Operating Systems

Szu-Chi Chung

Department of Applied Mathematics, National Sun Yat-sen University

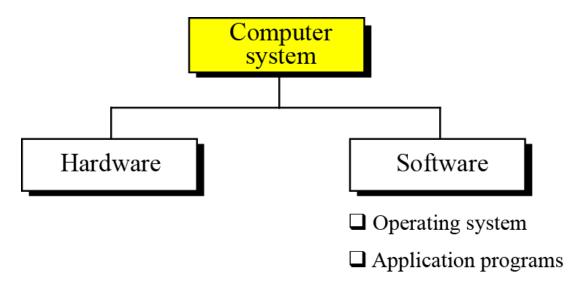
What we are going to study in this semester

- Introduction
- Data representation and operation
 - Number Systems
 - Data Storage
 - Operations on Data
- Computer hardware
 - Computer organization
 - Computer network and internet
- Computer software
 - Programming Languages (Python)
 - Operating system
 - Algorithms

- Data organization and abstraction
 - File Structure
 - Data Structure
 - Abstract Data Type
- Advance topics
 - Security
 - Artificial intelligence (Recorded lecture)
 - Data compression (Recorded lecture)
- Not covered
 - Software engineering
 - Databases
 - Theory of computation
 - Social media and social issues

Introduction

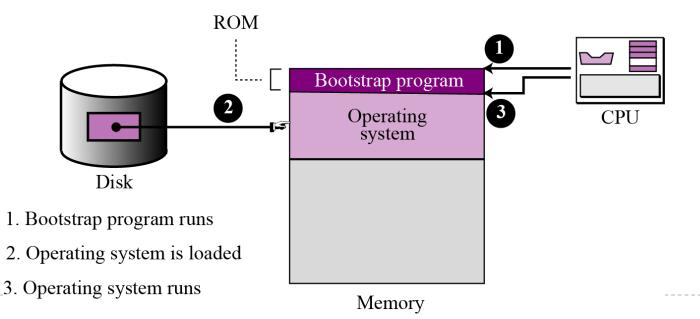
- Computer software is divided into two broad categories: the operating system and application programs
 - ▶ Application programs (應用程式) use computer hardware to solve users' problems
 - ▶ The operating system (作業系統), on the other hand, controls access to hardware by users



- 1. An operating system is an interface between the hardware of a computer and the user (programs or humans)
- 2. An operating system is a set of programs that facilitates the execution of other programs
- 3. An operating system acts as a general manager supervising the activity of each component in the computer system
 - The operating system checks that <u>hardware and software resources</u> are used efficiently, and when there is a conflict in using a resource, the operating system mediates to solve it
 - For example, it is responsible for loading other programs into memory for execution

Bootstrap process (啟動程式)

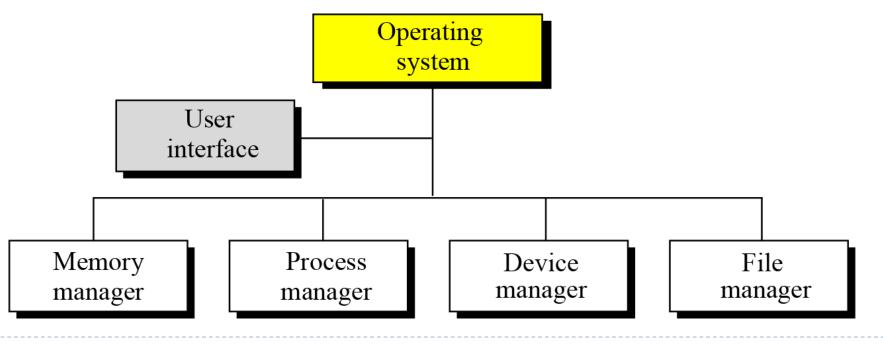
- However, the operating system itself is a program that needs to be loaded into the memory and run!
 - A very small section of memory is made of ROM and holds a small program called the *bootstrap program* which is pointed by the program counter when the computer is on
 - This program is only responsible for loading the operating system into RAM and the program counter in the CPU is set to the first instruction of the operating system



