<A,B>) = 30s$

MTT : $(20+30)/2 = 25s$



Schedule : B A

B in system 0-10s; A in system 10-30s

$Tr(A)=30s$ $Tr(B)=10s$ $Tr(<B,A>)=30s$

MTT : $(30+10)/2 = 20s$



CPU utilization (either schedule) : $20s/30s = 66\%$

Throughput (either schedule) : 2jobs/30s or 4 jobs/minute or 240jobs/hour



1. CPU utilization in previous example stale at 66%
2. A runs then B or B runs then A are only possibilities.
3. No matter what CPU (processor) utilization stays at 66%

**Next evolution: B uses CPU while A is doing I/O
(multiprogramming)**

Multiprogramming would be facilitated by

Batch systems (processing)

Requirements: A primitive OS (monitor) in addition to interrupt handling

Next: Batch systems



2. Simple Batch Systems

Simple Batch Systems

- Early computers were very expensive
 - Important to maximize processor utilization
- Monitor
 - User no longer has direct access to processor
 - Job is submitted to computer operator who batches them together and places them on an input device
 - Program branches back to the monitor when finished

Simple Batch System support (by an OS, by the CPU architecture, by Interrupts) will make the gap small or negligible...



Batch Systems Narrative

Computers are expensive but CPU (Processor utilization) is low in early computers

Several programs (of the same or multiple users) arrive at the same time (in punch cards, or tapes)

Computer has the ability to store programs in SecondaryM (SM), supports interrupts and interrupt handling and in later years has enough main memory to store in MM several programs.

A job control language is available (primitive scripting language) and Computer's 'Monitor Program' (primitive OS) can do elementary sequencing (which program to run from a batch of programs)

Objective: **Improve Turnaround time and Throughput**



Batch Systems Narrative

JOB CONTROL LANGUAGE (JCL)

Direct Exec Input form

```
user      tom
time      10h/month
CPU       20s
program A
start text 5000
Line 1
...
Line 32: Last instruction
end text
start data at 6000
2
3
0
remaining 57 value 0
end data
```

Source code Input form

```
user tom
time 10h/month
CPU 60s
program B
start assembly PC=7000
LOAD AC, 8000
ADD AC, 8001
STORE AC, 8002
end assembly
start data address-value
8000 2
8001 3
8002 0
remaining 57 value 0
end data
```

Job Control Language (JCL)

Special type of programming language used to provide instructions to the monitor



What compiler to use



What data to use



Batch Systems Support

OS:	Rudimentary OS available in the form of a Monitor (the computer)		
Separation of Space:			
Monitor Space	for Monitor Program (e.g. address space 0-4999)		
User space	for User program (e.g address space 5000 and higher for one or more)		

Separation of Execution

Monitor Space code execution in	monitor mode	(privileged)
User Space code execution in	user mode	(unprivileged)

Long Term Scheduler (Job Scheduler)

Does Job Sequencing: Which program to bring into MM from SM

Loader (plays also role of CPU Dispatcher)

Load program from SM into MM on direction by Long Term Scheduler

Sequencing functionality

Long term Scheduler + Loader functionality

Job Control Language interpreter

Separate punch cards' text , data , etc from JCL commands

Other (later years)

Assembler to convert assembly into executable (e.g. program B)

Compiler to convert source code (Fortran, Cobol) into executable

Monitor Point of View

- Monitor controls the sequence of events
- *Resident Monitor* is software always in memory
- Monitor reads in job and gives control
- Job returns control to monitor

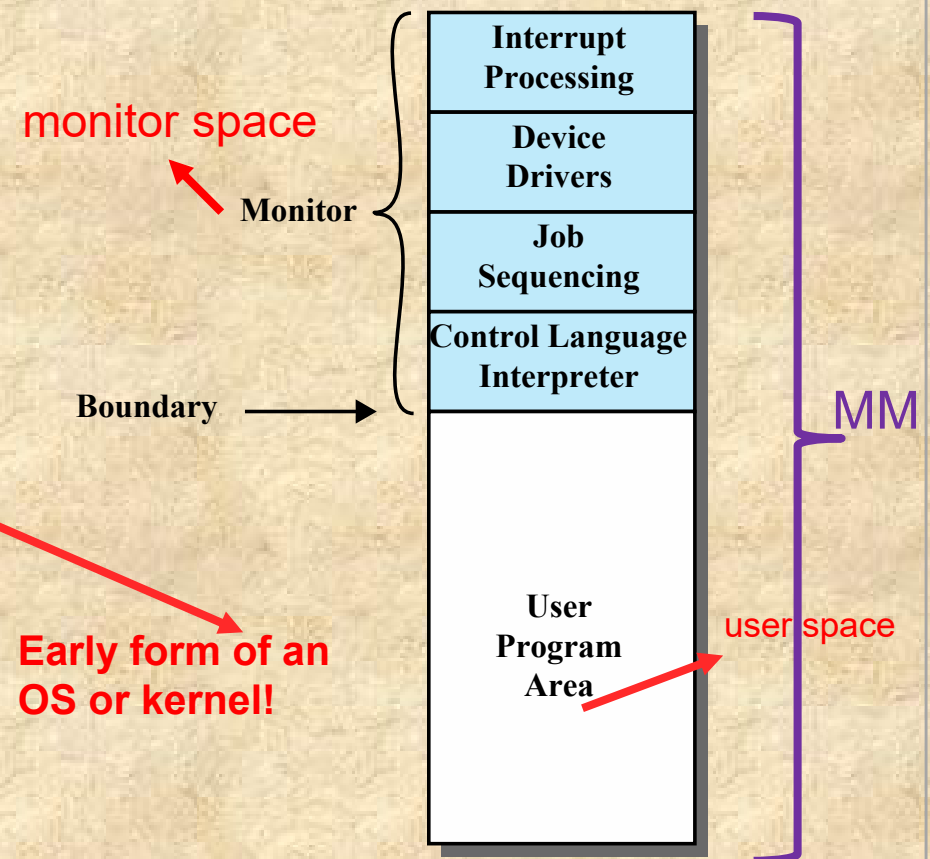


Figure 2.3 Memory Layout for a Resident Monitor



Batch Systems Support

Separation of Space: **MEMORY PROTECTION**

NOTE: Still serial execution.

Separation of Execution: **PRIVILEGED INSTRUCTIONS + MEMORY PROTECTION**

Job Scheduler, Loader **TIMER + INTERRUPTS + ABOVE**

Memory Protection

User space vs Monitor Space

Timer

Monitor monitors user activity and terminates violating programs. OR user program is given a certain amount of time to use CPU

Privileged instructions

Privileged-mode: Monitor mode (aka kernel mode, system mode)

Interrupts

context switch concept

Context switch

Interrupt-based I/O increases CPU utilization
switch between user mode and monitor mode
and other way around. **OVERHEAD**

Desirable Hardware Features

Memory protection

- While the user program is executing, it must not alter the memory area containing the monitor

Timer

- Prevents a job from monopolizing the system

Privileged instructions

- Can only be executed by the monitor

Interrupts

- Gives OS more flexibility in controlling user programs

context switch



Modes of Operation

User Mode

- User program executes in user mode
- Certain areas of memory are protected from user access
- Certain instructions may not be executed

Kernel Mode

- Monitor executes in kernel mode
- Privileged instructions may be executed
- Protected areas of memory may be accessed

Simple Batch System Overhead

- Processor time alternates between execution of user programs and execution of the monitor
- Sacrifices:
 - Some main memory is now given over to the monitor
 - Some processor time is consumed by the monitor
- Despite overhead, the simple batch system improves utilization of the computer



BatchSystems-1 : Arrival assumes they are in S.M. after punch card processing has been completed.

Arrival time assumed $t=0$ for both A,B. (Context switch time is artificially 0s)

Gap is Monitor activity: Assume it is 0!

