Chapter 1: Introduction





What is an Operating System?

- A program that acts as an intermediary between a user of a computer and the computer hardware
- Operating system goals:
 - Execute user programs and make solving user problems easier
 - Make the computer system convenient to use
 - Use the computer hardware in an efficient manner





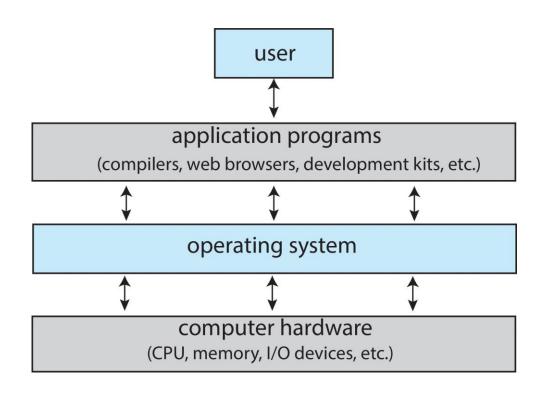
Computer System Structure

- Computer system can be divided into four components:
 - Hardware provides basic computing resources
 - ▶ CPU, memory, I/O devices
 - Operating system
 - Controls and coordinates use of hardware among various applications and users
 - Application programs define the ways in which the system resources are used to solve the computing problems of the users
 - Word processors, compilers, web browsers, database systems, video games
 - Users
 - People, machines, other computers





Abstract View of Components of Computer







What Operating Systems Do

- Depends on the point of view
- Users want convenience, ease of use and good performance
 - Don't care about resource utilization
- But shared computer such as mainframe or minicomputer must keep all users happy
 - Operating system is a resource allocator and control program making efficient use of HW and managing execution of user programs
- Users of dedicate systems such as workstations have dedicated resources but frequently use shared resources from servers
- Mobile devices like smartphones and tables are resource poor, optimized for usability and battery life
 - Mobile user interfaces such as touch screens, voice recognition
- Some computers have little or no user interface, such as embedded computers in devices and automobiles
 - Run primarily without user intervention



Defining Operating Systems

- Term OS covers many roles
 - Because of myriad designs and uses of OSes
 - Present in toasters through ships, spacecraft, game machines,
 TVs and industrial control systems
 - Born when fixed use computers for military became more general purpose and needed resource management and program control





Operating System Definition

- No universally accepted definition
- "Everything a vendor ships when you order an operating system" is a good approximation
 - But varies wildly
- "The one program running at all times on the computer" is the kernel, part of the operating system
- Everything else is either
 - A system program (ships with the operating system, but not part of the kernel), or
 - An application program, all programs not associated with the operating system
- Today's OSes for general purpose and mobile computing also include middleware – a set of software frameworks that provide additional services to application developers such as databases, multimedia, graphics



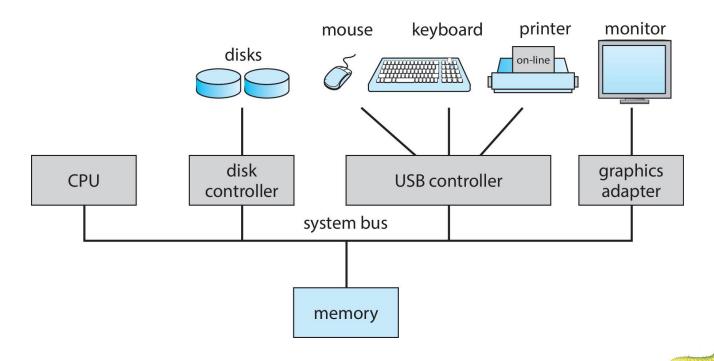
Overview of Computer System Structure





Computer System Organization

- Computer-system operation
 - One or more CPUs, device controllers connect through common bus providing access to shared memory
 - Concurrent execution of CPUs and devices competing for memory cycles





Computer-System Operation

- I/O devices and the CPU can execute concurrently
- Each device controller is in charge of a particular device type
- Each device controller has a local buffer
- Each device controller type has an operating system device driver to manage it
- CPU moves data from/to main memory to/from local buffers
- I/O is from the device to local buffer of controller
- Device controller informs CPU that it has finished its operation by causing an interrupt





