#### Lecture 10

Concepts of Mobile Operating Systems

#### Mobile Business I (WS 2016/17)

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Overview - Concepts of Mobile Operating Systems

- Functions
- Processes' Management
  - States and elements
  - Scheduling
  - Inter-Process-Communication (IPC)
- Memory Management
  - Mapping
  - Paging
  - Segmentation
  - Examples
- Security & Maintenance

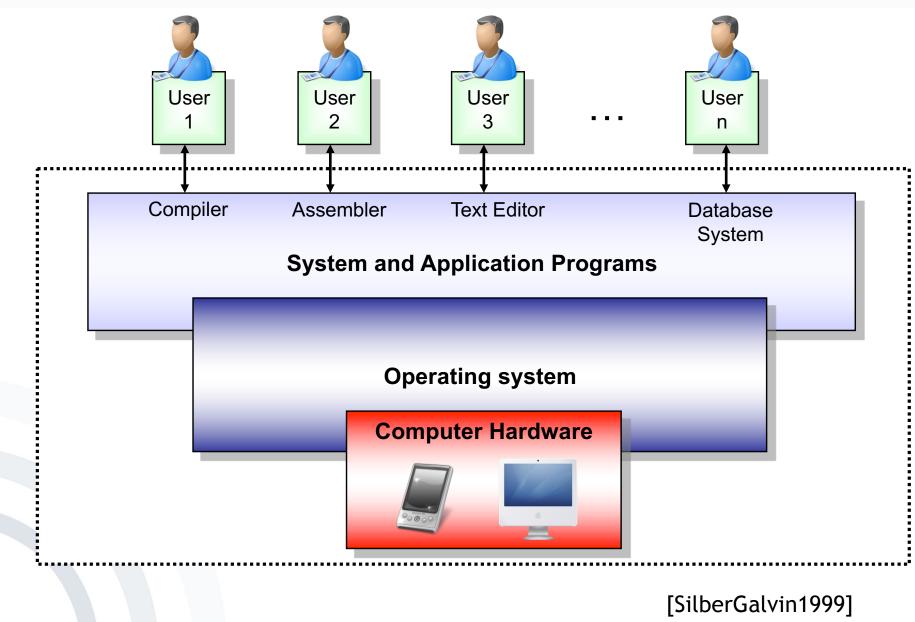
### Mobile Operating Systems



### What is an operating system (OS)?

- An OS is a program that serves as a mediator between the user and the hardware.
- It enables the users to execute programs
- Other properties: Multi-user, multi-thread, high availability, real-time, ...
- **Primary goal of an OS:** Easy usage of the actual hardware
- Secondary goal of an OS: Efficient usage of the hardware

#### **Operating System**



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### **OS** Functions



#### Controlling and sharing of resources

- Computation time, real-time processing "Who is computing how much? How long does it take?"
- Memory (RAM, Disk)
  "Who gets which part of the memory?"

### Security functions

- Protection of the data (memory, hard disk): "Who is allowed to access resources?"
- Process protection (computation time, code, isolation): "Who is allowed to compute?"
- Security module support

#### Communication

- Allocation of I/O-Resources
- Processing of the communication
- User interface (UI)





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#### Questions

- Several programs (processes) can run simultaneously & concurrently on an OS:
  - How are processes managed in a system with regard to processing time, memory, etc?
  - Which process is allowed to access resources when?
  - How are resources (I/O) shared among processes?
  - How do processes exchange data among each other?