Schedule : A B

A in system 0-20s; B in system 0-30s

$Tr(A)=20s$; $Tr(B)=30s$; $Tr(<A,B>) = 30s$

MTT : $(20+30)/2 = 25s$

Schedule : B A

B in system 0-10s; A in system 0-30s

$Tr(A)=30s$; $Tr(B)=10s$; $Tr(<B,A>) = 30s$

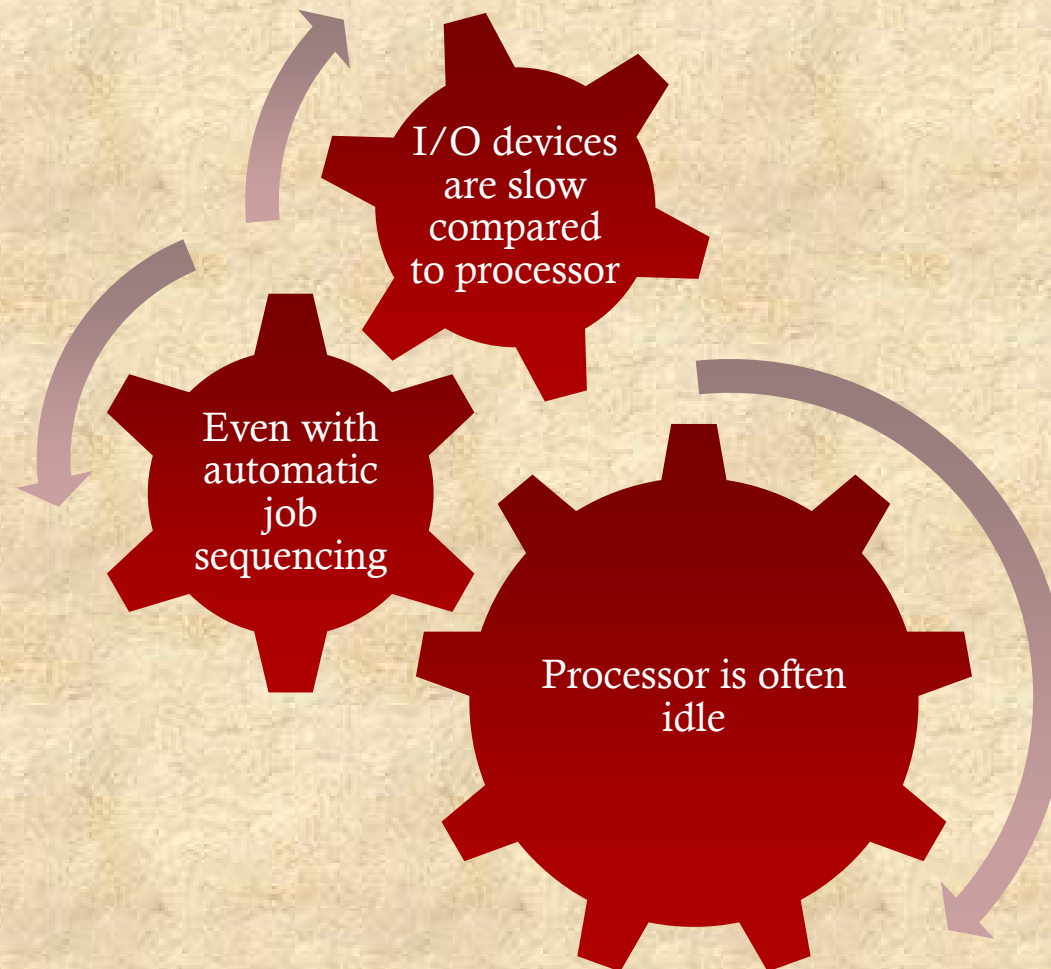
MTT : $(30+10)/2 = 20s$

CPU utilization (either schedule) : $20s/30s = 66\%$

Throughput (either schedule) : 2jobs/30s or 4 jobs/minute or 240jobs/hour



Multiprogrammed Batch Systems





3. MultiProgramming

WATCH OUT!

Chapter 1: Multicomputer, Multiprocessor, Multicore

Chapter 2: Multiprogramming, Multitasking, Multiprocessing



Multiprogramming objective: Maximize Processor(CPU) utilization

OS handles more than one program at a time;

One program (say A) does I/O; another program (say B) uses CPU;

Users think that two programs are using CPU at the same time

Term Multiprogramming used in early era of computing (e.g. batch systems)

Do not forget: CPU can only execute one instruction at a time that can belong to one program at a time!

Requirement:

Multiprogramming first became available in batch systems.

All programs (e.g. A, B) must be ready to use CPU (i.e. Job has been processed/sequenced) and thus executables are available

Executables in SM though in later years preferable to be in MM

I/O requirements: Not user-generated but multiprogramming generated overhead

(moving A and B back and forth between SM and MM as needed)

Context switches: Plenty and considered overhead

(we do not count context switches because of program I/O)

Job Scheduler : Which (of A,B, etc) to bring in

Medium Term Scheduler: Alert Swapper for swapping

Swapper : Send 'process' A to SM, bring 'process' B from SM; move-out/move-in is swapping!

Rudimentary CPU dispatcher: Dispatch A to make room for B.

term process is not refined yet : so we use 'process' instead



Multiprogramming

Possibility 1. Programs A,B have been turned into 'processes' but medium term scheduler moved them with the assistance of a swapper to SM. Assume A,B have to keep things simple arrival time os. A moves first from SM to MM and starts executing, after some CPU time it issues I/O. OS stores A back to SM and brings into MM B that completes its execution. Then A after I/O completes, it is brought back into CPU and completes execution and done(this last step is not clearly shown in example on next page as width of As activity is thin and thus we assume that is not there and not accounted).

Job Scheduler (i.e. Long term scheduler) Brought program A and program B into MM (became processes)

Medium term scheduler Sends process A,B back to SM; then brings A back into MM for execution

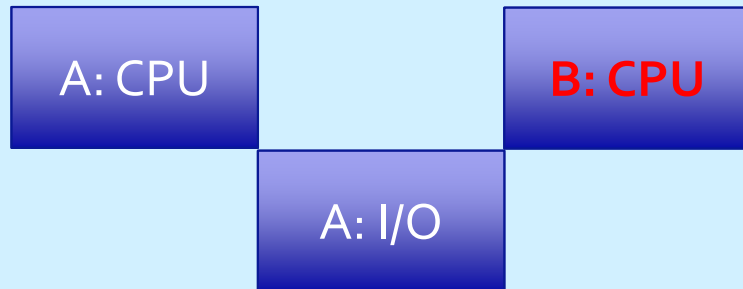
Observation-1. I/O operation(s) to bring program into MM but also back to SM

Swapper in action : MM to SM or SM to MM

Medium term scheduler: interacts with swapper

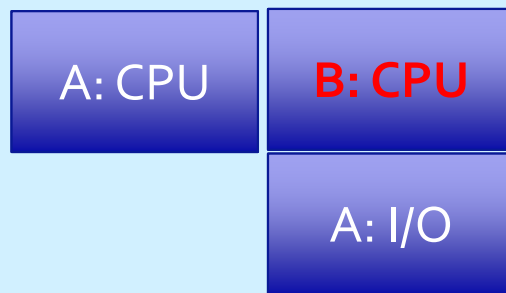
Major Context switches : too many to track

Next page: OS overhead not shown assume os



Serial Processing + Batch Processing

$Tr(A)=20s$, $Tr(B)=30s$, $Tr(A+B)=30s$
 $CPU(A+B)= 20/30=66\%$ (CPU utilization)
 $MTT = (20+30)/2= 25s$
Throughput: $2job/30s = 4job/mn=240job/h$
 $R(A)=0s$, $R(B)=20s$ Response time



(Batched) Multiprogramming

$Tr(A)=20s$, $Tr(B)=20s$, $Tr(A+B)=20s$
 $CPU(A+B)=20/20=100\%$
 $MTT=(20+20)/2=20s$
Throughput: $2job/20s = 360job/h$
 $R(A)=0s$, $R(B)=10s$ Response time

Arrival time for both A, B is assumed $t=0s$



Multiprogramming

Context switches :

Too many, too costly (involve SM)

Better MultiProgramming:

Have both A and B in main memory in advance

Context switching then takes microseconds,
not milliseconds

CPU (processor) utilization :

Max Focus on maximizing it

Introduction of VDU(Video display units aka terminals, monitor, screen), keyboard shifts focus to users

Users (humans) are impatient : **Response time vs CPU utilization**

Previous example $R(A) = 0s$, $R(B) = 10s$ or more . For humans anything more than 3-5s response time is too much.



Timesharing to minimize response time

Timesharing can be interactive or not.

In modern OS timesharing can be Interactive (Linux ssh) or NOT (other Linux).



4. Timesharing

Timesharing initially was interactive timesharing

Interactive: Sit in front of monitor + keyboard
and type in say (e.g. secure shell)

Timesharing nowadays can be interactive OR non-interactive

Time sharing: Share the time of the CPU!

Linux is an interactive and non-interactive timesharing (and multitasking) OS. (Wait for definition of multitasking in section 5.)



Timesharing objective: Minimize response time (cpu utilization is not an issue)

Timesharing: time sliced use of CPU('s time)

The time of the CPU is sliced into time slices of some duration T . There are N tables each one with a VDU+keyboard. Users get seated on each table and interact with the computer (run programs). A multiplexer (connector) allows each table/user to access the CPU for a period T at a time. If user program can't finish execution in period T gets swapped out to SM to make room for next table's user whose swapped out program (if any) is swapped in to MM from SM.