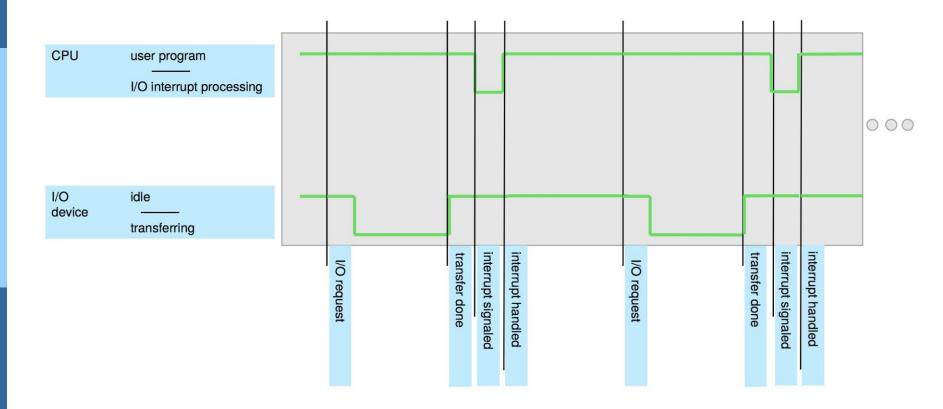
Common Functions of Interrupts

- Interrupt transfers control to the interrupt service routine generally, through the interrupt vector, which contains the addresses of all the service routines
- Interrupt architecture must save the address of the interrupted instruction
- A trap or exception is a software-generated interrupt caused either by an error or a user request
- An operating system is interrupt driven





Interrupt Timeline

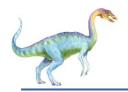




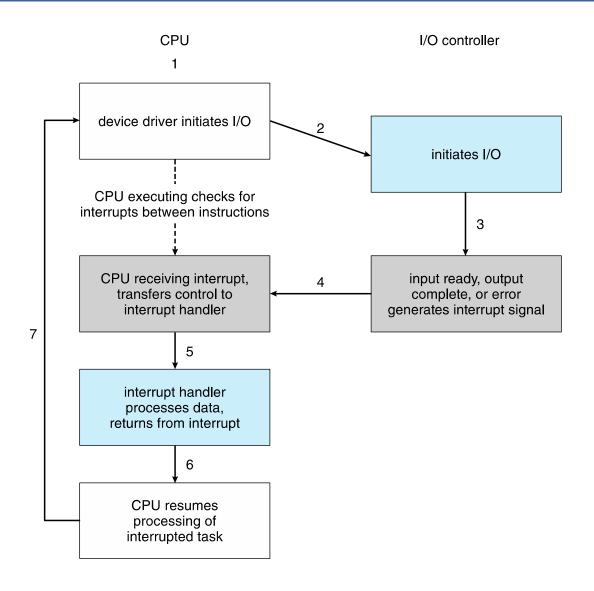
Interrupt Handling

- The operating system preserves the state of the CPU by storing the registers and the program counter
- Determines which type of interrupt has occurred:
- Separate segments of code determine what action should be taken for each type of interrupt





Interrupt-drive I/O Cycle







Storage Structure





Storage Structure

- Main memory only large storage media that the CPU can access directly
 - Random access
 - Typically volatile
 - Typically random-access memory in the form of Dynamic Random-access Memory (DRAM)
- Secondary storage extension of main memory that provides large nonvolatile storage capacity





Storage Structure (Cont.)

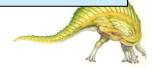
- Hard Disk Drives (HDD) rigid metal or glass platters covered with magnetic recording material
 - Disk surface is logically divided into tracks, which are subdivided into sectors
 - The disk controller determines the logical interaction between the device and the computer
- Non-volatile memory (NVM) devices— faster than hard disks, nonvolatile
 - Various technologies
 - Becoming more popular as capacity and performance increases, price drops





The basic unit of computer storage is the **bit**. A bit can contain one of two values, 0 and 1. All other storage in a computer is based on collections of bits. Given enough bits, it is amazing how many things a computer can represent: numbers, letters, images, movies, sounds, documents, and programs, to name a few. A **byte** is 8 bits, and on most computers it is the smallest convenient chunk of storage. For example, most computers don't have an instruction to move a bit but do have one to move a byte. A less common term is **word**, which is a given computer architecture's native unit of data. A word is made up of one or more bytes. For example, a computer that has 64-bit registers and 64-bit memory addressing typically has 64-bit (8-byte) words. A computer executes many operations in its native word size rather than a byte at a time.

