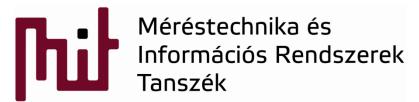
Operating systems (vimia219)

History and classification of Operating Systems, HW environment

Tamás Kovácsházy, PhD 1st topic, Introduction



Budapest University of Technology and Economics Department of Measurement and Information Systems

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Operating system

- Definition (Wikipedia)
 - An operating system (OS) is an interface between hardware and user which is responsible for the management and coordination of activities and the sharing of the resources of a computer, that acts as a host for computing applications run on the machine.
 - Operating systems offer a number of services to application programs and users. Applications access these services through application programming interfaces (APIs) or system calls.
- Is it a good definition?
 - More or less OK for client and server operating systems.
 - Practically there is no good definition: Microsoft v. USA legal proceedings
 - There are new terminologies in the definition . (they will be introduced later)
 - What kind of operating systems do exist?
 - Too many, let's start with the history of operating systems...





Early operating systems

- Evolution of Hardware defines the process
 - Early computers had "wired" programming
 - One task can be executed in a time
 - Changing task was very time consuming (rewiring)
 - The optimization of resource use by done by human operators
 - Selection of tasks and the order of execution (based on e.g. priority)
 - Human, machine and other resources are allocated to the task
 - Execution attempt
 - Evaluation of results
 - Rewiring
 - Repeat the process as long as the results are OK





Early BATCH systems

Batch system:

- Programms are written on paper using early programming languages (early Fortran dialects)
- Putting the program on punch cards
- Punch card set is submitted to the operators of the computer
- Operators run the job
- Results (and errors) are printed
- Fully on-line peripheral operation
- Jobs with similar resource use are grouped together to reduce the number of repeated tasks
- On-line peripheral operations substituted by off-line operations (I/O processor is introduced), faster execution but complexity grows
- Resident monitor schedules the jobs
 - One is finished the next one started automatically by the computer





Buffered processing

- I/O processors appear on the market
 - Standard abstract interfaces
 - Logical I/O peripherals appear
- Buffering
 - To optimize the connection between I/O peripherals and the CPU
 - Input -> CPU -> Output overlap
 - Finding programming errors is even hard even in this situation
 - The programmer has no on-line access to the computer
 - Results and errors are receive only after program execution





Spooling

- RAM memory chips appear on the market
- Capacity and speed of random access memory (RAM) grow
 - More than one task executed virtually
 - One main program and I/O tasks are involved
 - All running virtually in a parallel manner
 - Spooling (Simultaneous peripherial operation online)
 - Tasks can be even more interleaved.
 - Results: Steps toward multiprogramming





Multiprogramming

- Even bigger capacity RAMs with higher speeds makes possible new advances
 - Tasks are not necessarily processed in FIFO manner (human scheduling more)
 - Optimization possibilities
 - o Job pool
 - The aim is to reach 100% CPU, but other factors play their role
 - CPU scheduling : Which task can run? :
 - Resource utilization is an opened question (CPU, memory, permanent store, peripherials) to be solved in real-time.
 - The response of the on-line connection has mixed properties
 - Tasks run as long as it does not finished or I/O occurs.





The end of the 1960s

- Minicomputers appear (e.g. PDP)
 - Small groups (department) have access to computers
 - More people start to use computers
 - Number of humans handled by a computer decreases
 - Programmers have on-line access to computers
 - MULTICS, and UNIX later
 - C and some other modern programming languages
 - First steps toward the Internet (ARPANET, information sharing)
 - Fast development cycle
 - First attempts to control physical processes with computers
 - The first embedded systems are introduced to the market





Time sharing systems

- Time sharing or multitasking
- On-line users need short response time
 - Multiple people use the same computer (n*10-100 people share one computer)
 - The type something than wait for the output, interactive users
 - The machine should not be in idle state (Utilize it!)
 - Response time should be acceptable (n*10 ms)
 - Task run virtually in one time (parallel), in reality they get time slices of the processor
 - They run after one another, timed by a periodic timer
 - The timer interrupts the running task, and runs the next one
 - A batch system runs in the background
 - It utilizes the remaining time slices not used by interactive tasks
- Classic UNIX OS is designed around this model