Tables are run round robin. If $N = 5$, then $0 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow \text{etc}$

Requirement: Interactive system setup
CPU belongs to Table and associated User for a fraction of CPU's time : timeslice
Executable code for program is preferable; SM resident preferable.

I/O requirements: Timesharing generates overhead because of timeslices.
Lots of I/O if programs in SM and not in MM.

Context switches: Lots of context switches!

Job scheduler: As capable as before

CPU dispatcher: More capable to deal with lots of context switching because of timesharing.

Optimal Configuration : All programs in MM or context switching is expensive



Timesharing

Say $N=5$ tables; context switch is d and primarily expensive SM I/O (typical zooms for 1960s)

Response time ?

CPU utilization?

I/O not timeshared!

OS $\rightarrow$ 0 $\rightarrow$ OS $\rightarrow$ 1 $\rightarrow$ OS $\rightarrow$ 2 $\rightarrow$ OS $\rightarrow$ 3 $\rightarrow$ OS $\rightarrow$ 4 $\rightarrow$ OS $\rightarrow$ 0 $\rightarrow$ OS $\rightarrow$ 1 $\rightarrow$ OS $\rightarrow$ 2 and so on
 $T \quad d + d \quad T \quad d + d \quad T \quad d + d \quad T \quad d + d \quad T \quad d + d$

CPU Utilization: At most $5T / (10d + 5T)$ over a full round robin round (assumes T is pure CPU execution)

Max Response Time: At most $10d + 4T$ (user of Table 0 just missed time slice)

CPU Utilization: Say user at Table 0 is asleep, at Table 1 eats, Table 2 drinks, Table 3 talks to Table 4 user.
 What is the CPU utilization then?

In a system $d=200ms$ and $N=5$. What should T be to maintain (for full CPU utilization of a time slice)

CPU Utilization at least 90% ?

Answer: $T \geq 3.6s$ too much f

What's max response time then ?

Answer: $10d + 4T = 10 * 0.2s + 4 * 3.6 = 16.4s$

What is T for a max response time of 5s?

Answer: $10d + 4T \leq 5s \rightarrow T = 0.75s$

What is CPU utilization then?

Answer: $5T / (10d + 5T) = 3.75 / (3.75 + 2) = 65\%$

In the 1950s student and faculty got upset if they had to wait more than 2s to get the attention of the CPU. Thus $(N-1)T < 5s$
 The first system could support 10 interactive users maximum. Thus $N=10$. Thus a timeslice of $T=0.5s$ since $(N-1)T = 9 * 0.5s < 5s$
 (The timeslice includes in this case context switch time c).

Time-Sharing Systems

- Can be used to handle multiple interactive jobs
- Processor time is shared among multiple users
- Multiple users simultaneously access the system through terminals, with the OS interleaving the execution of each user program in a short burst or quantum of computation

Time-sharing can also be NON-INTERACTIVE
Time-sharing: Minimize response time!



	Batch Multiprogramming	Time Sharing
Principal objective	Maximize processor use	Minimize response time
Source of directives to operating system	Job control language commands provided with the job	Commands entered at the terminal

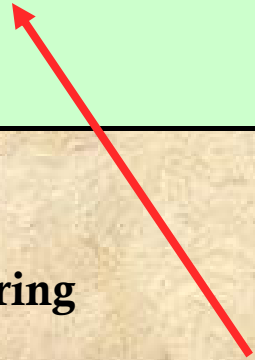
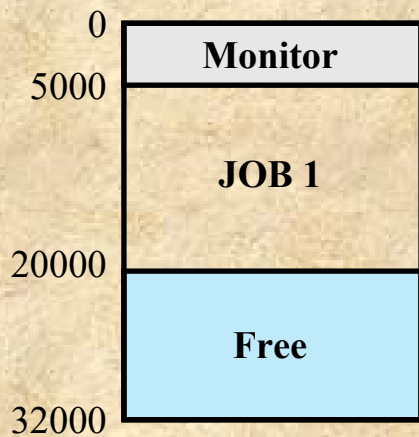


Table 2.3 Batch Multiprogramming versus Time Sharing

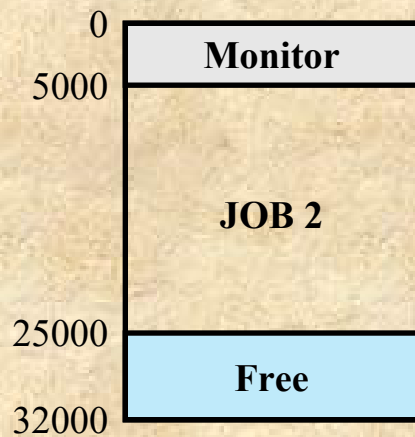
not
always

Compatible Time-Sharing System (CTSS)

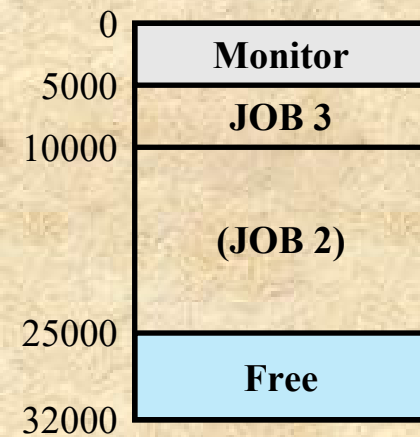
- One of the first time-sharing operating systems
- Developed at MIT by a group known as Project MAC
- The system was first developed for the IBM 709 in 1961
- Ran on a computer with 32,000 36-bit words of main memory, with the resident monitor consuming 5000 of that
- Utilized a technique known as *time slicing*
 - System clock generated interrupts at a rate of approximately one every 0.2 seconds
 - At each clock interrupt the OS regained control and could assign the processor to another user
 - Thus, at regular time intervals the current user would be preempted and another user loaded in
 - To preserve the old user program status for later resumption, the old user programs and data were written out to disk before the new user programs and data were read in
 - Old user program code and data were restored in main memory when that program was next given a turn



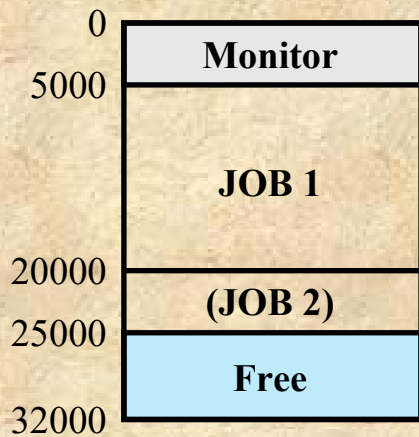
(a)



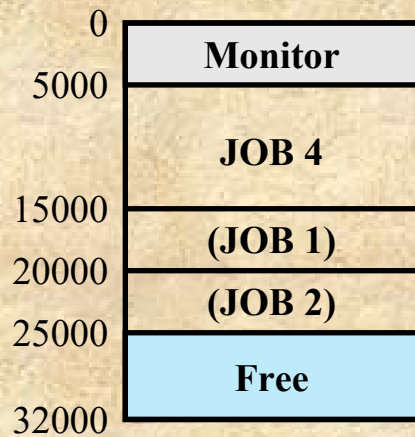
(b)



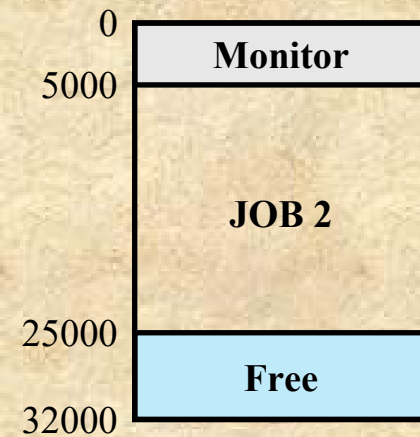
(c)



(d)



(e)



(f)

Figure 2.7 CTSS Operation



Timesharing 1:

$N=2$ and $T=5s$. Two users A,B all arrived at $t=0s$ and book tables 0,1 respectively.

All CPU-bound (use CPU primarily and/or exclusively)

Assumption 1: **Context switch time $c=0s$.**
Service time $s(A)=5s$, $s(B)=3s$

0 1 2 3 4 5		6 7 8 9 0	
-> A A A A A	->	B B B	->
table 0		table 1	

AB

R for Response time.

$R(A)=0s$, $R(B)=5s$

context switches in $[0-,10+]s$: 4

CPU utilization: $8s / 10s = 80\%$

Turnaround time :

$Tr(A)=5s$, $Tr(B)=8s$ or $10s$?



Timesharing 2:

$N=2$ and $T=5s$. Two users A,B all arrived at $t=0s$ and book tables 0,1 respectively.

