Three Key Ideas

Requirements

- A good OS should ...
 - ... maximize the utilization of resources (efficiency)
 - Undesirable: a CPU is allocated to execute a user program, but the CPU is often waiting for I/O operations during the allocated time period, when there are other user programs waiting to be executed
 - ... allocate resources fairly to multiple requesters (fairness)
 - Undesirable: one requester uses CPU for long time while others cannot use it at all

Requirements

- A good OS should ...
 - ... provide responsive support to real-time requests (responsiveness)
 - Undesirable: enter a character on your keyboard, but it appears on the monitor after 10 seconds
 - ... prevent the errors made by a single user/program from affecting others (i.e., the OS and other user/programs) (reliability)
 - ... prevent misuse of resources by user/program (security)

3 Key Ideas in OS Design

- Multiprogramming for Efficiency
- Timesharing (Multitasking) for fairness and responsiveness
- **Dual-mode** execution for resource protection

Multiprogramming

Mono-programming

- OS loads a program (job), runs it, and then replaces it with the next program.
- Only one job is in memory for execution.

Problems:

- When one job is being run (i.e., haven't finished), no other program can be executed.
- When the job issues an I/O request (e.g., open a file, read data from a file), it cannot continue until the request is fulfilled the job blocks on I/O.

Mono-programming cannot keep CPU and I/O devices busy

Operating System

Program and Data

Memory

Multiprogramming

Basic idea of multiprogramming:

- Keep multiple jobs in memory.
- When one job blocks on I/O, the operating system:
 - Starts the I/O operation.
 - Switches to another job that is ready to execute.
 - Now the CPU and I/O device are executing in parallel.
- When the I/O device has completed a request, it generates an interrupt to inform the CPU.

operating system job 1 job 2 job 3 job 4

512M

Comparisons

Suppose there are two programs:

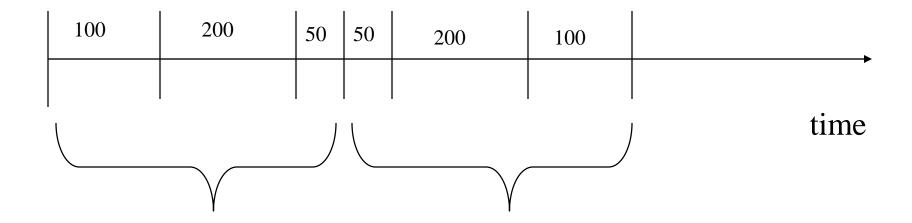
- A: Computation (100ms); I/O on device 1(200ms); Computation(50ms)
- B: Computation (50ms); I/O on device 2 (200ms); Computation(100ms)

How much time will it take to complete both programs when

- (1) Mono-programming is used?
- (2) Multi-programming is used?

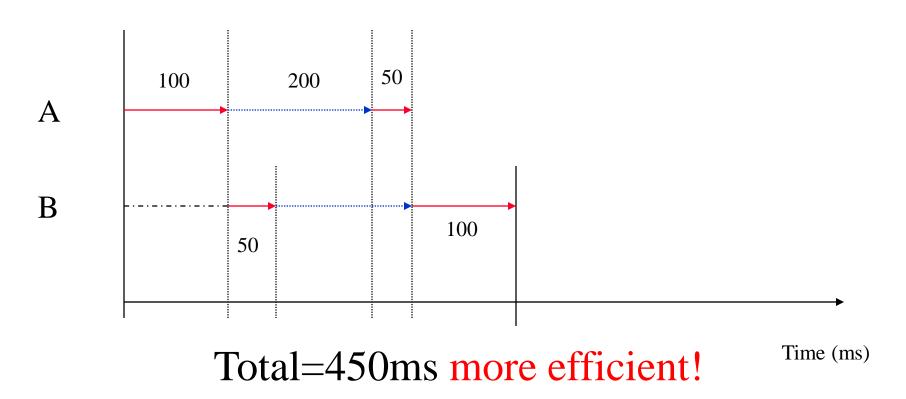
Assume there is only one CPU.

