Introduction to Operating Systems

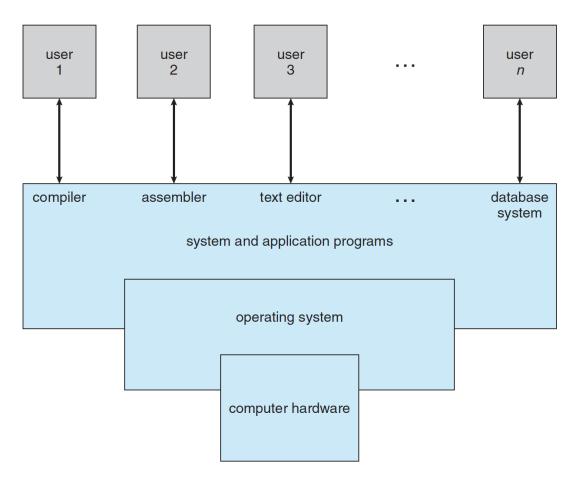
In this lesson

- Define what an operating system (OS) is.
- Understand the main goals and functions of an OS.
- Identify the types of operating systems and their use cases.
- Explore user vs. system views of an OS.
- Introduce examples of modern operating systems.



What is an Operating System?

- An Operating System (OS) is a software layer that acts as an intermediary between computer hardware and users, managing resources and providing an interface for executing programs.
- It makes the hardware usable by abstracting the complexity of the system, allowing users and applications to interact with it easily.



Functions of an Operating System

- Resource Management: Manages hardware resources like CPU, memory, storage, and I/O devices.
- Task Scheduling: Determines which process gets to use the CPU and for how long.
- File Management: Manages the organization, storage, retrieval, naming, sharing, and protection of files.
- Security and Protection: Ensures that unauthorized access and operations are prevented.
- **User Interface**: Provides an interface for user interaction, such as Command Line Interface (CLI) or Graphical User Interface (GUI).

OS as a Resource Allocator

- Resource Manager: The OS allocates resources such as CPU, memory, and disk space to various programs or users efficiently.
- **CPU Scheduling**: Determines which process will use the CPU when multiple processes are ready to run.
- Memory Management: Keeps track of every byte of memory and how it is allocated.
- Disk Management: Manages data storage on hard drives and SSDs.

OS as a Control Program

- Managing Execution: Controls the execution of programs to prevent errors and ensure proper use of system resources.
- I/O Device Management: Handles input and output operations by managing hardware devices like keyboards, printers, and monitors.
- Protection Mechanisms: Enforces security policies and access controls to protect resources from unauthorized use.

Computer Startup

Bootstrap Program:

 A small essential program loaded at power-up or reboot. Responsible for initiating the boot process. Typically resides in ROM (Read-Only Memory) or EPROM (Erasable Programmable Read-Only Memory).

System Initialization:

 Configures and initializes key hardware components, including CPU registers, memory, and I/O devices. Prepares the system for normal operations by setting up the environment.

Kernel Loading:

 The bootstrap program locates the operating system kernel on disk, loads it into memory, and begins execution. Once loaded, the kernel takes control of the system and manages resources.

Computer-System Operation

• System Components:

 Consists of one or more CPUs and multiple device controllers connected through a common bus. The bus provides access to shared memory for all components.

Concurrent Execution:

 CPUs and I/O devices can execute operations simultaneously, competing for memory access.

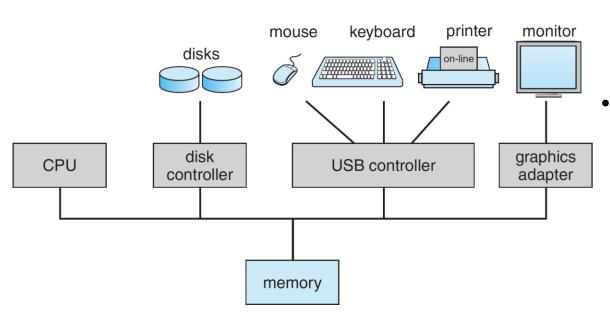
Device Controllers:

Each controller manages a specific type of device (e.g., disk drive, keyboard).

Data Movement:

 The CPU transfers data between the main memory and the local buffer of each device controller.

Computer-System Operation



• I/O Process:

 Data from I/O devices is first moved to the local buffer of the device controller.

Interrupt Handling:

 Once an I/O operation is complete, the device controller signals the CPU by generating an interrupt, notifying it to continue processing.

Common Functions of Interrupts

Interrupt Handling:

• Control is transferred to the **Interrupt Service Routine (ISR)**, typically through an **interrupt vector**, which stores the addresses of all service routines.