All CPU-bound (use CPU primarily and/or exclusively)

Assumption 1:

Context switch time $c=0s$.

Service time $s(A)=5s$, $s(B)=3s$ but in the pattern 2s CPU, 1s I/O, 1s CPU

```

      0 1 2 3 4 5      6 7 8 9 0
    -> A A A A A  -> B B   B  ->
I/O:                               B
      table 0      table 1
    
```

AB

R for Response time.

$R(A)=0s$, $R(B)=5s$

context switches in $[0-,10+]s$: 4

CPU utilization: $8s/10s = 80\%$

Turnaround time :

$Tr(A)=5s$, $Tr(B)=9s$ or $10s$?



Timesharing 3:

$N=2$ and $T=5s$. Two users A,B all arrived at $t=0s$ and book tables 0,1 respectively.

A is CPU-bound, B is not

Assumption 1:

Context switch time $c=0s$.

Service time $s(A)=5s$, $s(B)=3s$ but in the pattern 2s CPU, 3s I/O, 1s CPU

0 1 2 3 4 5	6 7 8 9 0	1 2 3 4 5	6 7 8 9 0
-> A A A A A	-> B B	->	-> B
I/O:	B B B		
table 0	table 1	table 0	table 1

AB

R for Response time.

$R(A)=0s$, $R(B)=5s$

context switches in $[0-,10+]s$: 4

CPU utilization: $8s / 20s = 40\%$

Turnaround time :

$Tr(A)=5s$, $Tr(B)=16s$ or $20s$?

Example-1

Example-1. Four CPU-bound tasks have service times **A: 8u, B:4u, C:4u and D:5u** and they all arrive at $t=0$ in this order (lexicographic) .

Answer the following questions re (1) serial processing, (2) (batched) multiprogramming, (3) timesharing with $ts=1u$.

- (a) What is the response time $R(A), R(B), R(C), R(D)$ of the CPU for A, B, C, D?
- (b) What is the turnaround time for A, D i.e. $Tr(A), Tr(D)$?
- (c) What is the CPU utilization (aka processor utilization) for the execution of the job consisting of tasks A,B,C,D?
- (d) Which one has most context switches among (1), (2) and (3)?

1. Serial processing (we timeline the execution 1 letter is 1u and shows who is using the CPU)

123456789012345678901

AAAAAAAAABBBBCCCCDDDDD

This is the CPU timeline; all tasks CPU-bound

- (a) $R(A)=0u, R(B)=8u, R(C)=12u, R(D)=16u$
- (b) $Tr(A)=8u, Tr(D)=21u$
- (c) $21/21=100\%$
- (d) #context switches 0, or in modern realizations $1+2+2+2+1=8$

2. Multiprogramming. As above. Assume all in MM is given.

- (d) #context switches $1+2+2+2+1=8$

3. Timesharing with $T=1u$

12345678901234567890123456789

ABCDABCDABCDABCD A--DA--A--A

- (a) $R(A)=0u, R(B)=1u, R(C)=2u, R(D)=3u$
- (b) $Tr(A)=29u, Tr(D)=20u$
- (c) Not 100% . No objective to maximize CPU utilization just minimize response time.
- (d) # context switches ~ 42 or so. (A--D we have from A to OS, then OS to D)



5. Multitasking

Linux is an interactive and multitasking operating system.



Multitasking objective: Maximize CPU utilization + minimize response time

Multitasking = Multiprogramming in a timesharing system

OS handles several programs at a time; all programs in MM (possibly except for initial loading)
Each program in an ordered fashion gets access of the CPU for a max fraction of time (quantum)
System can be interactive or not
If program is not to use full time of quantum; CPU preempts it (moved out of CPU)

Requirement:	Program 'must be ready' to use CPU i.e. they are processes and in MM
I/O requirements:	Lots of I/O if programs (processes) not in MM (processes)
Context switches:	Overhead. Lots of context switches!
Quantum:	New name for timeslice; enhanced CPU dispatcher
Job scheduler:	As before
CPU dispatcher:	More capable than timesharing (fill the gaps)



Example-1. Four CPU-bound tasks have service times $A: 8u$, $B: 4u$, $C: 4u$ and $D: 5u$ and they all arrive at $t=0$ in this order (lexicographic) and are in MM already.

Answer the following questions re (4) multitasking with quantum $q=1u$.

- (a) What is the response time $R(A)$, $R(B)$, $R(C)$, $R(D)$ of the CPU for A, B, C, D?
- (b) What is the turnaround time for A, D i.e. $Tr(A)$, $Tr(D)$?
- (c) What is the CPU utilization (aka processor utilization) for the execution of the job consisting of tasks A,B,C,D?
- (d) Which one has most context switches among (1), (2) and (3)?

4. Multitasking $q=1u$

12345678901234567890123456789

ABCDABCDABCDABCD A--DA---A---A this was timesharing (reference)

ABCDABCDABCDABCDADAAA that's multitasking

- (a) $R(A)=0u$, $R(B)=1u$, $R(C)=2u$, $R(D)=3u$ no change
- (b) $Tr(A)=21u$ improved $Tr(D)=18u$ improved
- (c) 100% .
- (d) # context switches 42 or may be 38 ?

How many context switches in the following ? $XY---YX$

OS to X to OS to Y to OS to Y to OS to X to OS : 8 context switches.



1. Serial Example

(4 Users CPU-bound work:
 A:8u B:4u C:4u D:5u)

123456789012345678901 R: Response time; Tr: turnaround time
 AAAAAAAAABBBBBCCCCDDDDDD R(D)=16u, Tr(A)=8u, Tr(D)=21u,
 CPU utilization: 100%

2. MultiProgramming.

No need; all 4 jobs are CPU-bound no IO activity!

3. Timesharing example: timeslice=1u

4 Jobs: A:8u B:4u C:4u D:5u

12345678901234567890123456789012
 ABCDABCDABCDABCDABCD--DA---A---A--- **R(D)=3u, Tr(A)=29u, Tr(D)=20u**
 CPU utilization < 100%

Timeslices 4,8,12,16,20,24,28,32 belong to 'program' D even
 if D is done...Likewise ...,18,22,26,30 belong to B,
 ...,19,23,27,31 to C.
 (in practice D is run from terminal 4, A from terminal 1,
 etc)



Multiprogramming

max CPU utilization

Programs might be in HDD

Complex Job Scheduler by Monitor

Elementary or no CPU dispatcher

Some context switching

Timeslice

Cooperative 'multitasking'
(non-preemptive)

Timeslice belongs to User/Program

If program does not plan to use timeslice

It gets wasted unless program cooperatively
releases it to OS (cooperative multitasking)

Multitasking

CPU sharing

CPU sharing to minimize response time

+ max CPU utilization

Programs MUST be in main memory

Elementary Job Scheduler

CPU Dispatcher by/in 'kernel'

Frequent context switching

Quantum (form of timeslice)

Preemptive 'multitasking'

Quantum belongs to/is controlled by OS



Cooperative multitasking: The CPU dispatcher can not stop a program from using the CPU but the program itself voluntarily does so

Preemptive multitasking: The CPU dispatcher initiates all CPU utilization.

Example 1 part(3): A timeslice is allocated to Program B,C whether it wants to use it or not. If B,C signals it does not need the CPU this is **cooperative multitasking**. Otherwise the timeslice is wasted, as it was observed earlier for timesharing.

Example 1 part (4): A quantum is allocated to Program B. When the OS detects that B does not need the CPU, B gets **preempted** and another program starts using CPU eg D.

Early versions of Windows or MacOS X used cooperative multitasking



6. Multiprocessing

Multitasking where a task is split into more than one programs (processes); if more than one processors are available the programs(processes) can be executed concurrently ('in parallel') to improve performance



7. Real time systems

Response time is maintained within given bounds



Module 2

OS contributions

Major Achievements

- Operating Systems are among the most complex pieces of software ever developed
- Major advances in development include:
 - Processes
 - Memory management
 - Information protection and security
 - Scheduling and resource management
 - System structure

Process

- Fundamental to the structure of operating systems

A *process* can be defined as:

A program in execution

An instance of a running program

The entity that can be assigned to, and executed on, a processor

A unit of activity characterized by a single sequential thread of execution, a current state, and an associated set of system resources

Program (on a disk)



A program (on a disk) is associated with the following

text (also known as **instructions** or **code**),

initialized data

uninitialized data (also known as bss)

and has provisions for

heap data for dynamically allocated data

user stack data for user function call invocation [user-mode]

shared (memory) data to be shared

kernel stack data for user's system call invocation [kernel-mode]

but these latter areas are populated when 'program is in execution' in main memory

Note: if we use generically the term stack we still imply a user stack and a kernel stack



Data are kept separate from instructions (code i.e. text from now on ,program) in memory

Process state (context) is the values of the registers during the execution of the program

Program

Passive

OS does not know about it

On disk

Prev page: Text

Prev page: User+Kernel stack

Prev page: Other data

Process

Active

OS knows about it

In main memory (all or part)

Prev page: Text

Prev page: User+Kernel stack

Prev page: Other data

Process state (context)

Processor state (Chap 1)

OS related info (PID,priority,etc)

Files for I/O

Multithreading

- Technique in which a process, executing an application, is divided into threads that can run concurrently

Thread

Dispatchable unit of work

Includes a processor context and its own data area for a stack

Executes sequentially and is interruptible

Process

A collection of one or more threads and associated system resources

By breaking a single application into multiple threads, a programmer has greater control over the modularity of the application and the timing of application-related events



A thread is spawn (created) by a process and shares with it text and data(init glob vars, uninit glob vars, heap data, files) but has its own register file, stack.