Components

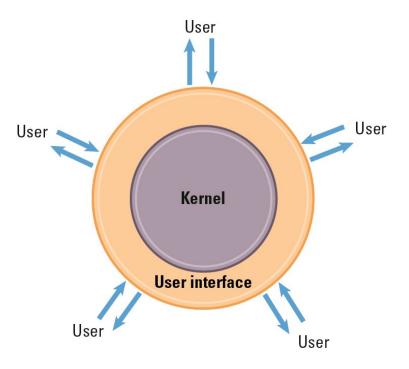
• An operating system needs to manage different resources in a computer system

- A modern operating system has at least four duties *memory manager, process manager, device manager*, and *file manager* which are the *kernel*
- Operating system also has a component called a user interface or a *shell (介面程式)* which is responsible for communication outside the operating system



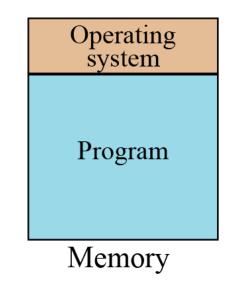
User interface

- User interface a program that accepts requests from users (processes) and interprets them for the rest of the operating system
 - Shells communicated with users through textual messages using a keyboard and monitor screen
 - A GUI (graphical user interface, 圖形使用者介面) allows users to issue commands by using a mouse or other input device to manipulate the icons
 - Touch screens allow users to manipulate icons directly with their fingers



Memory manager

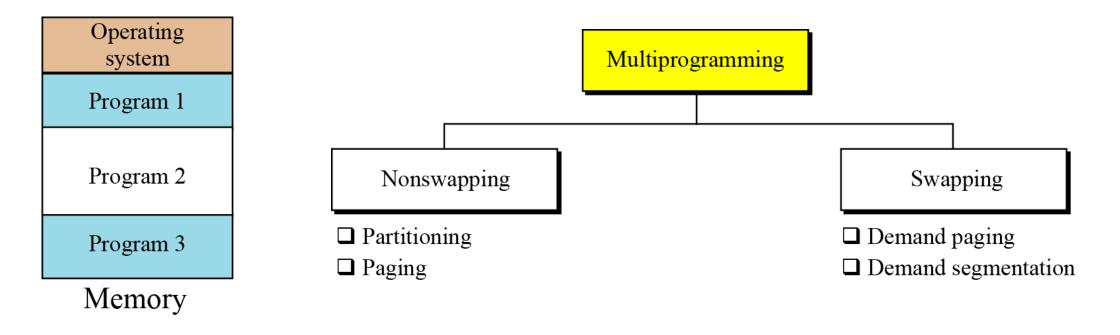
- Memory allocation must be managed to prevent applications from running out of memory
 - It can be divided into two broad categories of memory management: *monoprogramming* (單一程式) and *multiprogramming*(多重程式)
 - In monoprogramming, most of the memory capacity is dedicated to a single program
 - In this configuration, the whole program is in memory for execution
 - The job of the memory manager is to load the program into memory, run it, and replace it with the next program
 - This is a very inefficient use of memory and CPU time since we need to wait for the I/O device



Memory manager

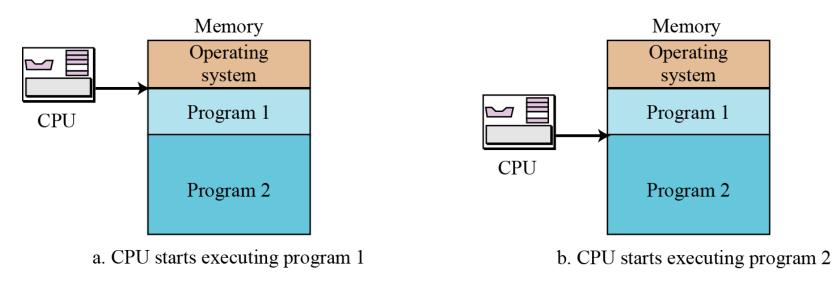
• In multiprogramming, more than one program is in memory at the same time

- They are executed concurrently, with the CPU switching rapidly between the programs
- Multiprogramming can be further divided into several categories
 - ▶ Nonswapping (非置換) means that the program remains in memory for the duration of execution