Saving State:

 The interrupt architecture saves the address of the currently executing instruction to ensure the system can return to its original state after the interrupt is handled.

Traps and Exceptions:

• A **trap** or **exception** is a software-generated interrupt, triggered either by an error (e.g., divide by zero) or a user-initiated request (e.g., I/O operation).

Interrupt-Driven OS:

• Operating systems are **interrupt-driven**, meaning they respond to hardware and software interrupts to efficiently manage tasks and resources.

Interrupt Handling Process

- Preserving CPU State:
 - When an interrupt occurs, the operating system saves the current state of the CPU by storing the contents of registers and the program counter.
- Identifying the Interrupt:
 - The OS determines the type of interrupt that has occurred using one of two methods:
 - Polling: The CPU checks each device to identify the source of the interrupt.
 - **Vectored Interrupt System**: The device automatically sends the address of its interrupt handler, allowing direct access to the correct service routine.
- Executing Interrupt-Specific Actions:
 - The OS uses separate blocks of code (interrupt service routines) for each type of interrupt to define the appropriate action to take.

Storage Structure

- Main Memory (RAM):
 - The primary storage medium that the CPU can directly access.
 - Random Access: Data can be read or written in any order.
 - Volatile: Loses data when the system is powered off.
- Secondary Storage:
 - Serves as an extension of main memory, offering large, nonvolatile storage capacity.
 - Retains data even when the system is powered down.

Storage Structure

Hard Disks (HDDs):

- Composed of rigid metal or glass platters coated with magnetic material.
- Data is organized into tracks, further divided into sectors.
- The disk controller manages communication between the device and the computer.

Solid-State Drives (SSDs):

- Nonvolatile storage devices that are faster than traditional hard disks.
- Based on flash memory technologies.
- Increasingly popular due to improved performance and reliability.

Storage Hierarchy

Organized by:

- Speed: Faster storage at the top (e.g., CPU registers, cache) and slower storage at the bottom (e.g., HDDs, tapes).
- Cost: Higher speed storage is more expensive; slower storage is more affordable.
- Volatility: Higher levels (e.g., RAM) are volatile, while lower levels (e.g., HDDs, SSDs) are nonvolatile.

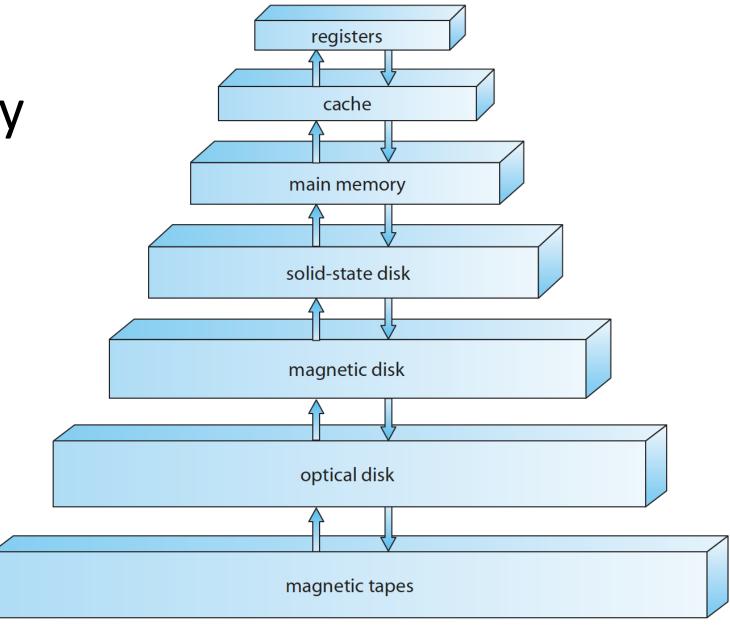
Caching:

- Process of storing frequently accessed data in faster storage (cache) for quicker retrieval.
- Main Memory can act as a cache for slower, secondary storage (e.g., hard disks).

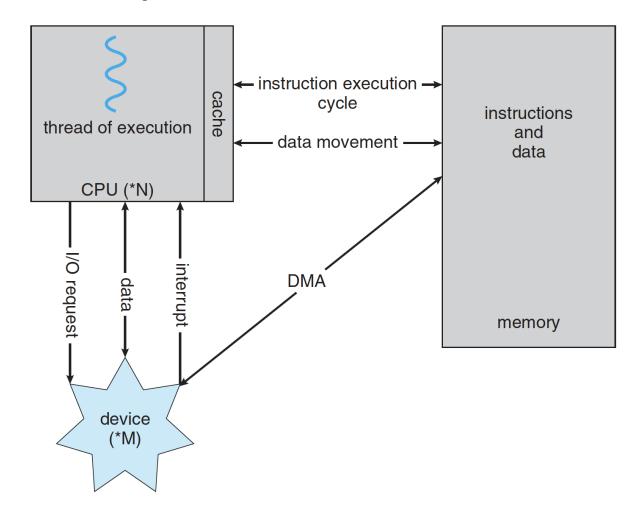
Device Drivers:

- Software responsible for managing I/O between the device controller and the operating system.
- Provides a consistent interface for the OS to communicate with hardware devices.