Thread

Active

OS knows about it or not!

In main memory (all or part)

Text: **of Process**

User+Kernel stack

Other data: **of Process**

Processor Registers/file/state

OS related info: **of Process**

Files for I/O: **of Process**

Process

Active

OS knows about it

In main memory (all or part)

Text

User+Kernel stack

Other data

Process state (context)

Processor Registers/state/file (Chap 1)

OS related info (PID,priority,etc)

Files for I/O

Memory Management

- The OS has five principal storage management responsibilities:

Process
isolation

Automatic
allocation
and
management

Support of
modular
programming

Protection
and access
control

Long-term
storage



Prior to Virtual Memory

A program's size is determined by size of MM
or size of available MM

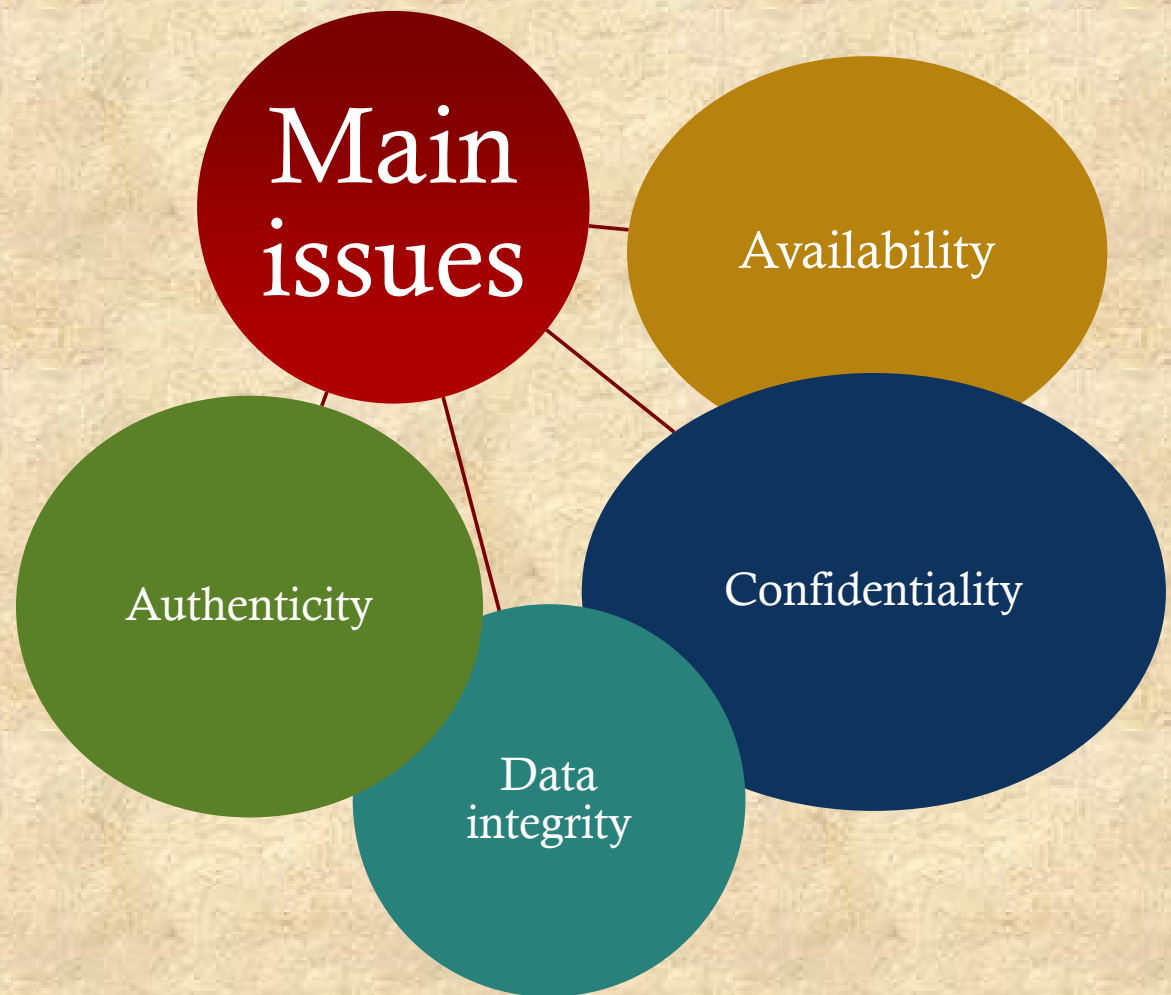
With Virtual Memory

A program's size is determined by size of
(available) SM and is independent of size of MM

Not all of a program is stored in MM at any time.
Paging support is needed for Virtual memory

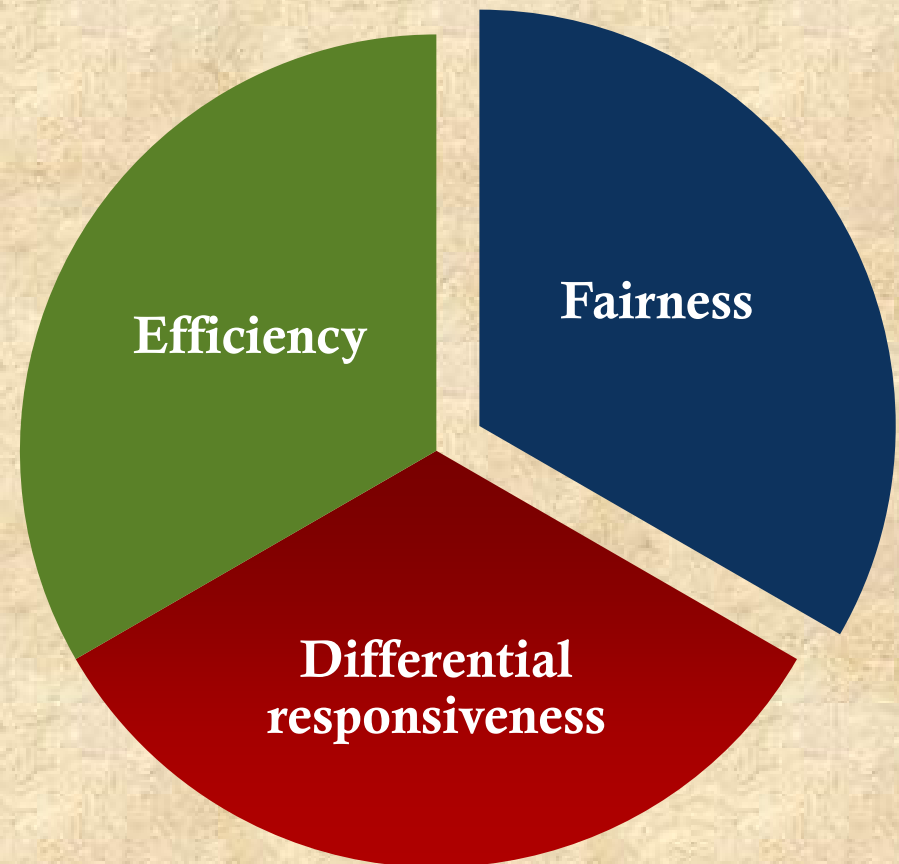
Information Protection and Security

- The nature of the threat that concerns an organization will vary greatly depending on the circumstances
- The problem involves controlling access to computer systems and the information stored in them



Scheduling and Resource Management

- Key responsibility of an OS is managing resources
- Resource allocation policies must consider:



Fault Tolerance

- Refers to the ability of a system or component to continue normal operation despite the presence of hardware or software faults
- Typically involves some degree of redundancy
- Intended to increase the reliability of a system
 - Typically comes with a cost in financial terms or performance
- The extent adoption of fault tolerance measures must be determined by how critical the resource is