Memory manager - Partitioning

- ▶ In *partitioning (分割)*, memory is divided into variable-length partitions
 - Each section or partition holds one program. The CPU switches between programs
 - It starts with one program, executing some instructions until it either encounters an input/output operation or the time allocated for that program has expired
 - The CPU then saves the address of the memory location where the last instruction was executed and moves to the next program

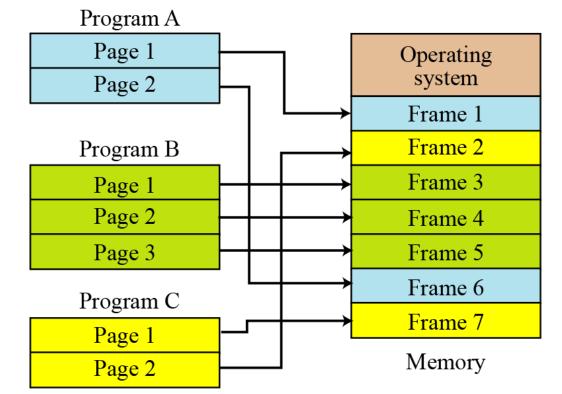


Memory manager - Partitioning

- Each program is entirely in memory and occupies contiguous locations. However, there are some issues
 - The size of the partitions has to be determined beforehand by the memory manager
 - Even if partitioning is perfect when the computer is started, <u>there may be some holes after</u> <u>completed programs are replaced by new ones</u>
 - When there are many holes, the memory manager can compact the partitions to remove the holes and create new partitions, but this creates extra overhead on the system!

Memory manager - Paging

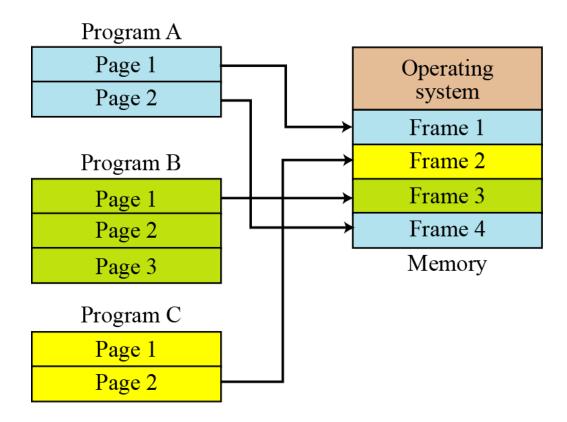
- In *paging (分頁)*, memory is divided into equally sized sections called frames (框). Programs are also divided, into equally sized sections called pages
 - The size of a page and a frame is usually the same and equal to the size of the block used by the system to retrieve information from a storage device
 - The program does not have to be contiguous in memory
 - Paging improves efficiency to some extent, but larger program still needs to be in memory before being executed



Memory manager - Demand paging

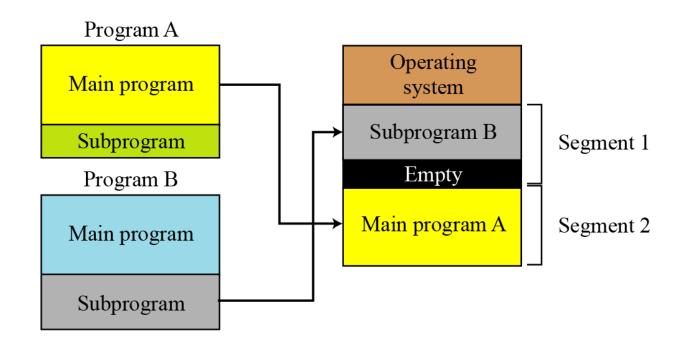
Paging still requires that the entire program be in memory for execution

- In *demand paging (需求分頁)* the program is divided into pages, but the pages can be loaded into memory one by one, executed, and replaced by another page
- The program can be swapped between memory and disk!