Computer storage, along with most computer throughput, is generally measured and manipulated in bytes and collections of bytes. A **kilobyte**, or KB , is 1,024 bytes; a **megabyte**, or **MB**, is 1,024² bytes; a **gigabyte**, or **GB**, is 1,024³ bytes; a **terabyte**, or **TB**, is 1,024⁴ bytes; and a **petabyte**, or **PB**, is 1,024⁵ bytes. Computer manufacturers often round off these numbers and say that a megabyte is 1 million bytes and a gigabyte is 1 billion bytes. Networking measurements are an exception to this general rule; they are given in bits (because networks move data a bit at a time).





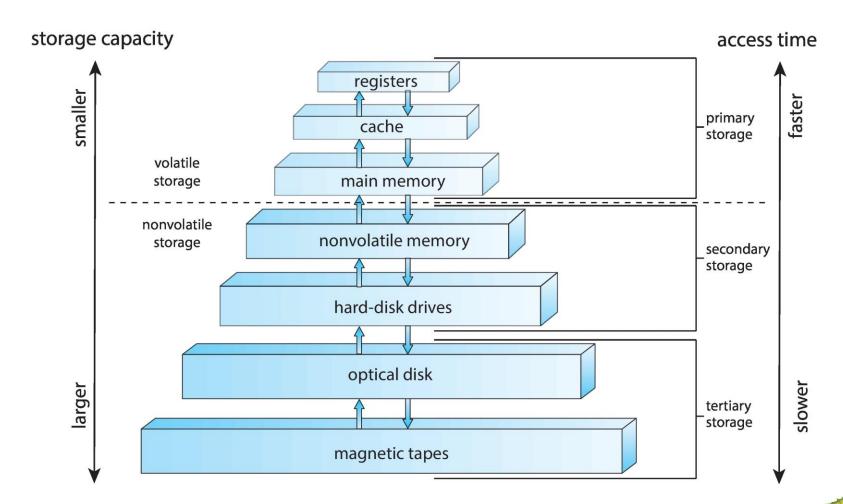
Storage Hierarchy

- Storage systems organized in hierarchy
 - Speed
 - Cost
 - Volatility
- Caching copying information into faster storage system; main memory can be viewed as a cache for secondary storage
- Device Driver for each device controller to manage I/O
 - Provides uniform interface between controller and kernel





Storage-Device Hierarchy





Caching

- Important principle, performed at many levels in a computer (in hardware, operating system, software)
- Information in use copied from slower to faster storage temporarily
- Faster storage (cache) checked first to determine if information is there
 - If it is, information used directly from the cache (fast)
 - If not, data copied to cache and used there
- Cache smaller than storage being cached
 - Cache management important design problem
 - Cache size and replacement policy





Characteristics of Various Types of Storage

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

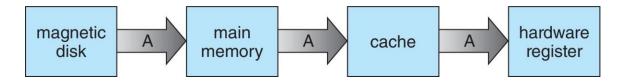
Movement between levels of storage hierarchy can be explicit or implicit





Migration of data "A" from Disk to Register

 Multitasking environments must be careful to use most recent value, no matter where it is stored in the storage hierarchy

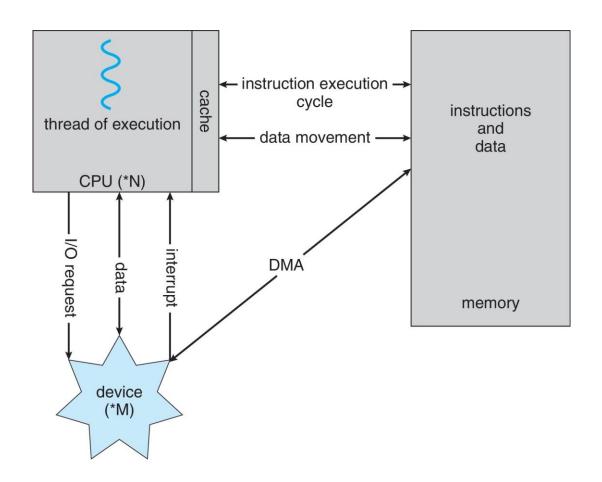


- Multiprocessor environment must provide cache coherency in hardware such that all CPUs have the most recent value in their cache
- Distributed environment situation even more complex
 - Several copies of a datum can exist
 - Various solutions covered in Chapter 19