Class	Availability	Annual Downtime
Continuous	1.0	0
Fault Tolerant	0.99999	5 minutes
Fault Resilient	0.9999	53 minutes
High Availability	0.999	8.3 hours
Normal Availability	0.99 - 0.995	44-87 hours

Table 2.4 Availability Classes

Fundamental Concepts

- The basic measures are:
 - Reliability
 - $R(t)$
 - Defined as the probability of its correct operation up to time t given that the system was operating correctly at time $t=0$
 - Mean time to failure (MTTF)
 - Mean time to repair (MTTR) is the average time it takes to repair or replace a faulty element
 - Availability
 - Defined as the fraction of time the system is available to service users' requests

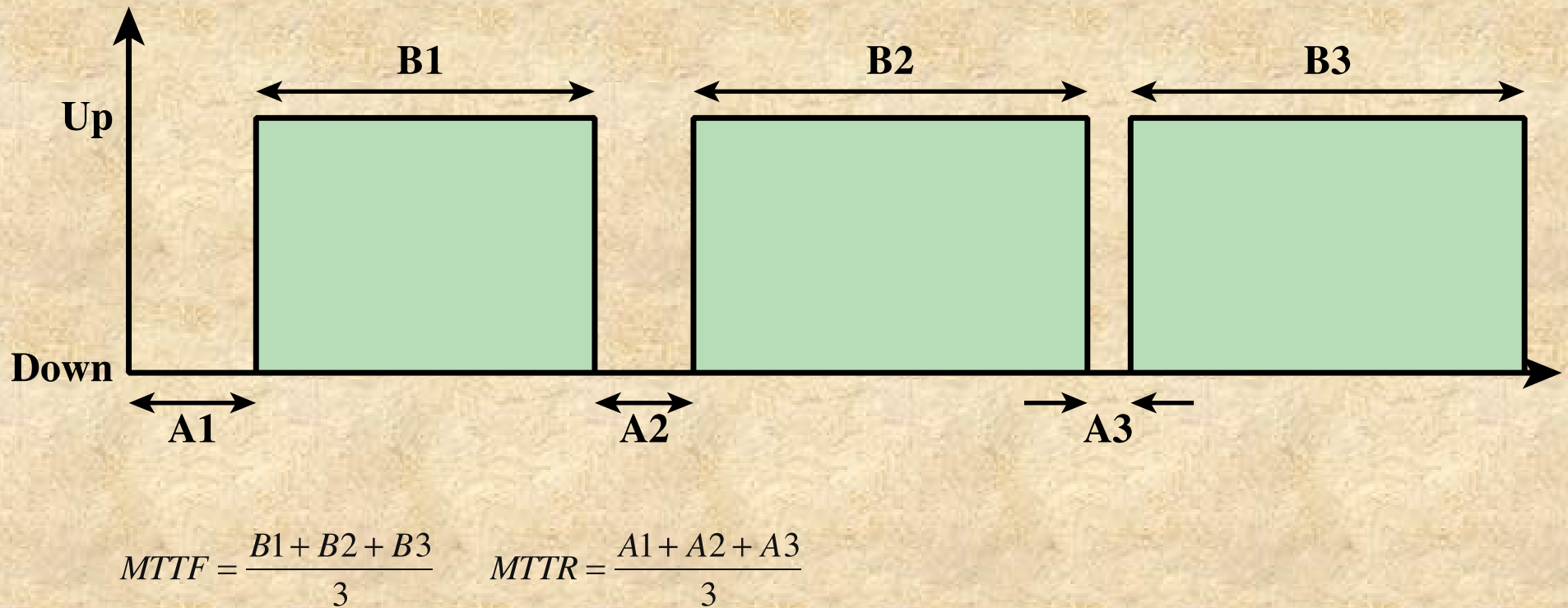


Figure 2.13 System Operational States



MTTF:

(Mean Time To Failure)

Average time it takes for component to fail from start of operation, or start after a previous replacement of a failed component

MTTR:

(Mean Time To Repair)

Average time it takes to repair or replace a failed component from the point it failed to the point it was replaced or repaired

MTBF:

(Mean Time Between Failures)

$$MTBF = MTTF + MTTR$$

Annualized Failure Rate:

$$1 - \exp(-8760/MTTF) \sim 8760/MTTF, \quad MTTF \text{ in } h$$

<https://www.toshiba-storage.com/trends-technology/mttf-what-hard-drive-reliability-really-means/>

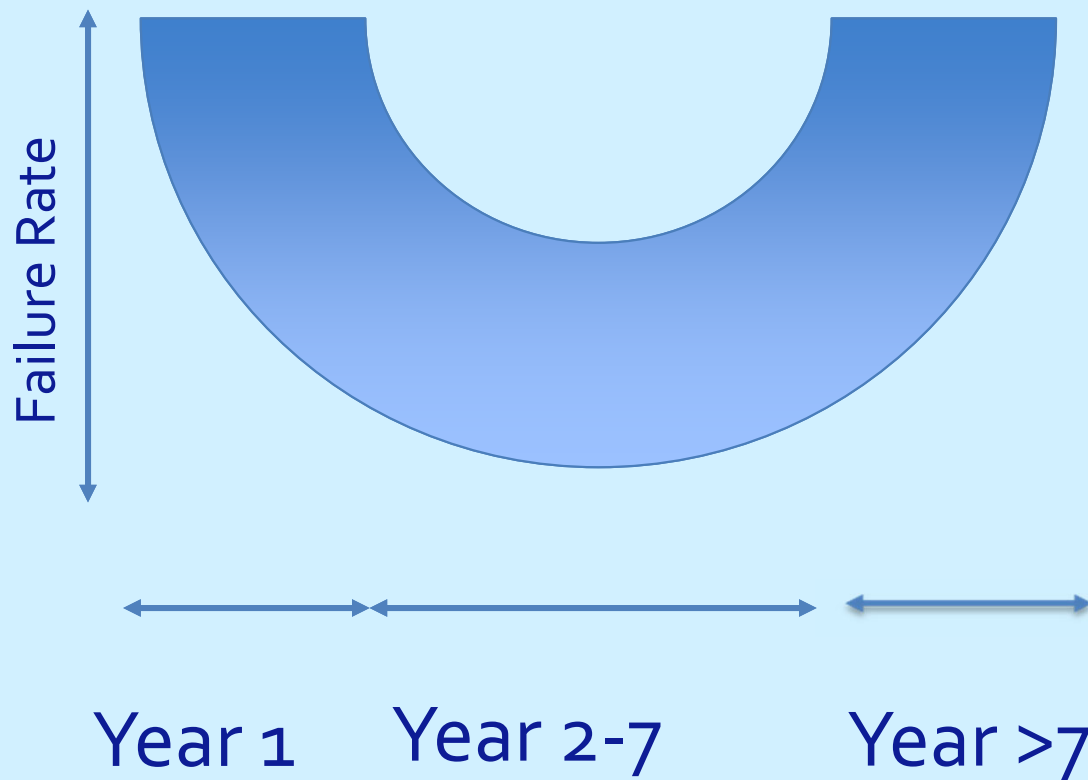
Availability:

Fraction of time the system is available to service users' requests

Reliability, $R(t)$:

Probability of correct operation at t given it worked correctly starting at $t=0$

Bathtub effect



Google (2007)

0-3mo	2.5%
6mo	2%
12mo	2%
24mo	8%
36mo	10%
48mo	6%
60mo	7%



SSD : Solid State Drives

Some Rated for 50TiB write volume;
Currently most rated for 100TiB write volume;
25%-33% will not be able to surpass 600TiB writes
Almost all will fail to do 1000TiB writes!

(Data for 256GiB SSD reported.)



2.1 A manufacturer tests 1000 HDD. After 1000 hours of operation the first HDD failed. What is the MTTF for this HDD batch?

Answer: $MTTF = (\text{period-of-time} * \text{num-devices}) / \text{num-of-fails}$
 $= (1000\text{hrs} * 1000 \text{ HDD}) / 1 \text{ fail} \sim 1,000,000\text{hr}$

2.2 What is the AFR ?

Answer: $AFR \sim 8760/MTTF \sim 0.876\%$

2.3. One hour after the experiment and the publication of the MTTF by public relations, another 9 drives failed. What is the MTTF?

Answer:

For $[0, 1001\text{hr}]$ we have $MTTF = 1001 * 1000 / 10 \sim 100,000\text{hr} !$

The average of the two MTTF is 550,000hr approximately.

Spinning MTTF numbers ...

