Introduction

References:

1. Abraham Silberschatz, Greg Gagne, and Peter Baer Galvin, "Operating System Concepts, Ninth Edition", Chapter 1

Just as in *The Blind Men and the Elephant*, this chapter looks at Operating Systems from a number of different viewpoints. No one view really shows the complete picture, but by looking from a number of different views, we can get a pretty good overall picture of what operating systems are all about.

1.1 What Operating Systems Do - For Users, For Applications, etc.

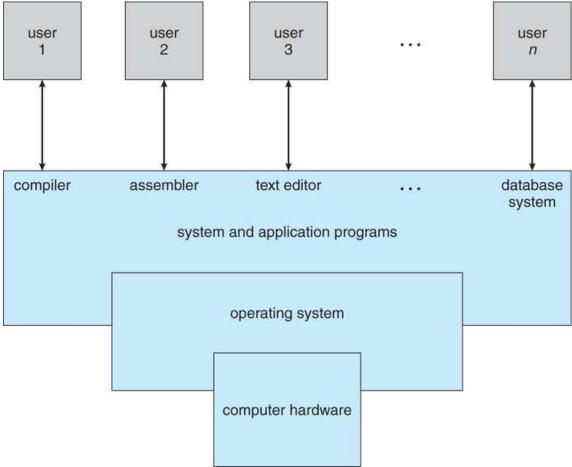


Figure 1.1 - Abstract view of the components of a computer system

- Computer = HW + OS + Apps + Users
- OS serves as interface between HW and (Apps & Users)
- OS provides services for Apps & Users
- OS manages resources (Government model, it doesn't produce anything.)
- Debates about what is included in the OS Just the kernel, or everything the vendor ships? (Consider the distinction between system applications and 3rd party or user apps.)

1.2 Computer-System Organization - What are all the parts, and how do they fit together?

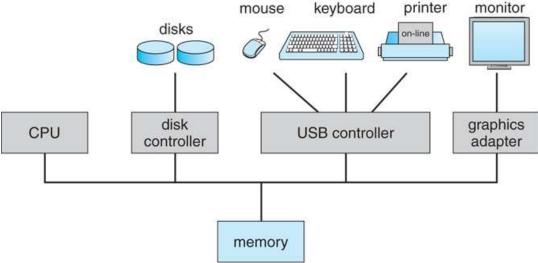


Figure 1.2 - A modern computer system

1.2.1 Computer-System Operation

- Bootstrap program
- Shared memory between CPU and I/O cards
- Time slicing for multi-process operation
- Interrupt handling clock, HW, SW
- Implementation of system calls

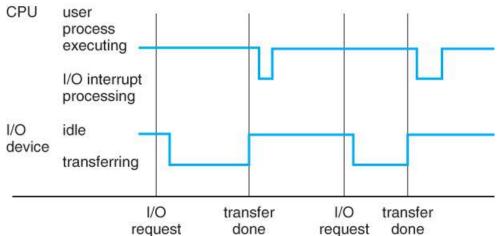


Figure 1.3 - Interrupt timeline for a single process doing output

1.2.2 Storage Structure

- Main memory (RAM)
 - Programs must be loaded into RAM to run.
 - Instructions and data fetched from RAM into registers.
 - RAM is volatile
 - o "Medium" size and speed
- Other electronic (volatile) memory is faster, smaller, and more expensive per bit:
 - Registers
 - CPU Cache
- Non-volatile memory ("permanent" storage) is slower, larger, and less expensive per bit:
 - Electronic disks
 - Magnetic disks
 - o Optical disks
 - Magnetic Tapes

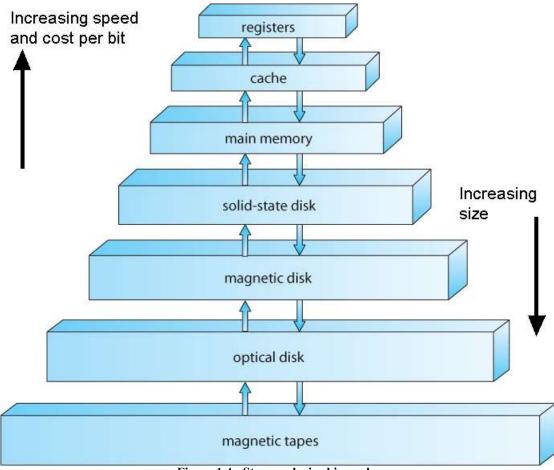


Figure 1.4 - Storage-device hierarchy

1.2.3 I/O Structure

• Typical operation involves I/O requests, direct memory access (DMA), and interrupt handling.