How a Modern Computer Works



A von Neumann architecture





Direct Memory Access Structure

- Used for high-speed I/O devices able to transmit information at close to memory speeds
- Device controller transfers blocks of data from buffer storage directly to main memory without CPU intervention
- Only one interrupt is generated per block, rather than the one interrupt per byte





Operating-System Operations

- Bootstrap program simple code to initialize the system, load the kernel
- Kernel loads
- Starts system daemons (services provided outside of the kernel)
- Kernel interrupt driven (hardware and software)
 - Hardware interrupt by one of the devices
 - Software interrupt (exception or trap):
 - Software error (e.g., division by zero)
 - Request for operating system service system call
 - Other process problems include infinite loop, processes modifying each other or the operating system





Multiprogramming (Batch system)

- Single user cannot always keep CPU and I/O devices busy
- Multiprogramming organizes jobs (code and data) so CPU always has one to execute
- A subset of total jobs in system is kept in memory
- One job selected and run via job scheduling
- When job has to wait (for I/O for example), OS switches to another job





Multitasking (Timesharing)

- A logical extension of Batch systems— the CPU switches jobs so frequently that users can interact with each job while it is running, creating interactive computing
 - Response time should be < 1 second
 - Each user has at least one program executing in memory
 ⇒ process
 - If several jobs ready to run at the same time ⇒ CPU scheduling
 - If processes don't fit in memory, swapping moves them in and out to run
 - Virtual memory allows execution of processes not completely in memory





Memory Layout for Multiprogrammed System

max	operating system
	process 1
	process 2
	process 3
0	process 4





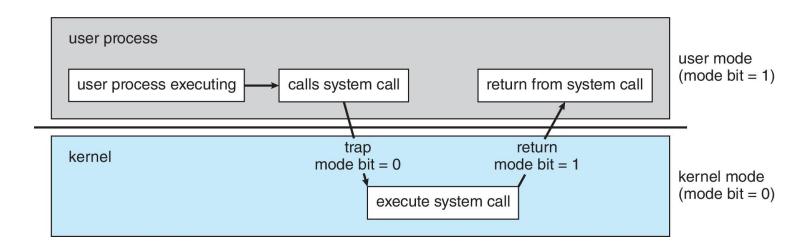
Dual-mode Operation

- Dual-mode operation allows OS to protect itself and other system components
 - User mode and kernel mode
- Mode bit provided by hardware
 - Provides ability to distinguish when system is running user code or kernel code.
 - When a user is running ⇒ mode bit is "user"
 - When kernel code is executing ⇒ mode bit is "kernel"
- How do we guarantee that user does not explicitly set the mode bit to "kernel"?
 - System call changes mode to kernel, return from call resets it to user
- Some instructions designated as privileged, only executable in kernel mode





Transition from User to Kernel Mode







Timer

- Timer to prevent infinite loop (or process hogging resources)
 - Timer is set to interrupt the computer after some time period
 - Keep a counter that is decremented by the physical clock
 - Operating system set the counter (privileged instruction)
 - When counter zero generate an interrupt
 - Set up before scheduling process to regain control or terminate program that exceeds allotted time





Process Management

- A process is a program in execution. It is a unit of work within the system. Program is a passive entity; process is an active entity.
- Process needs resources to accomplish its task
 - CPU, memory, I/O, files
 - Initialization data
- Process termination requires reclaim of any reusable resources
- Single-threaded process has one program counter specifying location of next instruction to execute
 - Process executes instructions sequentially, one at a time, until completion
- Multi-threaded process has one program counter per thread
- Typically system has many processes, some user, some operating system running concurrently on one or more CPUs
 - Concurrency by multiplexing the CPUs among the processes / threads





Process Management Activities

The operating system is responsible for the following activities in connection with process management:

- Creating and deleting both user and system processes
- Suspending and resuming processes
- Providing mechanisms for process synchronization
- Providing mechanisms for process communication
- Providing mechanisms for deadlock handling