Traditional UNIX Systems

- Developed at Bell Labs and became operational on a PDP-7 in 1970
- The first notable milestone was porting the UNIX system from the PDP-7 to the PDP-11
 - First showed that UNIX would be an OS for all computers
- Next milestone was rewriting UNIX in the programming language C
 - Demonstrated the advantages of using a high-level language for system code
- Was described in a technical journal for the first time in 1974
- First widely available version outside Bell Labs was Version 6 in 1976
- Version 7, released in 1978, is the ancestor of most modern UNIX systems
- Most important of the non-AT&T systems was UNIX BSD (Berkeley Software Distribution), running first on PDP and then on VAX computers

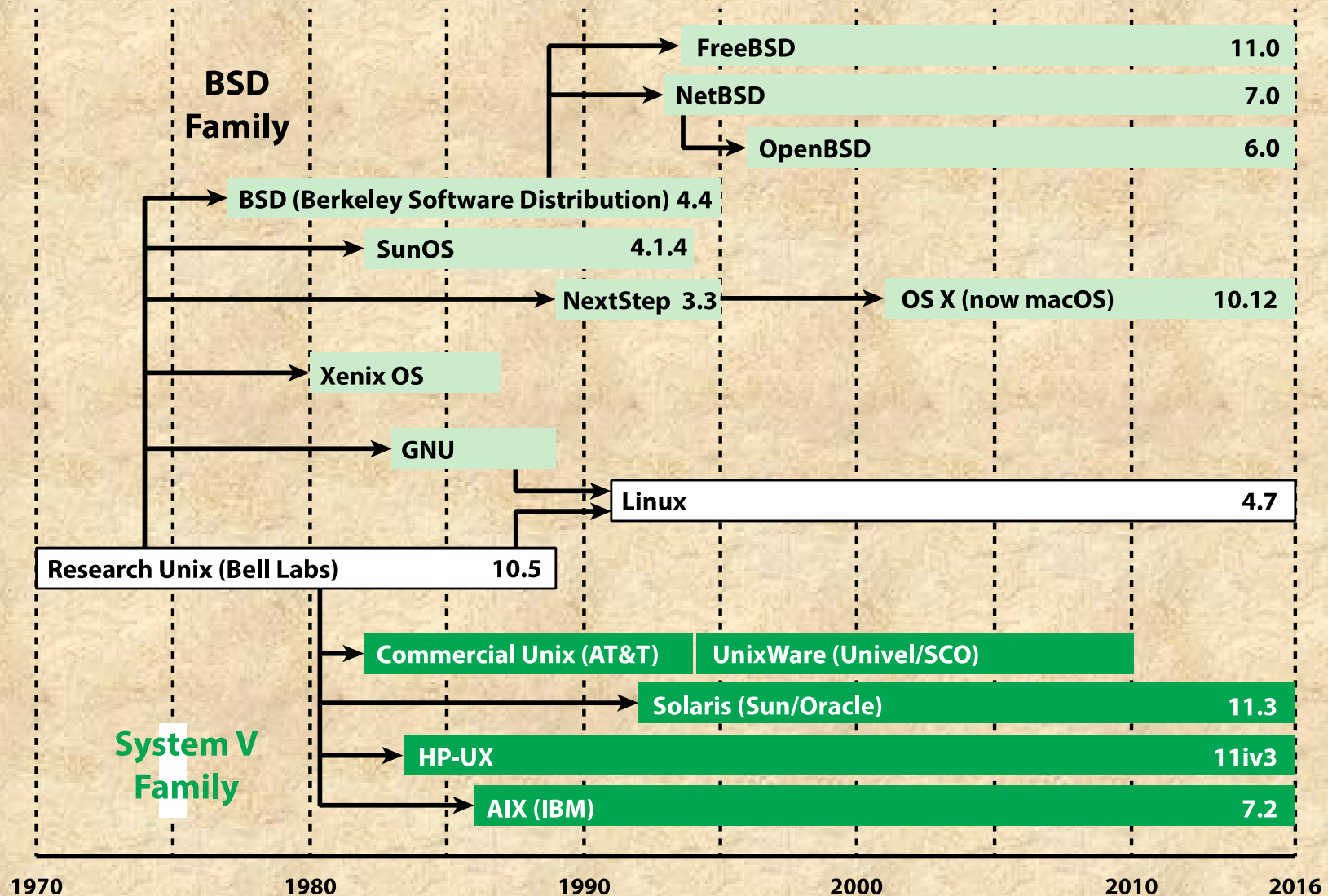


Figure 2.17 Unix Family Tree

LINUX Overview

- Started out as a UNIX variant for the IBM PC
- Linus Torvalds, a Finnish student of computer science, wrote the initial version
- Linux was first posted on the Internet in 1991
- Today it is a full-featured UNIX system that runs on virtually all platforms
- Is free and the source code is available
- Key to the success of Linux has been the availability of free software packages under the auspices of the Free Software Foundation (FSF)
- Highly modular and easily configured

Modular Structure

- Linux development is global and done by a loosely associated group of independent developers
- **Although Linux does not use a microkernel approach, it achieves many of the potential advantages of the approach by means of its particular modular architecture**
- Linux is structured as a collection of modules, a number of which can be automatically loaded and unloaded on demand

Loadable Modules

- Relatively independent blocks
- A module is an object file whose code can be linked to and unlinked from the kernel at runtime
- A module is executed in kernel mode on behalf of the current process
- Have two important characteristics:
 - Dynamic linking
 - Stackable modules