Storage Hierarchy



How a Modern Computer Works



How a Modern Computer Works

Single General-Purpose Processor:

• Most systems are built around a single processor for general computing tasks. However, many systems also include **special-purpose processors** to handle specific tasks (e.g., GPUs for graphics).

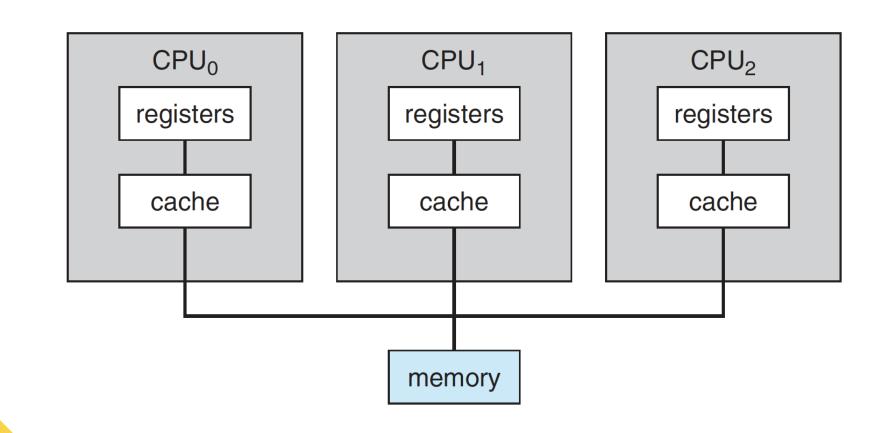
Multiprocessor Systems:

- Increasingly common and important in modern computing. Also called parallel systems, where multiple processors work together.
- Advantages:
 - Increased Throughput: More tasks can be processed simultaneously.
 - Economy of Scale: More cost-effective use of resources.
 - Increased Reliability: Fault tolerance through graceful degradation—the system continues to operate even if one processor fails.

Types of Multiprocessing:

- Asymmetric Multiprocessing: Each processor is assigned a specific task or role.
- 2. Symmetric Multiprocessing: All processors perform the same tasks and share the workload.

Symmetric multiprocessing architecture



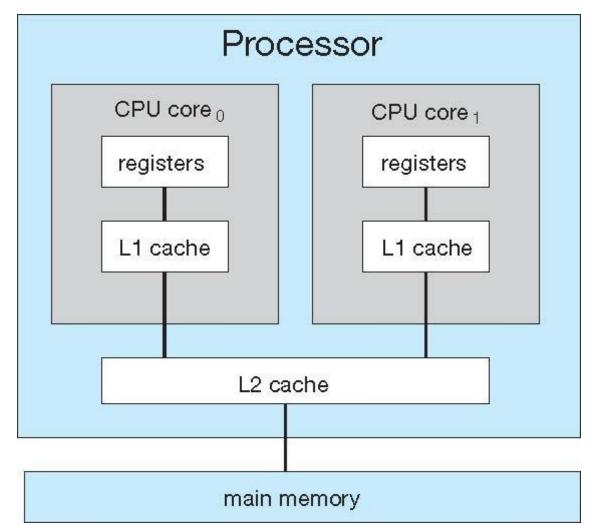
Multi-Chip or Multiprocessing

- Multi-Chip Systems:
 - Consist of multiple separate processors (CPUs) on different chips.
- Features:
 - Processors communicate through a shared bus or network.
 - Typically used in high-performance computing and servers.
 - Offers increased computational power but may have higher power consumption and slower inter-processor communication compared to multicore.

Multicore Systems

- Multiple processing cores integrated on a single chip (e.g., dual-core, quad-core).
 - Advantages:
 - Faster Communication: Cores communicate more efficiently within the same chip, reducing latency.
 - Power Efficiency: Consumes less power compared to multi-chip systems for similar performance.
 - Improved Performance: Enables better multitasking and parallel processing for general-purpose and mobile devices.

