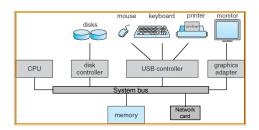
Last Class: OS and Computer Architecture



• CPU, memory, I/O devices, network card, system bus



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Last Class: OS and Computer Architecture

OS Service	Hardware Support
Protection	Kernel/user mode, protected instructions, base/limit registers
Interrupts	Interrupt vectors
System calls	Trap instructions and trap vectors
I/O	Interrupts and memory mapping
Scheduling, error recovery, accounting	Timer
Syncronization	Atomic instructions
Virtual memory	Translation look-aside buffers



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Today: OS Structures & Services

- Introduce the organization and components in an OS.
- OS Components
 - Processes
 - Synchronization
 - Memory & Secondary Storage Management
 - File Systems
 - I/O Systems
 - Distributed Systems
- Three example OS organizations
 - Monolithic kernel
 - Layered architecture
 - Microkernel



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From the Architecture to the OS to the User

From the Architecture to the OS to the User: Architectural resources, OS management, and User Abstractions.

Hardware abstraction	Example OS Services	User abstraction
Processor	Process management, Scheduling, Traps, protection, accounting, synchronization	Process
Memory	Management, Protection, virtual memory	Address spaces
I/O devices	Concurrency with CPU, Interrupt handling	Terminal, mouse, printer, system calls
File System	File management, Persistence	Files
Distributed systems	Networking, security, distributed file system	Remote procedure calls, network file system



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Processes

- The OS manages a variety of activities:
 - User programs
 - Batch jobs and command scripts
 - System programs: printers, spoolers, name servers, file servers, network listeners, etc.
- Each of these activities is encapsulated in a process.
- A process includes the execution context (PC, registers, VM, resources, etc.) and all the other information the activity needs to run.
- A process is not a program. A process is one instance of a program in execution. Many processes can be running the same program. Processes are independent entities.



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OS and Processes

- The OS creates, deletes, suspends, and resumes processes.
- The OS schedules and manages processes.
- The OS manages inter-process communication and **synchronization**.
- The OS allocates resources to processes.



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Synchronization Example:

Banking transactions

- Cooperating processes on a single account: ATM machine transaction, balance computation, Monthly interest computation and addition.
- All of the processes are trying to access the same account simultaneously. What can happen?



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Memory & Secondary Storage Management

Main memory

- is the direct access storage for the CPU.
- Processes must be stored in main memory to execute.
- · The OS must
 - allocate memory space for processes,
 - deallocate memory space,
 - maintain the mappings from virtual to physical memory (page tables),
 - decide how much memory to allocate to each process, and when a process should be removed from memory (policies).



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File System

Secondary storage devices (disks) are too crude to use directly for long term storage.

- The file system provides logical objects and operations on these objects (files).
- A file is the long-term storage entity: a named collection of persistent information that can be read or written.
- File systems support directories which contain the names of files and other directories along with additional information about the files and directories (e.g., when they were created and last modified).



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File System Management

- The File System provides *file management*, a standard interface to
 - create and delete files and directories
 - manipulate (read, write, extend, rename, copy, protect) files and directories
 - map files onto secondary storage
- The File System also provides general services such as backups, maintaining mapping information, accounting, and quotas.



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Secondary Storage (disk)

- Secondary Storage = persistent memory (endures system failures)
- Low-level OS routines: responsible for low-level disk functions, such as scheduling of disk operations, head movement, and error handling.
 - These routines may also be responsible for managing the disk space (for example, keeping track of the free space).
 - The line between managing the disk space and the file system is very fuzzy, these routines are sometimes in the file system.
- **Example**: A program executable is stored in a file on disk. To execute a program, the OS must load the program from disk into memory.



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I/O Systems

The I/O system supports communication with external devices: terminal, keyboard, printer, mouse, ...

The I/O System:

- Supports buffering and spooling of I/O
- Provides a general device driver interface, hiding the differences among devices, often mimicking the file system interface
- Provides device driver implementations specific to individual devices.



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Distributed Systems

- A distributed system is a collection of processors that do not share memory or a clock.
 - To use non-local resources in a distributed system, processes must communicate over a network,
 - The OS must provide additional mechanisms for dealing with
 - failures and deadlock that are not encountered in a centralized system.
- The OS can support a distributed file system on a distributed system.
 - Users, servers, and storage devices are all dispersed among the various sites.
 - The OS must carry out its file services across the network and manage multiple, independent storage devices.



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System Calls

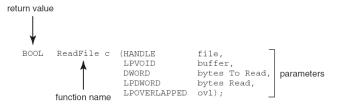
- Programming interface to the services provided by the OS
- Typically written in a high-level language (C or C++)
- Mostly accessed by programs via a high-level Application Program Interface (API) rather than direct system call use
- Three most common APIs are Win32 API for Windows, POSIX API for POSIX-based 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?