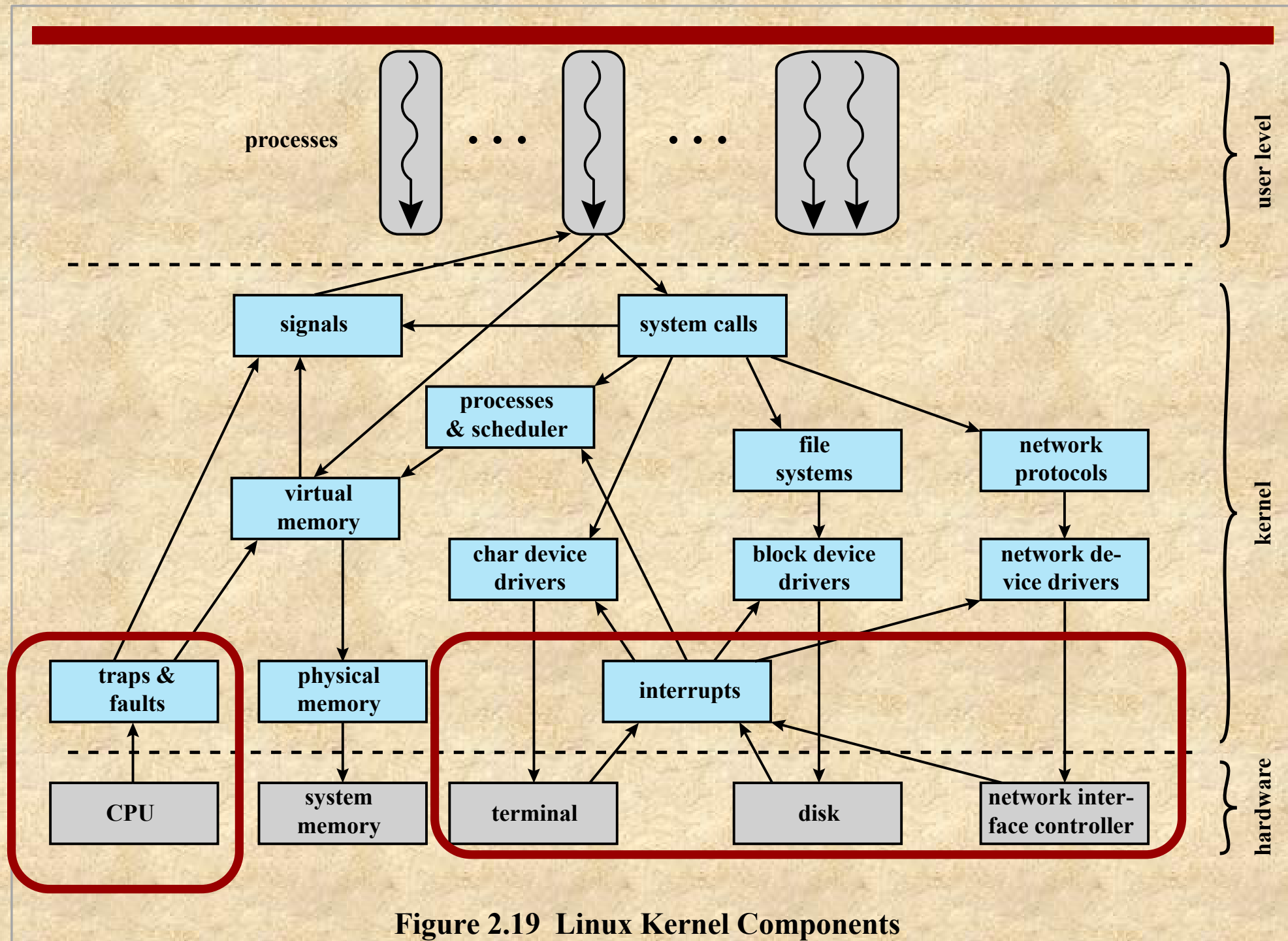
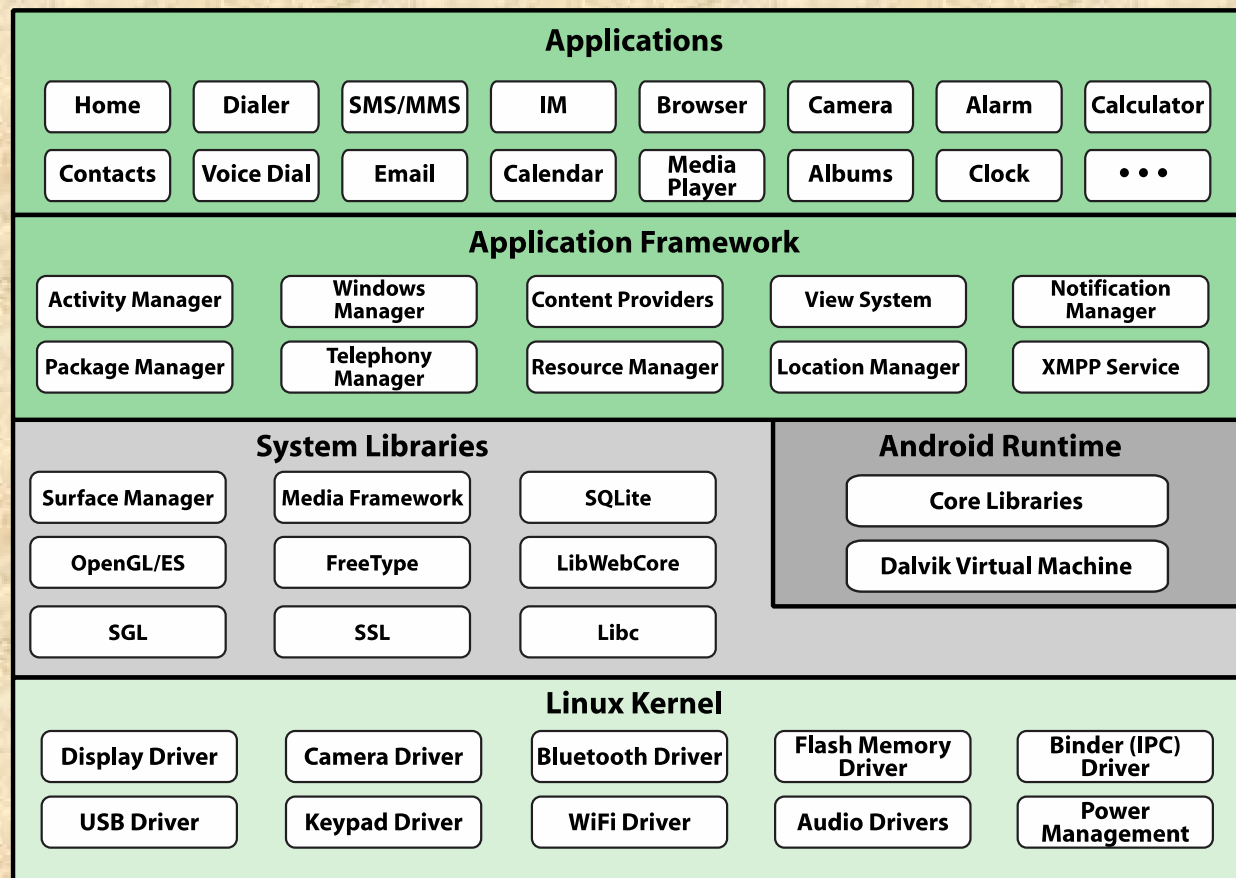


Figure 2.19 Linux Kernel Components



Implementation:

-  Applications, Application Framework: Java
-   System Libraries, Android Runtime: C and C++
-  Linux Kernel: C

Figure 2.20 Android Software Architecture

Android Runtime

- **Most Android software is mapped into a bytecode format which is then transformed into native instructions on the device itself**
- Earlier releases of Android used a scheme known as Dalvik, however Dalvik has a number of limitations in terms of scaling up to larger memories and multicore architectures
- More recent releases of Android rely on a scheme known as Android runtime (ART)
- ART is fully compatible with Dalvik's existing bytecode format so application developers do not need to change their coding to be executable under ART
- Each Android application runs in its own process, with its own instance of the Dalvik VM

Advantages and Disadvantages of Using ART

Advantages

- Reduces startup time of applications as native code is directly executed
- Improves battery life because processor usage for JIT is avoided
- Lesser RAM footprint is required for the application to run as there is no storage required for JIT cache
- There are a number of Garbage Collection optimizations and debug enhancements that went into ART

Disadvantages

- Because the conversion from bytecode to native code is done at install time, application installation takes more time
- On the first fresh boot or first boot after factory reset, all applications installed on a device are compiled to native code using dex2opt, therefore the first boot can take significantly longer to reach Home Screen compared to Dalvik
- The native code thus generated is stored on internal storage that requires a significant amount of additional internal storage space



Compiler

(Old times)

Input: Source code (on disk)

Output: Assembly code (on disk)

Compiler

(Nowadays)

Input: Source code (on disk)

Output: Executable code or Machine code (on disk)

```
gcc x.c -c  
gcc x.c -o x  
javac x.java
```

(all intermediate output is/was also on disk)

Loader

Moves program from disk to memory i.e

program becomes a process.

and starts executing from a predefined address

```
./x
```

Interpreter

Interprets and runs Source code directly

```
python x.py
```



Compiled execution:

1/compile:

compile +run two steps

Source-Code to Machine-Code

`gcc myc.c -o myc` or `gcc -v myc.c -o myc`

2/run

Load-into-CPU+Execute MachineCode

`./myc` equivalent to double clicking on an icon in Windows

Interpreted execution: interpret+run in one step

1/

2/interpret+ run

Interpret-and-run Source-Code directly

`python mypy.py`



Compiled execution: compile + run two steps

1/compile: **javac my.java**

1a. Source-Code to Java Byte-Code [Time: 100s]
converts a .java file into .jar or .class file (java byte code not machine code)

At runtime

2/run **java my.class**

2a. Invoke Java Virtual Machine (JVM) to load
Java-Byte-Code and [Time: 20s]
2b. 'interepret/run' it by JIT (Just In Time) interpreter, and [Time: 20s]
2c. converting it into machine code for execution, and [Time: 20s]
2d. executing it... [Time: 20s]

Note 1: Java Byte-Code is the same for all platforms (i.e. ISA) whether Intel, PowerPC, ARM etc.
Thus **Java Byte-Code is portable**

Note 2: JVM interprets the byte code and **eventually converts into machine code; it is the converted product, the machice code that is being executed.**



Compiled execution: Android Dalvik (before KitKat 4.4)

1/compile: **javac my.java**

1a. Source-Code to Java Byte-Code [Time: 100s]

converts a .java file into .jar or .class file

1b. Java Byte-Code into Dalvik Byte-Code [Time: 60s]

Use dx tool to convert .jar or .class files into .dex

jar cvf my.jar my.class

dx -dex --output=my.dex my.jar dx or d8

...

At runtime

2/run **dalvikvm my.dex**

2a. Invoke Dalvik Virtual Machine (JVM) to load Dalvik-Byte-Code and [Time: 15s]

2b. 'interpret/run' it by JIT (Just In Time) interpreter, and [Time: 5s]

2c. converting it into machine code for execution, and [Time: 5s]

2d. executing it... [Time: 25s]

.dex file is being interpreted and converted into machine code for execution



Compiled execution: Android Art (KitKat 4.4 or later)

1/compile: javac my.java

1a. Source-Code to Java Byte-Code [Time: 100s]

converts a .java file into .jar or .class file

1b. Java Byte-Code into Dalvik Byte-Code [Time: 60s]

Use dx tool to convert .jar or .class files into .dex

```
jar cvf my.jar my.class  
dx -dex --output=my.dex my.jar
```

...

At install time (once)

1.5.a,b,c. Convert Dalvik Byte-Code into machine code [Time: 25s]
(AOT: Ahead Of Time compilation not JIT)

At runtime

2/run adb push my.dex

2d. By executing machine code... [Time: 25s]

machine code for execution just like a C or C++ executable...

machine code now can't run on another hardware phone needs reinstall

NJIT

A white curved line that starts under the 'N', arches over the 'J' and 'I', and ends under the 'T'.

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THE EDGE IN KNOWLEDGE

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