Multicore Systems Architecture



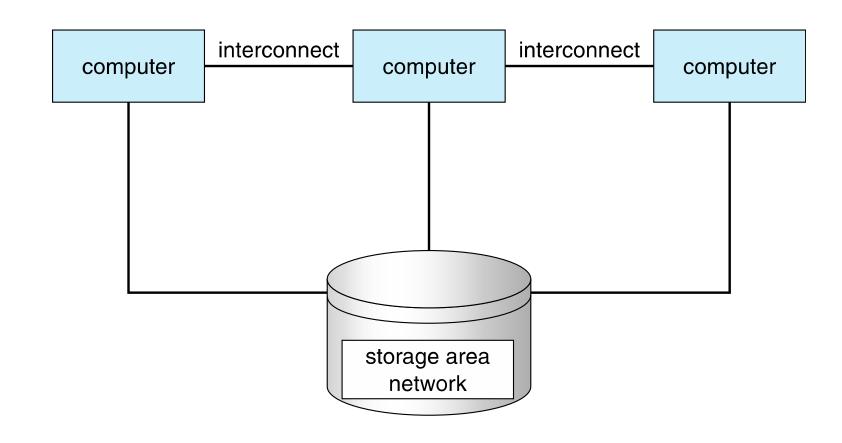
Clustered Systems

 Similar to multiprocessor systems, but consists of multiple independent systems working together, often connected via a high-speed network.

Shared Storage:

- Systems typically share storage through a **Storage-Area Network (SAN)**, allowing multiple nodes to access the same data efficiently.
- High Availability:
 - Provides fault tolerance and high availability by continuing operations even when one system fails.
- High-Performance Computing (HPC):
 - Tasks are parallelized to achieve faster computation. Applications must be specially written to support parallel processing.
- Distributed Lock Manager (DLM):
 - In some clusters, a DLM is used to manage access to shared resources, preventing conflicts during concurrent operations.

Clustered Systems Structure



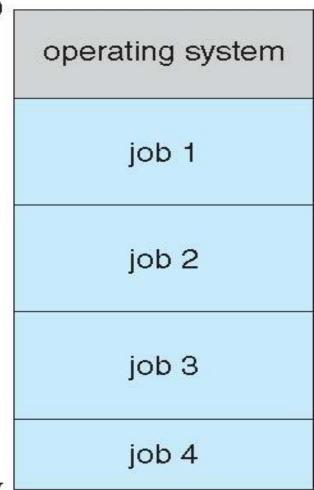
Multiprogramming (Batch System)

- Multiprogramming Improves efficiency by keeping the CPU and I/O devices busy.
 - Single User Limitation: A single user cannot utilize the CPU and I/O devices at all times.
 - Job Organization: Multiple jobs (programs) are organized so that the CPU always has a job to execute.
 - **Job Scheduling**: A subset of jobs is kept in memory, and the OS selects one job to run. If the job is waiting (e.g., for I/O), the OS switches to another job.

Timesharing (Multitasking)

- A logical extension of multiprogramming where the CPU switches between jobs frequently, allowing multiple users to interact with their jobs while they run.
- Interactive Computing: Users can interact with running programs, and response times are typically less than 1 second.
- Multiple Programs: Each user has at least one program (process) running in memory.
- CPU Scheduling: If several jobs are ready, the OS schedules CPU time for each job.
- **Swapping**: If processes exceed available memory, the OS swaps them in and out of memory to ensure all jobs run.
- Virtual Memory: Enables execution of processes that don't fit entirely in memory by storing parts of the process on disk.

Memory Layout for Multiprogramming System



Max

Modes of Operation

- **Dual-Mode Operation** enables the OS to protect itself and other system components by distinguishing between user and system-level operations.
- The Dual-Mode are:
 - User Mode: For running user applications.
 - Kernel Mode: For running critical system tasks and accessing hardware directly.

Modes of Operation

Mode Bit:

- A hardware-provided bit that indicates whether the CPU is in user mode or kernel mode.
- Privileged Instructions: Certain critical instructions can only be executed in kernel mode to prevent unauthorized access or misuse.

System Calls:

- When a user program requests an OS service (e.g., I/O), a system call is made, switching the CPU to **kernel mode**.
- After the system call is completed, the mode is reset back to user mode.

Process Management

- Process: A process is a program in execution, representing a unit of work in the system. While a program is passive, a process is an active entity.
- Resources: To complete its task, a process requires resources such as:
 - CPU, memory, I/O, files, etc.
 - Initialization data.
- Process Termination: When a process terminates, any reusable resources must be reclaimed.

Thread

- Thread: The smallest unit of CPU utilization within a process.
- Single-threaded Process: Executes instructions sequentially, one at a time, with a single program counter tracking the next instruction.
- Multi-threaded Process: Contains multiple threads, each with its own program counter.
- System Overview: Typically, multiple processes, including both user and operating system processes, run concurrently on one or more CPUs.

Thank you