Personal computers

- From the middle 1970s
 - A user gets her/his own computer due to the advances of technology
 - IBM PC
 - x86 CPU architecture
 - memory + HDD
 - Character or graphics terminal (X-windows, Windows)
 - Keyboard and later mouse
 - Soundcard
 - Network interface cards (LAN later Internet)
- Steps towards distributed systems
- New requirement: Userfriendlines







Distributed systems

- Decentralization
 - Distribution of function in space
 - Advantages and disadvantages: Security, resiliency , scalability, reliability, easy or hard development
 - It is very hard to develop such systems (complexity)
 - We are moving towards it (cloud computing, etc.)
- No time to speak about it in this subject
- Next step is mobile systems, we will not have to speak about that also





Multiprocessor system

- Homogenous (identical) processors
 - E.g. multiple CPU cores, multiple identical CPU, multiple CPU and multiple CPU core in one physical CPU (AMD Opteron, Intel Xeon)
- Heterogeneous (different) processors
 - E.g. a multicore CPU plus GPGPU (CUDA, OpenCL) or FPGA based accelerator
- Manycore CPU-k (e.g. Intel experiments, PS3 Cell)
- How this monsters can be programmed efficiently?
 - We do not touch these issues, other subjects may later
 - It is also an active research area







What kind of OSs do exist?

- Application specific approach
 - Client, server, mainframe operating systems (IT infrastructure)
 - Multipe execution units, may distributed, Grid, Cloud, Supercomputers
 - Embedded operating systems
 - Mobile operating systems
- Capability specific approach
 - Generic operating systems
 - Real-time operating systems (bounded response time)
 - High availability operating systems (reliability, availability, redundancy)
 - Configurable operating systems (functions can be selected)
- Capability and application are quite interrelated...
 - E.g. Linux is everywhere
 - Microsoft has products in nearly all market segments
 - Large number of specialized OS manufacturers
 - Wikipedia: 45 commercial OS manufacturer, nearly all of them has multiple differentiated products, plus open source OSs
 - How many Linux distributions do we have? Are they different OSs? I do not know the correct answer, the OS kernel is the same, but the applications and configuration are different.







Client, server and mainframe OSs

- Client OS is clear for everybody...
 (or at least I hope)
- Multiprocessor server/mainframe
 0 8-64(256) CPU, n*10/100 Gbyte RAM
- High availability
 - Redundancy
 - Parts can be change while running
- Can be partitioned
- HW support for CPU, memory, and peripherals virtualization







14. lap

Sun Fire X4600



Datacenters (grid, cloud, etc.)



- n*10.000 server
- n*100 TB memory
- Huge storage space
- Massively parallel tasks (WEB search)
- Task length vary drastically 20-50 msec or days
- Google, Microsoft,
 Facebook, YouTube





Embedded system 1.

- Embedded systems are specialized computer based systems designed for a specific task
 - Most cases to do this specific task they are in an intensive information exchange with the environment
 - They sense (by sensors) certain parameters of the environment and they influence the environment by actuators
 - There is a machine-environment interface: Sensors, Actuators, Communication interface
 - User interface for human operators is also present
- PCs can be used in embedded systems
 - It must have a dedicated task, it is not HW or SW specific property, but application specific
 - We may also use Windows or Linux in embedded systems!
 - They are not designed for that...
 - In non-demanding applications they may be a cheap and easy solution.





Embedded system 2.