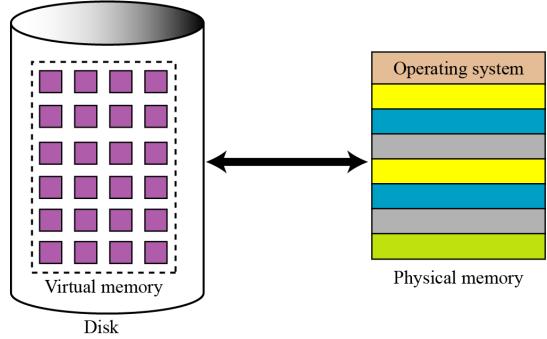
Memory manager - Demand segmentation

- ▶ In *demand segmentation (需求分段)*, the program is divided into segments that match the programmer's view
 - In demand segmentation, the program is divided into modules that match the programmer's view
 - Since segments in memory are still of equal size, part of a segment may remain empty

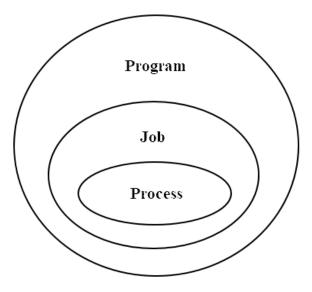


Memory manager - Virtual memory

- Demand paging and demand segmentation mean that, when a program is being executed, part of the program is in memory and part is on disk!
 - This large "fictional" memory space created by paging is called *virtual memory (虛擬記憶)*



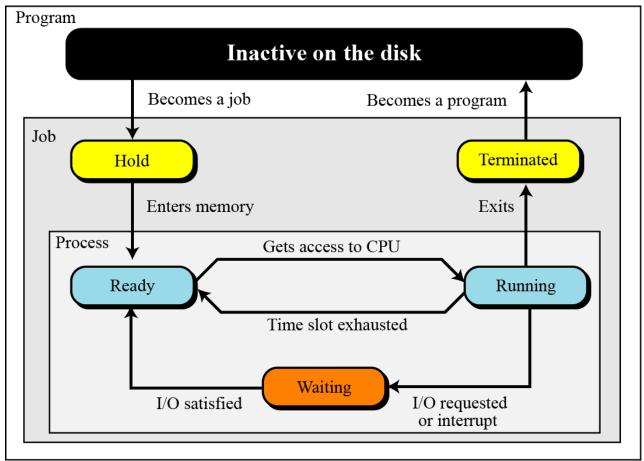
- Modern operating systems use three terms that refer to a set of instructions
 - Program (程式): A program is a nonactive set of instructions stored on a disk. It may or may not become a job
 - Job (工作): A program becomes a job from the moment it is selected for execution until it has finished running and becomes a program again
 - During this time a job may or may not be executed and it may be on disk or in memory
 - Process (行程): A process is a job that is being run in memory
 - As long as the job is in memory, it is a process



Process manager - State diagrams

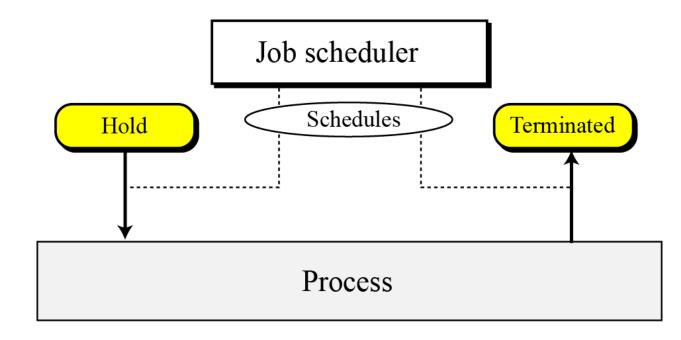
• The relationship can be illustrated with a *state diagram*

- 1. A program becomes a job when selected by the operating system and brought to the *hold state*
- 2. When there is memory space available to load the program totally or partially, the job moves to the *ready state* and becomes a process
- 3. It remains in memory and in this state until the CPU can execute it, moving to the *running state*
- 4. When it encounters I/O it enters *wait state* and it goes into the *terminated state* when finishing



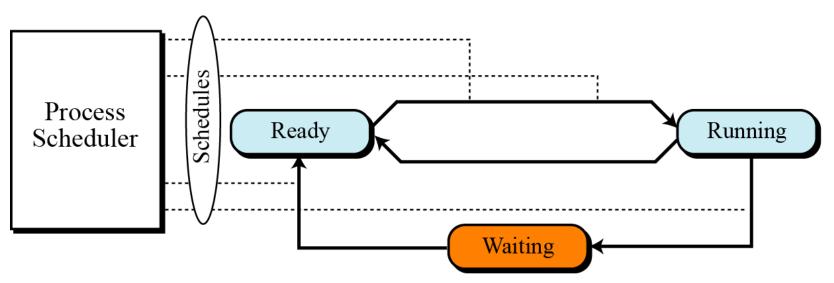
Process manager – Schedulers (排程器)