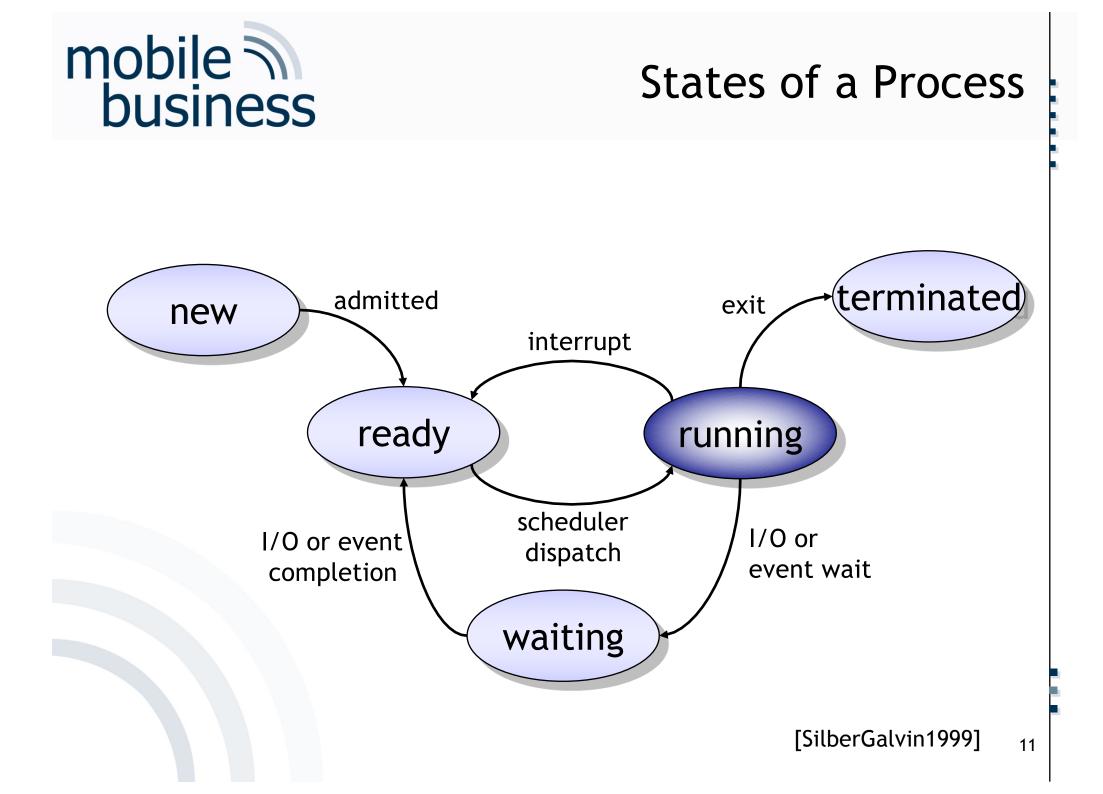




- A process is a program "in operation".
- A process uses resources, such as CPU time, memory, files, and I/O devices.
- The resources of a process are allocated while it is created or when it is running.
- The operating system has to manage the process (creation, resource distribution, etc.).

### Components of a Process

- More than simple code!
- Program counter: Indicates on which point in the code the process resides.
- Contents of the process registers:
  - Stack: Contains temporary data, such as subroutine parameters or return addresses, etc.
  - Data section: Contains the global variables
  - *Heap:* Dynamically allocated memory



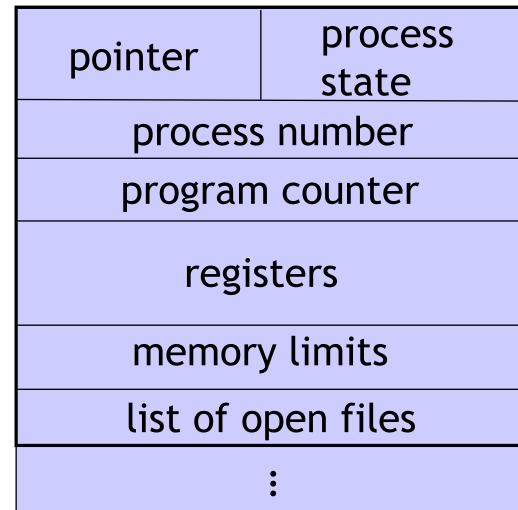


#### States of a Process

- New: Process is created.
- Ready: Process is waiting for being executed.
- Running: Process is running.
- Waiting: Process is waiting for results:
  - Completion of an I/O-operation
  - An event
- Terminated: Process is terminated.

#### Abstracted View on a Process: Process Control Block (PCB)

 Abstracted representation of the contents of a process control block (PCB), needed by an operating system.