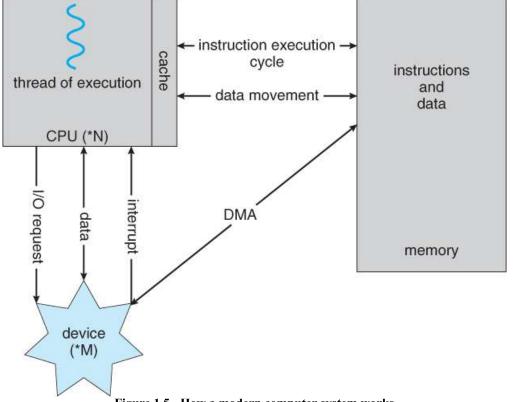


Figure 1.5 - How a modern computer system works

1.3 Computer-System Architecture - Different Operating Systems for Different Kinds of Computer Environments

1.3.1 Single-Processor Systems

- One main CPU which manages the computer and runs user apps.
- Other specialized processors (disk controllers, GPUs, etc.) do not run user apps.

1.3.2 Multiprocessor Systems

- 1. Increased throughput Faster execution, but not 100% linear speedup.
- 2. Economy of scale Peripherals, disks, memory, shared among processors.
- 3. Increased reliability
 - Failure of a CPU slows system, doesn't crash it.
 - Redundant processing provides system of checks and balances. (e.g. NASA)

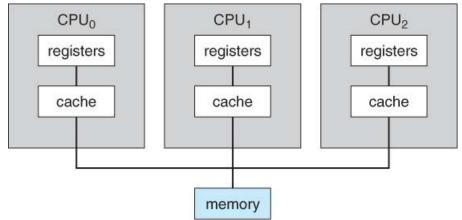


Figure 1.6 - Symmetric multiprocessing architecture

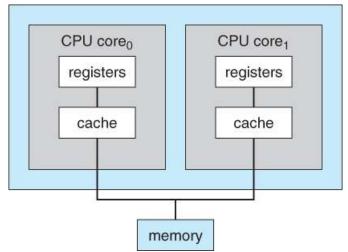


Figure 1.7 - A dual-core design with two cores placed on the same chip

1.3.3 Clustered Systems

- Independent systems, with shared common storage and connected by a high-speed LAN, working together.
- Special considerations for access to shared storage are required, (Distributed lock management), as are collaboration protocols.

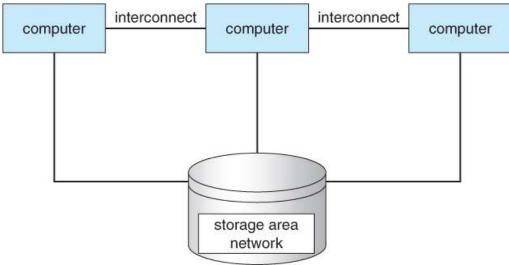


Figure 1.8 - General structure of a clustered system

1.4 Operating-System Structure

A time-sharing (multi-user multi-tasking) OS requires:

- Memory management
- Process management
- Job scheduling
- Resource allocation strategies
- Swap space / virtual memory in physical memory
- Interrupt handling
- File system management
- · Protection and security
- Inter-process communications

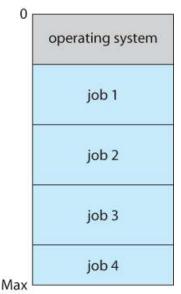


Figure 1.9 - Memory layout for a multiprogramming system

1.5 Operating-System Operations

Interrupt-driven nature of modern OSes requires that erroneous processes not be able to disturb anything else.

1.5.1 Dual-Mode and Multimode Operation

- User mode when executing harmless code in user applications
- Kernel mode (a.k.a. system mode, supervisor mode, privileged mode) when executing potentially dangerous code in the system kernel.
- Certain machine instructions (privileged instructions) can only be executed in kernel mode.
- Kernel mode can only be entered by making system calls. User code cannot flip the mode switch.

