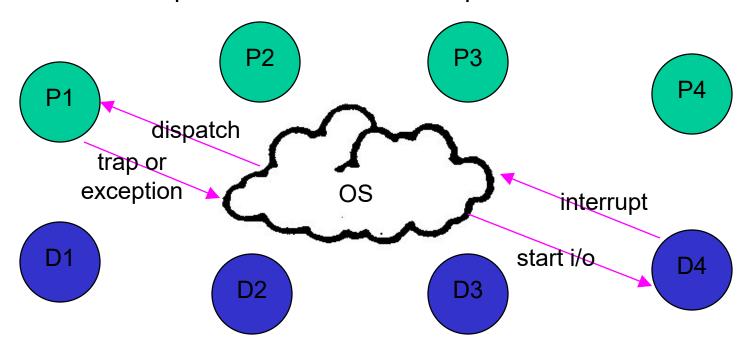
CSE 451: Operating Systems Spring 2017

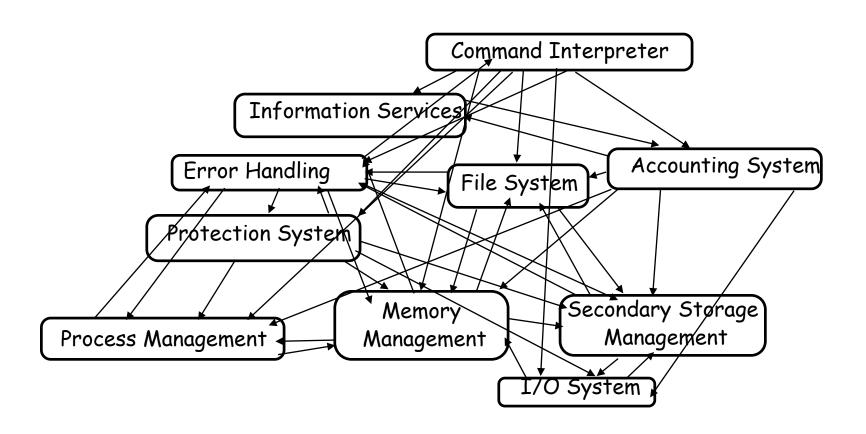
Module 3 Operating System Components and Structure

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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 traps or exceptions
 - devices request attention via interrupts





Part I: Major OS components

- 1. processes/threads
- 2. memory
- 3. I/O
- 4. secondary storage
- 5. file systems
- 6. protection
- 7. shells (command interpreter, or OS UI)
- 8. windowing system
- 9. networking

1. Process management

- An OS executes many kinds of activities:
 - users' programs
 - background jobs or scripts
 - system programs
 - print managers, name servers, file servers, network daemons,
 ...
- Each of these activities is encapsulated in a process
 - a process is a running program
 - a process has an execution context
 - PC, registers, VM maps, 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, ...

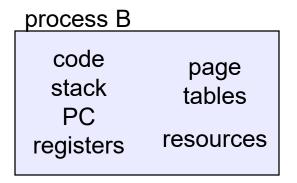
Processes vs. Threads

- Soon, we will separate the "thread of control" aspect
 of a process (program counter, call stack) from its
 other aspects (address space, open files, owner,
 etc.). And we will allow each {process / address
 space} to have multiple threads of control.
- But for now for simplicity and for historical reasons
 – consider each {process / address space} to have a
 single thread of control.

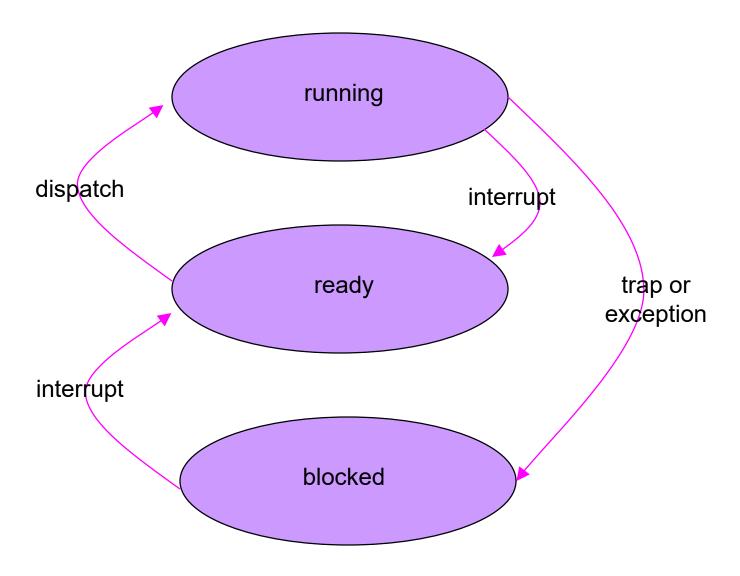
Program / processor / process

- 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 -auwx to list all processes