- Many embedded systems operate in a safety critical environment!
- In case of a system failure:
 - People may be injured or die
 - Wide scale property damage is possible
 - Non acceptable risk
 - We need to avoid it, design and implement the system very carefully
 - There is no 100% safety or security

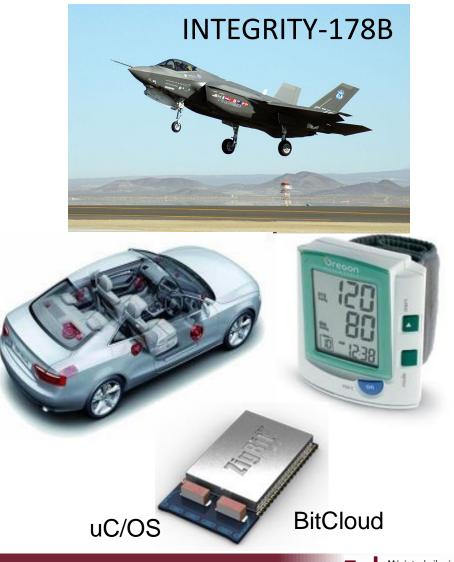




Embedded applications 1.

Special certificates may be required:

- Road vehicles
- Railways
- Aerospace applications
- Military
- Health
- Industry and energy sector
- o Etc.
- Real-time operation
- Reliability, security, availability
- No single OS can do all in one product





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Embedded applications 2., Mobile OS

- Mobile embedded systems
- It is blurred with client operating systems
- Requirements
 - Special GUI, multitouch, sensor integration, etc.
 - Battery optimization
 - Limited resources
 - Partially real-time applications (communication related)
 - Heterogeneous HW architecture
 - User CPU
 - Communication DSP
 - Graphics accelerator
 - Multimedia coder/decoder

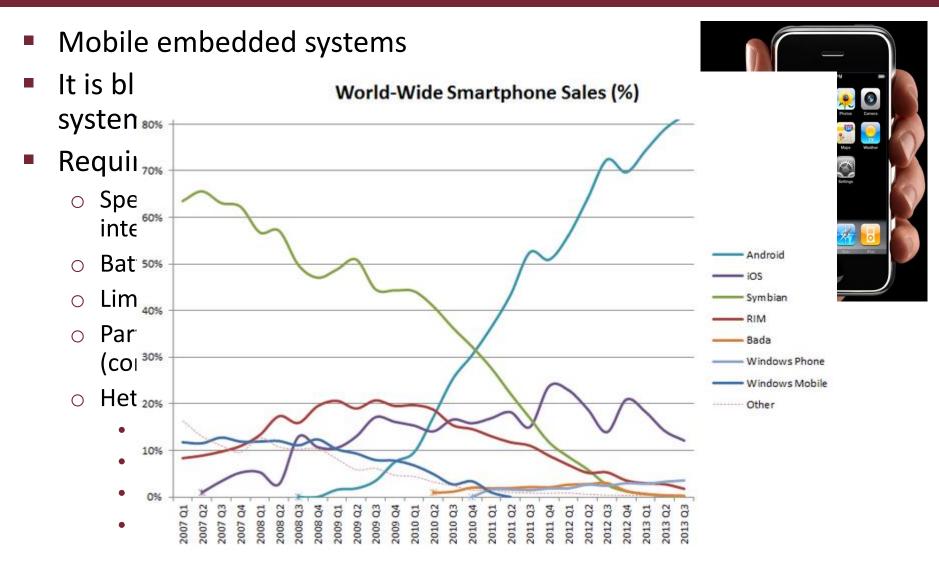






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Embedded applications 2., Mobile OS





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Real-time systems

- A real-time systems reacts to outside events reaching the system in a given, application specific time, if this deadline is not met, the answer can be considered erroneous
 - o E.g. Quiz in TV
- Real-time system types:
 - Soft real-time: Deadline is met with a probability < 1, but the probability is > N.
 - There are no catastrophic consequences, but ...
 - The system may be late sometimes
 - Service Level Agreement
 - Not necessarily priority based!
 - Hard real-time: Deadline is met with a probability = 1
 - If it does not meet the deadline, the system fails...
 - There are catastrophic consequences not meeting the deadline
 - "The system cannot be late!"
- How we prove it?