Mono-Programming



Total=700ms

Multi-Programming

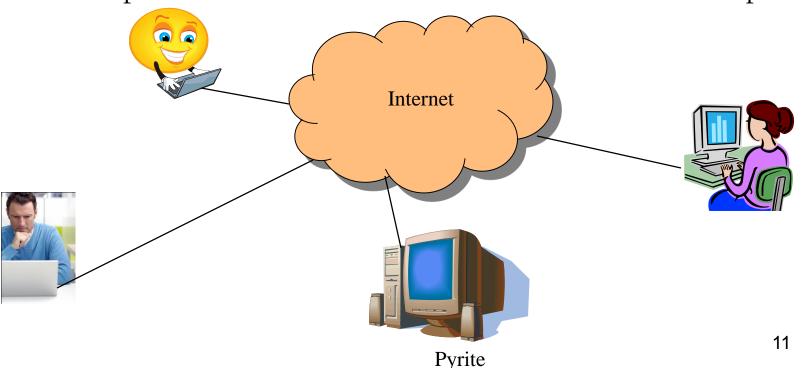


Multiprogramming

- First developed for batch systems in the 60s.
 - Go to the computer center and give them your program (stored on punch cards).
 - The computer operator "batched" several jobs together and loaded them into the computer.
 - Come back at 5:00pm to get the results of your program.
- Batch systems are non-interactive.

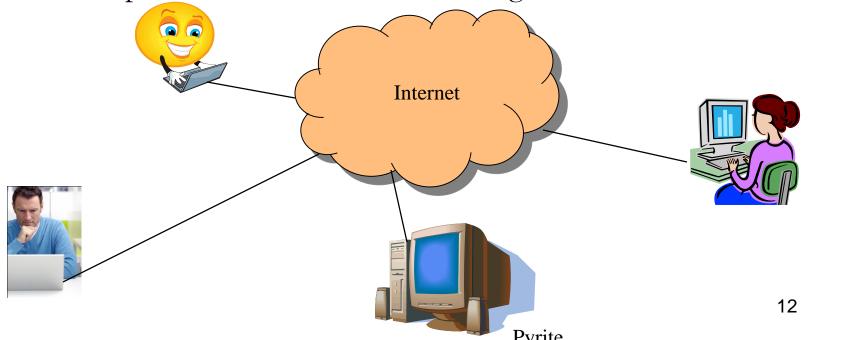
Time-Sharing (Multitasking)

- Logical extension of multiprogramming termed multitasking.
- Typical scenario:
 - Multiple users each uses a terminal to interact with computer.



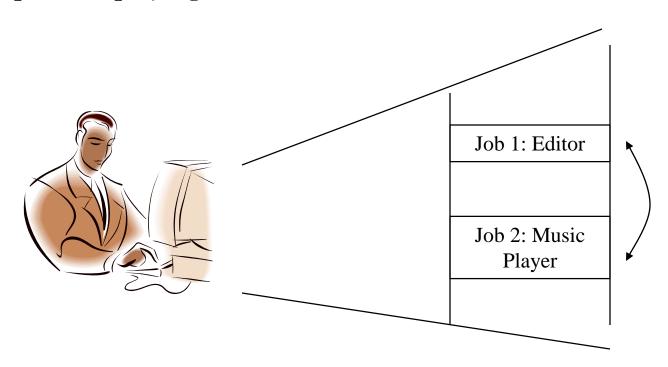
Time-Sharing (Multitasking)

- Each user has at least one program (job) in memory
- Switching between users' jobs every a certain time interval
- Goal is to give the illusion that each user is exclusively using the machine.
- Short response time and fairness in using the resources are achieved.