process A	
code stack	page tables
registers	resources



States of a user process



Process operations

- The OS provides the following kinds operations on processes (i.e., the process abstraction interface):
 - create a process (createprocess, fork/exec)
 - delete a process (kill, exit)
 - suspend a process (kill, sched_yield)
 - resume a process (kill)
 - clone a process (fork)
 - inter-process communication (kill, pipe, mmap, ...)
 - inter-process synchronization (wait, flock, sem_open, ...)

2. Memory management

- Primary memory is the directly accessed storage for the CPU
 - programs must be resident in memory to execute
 - memory access is fast
 - but memory doesn't survive power failures
- OS must:
 - allocate memory space for processes
 - deallocate space when needed by rest of system
 - maintain mappings from virtual memory to physical
 - page tables
 - decide how much memory to allocate to each process
 - decide when to remove a process from memory

Policy

Mechanism

3. I/O

- A big chunk of the OS kernel deals with I/O
 - hundreds of thousands of lines in Windows, Unix, etc.
- 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, ...
- Device drivers are written by the device company
 - but execute in the OS address space and run at high privilege

4. Secondary storage

- Secondary storage (spinning disk, ssd, usb drives) is persistent memory
 - 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, error handling, and often management of space on disks
- Usually independent of file system
 - device => raw storage
 - file system => layer of abstraction providing structured storage

5. File systems

- Secondary storage devices are crude and awkward
 - e.g., "write a 4096 byte block to sector 12"
- File system: a more convenient abstraction
 - hardware independent interface presented up to apps
 - hardware dependent implementation looking down to hw
- FS defines logical objects, like files and directories
 - files represent values, stored somewhere on disk
 - directories represent file meta-data, like name, owner, creation time, ...
 - user code operates on files/directories, not on disk blocks
- FS defines operations on objects, like creat, read, write, stat

"File system"

- The term "file system" has at least three common meanings
 - The generic notion of providing a more convenient abtraction layered on some storage device
 - A particular software implementation of that generic idea, e.g.,
 NTFS or FAT or ext4
 - A self-contained, and so physically portable, bunch of bits on some storage device
 - File systems are mountable

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

6. Protection

- Protection is a general mechanism used throughout the OS
 - all resources needed to be protected
 - memory
 - processes
 - files
 - devices
 - CPU time
 - network bandwidth (?)
 - ...
- Protection mechanisms motivations:
 - "I'm not perfect" -- help to detect and contain unintentional errors
 - "There are adversaries" -- preventing malicious abuses

7. 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, JOS)
- On others, it's just non-privileged code that provides an interface to the user
 - e.g., bash/csh/tcsh/zsh on UNIX

8. Windowing System

- Abstracts the display, keyboard, and mouse
 - Each window can be manipulated in a way that is independent of the others
- Output:
 - Writing to the window
 - Resizing the window
 - Possibly moving the window
- Inputs:
 - keyboard focus
 - mouse clicks
 - (x,y) position in window coordinates
 - [also (x,y) position in screen coordinates...]

9. Networking

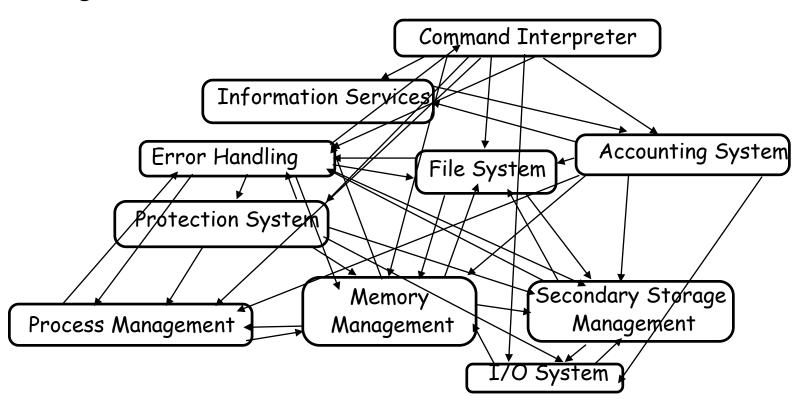
- The Internet moves bits from one machine to another machine
 - An IP address basically names a machine
 - e.g., 128.208.1.137 is attu1.cs.washington.edu
- When bytes are sent "to a machine," who receives them?
 - The operating system
- But I want to ask the web server process on the machine for a page, not talk with the OS!
 - The OS "demultiplexes" incoming messages and delivers them to processes

Networking (continued)

- The IP layer of the network stack is in charge of moving data from one machine to another
 - In a way, it abstracts the network interface card (physical connection to the network)
- The TCP layer runs on top of IP
 - It provides process to process communication, not just machine to machine
 - It abstracts the faulty IP network into an (almost) error-free network
 - Should the TCP implementation be part of the OS, or should it be a service that runs on top of the OS (kind of like a web service)?