Real-time system 2.

- The definition does not say about the length of the deadline!
 - The deadline is application specific
 - Think about a slow chemical/biological process, such as fermentation (n*60s deadline) or a car ESP or ABS (i.e. ms deadline)
- Real-time operating systems:
 - By architectural design it can execute certain functions of it in real-time (with strict deadlines).
 - For example, the interrupt latency has un upper bound
 - The applications must be designed for real-time operation, the real-time OS is a requirement, but not a guarantee for real-time operation of the whole system
 - Linux and Windows are not real-time
 - There are real-time extensions for them(RTLinux, Windows: eg. Ardence RTX)





HW architectures

- There are lot of them, even for the x86 PC architecture...
- The operating system hides the differences:
 - A well-written application can run on a P3 PC (from approx.
 2000), and on the newest multicore Core i7 PC
 - In the worst case it does not utilize more than one core.
 - Furthermore, after recompiling, it can run on ARM hardware on the same operating system.
 - If there is some HW specific in it, that must be changed, for example, some inline assembly code
 - However, we must know what happens inside the operating system and hardware





Computer architectures

- The internal operation of the OS depends on:
 - The number and connection of processors in the system
 - The organization of memory in the system
 - The organization of other hardware in the system
 - How peripherals are connected?
- We will address only homogeneous multiprocessor system
 - There are identical processors in the system
- Types of systems we will talk about
 - Single CPU (Uniprocessor)
 - Symmetric multiprocessing (SMP)
 - Non-Uniform Memory Access (NUMA)



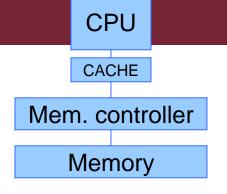
Single CPU (Uniprocessor)

Single CPU

- It was the typical architecture for long time
- o In embedded systems it is the typical even now!
 - Microcontrollers (MCU) are single CPU typically today
 - They can reach higher performance by architectural changes and higher clocks
- DMA (Direct Memory Access) handles memory in parallel with the CPU!
 - Race condition between the DMA controller and the CPU
 - Input: DMA transfer ⇒ IT ⇒ CPU handles data
 - Output: DMA transfer, Peripheral handles data, IT, CPU removes data from memory
 - CACHE coherency problems may arise! Solutions:
 - The whole CACHE is invalidate if DMA transfer occur
 - Simple, but has catastrophic effects on performance
 - Memory locations handled by DMA not cached (CACHE controller, MMU)
 - CACHE coherent DMA (HW support required)

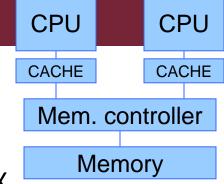






SMP

- Symmetric multiprocessing
 - Multiple, identical CPUs
 - Multiple CPUs or multiple CPU cores
 - Example: AMD Phenom, Intel C2D/C2Q, iX
 - Most cases with an architecture specific CACHE hierarchy is present
 - SMP is CACHE coherent most cases
 - Memory is connected to a controller
 - The whole memory is accessed with identical properties (bandwidth, latency, etc.) by all CPUs or cores
 - Muticore MCU
 - ARM15, ARM11 MPCore, ARM Cortex-A9 MPCore
 - The CPU core is cheap (small portion of the chip surface)
 - More and more SMP appears in embedded systems
 - To utilize multiple CPUs in the OS, the OS must support the SMP HW properly
 - Otherwise only one CPU is seen by the OS