 Modern computers support dual-mode operation in hardware, and therefore most modern OSes support dual-mode operation.

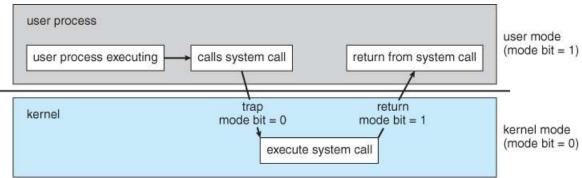


Figure 1.10 - Transition from user to kernel mode

- The concept of modes can be extended beyond two, requiring more than a single mode bit
- CPUs that support virtualization use one of these extra bits to indicate when the virtual machine manager, VMM, is in control of the system. The VMM has more privileges than ordinary user programs, but not so many as the full kernel.
- System calls are typically implemented in the form of software interrupts, which causes the hardware's interrupt handler to transfer control over to an appropriate interrupt handler, which is part of the operating system, switching the mode bit to kernel mode in the process. The interrupt handler checks exactly which interrupt was generated, checks additional parameters (generally passed through registers) if appropriate, and then calls the appropriate kernel service routine to handle the service requested by the system call.
- User programs' attempts to execute illegal instructions (privileged or non-existent instructions), or to access forbidden memory areas, also generate software interrupts, which are trapped by the interrupt handler and control is transferred to the OS, which issues an appropriate error message, possibly dumps data to a log (core) file for later analysis, and then terminates the offending program.

1.5.2 Timer

- Before the kernel begins executing user code, a timer is set to generate an interrupt.
- The timer interrupt handler reverts control back to the kernel.
- This assures that no user process can take over the system.
- Timer control is a privileged instruction, (requiring kernel mode.)

1.6 Process Management

An OS is responsible for the following tasks with regards to process management:

- Creating and deleting both user and system processes
- Ensuring that each process receives its necessary resources, without interfering with other processes.
- Suspending and resuming processes
- Process synchronization and communication
- · Deadlock handling

1.7 Memory Management

An OS is responsible for the following tasks with regards to memory management:

- Keeping track of which blocks of memory are currently in use, and by which processes.
- Determining which blocks of code and data to move into and out of memory, and when.
- Allocating and deallocating memory as needed. (E.g. new, malloc)

1.8 Storage Management

1.8.1 File-System Management

An OS is responsible for the following tasks with regards to filesystem management:

- Creating and deleting files and directories
- Supporting primitives for manipulating files and directories. (open, flush, etc.)
- Mapping files onto secondary storage.
- Backing up files onto stable permanent storage media.

1.8.2 Mass-Storage Management

An OS is responsible for the following tasks with regards to mass-storage management:

- Free disk space management
- Storage allocation
- Disk scheduling

Note the trade-offs regarding size, speed, longevity, security, and re-writability between different mass storage devices, including floppy disks, hard disks, tape drives, CDs, DVDs, etc.

1.8.3 Caching

- There are many cases in which a smaller higher-speed storage space serves as a cache, or temporary storage, for some of the most frequently needed portions of larger slower storage areas.
- The hierarchy of memory storage ranges from CPU registers to hard drives and external storage. (See table below.)
- The OS is responsible for determining what information to store in what level of cache, and when to transfer data from one level to another.
- The proper choice of cache management can have a profound impact on system performance.
- Data read in from disk follows a migration path from the hard drive to main memory, then to the CPU cache, and finally to the registers before it can be used, while data being written follows the reverse path. Each step (other than the registers) will typically fetch more data than is immediately needed, and cache the excess in order to satisfy future requests faster. For writing, small amounts of data are frequently buffered until there is enough to fill an entire "block" on the next output device in the chain.
- The issues get more complicated when multiple processes (or worse multiple computers) access common data, as it is important to ensure that every access reaches the most up-to-date copy of the cached data (amongst several copies in different cache levels.)