Time-Sharing (Multitasking)

- Not just for multitasking between different users ...
- Think that you are writing a paper on your computer while the computer is playing music



Comparisons

Suppose there are two programs:

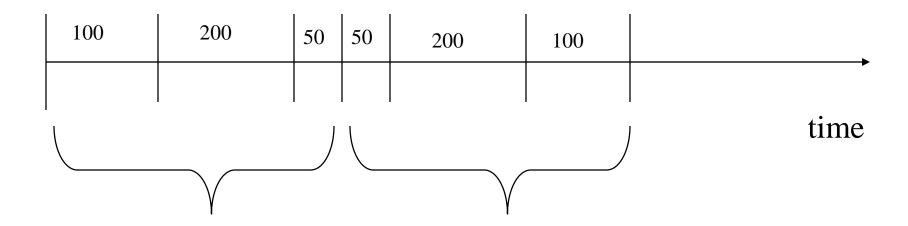
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How much time will it take to complete both programs when

- (1) Mono-programming is used?
- (2) Multi-programming is used?
- (3) Multi-tasking is used (assume: job switch occurs every 25ms)?

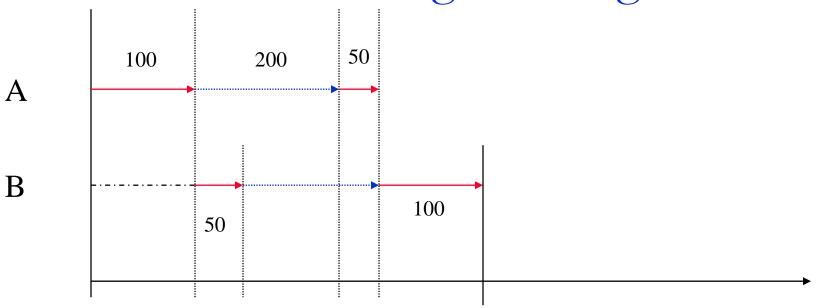
Assume there is only one CPU.

Mono-Programming



Total=700ms

Multi-Programming



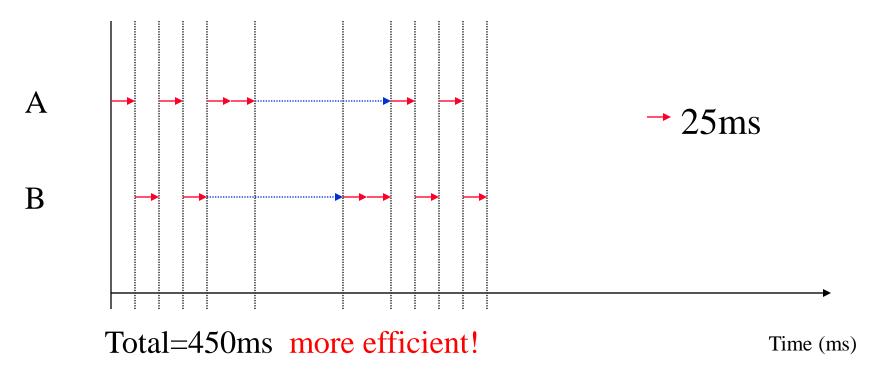
Total=450ms more efficient!

Time (ms)

Finish time for job A = 350 ms

Finish time for job B = 450 ms

Multi-Tasking



Finish time for job A = 425ms

Finish time for job B = 450 ms more fair!

Protection of System Resources

- What resources should be protected?
 - I/O Devices
 - Memory
 - CPU
 - Files
 - Operating System
- The protection is provided by using both software and hardware mechanisms