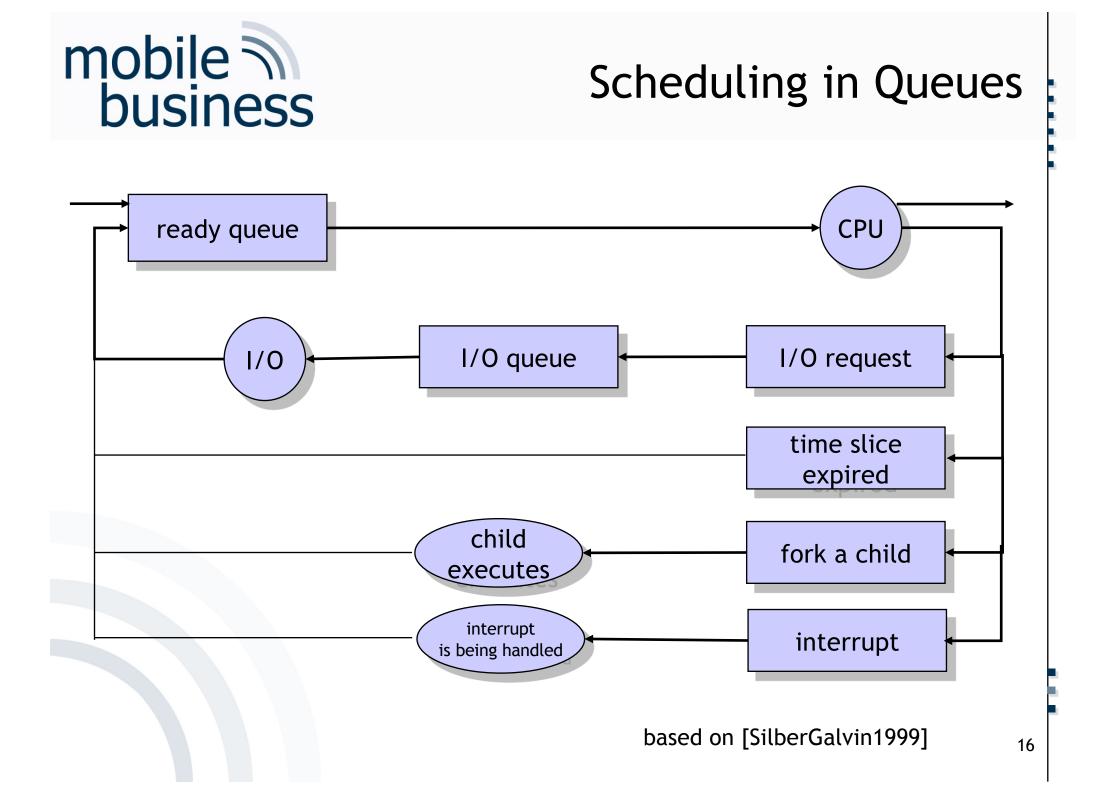
Abstracted View on a Process: Process Control Block (PCB)

- Process State: new, ready, running, waiting, ...
- Program Counter: Address of the next command to be executed
- CPU Registers: Accumulator, Index Register, Stack Pointer and general registers
- Information for:
  - CPU-Scheduling
  - Memory-Management
  - Accounting
  - I/O Status



#### Scheduling

- Multiprogramming: Several processes are being run in parallel for:
  - Maximisation of the CPU usage
  - Enabling users to operate several programs simultaneously
  - Enabling several users to work on the same machine simultaneously
- On a CPU only one process is running at a time.
- The process switching must be fast, to enable the user to interact with all running programs.
- Queues are used to handle this task.





### Scheduling – Algorithms

- If the CPU is idle (no process is running), the scheduler invokes a process from the readyqueue to be run on the CPU.
- There are different methods (algorithms) to make the choice, which process to invoke.
- Methods are optimised towards different criteria.



### Scheduling - Criteria

- CPU utilisation: The goal is to maximise the CPU usage.
- Throughput: Number of finished processes per time unit.
- Turnaround-time: Time interval between the beginning and the end of a process
- Latency time: Sum of all the waiting time of all processes in the queue.
- Response time: Time span of a process to answer a user's request and to generate the answer.

### First Come, First Serve (FCFS)

- Processes are executed by the CPU one after another in order of their occurrence.
- FIFO-principles (First In First Out)
- Pros/Cons:
  - The throughput is not optimal.
  - Average response time is very high
  - No optimal utilisation of the CPU (Convoy-Effect)
  - Not appropriate for Time-Sharing-Systems



### Shortest Job First

- The processes are executed in order of their execution time.
- Processes that can be finished fast are executed first.
- Pros/Cons:
  - **Optimal** with regard to the average latency time
  - Not fair Complex processes can "starve to death".



**Priority Scheduling** 

- Processes get an assigned priority number.
- Process execution in the order of the assigned priority.
- Deadlocks or "starvation" of processes with low priority numbers is possible.
- Aging: Gradually raising the priority of a process

### Round Robin Scheduling

- Especially used for Time-Sharing-Systems and one of the simplest scheduling algorithms
- Similar to FCFS, assigning time slices of a time interval to a process being held in the scheduling queue.
- After the time slice of a process is expired, the CPU is revoked from the process and the process is placed at the end of the scheduling queue.
- The efficiency of this method depends on the size of a time interval.