Memory Management

- To execute a program all (or part) of the instructions must be in memory
- All (or part) of the data that is needed by the program must be in memory
- Memory management determines what is in memory and when
 - Optimizing CPU utilization and computer response to users
- Memory management activities
 - Keeping track of which parts of memory are currently being used and by whom
 - Deciding which processes (or parts thereof) and data to move into and out of memory
 - Allocating and deallocating memory space as needed





File-system Management

- File-System management
 - Files usually organized into directories
 - Access control on most systems to determine who can access what
 - OS activities include
 - Creating and deleting files and directories
 - Primitives to manipulate files and directories
 - Mapping files onto secondary storage
 - Backup files onto stable (non-volatile) storage media





I/O Subsystem

- I/O subsystem responsible for
 - Memory management of I/O including
 - buffering (storing data temporarily while it is being transferred),
 - caching (storing parts of data in faster storage for performance),
 - spooling (the overlapping of output of one job with input of other jobs)
 - General device-driver interface
 - Drivers for specific hardware devices





Computer System Architecture





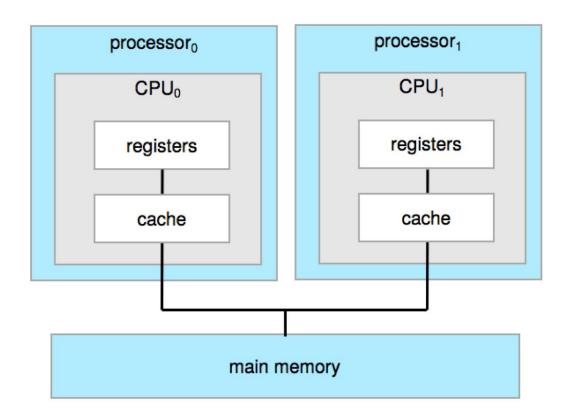
Computer-System Architecture

- Most systems use a single general-purpose processor
 - Most systems have special-purpose processors as well
- Multiprocessors systems growing in use and importance
 - Also known as parallel systems, tightly-coupled systems
 - Advantages include:
 - 1. Increased throughput
 - 2. Economy of scale
 - 3. **Increased reliability** graceful degradation or fault tolerance
 - Two types:
 - Asymmetric Multiprocessing each processor is assigned a specie task.
 - Symmetric Multiprocessing each processor performs all tasks





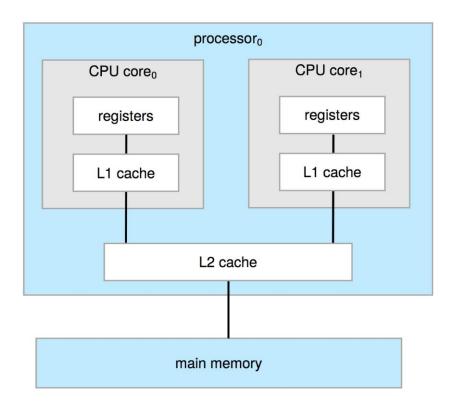
Symmetric Multiprocessing Architecture







Dual-Core Design







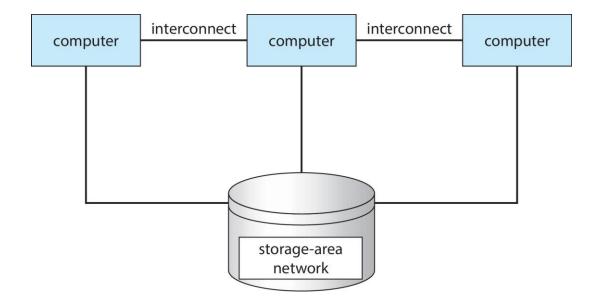
Clustered Systems

- Like multiprocessor systems, but multiple systems working together
 - Usually sharing storage via a storage-area network (SAN)
 - Provides a high-availability service which survives failures
 - Asymmetric clustering has one machine in hot-standby mode
 - Symmetric clustering has multiple nodes running applications, monitoring each other
 - Some clusters are for high-performance computing (HPC)
 - Applications must be written to use parallelization
 - Some have distributed lock manager (DLM) to avoid conflicting operations





Clustered Systems





End of Chapter 1