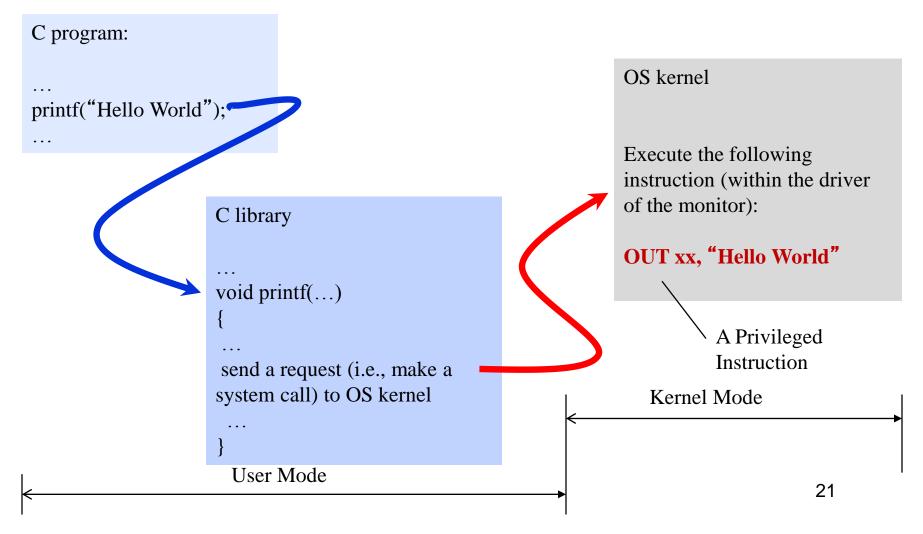
Dual-mode Operation

- Most of a contemporary computer system can run in one of at least two modes
 - User mode and kernel mode
- Some instructions (inappropriate use of which may cause damage to system resources and other user code) are designated as **privileged**, only executable in kernel mode
 - These instructions should be part of OS kernel
- Other instructions can be executed in the user (or kernel) mode and thus can be part of user program.
- Reason for dual-mode: code executed in kernel mode are parts of the OS, and are better tested (and hence more reliable) than user code.

Protection of I/O Devices

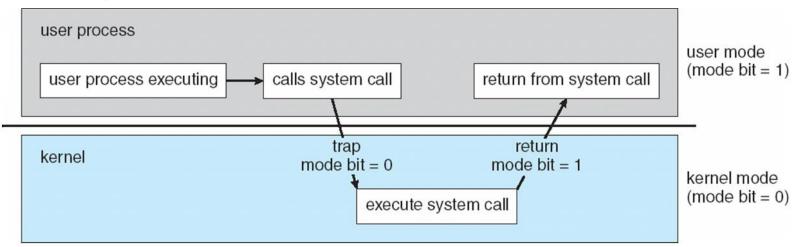
- All I/O instructions are privileged instructions.
- User programs can only request the OS kernel to access I/O device on behalf of them (the mechanism is termed system calls).

Example: What's behind printf?



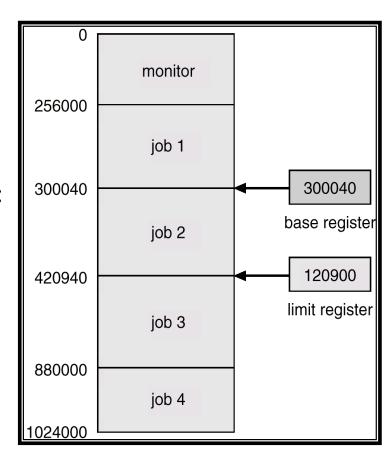
Switch between Modes

- When a user program is executed, the system is normally in user mode. It switches to kernel mode when ...
 - ... an interrupt is triggered by hardware (hardware interrupt)
 - ... a software error creates an exception (software interrupt)
 - ... user code requesting to operate on system resources (for example, to access an I/O device) creates a trap (i.e., makes a system call)