- To move a job or process from one state to another, the process manager uses two schedulers: the *job scheduler* and the *process scheduler*
 - A job scheduler is responsible for creating a process from a job and terminating a process



Process manager - Schedulers

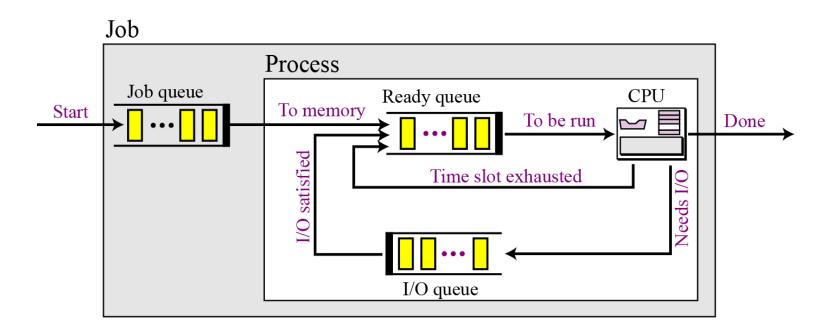
- > The process scheduler moves a process from one state to another
 - It moves a process from the running state to the waiting state when the process is waiting for some event (interrupt) to happen
 - It moves a process from the running state to the ready state if the process' time allotment has expired



- In reality, there are many jobs and many processes competing with each other for computer resources
 - To handle multiple processes and jobs, the process manager uses *queues*
 - There is a *job control block* or *process control block* associated with each job or process that stores the information about the job or process
 - The process manager stores the job or process control block in the queues instead of the job or process itself!

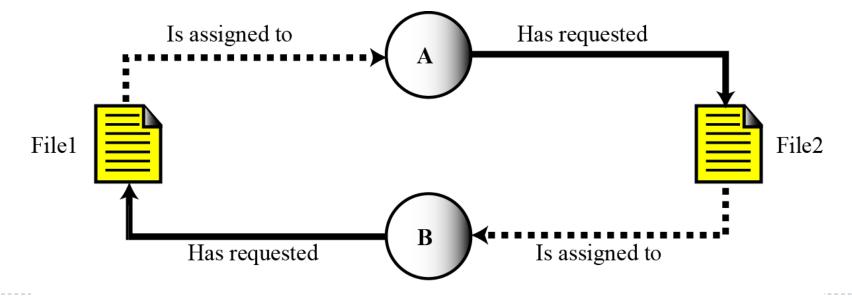
Process manager - Queuing

 An OS can have several queue and the process manager can have different policies for selecting the next job or process from a queue



Process manager - Process synchronization (同步)

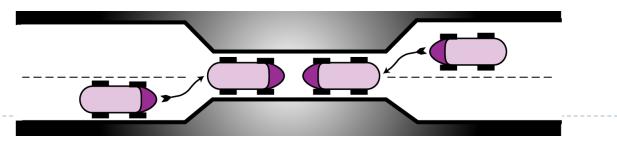
- The whole idea behind process management is to synchronize different processes with different resources
 - ▶ We can have two problematic situations: *deadlock (死、結)* and *starvation (飢餓)*
 - Deadlock occurs if the operating system allows a process to start running without first checking to see if the required resources are ready, and allows a process to hold a resource as long as it wants