Level	1	2	3	4	5
Name	registers	cache	main memory	solid state disk	magnetic disk
Typical size	< 1 KB	< 16MB	< 64GB	< 1 TB	< 10 TB
Implementation technology	custom memory with multiple ports CMOS	on-chip or off-chip CMOS SRAM	CMOS SRAM	flash memory	magnetic disk
Access time (ns)	0.25 - 0.5	0.5 - 25	80 - 250	25,000 - 50,000	5,000,000
Bandwidth (MB/sec)	20,000 - 100,000	5,000 - 10,000	1,000 - 5,000	500	20 - 150
Managed by	compiler	hardware	operating system	operating system	operating system
Backed by	cache	main memory	disk	disk	disk or tape

Figure 1.11 - Performance of various levels of storage

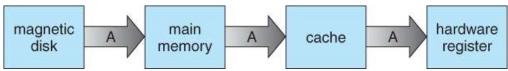


Figure 1.12 - Migration of integer A from disk to register

1.8.4 I/O Systems

The I/O subsystem consists of several components:

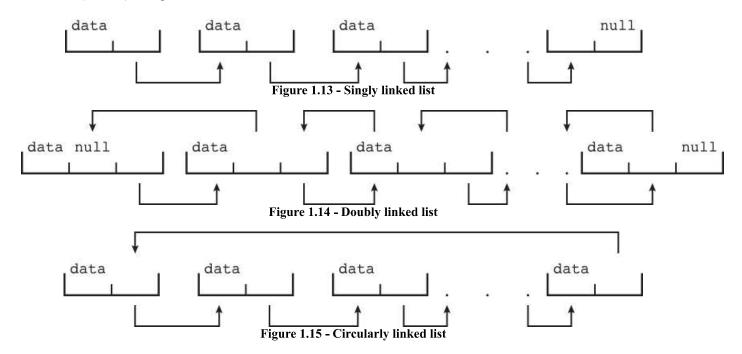
- A memory-management component that includes buffering, caching, and spooling.
- A general device-driver interface.
- Drivers for specific hardware devices.
- (UNIX implements multiple device interfaces for many types of devices, one for accessing the device character by character and one for accessing the device block by block. These can be seen by doing a long listing of /dev, and looking for a "c" or "b" in the first position. You will also note that the "size" field contains two numbers, known as the major and minor device numbers, instead of the normal one. The major number signifies which device driver handles I/O for this device, and the minor number is a parameter passed to the driver to let it know which specific device is being accessed. Where a device can be accessed as either a block or character device, the minor numbers for the two options usually differ by a single bit.)

1.9 Protection and Security

- *Protection* involves ensuring that no process access or interfere with resources to which they are not entitled, either by design or by accident. (E.g. "protection faults" when pointer variables are misused.)
- Security involves protecting the system from deliberate attacks, either from legitimate users of the system attempting to gain unauthorized access and privileges, or external attackers attempting to access or damage the system.

1.10 Kernel Data Structures

1.10.1 Lists, Stacks, and Queues



1.10.2 Trees

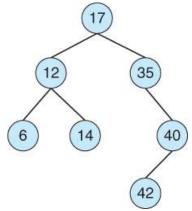


Figure 1.16 - Binary search trees

1.10.3 Hash Functions and Maps

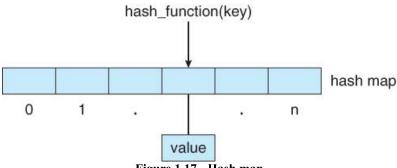


Figure 1.17 - Hash map

1.10.4 Bitmaps

• A string of 1s and 0s used to keep track of the boolean state of a collection of objects, such as the free state of blocks on a disk or pages in memory...

1.11 Computing Environments

1.11.1 Traditional Computing

1.11.2 Mobile Computing

- Computing on small handheld devices such as smart phones or tablets. (As opposed to laptops, which still fall under traditional computing.)
- May take advantage of additional built-in sensors, such as GPS, tilt, compass, and inertial movement.
- Typically connect to the Internet using wireless networking (IEEE 802.11) or cellular telephone technology.
- Limited in storage capacity, memory capacity, and computing power relative to a PC.
- Generally uses slower processors, that consume less battery power and produce less heat.
- The two dominant OSes today are Google Android and Apple iOS.

1.11.3 Distributed Systems

• Distributed Systems consist of multiple, possibly heterogeneous, computers connected together via a network and cooperating in some way, form, or fashion.