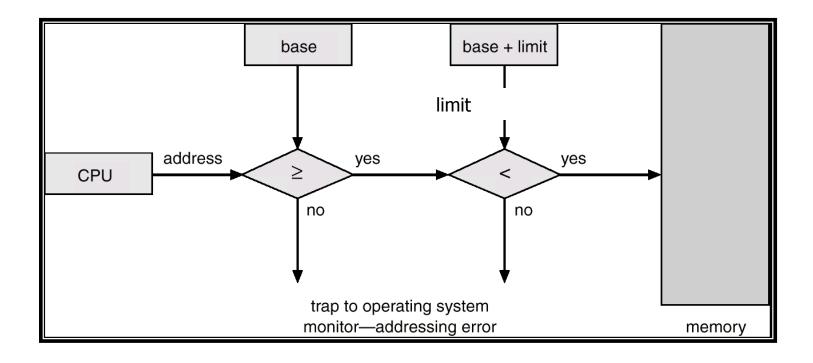


Memory Protection

- Must provide memory protection for kernel data structures (e.g., the interrupt vector, interrupt service routines) and other applications address space.
- Two registers that determine the range of legal addresses a user program may access:
 - **Base register** holds the smallest legal physical memory address.
 - **Limit register** contains the size of the range
- Memory outside the defined range of a user program is protected from being accessed by the program.

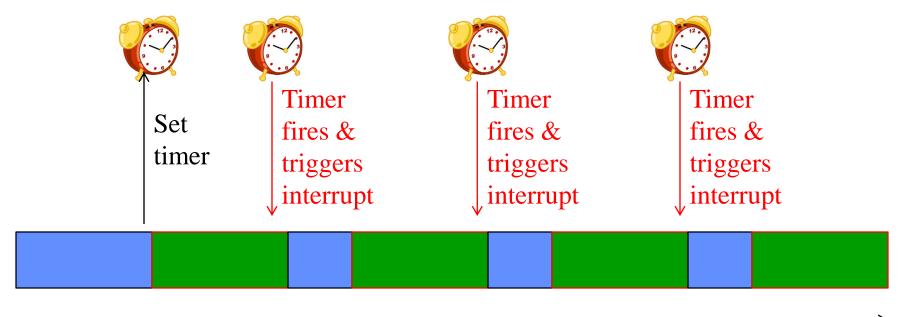


Hardware Address Protection



CPU (and OS) Protection

- Goal: Keep user from monopolizing CPU.
 - Ensure OS regains control of CPU every now and then.
- *Timer* interrupts computer after a specified period to ensure operating system maintains control.



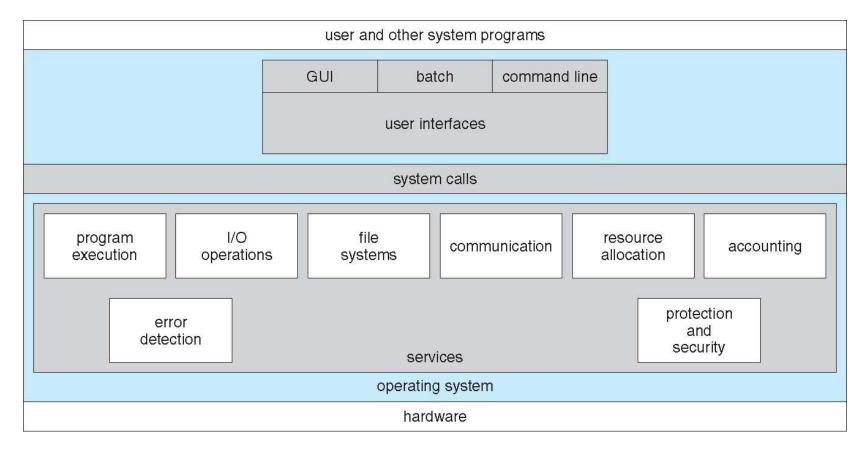
Time

Summary

- Mono-programming vs Multi-programming vs Multi-tasking (Time-sharing)
- User vs Kernel mode; Privileged instructions
- How to protect I/O devices
- How to protect Memory
- How to protect CPU and OS

