Chapter 1: Introduction





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What Operating Systems Do

Computer-System Organization

Computer-System Architecture

Operating-System Structure

Operating-System Operations

Process Management

Memory Management

Storage Management

Protection and Security

Kernel Data Structures

Computing Environments

Open-Source Operating Systems





Objectives

To describe the basic organization of computer systems

To provide a grand tour of the major components of operating systems

To give an overview of the many types of computing environments

To explore several open-source operating systems





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

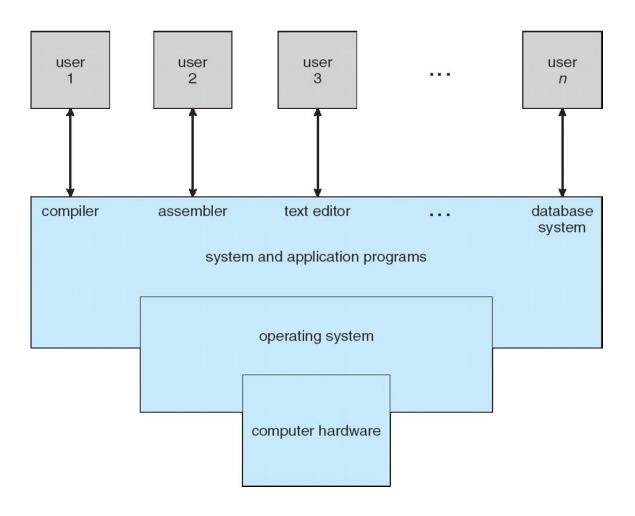
Users

People, machines, other computers





Four Components of a Computer System







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

Users of dedicate systems such as **workstations** have dedicated resources but frequently use shared resources from **servers**

Handheld computers are resource poor, optimized for usability and battery life

Some computers have little or no user interface, such as embedded computers in devices and automobiles





Operating System Definition

OS is a resource allocator

Manages all resources

Decides between conflicting requests for efficient and fair resource use

OS is a control program

Controls execution of programs to prevent errors and improper use of the computer





Operating System Definition (Cont.)

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.

Everything else is either

a system program (ships with the operating system), or an application program.





Computer Startup

bootstrap program is loaded at power-up or reboot

Typically stored in ROM or EPROM, generally known as firmware

Initializes all aspects of system

Loads operating system kernel and starts execution



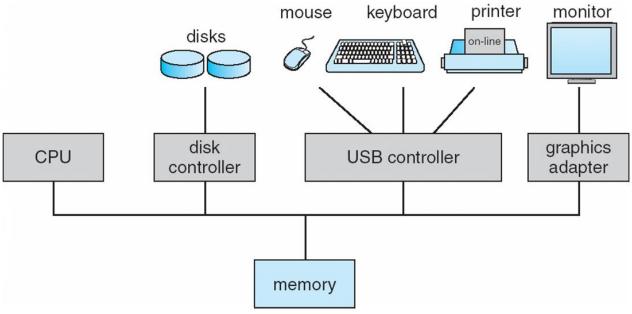


Computer System Organization

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

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 Handling

The operating system preserves the state of the CPU by storing registers and the program counter

Determines which type of interrupt has occurred:

polling

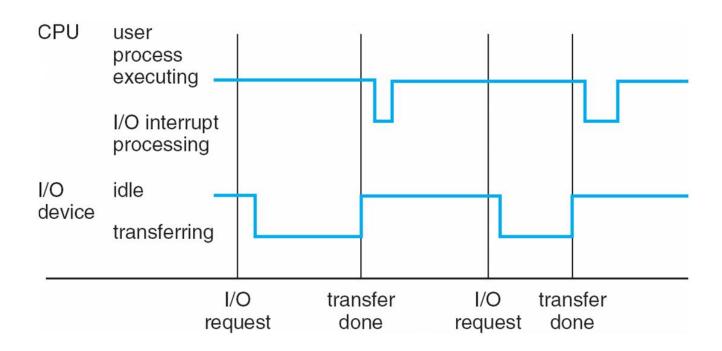
vectored interrupt system

Separate segments of code determine what action should be taken for each type of interrupt