### Inter-Process-Communication

- Processes are able to interact with each other (data exchange)
- Several methods are possible
  - Direct or indirect
  - Symmetric or asymmetric
  - Automatic or by explicit buffering
  - Handover as copy or reference
  - Fixed or variable size of communication packets

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#### Memory Management

- The CPU retrieves instructions from the memory depending on the program counter.
- Thereby it might be necessary to read or write data from certain memory-addresses.
- The operating system has an address space where the data and the programs reside.
- The whereabouts of a process in the memory can be unknown by the time of the actual programming.
- Usage of symbolic addresses during programming that get mapped to physical addresses later on (*Mapping*)
- Binding: The conversion of symbolic addresses to logical addresses in the memory of an operating system.

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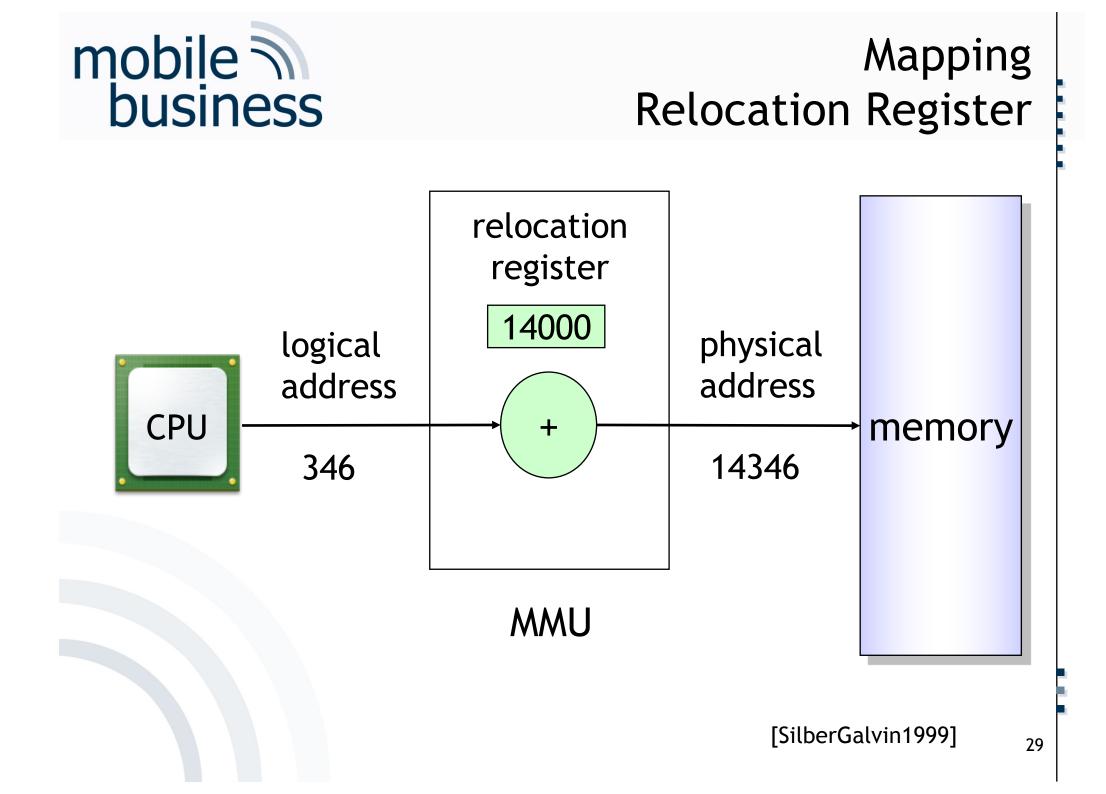
Mapping Logical vs. Physical Addresses

- Logical Addresses:
  Generated by the CPU
- Physical Addresses:
  Sent to the memory unit