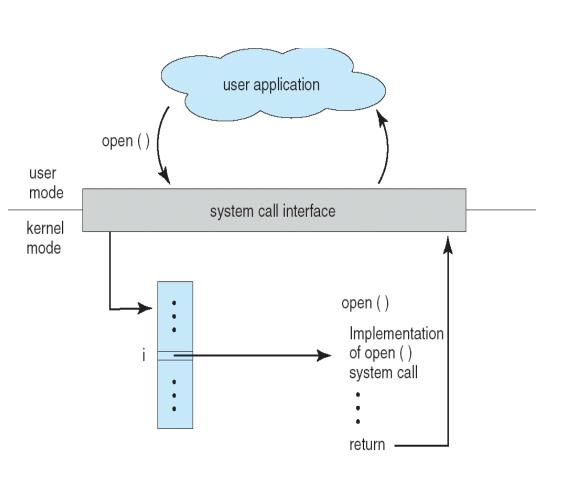
System Call

A View of Operating System Services



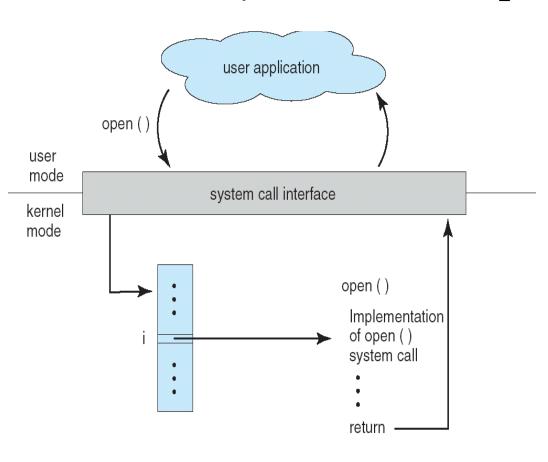
System calls:

Programming interface to the services provided by the OS



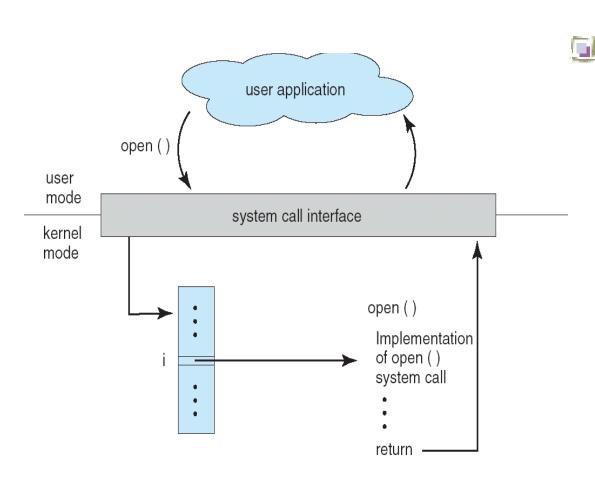
In kernel

- Associates a number with each system call
- Maintains a table indexed according to these numbers; each entry of the table points to the system service code

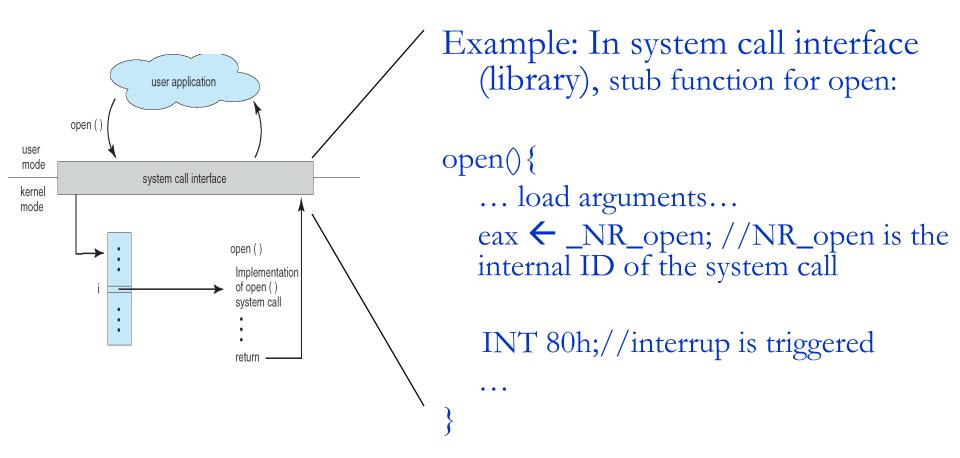


In User mode:

System-call interface is provided by the run-time support system (i.e., part of the libraries of a compiler)



interface includes stub functions that can invoke the implementation code of intended system calls in OS kernel and return status of the system calls and any return values



Types and Examples of System Calls

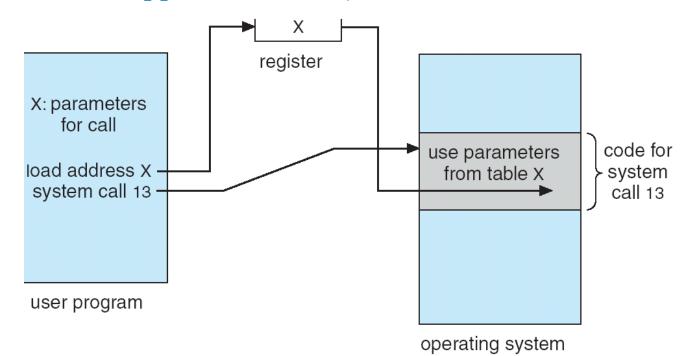
	Windows	Unix
Process Control	<pre>CreateProcess() ExitProcess() WaitForSingleObject()</pre>	<pre>fork() exit() wait()</pre>
File Manipulation	<pre>CreateFile() ReadFile() WriteFile() CloseHandle()</pre>	<pre>open() read() write() close()</pre>
Device Manipulation	<pre>SetConsoleMode() ReadConsole() WriteConsole()</pre>	ioctl() read() write()
Information Maintenance	<pre>GetCurrentProcessID() SetTimer() Sleep()</pre>	<pre>getpid() alarm() sleep()</pre>
Communication	<pre>CreatePipe() CreateFileMapping() MapViewOfFile()</pre>	<pre>pipe() shmget() mmap()</pre>
Protection	SetFileSecurity() InitlializeSecurityDescriptor() SetSecurityDescriptorGroup()	<pre>chmod() umask() chown()</pre>

System Call Parameter Passing

- Often, more information is required than simply identity of desired system call
 - Exact type and amount of information vary according to OS and call
- Three general methods used to pass parameters to the OS
 - Simplest: pass the parameters in registers

System Call Parameter Passing

- Three general methods used to pass parameters to the OS
 - Simplest: pass the parameters in registers
 - Parameters stored in a block, or table, in memory, and address of block passed as a parameter in a register
 - This approach taken by Linux and Solaris



System Call Parameter Passing

- Three general methods used to pass parameters to the OS
 - Simplest: pass the parameters in registers
 - Parameters stored in a *block*, or table, in memory, and address of block passed as a parameter in a register
 This approach taken by Linux and Solaris
 - Parameters placed, or *pushed*, onto the *stack* by the program and *popped* off the stack by the operating system
 - Block and stack methods do not limit the number or length of parameters being passed

System Calls vs API

- System services are mostly accessed by programs via a high-level Application Program Interface (API) rather than direct system call
- Three most common APIs are Win32 API for Windows, POSIX API for POSIX-based systems (including virtually all versions of UNIX, Linux, and Mac OS X), and Java API for the Java virtual machine (JVM)
- Why use APIs rather than system calls? Portability! Transparency!

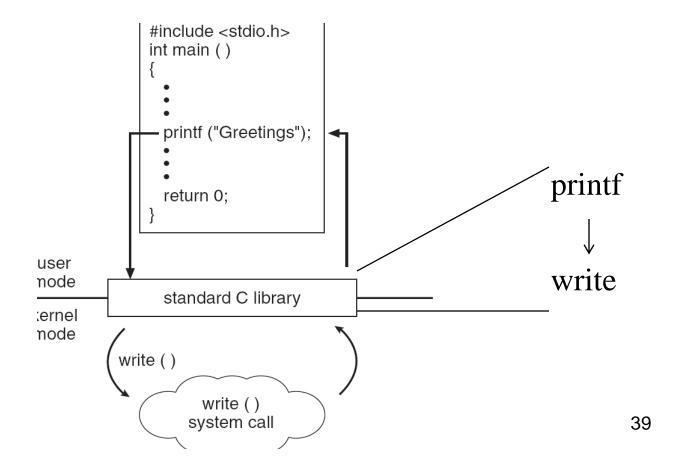


System Calls vs API

- The caller needs know nothing about how the system call is implemented
 - Just needs to obey API and understand what OS will do as a result
 - More details of OS interface hidden from programmer by API (provided by programming language libraries)