NUMA

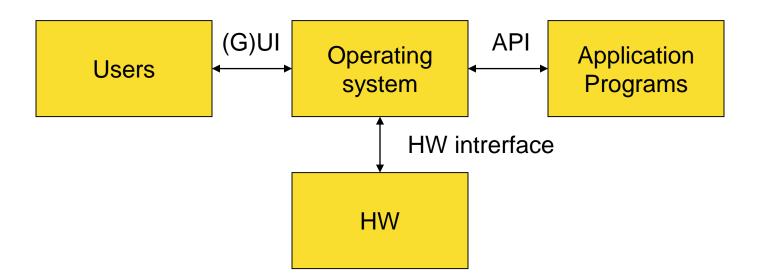
Non-Uniform Memory Access

- Memory speed depends on the relative location of CPU core and memory location
- The physical memory is unified
 - Single and identical address space for all CPUs
- Cache coherency
 - CACHE coherent (ccNUMA)
 - No CACHE coherent
- Memory controllers are connected by a special communication interface
 - QPI for Intel, Hypertransport for AMD
- For example, multiple CPU AMD Opteron or Intel Core i7 based Xeon CPUs utilze ccNUMA architecture
 - Inside one chip the architecture SMP
- To utilize multiple CPUs in the OS, the OS must support the SMP HW properly
 - Otherwise only one CPU is seen by the OS



CPU CPU CACHE CACHE M. cont. M. cont. Memory Memory

The operating system and its environment

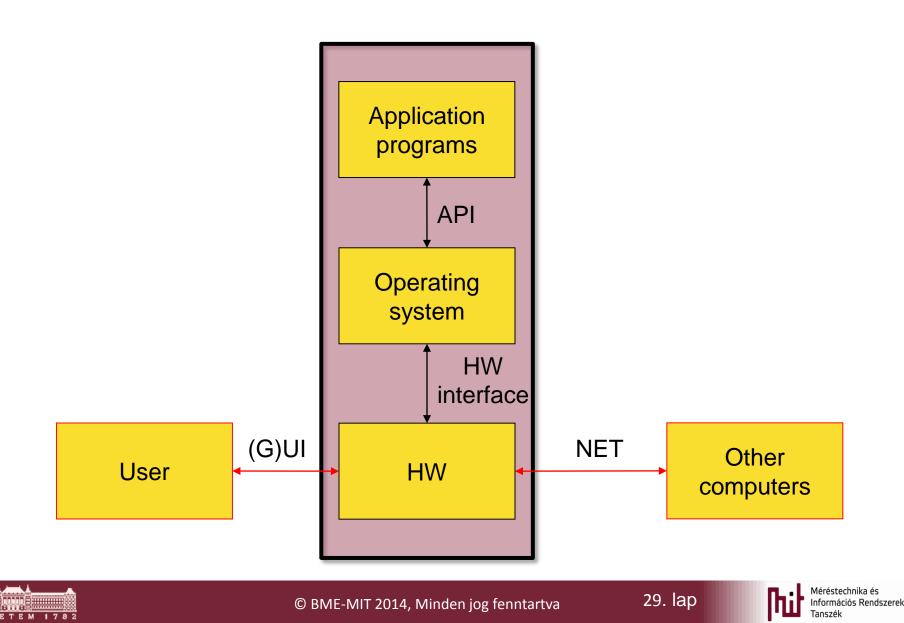


- It must be emphasized that:
 - The user and the application programs cannot be in direct contact
 - HW and the application programs cannot be in direct contact
- Everything happens through the OS
 - For performance reasons there are some exceptions (Graphics), but OS control is there even in this case
 - There are some exceptions in embedded operating systems also





The operating system and its environment 2.



Layered structure of operating systems

Layered structure

- Structure (design time efficiency) and run-time efficiency must be balanced
 - Layered approach is a must for extendibility also
- A virtual machine is realized by the layers (upper interface)
 - High level function, virtual instruction set
- On the lowest layer the real CPU and peripherals implement the real machine





Typical layers in OSs

Layers

- Kernel (implements the fundamental functionalities of the operating system)
 - Task and memory handling, security
- Hardware specific layer (HAL and drivers, typically in a welldefined hierarchy)
 - HAL (Hardware Abstraction Layer) is a bridge between HW and the kernel
 - Handling of keyboard, mouse, graphics, sound, storage, network, etc.
- System programs (subsystems to implement other functionalities of the OS)
 - Filesystem, high level network handling (TCP/IP), command shell, stb.
- System call handler managing system calls coming from application programs
 - An API on various target languages compiled into the applications
 - This API maps API calls to system call
 - Changes privilege level to the kernel, and system call handler is executed there