Interrupt Timeline







I/O Structure

After I/O starts, control returns to user program only upon I/O completion

Wait instruction idles the CPU until the next interrupt

Wait loop (contention for memory access)

At most one I/O request is outstanding at a time, no simultaneous I/O processing

After I/O starts, control returns to user program without waiting for I/O completion

System call – request to the OS to allow user to wait for I/O completion

Device-status table contains entry for each I/O device indicating its type, address, and state

OS indexes into I/O device table to determine device status and to modify table entry to include interrupt





Storage Definitions and Notation Review

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
- 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 Structure

Main memory – only large storage media that the CPU can access directly

Random access

Typically volatile

Secondary storage – extension of main memory that provides large nonvolatile storage capacity

Hard disks – 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

Solid-state disks – faster than hard disks, nonvolatile

Various technologies

Becoming more popular





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

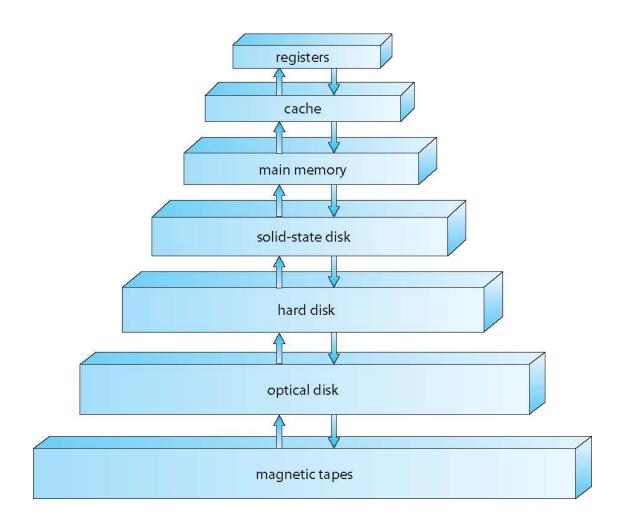
Device Driver for each device controller to manage I/O

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





Direct Memory Access Structure

Used for high-speed I/O devices able to transmit information at close to memory speeds

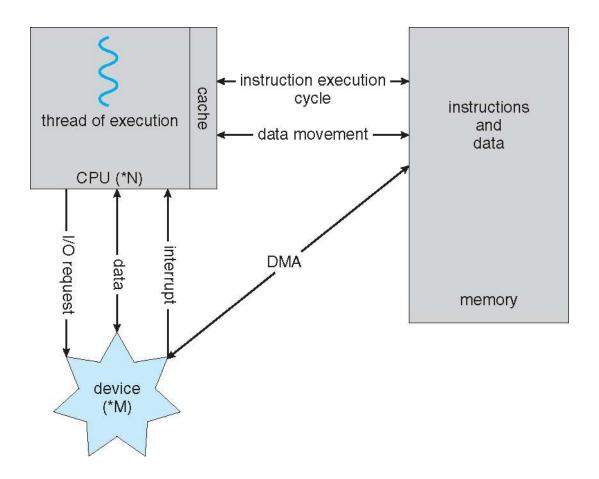
Device controller transfers blocks of data from buffer storage directly to main memory without CPU intervention

Only one interrupt is generated per block, rather than the one interrupt per byte