Mapping Memory Management Unit

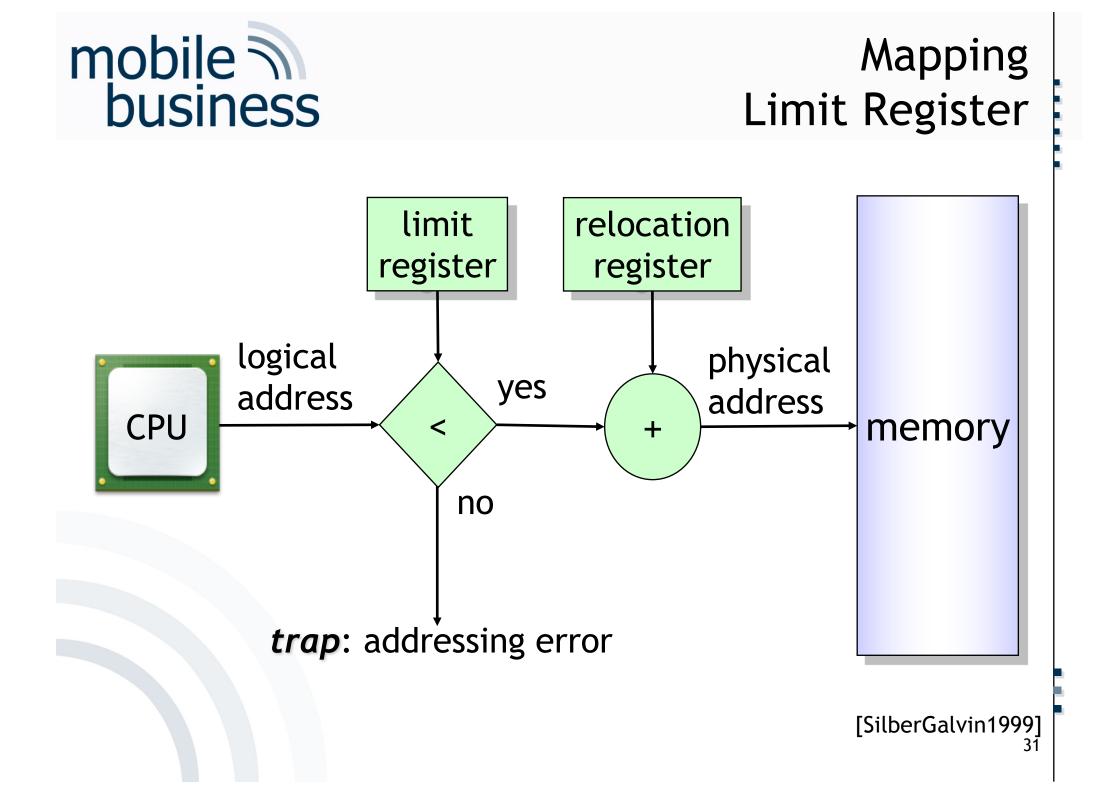
- The mapping is done by a so called MMU (Memory Management Unit).
- Usage of a relocation register that contains the base address for a process.
- The base address is added to the logical address, resulting in the physical address.





Mapping Limit Register

- The memory of a system also contains the actual operating system.
- The access of other processes onto the code of the operating systems needs to be prevented.
- Furthermore, the processes need to be protected against each other.
- Solution: Usage of so called "Limit Registers"



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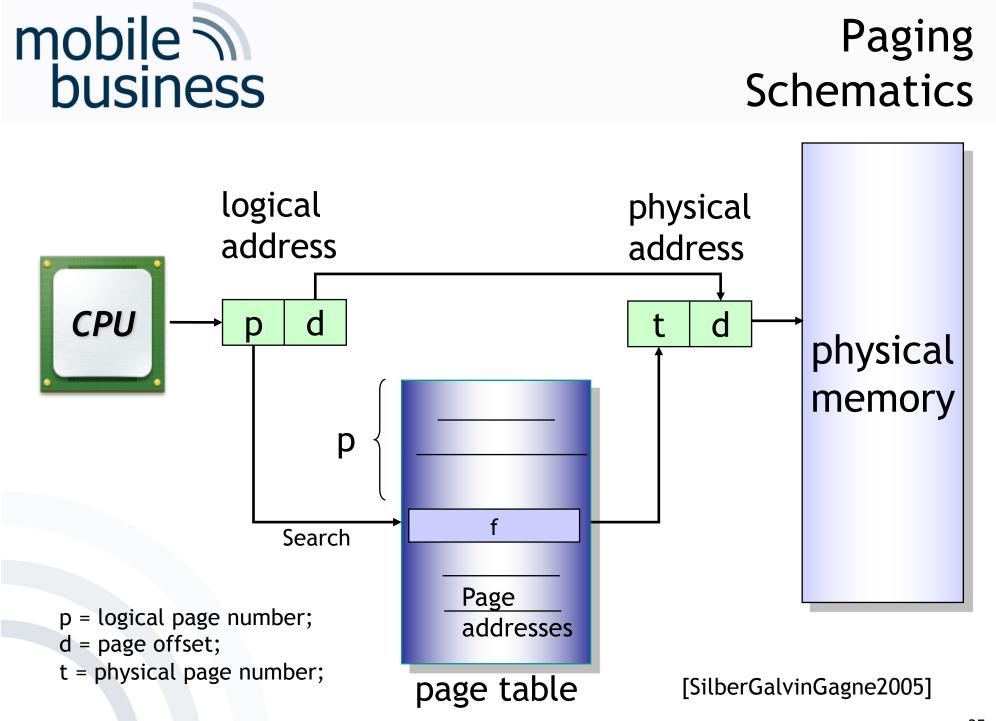


- The memory contains several processes of varying size.
- When a process is loaded or removed from the memory, the free memory will be fragmented.
- One solution is the so called *paging*, putting the process into several separate memory chunks of a defined size, instead of putting it into the memory in one single piece.