Operating system architectures

- The OS is a complex software, its has its own architecture
- Monolithic kernel
 - All functionalities are compiled into a large executable (the OS)
 - Inflexible, any changes in HW or functionality can be added by recompiling the kernel
 - $\circ~$ A failure of one component results the failure of the whole kernel
 - It is common in embedded systems (The HW does not change there)

Modular kernel

- Minimalistic kernel extended (or cut back) by loadable modules run-time
- Flexible, can be adapted to changes in the HW or requirements
- o A failure of one component results the failure of the whole kernel
- Linux kernel since version 2.x, Windows

Microkernel

- A kernel with minimalistic functions, services and drivers are attached to it using the client-server architecture
 - It uses 3 privilege levels (kernel, services and drivers, applications)
- Needs more resources due to complex communication among components
- Failure of a service, driver, or application program cannot influence the operation of the kernel
- Mac OS X



Examples

Linux

- The basic architecture is a monolithic small kernel and loadable kernel modules
 - Modul handling commands: modprobe, insmod, lsmod, rmmod
- Monolithic kernel can be built also
 - All services and drivers are compiled into the kernel
 - Module handling can be left out of the kernel
 - Inflexible, but in some applications flexibility is not required
 - No hardware or service changes required
 - Has some advantages in embedded systems (small size, faster)
- Apple OS X
 - o Darwin
 - Mach 3.0 mikrokernel + FreeBSD (Berkeley Software Distribution) UNIX
 - Object-oriented framework



Accessing hardware

- Special CPU registers (CPU config)
- I/O ports accessed by I/O instructions
- Memory mapped I/O
 - Available bandwidth and latency can be drastically different compared to real memory
- DMA (Direct Memory Access)
 - DMA controller (HW specific), needs to be programmed
 - Can move information between peripherals and memory without the CPU
 - Faster but has some disadvantages (race condition in the CACHE)
- Interrupt
 - Interrupt controller (HW specific)
 - Can be disabled and enable
 - If the interrupt is enabled and the interrupt signal comes in, the CPU transfers the execution to the interrupt handler code
 - The details are HW specific





CPU privilege levels

- Hierarchic CPU privilege levels
 - First introduced in the middle of the 1960s (to support Multics and later UNIX)
 - The CPU needs to change in between them, it is done by executing a system call
- Nearly all modern generic processors support this functionality
 - Controls the access to CPU resources
 - Executable instructions
 - Access to CPU configuration registers
 - The possibility of I/O instruction execution is disabled
 - Access to memory locations may be restricted
 - E.g. x86 since 286/386, ARM Cortex Ax line, etc.
 - Microcontrollers do not support or have very limited support of privilege levels, e.g., Atmel AVR, ARM Cortex Mx line, stb.
- 2 or 4 privilege levels are implemented in modern processors
 - Typically 2 is used
 - User mode (real mode) –restricted access
 - Kernel mode (protected mode) full access
 - In case of a microkernel a 3rd level may be also used for driver and services
 - \cdot It has limited access, more the in user mode, but less than in kernel mode







Memory Management Unit (MMU)

- Special HW in the CPU
- The functions of the MMU (all will be detailed later)
 - Maintaining the state of the memory
 - ID of the task that uses the memory
 - Access Control List (ACL)
 - CACHE control (e.g. DMA)
 - Mapping virtual memory to physical memory
 - Speeding up mapping (Translation lookaside buffer, TLB)
 - MMU state have some part which are task/context dependent
 - Pagefile or SWAP (HDD)
 - Protection of memory
 - Prohibited access to memory must be denied or at list signaled to the CPU
 - General Protection Fault (GPF) in older version of Windows
- We will talk about the MMU and memory handling later
- Linux, Windows, Windows CE (Windows Phone) requires a functional MMU for running these OSs



Interrupt

- Interrupt (IT) types
 - Hardware IT: a peripheral request handling from the CPU
 - External event influences the CPU
 - A peripheral may request services for multiple reasons
 - Exception: The CPU or the MMU has identified an event which needs specific software to run on the CPU
 - E.g., page fault, numeric overflow, divide by zero, privilege violation, etc.
 - A hardware signaled even, which comes from the CPU
 - Software IT: system call by executing a special instruction
 - A software influences the operation of the CPU through the IT mechanism
- Modern operating systems are interrupt driven.