How a Modern Computer Works



A von Neumann 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

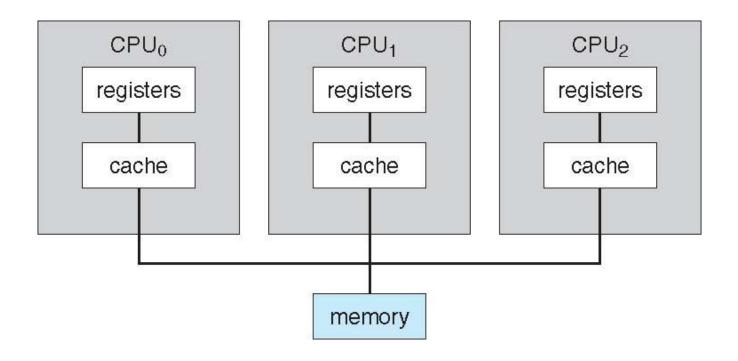
Two types:

- Asymmetric Multiprocessing each processor is assigned a specie task.
- 2. Symmetric Multiprocessing each processor performs all tasks





Symmetric Multiprocessing Architecture





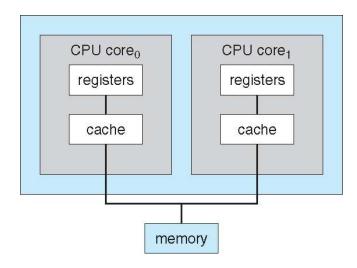


A Dual-Core Design

Multi-chip and multicore

Systems containing all chips

Chassis containing multiple separate systems







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)

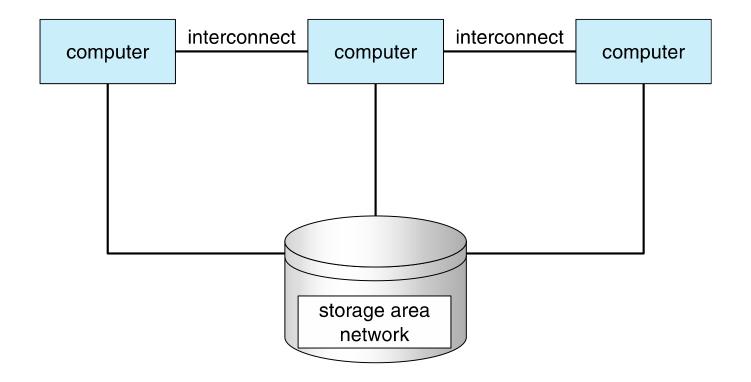
Applications must be written to use parallelization

Some have distributed lock manager (DLM) to avoid conflicting operations

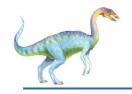




Clustered Systems







Operating System Structure

Multiprogramming (Batch system) needed for efficiency

Single user cannot keep CPU and I/O devices busy at all times

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 it has to wait (for I/O for example), OS switches to another job

Timesharing (multitasking) is logical extension in which 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

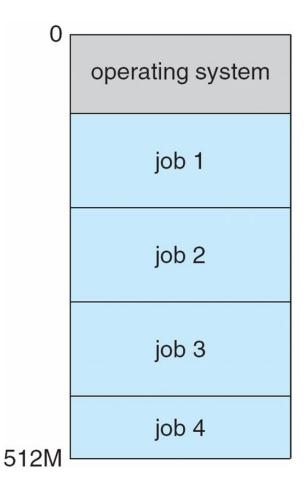
If several jobs ready to run at the same time ⇒ CPU scheduling

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







Operating-System Operations

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
- Other process problems include infinite loop, processes modifying each other or the operating system





Operating-System Operations (cont.)

Dual-mode operation allows OS to protect itself and other system components

User mode and kernel mode

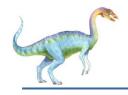
Mode bit provided by hardware

- Provides ability to distinguish when system is running user code or kernel code
- Some instructions designated as privileged, only executable in kernel mode
- System call changes mode to kernel, return from call resets it to user