Part II: OS structure

 It's not always clear how to stitch OS modules together:

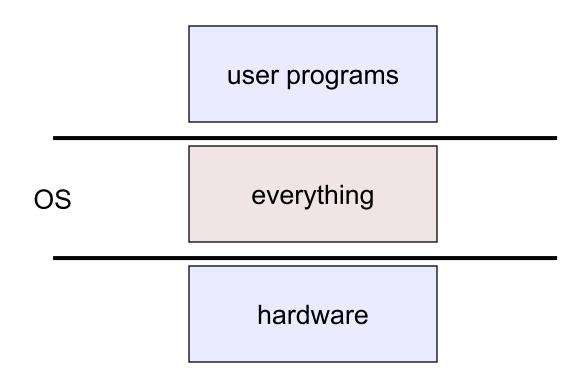


OS structure

- 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, ...

Early structure: Monolithic

 Traditionally, OS's (like UNIX) were built as a monolithic entity:



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

Layering

- One 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 (1968)
 - Layer 5: Job Managers
 - Execute users' programs
 - Layer 4: Device Managers
 - · Handle devices and provide buffering
 - Layer 3: Console Manager
 - · 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
 - Layering helped implementation and aided attempt at formal verification of correctness

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

Hardware Abstraction Layer

Core OS

(file system, scheduler, system calls)

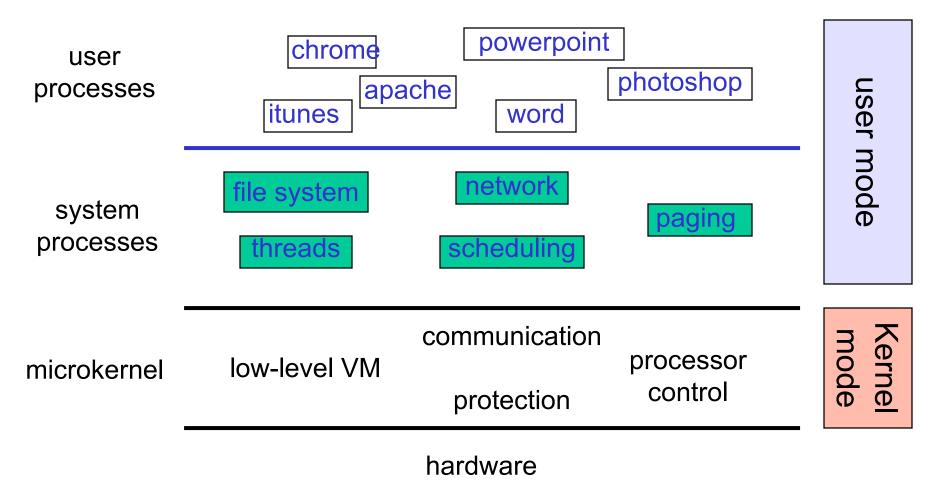
Hardware AbstractionLayer (device drivers, assembly routines)

- An example of layering in modern operating systems
- Goal: separates hardware-specific routines from the "core" OS
 - Provides portability
 - Improves readability