Hardware interrupt example

- An external hardware requires immediate service
- Clock interrupt (exceptionally important)
 - ML1 (Who can remember it? The exchange students cannot.)
 - Fix frequency oscillator producing impulses
 - Programmable counter
 - After a predefined number of impulses its request a HW interrupt
 - This interrupt periodically runs the OS (scheduler)
 - The system clock is also derived from this source
 - Periodic or oneshot operation
 - The period is 1-20ms, typically 10 ms





System call

- What a "system call" is?
 - Starting point: The CPU runs an application program
 - The system call by the application program interrupts the CPU by a software interrupt, transfers the execution to the OS
 - A context switch happens
 - The OS does it work
 - Transfers the execution back to an application program (with a context switch)
- How a "system call" is executed?

Implementation specific...

- Consequences of the system call
 - It has a large overhead, consumes CPU time
 - The context must be save and restored 2 times
 - The number of system calls must be minimized
 - During the system call the CPU changes privilege levels 2 times





What the context is?

CPU registers

- PC, Status, Work, Segment, etc. registers
- E.g. Linux does not save floating point registers while entering kernel mode
 - Consequence: Floating point arithmetics cannot be used in the kernel!
- MMU settings
 - Access to the memory of the running application program must be guaranteed
- Other application specific HW settings
- The most delicate task of is to determine what is needed to be saved and what is not necessary to be saved.







System call for programmers

- The programmer calls an API call from the application program
 - For example in case of C language (most OSs are written in C or C++), the API is:
 - Windows: windows.h
 - Linux: glibc
 - The API hides the details of the systems call from the programmer
 - It is a high level C wrapper around the system calls
 - The API implementation is compiled into the application (or bound to it run-time), runs in user mode, and executes the system call
 - The OS consists the system call handler, and the system call transfer the execution to it in kernel mode
 - There will be examples later...



I/O instructions

- Application programs cannot execute I/O instructions themselves (user mode)
- They initiate the execution of I/O operations by issuing system calls
- By issuing a system call the application program waits for finishing the system call
- Other programs may run during this (efficiency)
- The kernel executes the real low-level I/O instructions in kernel mode
- The peripheral signals the HW the by interrupt when the I/O is ready
- Due to the interrupt the system transfers to the OS, and the OS makes the decision what to do (e.g. it may run the application program waiting for the I/O)
- After the I/O the line of execution returns to the application program





Startup of an OS 1.

- Bootstrap process
- PC and servers
 - Init/RESET vector (CPU)
 - BIOS/EFI (firmware)
 - POST (Power on self test)
 - Search for HW and HW initialization
 - Determination of Boot the boot media
 - BOOT sector (HDD type storage)
 - 2nd level boot loader (GRUB, LILO, NTLDR)
 - OS is loaded into memory
 - HW reprogramming (device driver replaces the BIOS/EFI)
 - Privilege level change (transfer to kernel mode)
 - Initialization of other functions in kernel mode





Startup of OS 2.

Bootstrap process

Embedded system (PC does it on BIOS/EFI level)

- OS image in ROM (ROM or flash, maybe compressed)
- Can be run from ROM (Harvard architecture can do it only)
- Can be copied to RAM (after decompression) and executed from there
- Stopping the machine (power off or hibernate, not standby, that is another issue)
 - Safe stopping must be done
 - Controlled saving of state during the process
 - Stopping or sleeping HW (low power mode)
 - Non-volatile storage must be left in a consistent state (HDD)