Process manager - Process synchronization

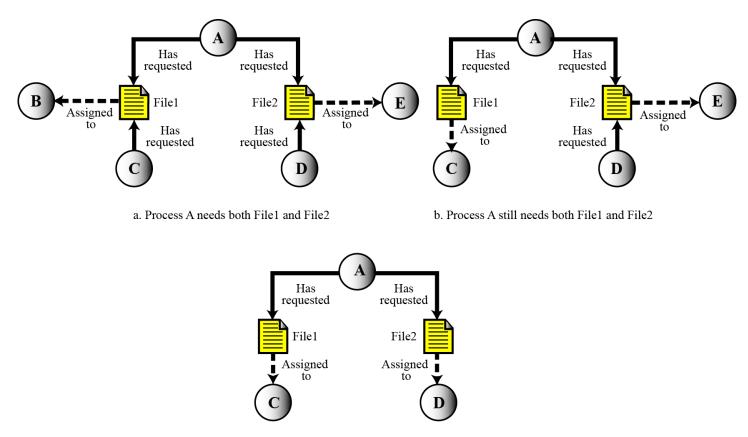
Solutions

- Not to allow a process to start running until the required resources are free
- Limit the time a process can hold a resource
- There are four necessary conditions for deadlock
 - 1. Mutual exclusion: Only one process can hold a resource
 - 2. Resource holding: A process holds a resource even though it cannot use it until other resources are available
 - 3. No preemption (不可搶先): The operating system cannot temporarily reallocate a resource
 - 4. Circular waiting: All processes and resources involved form a loop



Process manager - Process synchronization

Starvation is the opposite of deadlock. It can happen when the operating system puts too many resource restrictions on a process



c. Process A still needs both File1 and File2 (starving)

Device manager

- The device manager, or input/output manager, is responsible for access to input/output devices
 - 1. The device manager <u>monitors</u> every input/output device constantly to ensure that the device is functioning properly. The manager also needs to know when a device has finished serving one process and is ready to serve the next process in the queue
 - 2. The device manager <u>maintains a queue</u> for each input/output device or one or more queues for similar input/output devices. For example, if there are two fast printers in the system, the manager can have one queue for each or one queue for both
 - 3. The device manager <u>controls the different policies</u> for accessing input/output devices. For example, it may use FIFO for one device and the shortest length first for another

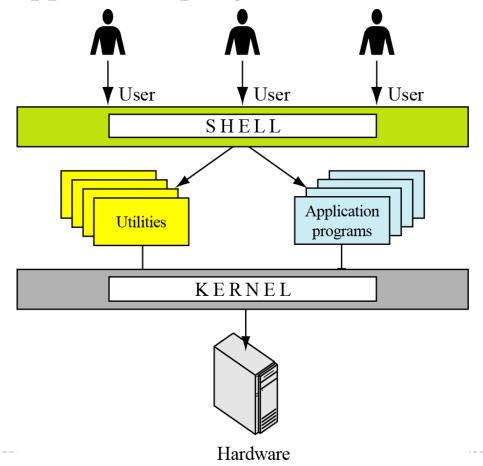
File manager

File manager is used to controlling the access to files

- 1. The file manager controls access to files. Access is permitted only by permitted applications and/or users, and the type of access can vary
- 2. The file manager supervises the creation, deletion, modification and naming of files
- 3. The file manager supervises the storage of files: how they are stored, where they are stored, and so on
- 4. The file manager is responsible for archiving and backups

Example - UNIX

- UNIX consists of four major components: the kernel (核心), the shell, a standard set of utilities (公用程式), and application programs
- Kernel
 - It contains the most basic parts of the operating system: memory management, process management, device management, and file management
 - Another component of the kernel consists of a collection of *device drivers* (驅動程式), which are the software units that communicate with the controllers



Shell

- It receives and interprets the commands entered by the user
- Utilities
 - A utility is a standard UNIX program that provides a support process for users
 - Three common utilities are text editors, search programs, and sort programs

Applications

- Applications in UNIX are programs that are not a standard part of the operating system distribution
- They provide extended capabilities to the system

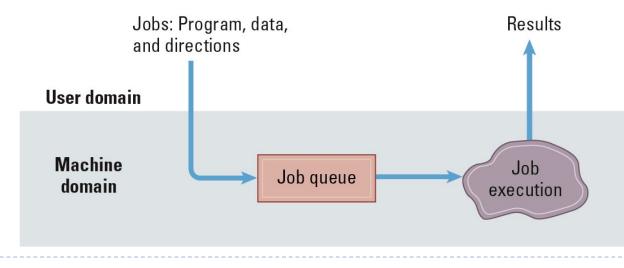
Appendix

Memory manager - Demand paging and segmentation

- *Demand paging and segmentation* can be combined to further improve the efficiency of the system
 - A segment may be too large to fit any available free space in memory. Memory can be divided into frames, and a module can be divided into pages. The pages of a module can then be loaded into memory one by one and executed

Evolution - Batch systems (批次系統)

- Batch operating systems were designed in the 1950s to control mainframe
 - At that time, computers used punched cards for input, line printers for output, and tape drives for secondary storage media
 - Each program to be executed was called a *job* and the punched cards were fed into the computer by an operator
 - Operating systems during this era were very simple: they only ensured that all of the computer's resources were transferred from one job to the next!