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Example of Standard API

- Consider the ReadFile() function in the
- Win32 API—a function for reading from a file



- A description of the parameters passed to ReadFile()
 - HANDLE file—the file to be read
 - LPVOID buffer—a buffer where the data will be read into and written from
 - DWORD bytesToRead—the number of bytes to be read into the buffer
 - LPDWORD bytesRead—the number of bytes read during the last read
 - LPOVERLAPPED ovl—indicates if overlapped I/O is being used



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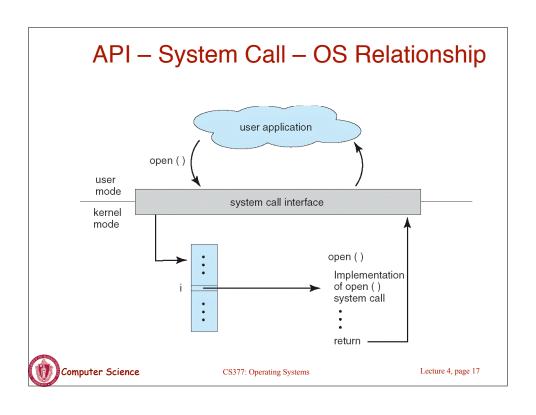
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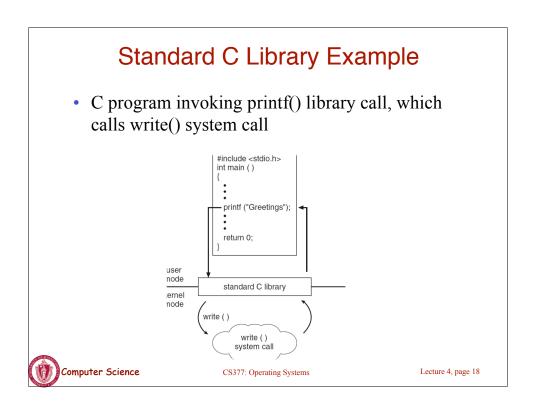
System Call Implementation

- Typically, a number associated with each system call
 - System-call interface maintains a table indexed according to these numbers
- The system call interface invokes intended system call in OS kernel and returns status of the system call and any return values
- The caller need know nothing about how the system call is implemented
 - Just needs to obey API and understand what OS will do as a result call
 - Most details of OS interface hidden from programmer by API
 - Managed by run-time support library (set of functions built into libraries included with compiler)



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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*
 - In some cases, may be more parameters than 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



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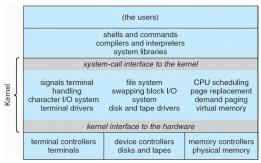
Examples of Windows and Unix System Calls

	Windows	Unix
Process Control	CreateProcess() ExitProcess() WaitForSingleObject()	fork() exit() wait()
File Manipulation	<pre>CreateFile() ReadFile() WriteFile() CloseHandle()</pre>	<pre>open() read() write() close()</pre>
Device Manipulation	SetConsoleMode() ReadConsole() WriteConsole()	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()	chmod() umask() chown()



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One Basic OS Structure



- The *kernel* is the protected part of the OS that runs in kernel mode, protecting the critical OS data structures and device registers from user programs.
- Debate about what functionality goes into the kernel (above figure: UNIX)



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Layered OS design



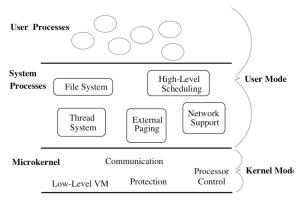
Layer N: uses layer N-1 and provides new functionality to N+1

- Advantages: modularity, simplicity, portability, ease of design/debugging
- Disadvantage communication overhead between layers, extra copying, book-keeping



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Microkernel



Hardware

- Small kernel that provides communication (message passing) and other basic functionality
 - other OS functionality implemented as user-space processes



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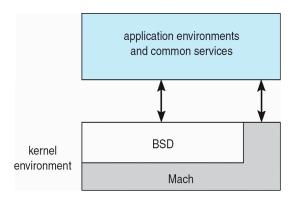
Microkernel Features

- Goal: to minimize what goes in the kernel (mechanism, no policy), implementing as much of the OS in User-Level processes as possible.
- Advantages
 - better reliability, easier extension and customization
 - mediocre performance (unfortunately)
- First Microkernel was Hydra (CMU '70). Current systems include Chorus (France) and Mach (CMU).



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Mac OS X - hybrid approach



• Layered system: Mach microkernel (mem, RPC, IPC) + BSD (threads, CLI, networking, filesystem) + user-level services (GUI)



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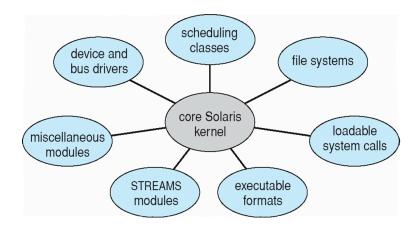
Modules

- Most modern operating systems implement kernel modules
 - Uses object-oriented approach
 - Each core component is separate
 - Each talks to the others over known interfaces
 - Each is loadable as needed within the kernel
- Overall, similar to layers but with more flexible



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Solaris Modular Approach



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Summary

- **Big Design Issue**: How do we make the OS efficient, reliable, and extensible?
- **General OS Philosophy**: The design and implementation of an OS involves a constant tradeoff between *simplicity* and *performance*. As a general rule, strive for simplicity except when you have a strong reason to believe that you need to make a particular component complicated to achieve acceptable performance (strong reason = simulation or evaluation study)

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