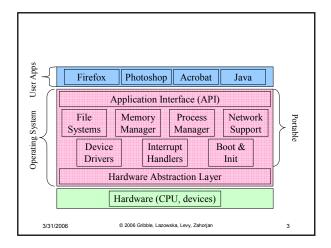
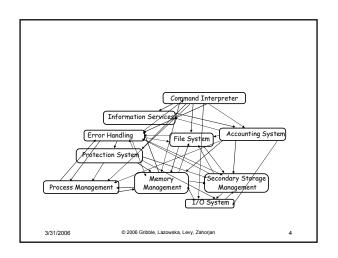
CSE 451: Operating Systems Spring 2006

Module 3 Operating System Components and Structure

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OS structure • The OS sits between application programs and the hardware • it mediates access and abstracts away ugliness • programs request services via exceptions (traps or faults) • devices request attention via interrupts P2 P3 Graph P4 Interrupt D1 D2 D3 3/31/2006 © 2006 Gribble, Lazowska, Levy, Zahorjan 2





Major OS components

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- processes
- memory
- I/O
- secondary storage
- · file systems
- protection
- · accounting
- shells (command interpreter, or OS UI)
- GUI
- networking

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Process management

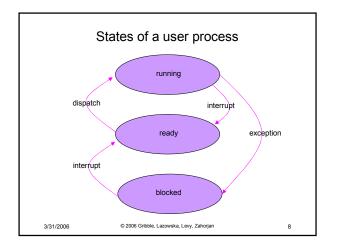
- · An OS executes many kinds of activities:
 - users' programs
 - batch jobs or scripts
 - system programs
 - print spoolers, name servers, file servers, network daemons, \dots
- Each of these activities is encapsulated in a process
 - a process includes the execution context
 - PC, registers, VM, OS resources (e.g., open files), etc...
 - plus the program itself (code and data)
 - the OS's process module manages these processes
 - creation, destruction, scheduling, \dots

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Program/processor/process · Note that a program is totally passive - just bytes on a disk that encode instructions to be run · A process is an instance of a program being executed by a (real or virtual) processor - at any instant, there may be many processes running copies of the same program (e.g., an editor); each process is separate and (usually) independent - Linux: ps -auwwx to list all processes process A process B code code page tables page tables stack stack PC resources resources

registers



Process operations

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- · The OS provides the following kinds operations on processes (i.e., the process abstraction interface):
 - create a process

registers

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- delete a process
- suspend a process
- resume a process
- clone a process
- inter-process communication
- inter-process synchronization
- create/delete a child process (subprocess)

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Memory management

- · The primary memory (or RAM) is the directly accessed storage for the CPU
 - programs must be stored in memory to execute
 - memory access is fast (e.g., 10 ns to load/store)
 - · but memory doesn't survive power failures
- - allocate memory space for programs (explicitly and implicitly)

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- deallocate space when needed by rest of system
- maintain mappings from physical to virtual memory
 - through page tables
- decide how much memory to allocate to each process
 - a policy decision
- decide when to remove a process from memory
 - · also policy

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I/O

- · A big chunk of the OS kernel deals with I/O
 - hundreds of thousands of lines in NT
- · The OS provides a standard interface between programs (user or system) and devices
 - file system (disk), sockets (network), frame buffer (video)
- Device drivers are the routines that interact with specific device types
 - encapsulates device-specific knowledge
 - e.g., how to initialize a device, how to request I/O, how to handle interrupts or errors
 - examples: SCSI device drivers, Ethernet card drivers, video card drivers, sound card drivers, ...
- · Note: Windows has ~35,000 device drivers!

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Secondary storage

- Secondary storage (disk, tape) is persistent memory
 - often magnetic media, survives power failures (hopefully)
- · Routines that interact with disks are typically at a very low level in the OS
 - used by many components (file system, VM, ...)
 - handle scheduling of disk operations, head movement, error handling, and often management of space on disks
- · Usually independent of file system
 - although there may be cooperation
 - file system knowledge of device details can help optimize performance
 - · e.g., place related files close together on disk

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File systems

- · Secondary storage devices are crude and awkward
 - e.g., "write 4096 byte block to sector 12"
- File system: a convenient abstraction
 - defines logical objects like files and directories
 - · hides details about where on disk files live
 - as well as operations on objects like read and write
 - · read/write byte ranges instead of blocks
- · A file is the basic unit of long-term storage
 - file = named collection of persistent information
- · A directory is just a special kind of file
 - directory = named file that contains names of other files and metadata about those files (e.g., file size)
- · Note: Sequential byte stream is only one possibility!