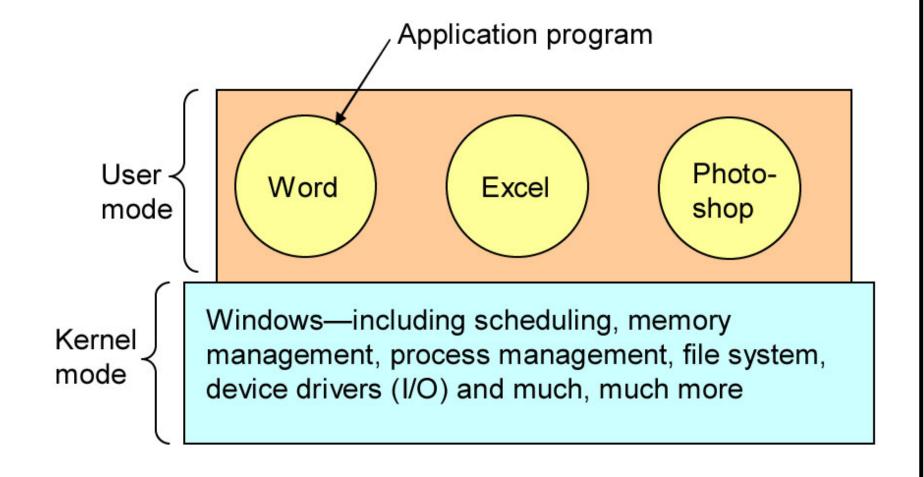
Alternative to Monolithic: Microkernels

- Introduced in the late 80's, early 90's
- Goal:
 - minimize what goes into the kernel
 - organize rest of OS as user-level processes
- This results in:
 - better reliability (isolation between components, less code running at full privilege)
 - 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)

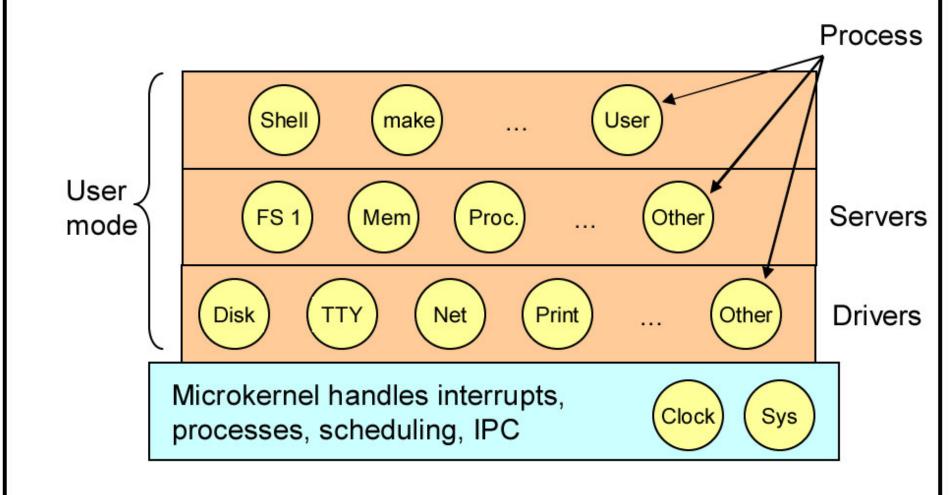
Microkernel structure illustrated



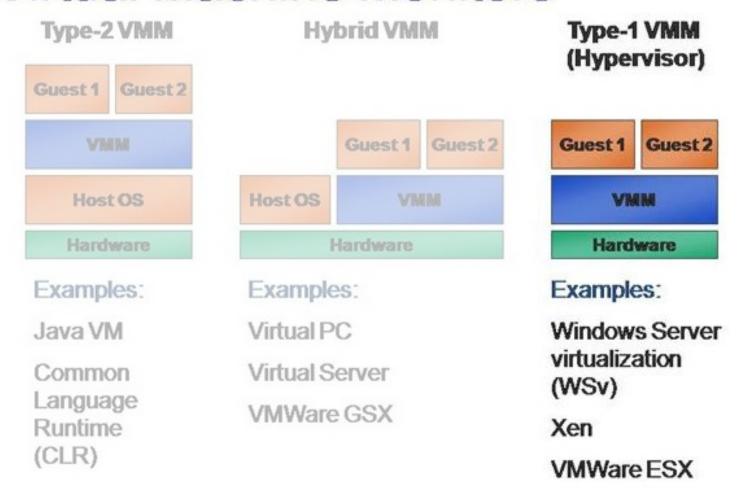
EXAMPLE: WINDOWS



ARCHITECTURE OF MINIX 3



Virtual Machine Monitors



- Transparently implement "hardware" in software
- Voilà, you can boot a "guest OS"

Exokernel

- Basic idea is for the kernel to present an abstraction of the hardware to user level
 - That abstraction doesn't have to have the same API as the actual hardware
- User-level processes operate on hardware via the abstraction/exokernel
- The exokernel validates that the operations requested are legal
- The exokernel's abstractions guarantee that user level code can operate only on the portions of actual physical resources they've been allocated
- Result?
 - Very cheap communication between user code and "OS code" as most of the OS is running at user level

Summary and Next Module

Summary

- OS design has been a evolutionary process of trial and error.
 Probably more error than success
- Successful OS designs have run the spectrum from monolithic, to layered, to micro kernels, to virtual machine monitors
- The role and design of an OS are still evolving
- It is impossible to pick one "correct" way to structure an OS