Increasingly CPUs support multi-mode operations

i.e. virtual machine manager (VMM) mode for guest VMs





Transition from User to Kernel Mode

Timer to prevent infinite loop / process hogging resources

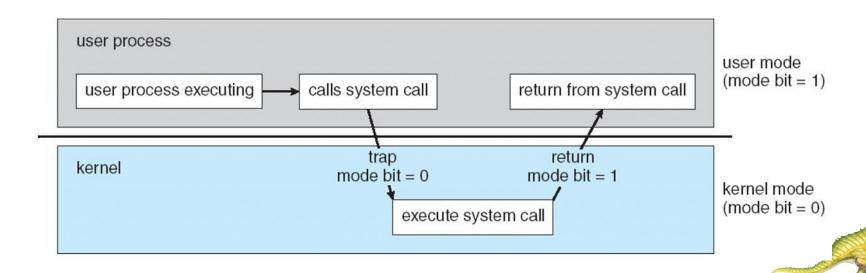
Timer is set to interrupt the computer after some time period

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





Storage Management

OS provides uniform, logical view of information storage

Abstracts physical properties to logical storage unit - file

Each medium is controlled by device (i.e., disk drive, tape drive)

 Varying properties include access speed, capacity, datatransfer rate, access method (sequential or random)

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





Mass-Storage Management

Usually disks used to store data that does not fit in main memory or data that must be kept for a "long" period of time

Proper management is of central importance

Entire speed of computer operation hinges on disk subsystem and its algorithms

OS activities

Free-space management

Storage allocation

Disk scheduling

Some storage need not be fast

Tertiary storage includes optical storage, magnetic tape

Still must be managed – by OS or applications

Varies between WORM (write-once, read-many-times) and RW (read-write)



Performance of Various Levels 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

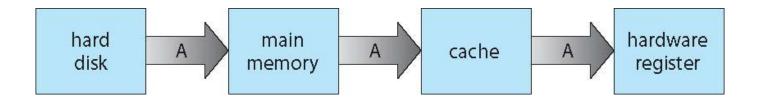
Movement between levels of storage hierarchy can be explicit or implicit





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 17





I/O Subsystem

One purpose of OS is to hide peculiarities of hardware devices from the user

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





Protection and Security

Protection – any mechanism for controlling access of processes or users to resources defined by the OS

Security – defense of the system against internal and external attacks

Huge range, including denial-of-service, worms, viruses, identity theft, theft of service

Systems generally first distinguish among users, to determine who can do what

User identities (user IDs, security IDs) include name and associated number, one per user

User ID then associated with all files, processes of that user to determine access control

Group identifier (group ID) allows set of users to be defined and controls managed, then also associated with each process, file

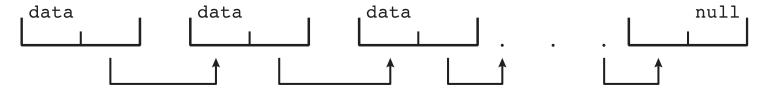
Privilege escalation allows user to change to effective ID with more rights



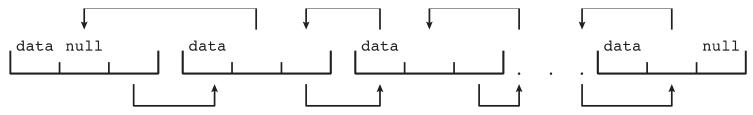


Kernel Data Structures

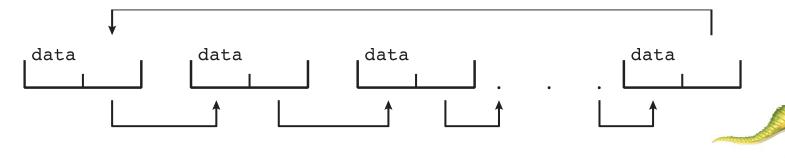
- Many similar to standard programming data structures
- n Singly linked list



n Doubly linked list



n Circular linked list





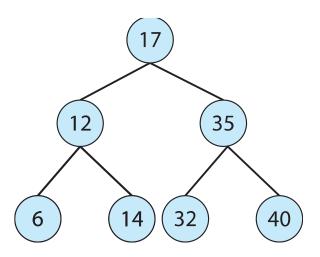
Kernel Data Structures

Binary search tree

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Search performance is O(n)