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File system operations

- · The file system interface defines standard operations:
 - file (or directory) creation and deletion
 - manipulation of files and directories (read, write, extend, rename, protect)

 - lock
- · File systems also provide higher level services
 - accounting and quotas
 - backup (must be incremental and online!)
 - (sometimes) indexing or search
 - (sometimes) file versioning

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Protection

- · Protection is a general mechanism used throughout the OS
 - all resources needed to be protected
 - · memory
 - processes
 - files
 - devices · cpu time
 - protection mechanisms help to detect and contain unintentional errors, as well as preventing malicious destruction

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Command interpreter (shell)

- · A particular program that handles the interpretation of users' commands and helps to manage processes
 - user input may be from keyboard (command-line interface), from script files, or from the mouse (GUIs)
 - allows users to launch and control new programs
- On some systems, command interpreter may be a standard part of the OS (e.g., MS DOS, Apple II)
- · On others, it's just non-privileged code that provides an interface to the user
 - e.g., bash (or csh or tcsh or zsh or sh) on UNIX
- On others, there may be no command language

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- e.g., MacOS

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Accounting

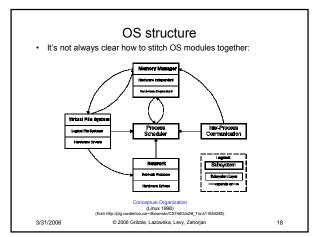
- Keeps track of resource usage
 - both to enforce quotas
 - "you're over your disk space limit"
 - or to produce bills
 - · timeshared computers like mainframes
 - · hosted services

GUI ... Networking ... etc.

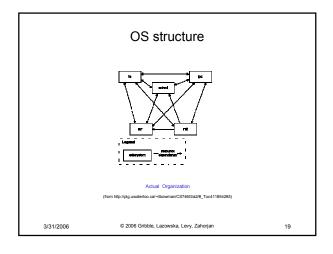
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OS structure

- · An OS consists of all of these components, plus:
 - many other components
 - system programs (privileged and non-privileged)
 - · e.g., bootstrap code, the init program, ...
- · Major issue:
 - how do we organize all this?
 - what are all of the code modules, and where do they exist?
 - how do they cooperate?
- · Massive software engineering and design problem
 - design a large, complex program that:
 - performs well, is reliable, is extensible, is backwards compatible, ...

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Early structure: Monolithic · Traditionally, OS's (like UNIX) were built as a monolithic entity: user programs everything OS hardware 3/31/2006 © 2006 Gribble, Lazowska, Levy, Zahorjan 21

Monolithic design

- · Major advantage:
 - cost of module interactions is low (procedure call)
- Disadvantages:
 - hard to understand
 - hard to modify
 - unreliable (no isolation between system modules)
 - hard to maintain
- · What is the alternative?
 - find a way to organize the OS in order to simplify its design and implementation

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Layering

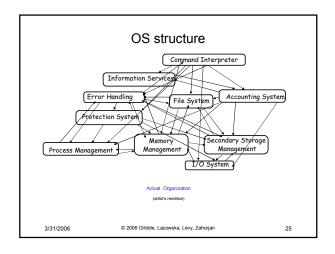
- The traditional approach is layering
 - implement OS as a set of layers
- each layer presents an enhanced 'virtual machine' to the layer above
- The first description of this approach was Dijkstra's THE system
- Layer 5: Job Managers
- Execute users' programs
- Layer 4: Device ManagersHandle devices and provide buffering Layer 3: Console Mana
- Implements virtual consoles
- Layer 2: Page Manager
- Implements virtual memories for each process
- Layer 1: Kernel
- Implements a virtual processor for each process
- Layer 0: Hardware
- · Each layer can be tested and verified independently

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Problems with layering

- · Imposes hierarchical structure
 - but real systems are more complex:
 - file system requires VM services (buffers)
 - · VM would like to use files for its backing store
 - strict layering isn't flexible enough
- Poor performance
 - each layer crossing has overhead associated with it
- · Disjunction between model and reality
 - systems modeled as layers, but not really built that way

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Microkernels

- Popular in the late 80's, early 90's
 - recent resurgence of popularity
- · Goal:
 - minimize what goes in kernel
 - organize rest of OS as user-level processes
- · This results in:
 - better reliability (isolation between components)
 - ease of extension and customization
 - poor performance (user/kernel boundary crossings)
- First microkernel system was Hydra (CMU, 1970)
 - Follow-ons: Mach (CMU), Chorus (French UNIX-like OS), OS X (Apple), in some ways NT (Microsoft)

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