Time-sharing systems (分時系統)

- The idea of time sharing arises: resources could be shared between different jobs, with each job being allocated a portion of time to use a resource
 - One means of implementing time-sharing is to apply the technique called *multiprogramming*
 - For example, when one program is using an input/output device, the CPU is free and can be used by another program
- Time-sharing is hidden from the user each user has the impression that the whole system is serving them exclusively!
 - The operating system now had to do *scheduling (排程)*: allocating resources to different programs and deciding which program should use which resource, and when
 - The user could directly interact with the system without going through an operator!

Personal systems (個人系統)

- When personal computers were introduced, there was a need for an operating system for this new type of computer
 - During this era, single-user operating systems such as DOS (Disk Operating System) were introduced

Parallel systems (平行系統)

- The need for more speed and efficiency led to the design of parallel systems: multiple CPUs on the same machine
 - Each CPU can be used to serve one program or a part of a program, which means that many tasks can be accomplished in parallel instead of serially
 - The operating systems required for this are more complex than those that support single CPUs

Distributed systems (分散式系統)

- A job that was previously done on one computer can now be shared between computers that may be thousands of miles apart by network
 - A program may need files located in different parts of the world
 - Operating systems combine features of the previous generation with new duties such as controlling security

Real-time systems (即時系統)

• A real-time system is expected to do a task within specific time constraints

- Examples can be found in traffic control, patient monitoring, or military control systems
- The application program can sometimes be an embedded system such as a component of a large system, such as the control system in an automobile
- The requirements for a real-time operating system are often different than those for a general-purpose system!

- UNIX is a very powerful operating system with three outstanding features
 - 1. UNIX is a portable operating system that can be moved from one platform to another without many changes. The reason is that it is written mostly in the C language (instead of a machine language specific to a particular computer system)
 - 2. UNIX has a powerful set of utilities (commands) that can be combined (in an executable file called a script) to solve many problems that require programming in other operating systems
 - 3. It is device-independent, because it includes device drivers in the operating system itself, which means that it can be easily configured to run any device

Example - Linux

- The initial kernel of Linux was similar to a small subset of UNIX and now it mainly contain the following components
 - Kernel
 - ▶ System libraries (系統函式庫)
 - The system libraries hold a set of functions used by the application programs, including the shell, to interact with the kernel
 - ▶ System utilities (系統公用程式)
 - The system utilities are individual programs that use the services provided by the system libraries to perform management tasks
- Linux supports the standard Internet protocols
- Linux' provides the security aspects defined traditionally for UNIX, such as authentication and access control

Example - Windows

The design goals released by Microsoft are

Extensibility

• Windows is designed as a modular architecture with several layers. The purpose is to let the higher layers to be changed with time without affecting the lower layers

Portability

 Windows, like UNIX, is mostly written in C or C++ and the code is independent of the machine language of the computer on which it is running

Reliability

• Windows was designed to handle error conditions including protection from malicious software

Compatibility

• Windows was designed to run programs written for earlier versions of Windows

Performance

• Windows was designed to have a fast response time to applications that run on top of the operating system

Example - Windows

Windows uses a layered architecture

- ▶ Hardware abstraction layer (HAL, 硬體抽象層)
 - Hides hardware differences from the upper layers

Kernel

- The kernel is the heart of the operating system. It is an object-oriented piece of software that sees any entity as an object
- ▶ Executive (執行器)(Runs in kernel (privileged) mode)
 - The Windows executive provides services for the whole operating system. It is made up of six subsystems: object manager, security reference monitor, process manager, virtual memory manager, local procedure call facility, and the I/O manager
- ▶ Environmental subsystems (環境子系統)(Runs in the user mode)
 - These are subsystems designed to allow Windows to run application programs designed for Windows, for other operating systems, or for earlier versions of Windows

Example - Windows