Balanced binary search tree is O(lg n)

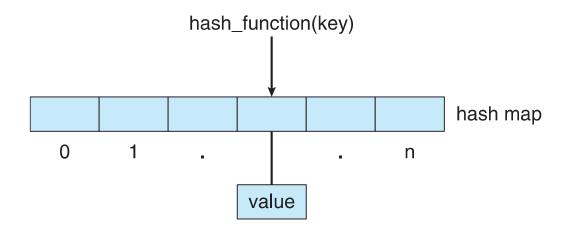






Kernel Data Structures

Hash function can create a hash map



Bitmap – string of *n* binary digits representing the status of *n* items Linux data structures defined in

include files <linux/list.h>, <linux/kfifo.h>,
<linux/rbtree.h>





Computing Environments - Traditional

Stand-alone general purpose machines

But blurred as most systems interconnect with others (i.e., the Internet)

Portals provide web access to internal systems

Network computers (thin clients) are like Web terminals

Mobile computers interconnect via wireless networks

Networking becoming ubiquitous – even home systems use **firewalls** to protect home computers from Internet attacks





Computing Environments - Mobile

Handheld smartphones, tablets, etc

What is the functional difference between them and a "traditional" laptop?

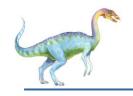
Extra feature – more OS features (GPS, gyroscope)

Allows new types of apps like *augmented reality*

Use IEEE 802.11 wireless, or cellular data networks for connectivity

Leaders are Apple iOS and Google Android





Computing Environments – Distributed

Distributed computiing

Collection of separate, possibly heterogeneous, systems networked together

- Network is a communications path, TCP/IP most common
 - Local Area Network (LAN)
 - Wide Area Network (WAN)
 - Metropolitan Area Network (MAN)
 - Personal Area Network (PAN)

Network Operating System provides features between systems across network

- Communication scheme allows systems to exchange messages
- Illusion of a single system





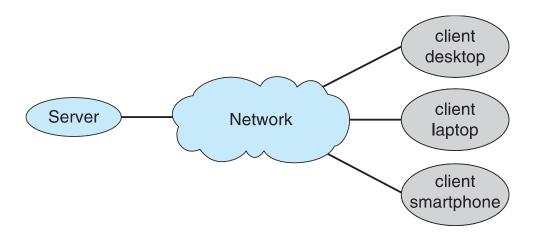
Computing Environments – Client-Server

Client-Server Computing

Dumb terminals supplanted by smart PCs

Many systems now **servers**, responding to requests generated by **clients**

- Compute-server system provides an interface to client to request services (i.e., database)
- File-server system provides interface for clients to store and retrieve files





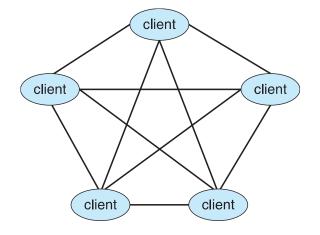


Computing Environments - Peer-to-Peer

Another model of distributed system
P2P does not distinguish clients and servers
Instead all nodes are considered peers
May each act as client, server or both
Node must join P2P network

- Registers its service with central lookup service on network, or
- Broadcast request for service and respond to requests for service via discovery protocol

Examples include Napster and Gnutella, Voice over IP (VoIP) such as Skype







Computing Environments - Virtualization

Allows operating systems to run applications within other OSes Vast and growing industry

Emulation used when source CPU type different from target type (i.e. PowerPC to Intel x86)

Generally slowest method

When computer language not compiled to native code – **Interpretation**

Virtualization – OS natively compiled for CPU, running guest OSes also natively compiled

Consider VMware running WinXP guests, each running applications, all on native WinXP host OS

VMM (virtual machine Manager) provides virtualization services





Computing Environments - Virtualization

Use cases involve laptops and desktops running multiple OSes for exploration or compatibility