Paging Overview

- The *physical memory* is divided into blocks of a defined size, the so called *frames*.
- The *logical memory* gets divided into blocks of the same size, the so called (memory) *pages*.
- Every address created by a CPU is divided into a page number [p] and an offset [d].
- The page number is used as the index for the page table, containing the base address for all (memory) pages.
- The base address is combined with the offset resulting in the physical address.



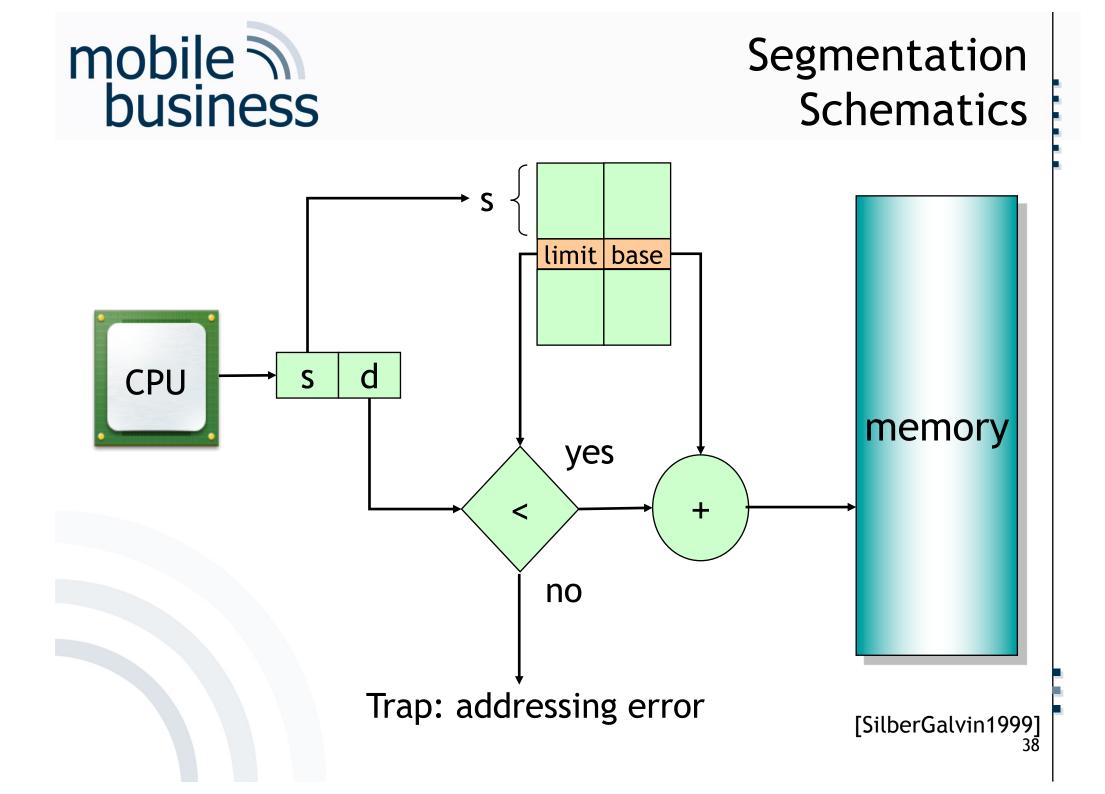
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### Segmentation Overview

- The memory is partitioned into segments of variable length.
- Every segment has a name and a defined length.
- A segment table is used to store the base address and the limit of the segments.
- The logical address consists of a segment number [s] and the offset [d].