Standard C Library Example

C program invoking printf() library call, which calls write() system call



System Programs

- System programs provide a convenient environment for program development and execution. They fall into these categories:
 - File manipulation: ls, mkdir, rm, cd, ...
 - Status information of the system: date, uname, df, ...
 - File modification: cat, chmod, ...
 - Programming language support: cc, gcc, ...
 - Program loading and execution: ld, link, ...
 - Communications: talk, message, ...
- Implementation: Some are simply user interfaces to system calls; others are considerably more complex
- Most users' view of the operation system is defined by system programs, not the actual system calls

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Example

System program: mkdir

Usage: mkdir [OPTION] ... DIRECTORY ... Create the DIREcTORY(ies), if they do not already exist.

Mandatory arguments to long options are mandatory for short options too.

- -m, --mode=MODE set file mode (as in chmod), not a=rwx umask
- -p, --parents no error if existing, make parent directories as needed
- -v, --verbose print a message for each created directory
- -Z, --context=CTX set the SELinux security context of each created directory to CTX
 - --help display this help and exit
 - --version output version information and exit

(run "mkdir –help" can get the above)

Example

SYNOPSIS

```
#include <sys/stat.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
int mkdir(const char *pathname, mode_t mode);
```

DESCRIPTION

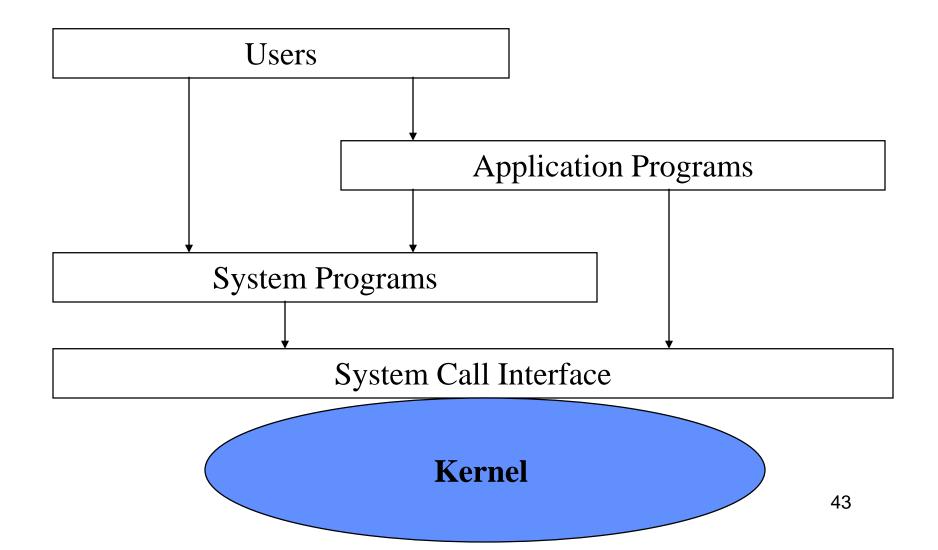
mkdir() attempts to create a directory named pathname.

The argument mode specifies the permissions to use. It is modified by the processes umask in the usual way: the permission of the created directory are (mode & ~umask & 0777). Other mode bits of the created directory depend on the operating system. For Linux, see below.

...

(run "man 2 mkdir" can get the above)

Relation between Users, Apps, System Calls, and System Programs



Summary

- System call vs procedure all
- System call vs programming language API
- Implementation details of system calls
- System programs vs Application programs