Apple laptop running Mac OS X host, Windows as a guest

Developing apps for multiple OSes without having multiple systems

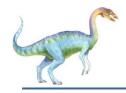
QA testing applications without having multiple systems

Executing and managing compute environments within data centers

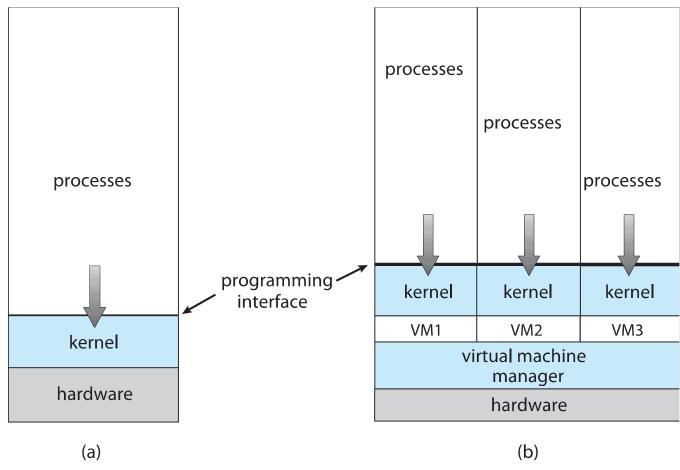
VMM can run natively, in which case they are also the host

There is no general purpose host then (VMware ESX and Citrix XenServer)





Computing Environments - Virtualization







Computing Environments – Cloud Computing

Delivers computing, storage, even apps as a service across a network Logical extension of virtualization because it uses virtualization as the base for it functionality.

Amazon EC2 has thousands of servers, millions of virtual machines, petabytes of storage available across the Internet, pay based on usage Many types

Public cloud – available via Internet to anyone willing to pay

Private cloud – run by a company for the company's own use

Hybrid cloud – includes both public and private cloud components

Software as a Service (SaaS) – one or more applications available via the Internet (i.e., word processor)

Platform as a Service (PaaS) – software stack ready for application use via the Internet (i.e., a database server)

Infrastructure as a Service (laaS) – servers or storage available over Internet (i.e., storage available for backup use)



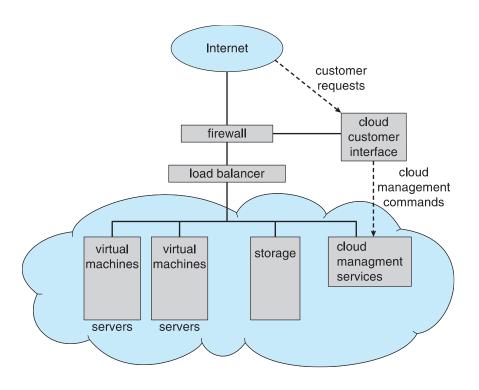


Computing Environments – Cloud Computing

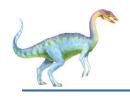
Cloud computing environments composed of traditional OSes, plus VMMs, plus cloud management tools

Internet connectivity requires security like firewalls

Load balancers spread traffic across multiple applications







Computing Environments – Real-Time Embedded Systems

Real-time embedded systems most prevalent form of computers

Vary considerable, special purpose, limited purpose OS,

real-time OS

Use expanding

Many other special computing environments as well
Some have OSes, some perform tasks without an OS
Real-time OS has well-defined fixed time constraints
Processing *must* be done within constraint

Correct operation only if constraints met





Open-Source Operating Systems

Operating systems made available in source-code format rather than just binary closed-source

Counter to the copy protection and Digital Rights
Management (DRM) movement

Started by Free Software Foundation (FSF), which has "copyleft" GNU Public License (GPL)

Examples include **GNU/Linux** and **BSD UNIX** (including core of **Mac OS X**), and many more

Can use VMM like VMware Player (Free on Windows), Virtualbox (open source and free on many platforms - http://www.virtualbox.com)

Use to run guest operating systems for exploration



End of Chapter 1