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39



### Memory Management Examples Overview

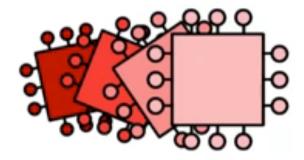
- Paging, segmentation and virtual memory
- Windows CE Dynamic Link Libraries (DLL) positioning



#### Memory Management Examples Paging, segmentation and virtual memory

**Operating systems - systems software** 

Memory management (paging, segmentation and virtual memory)

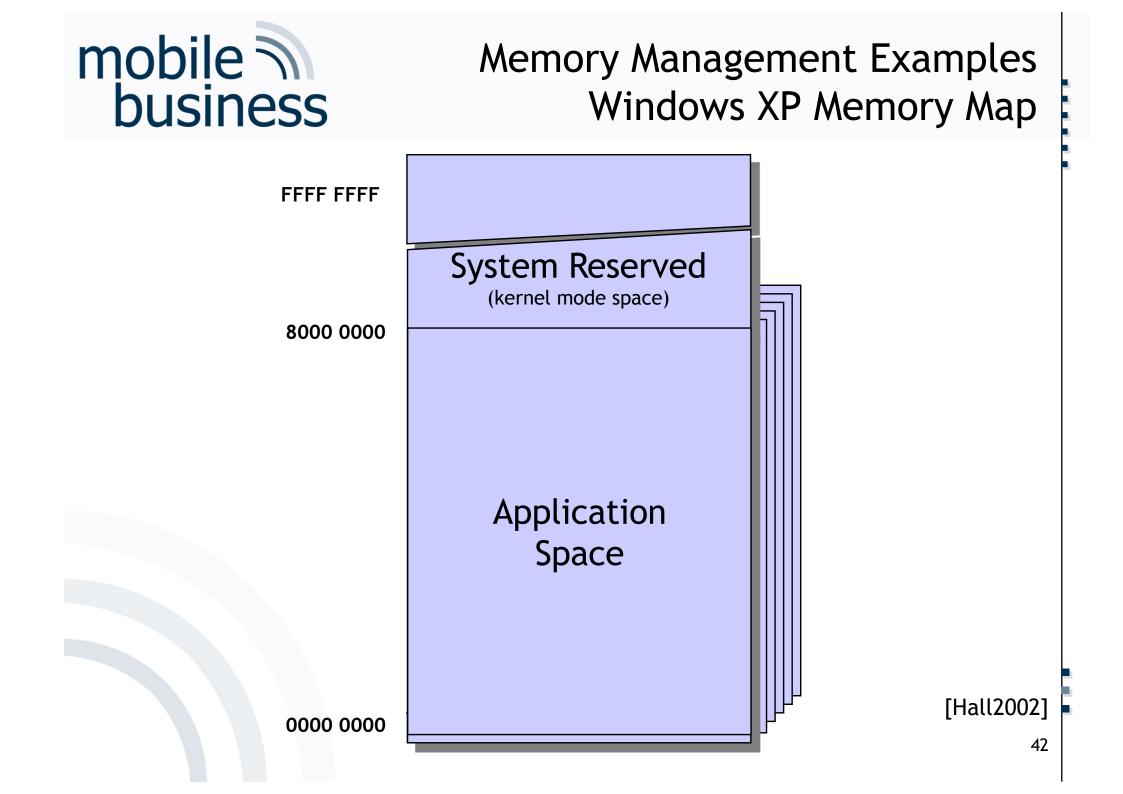


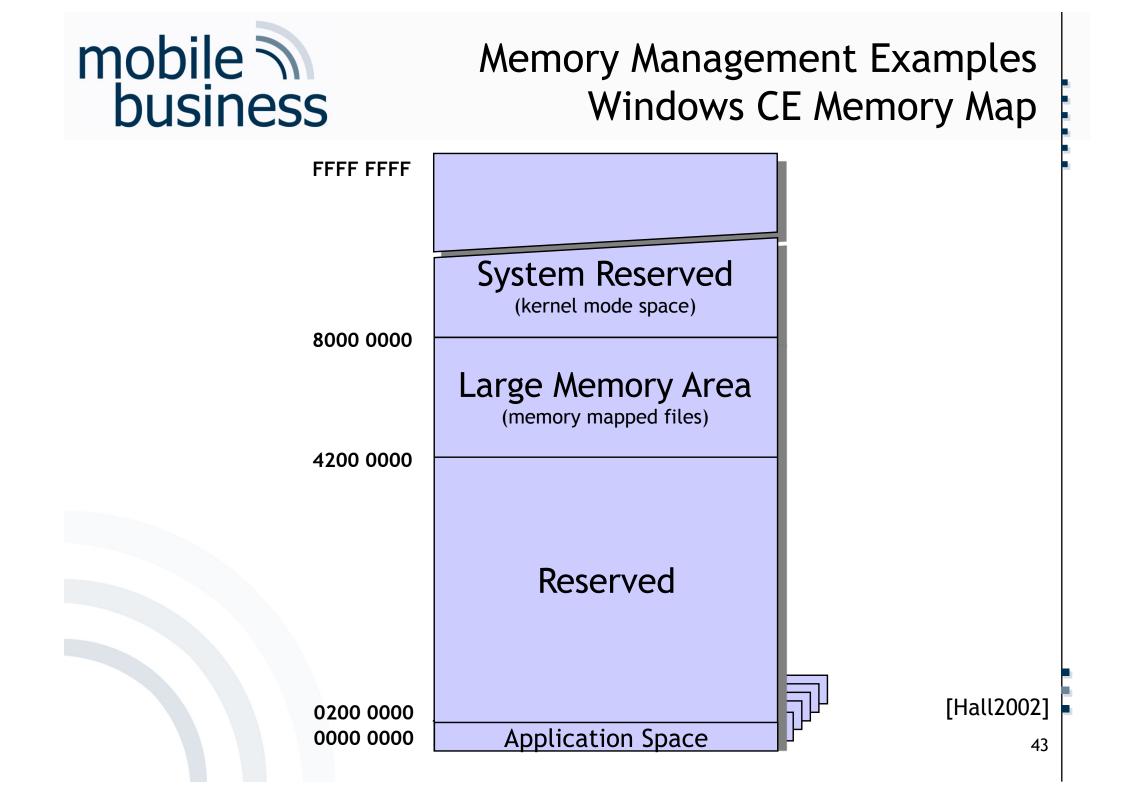
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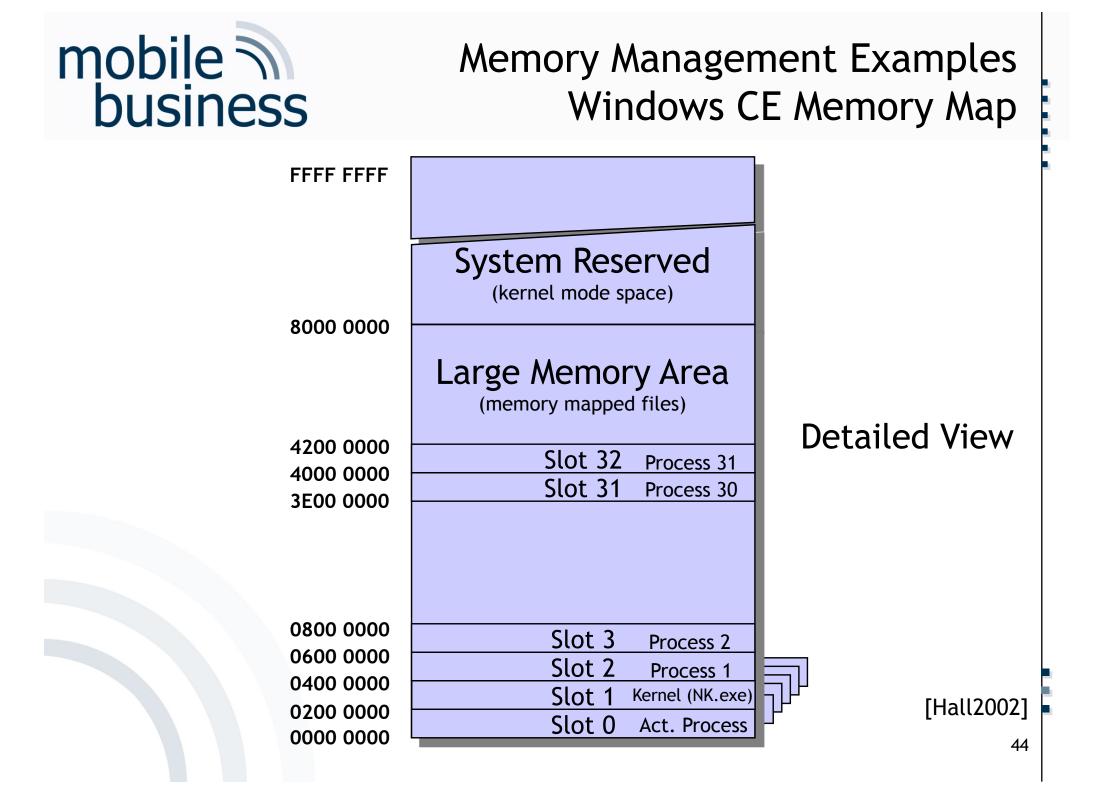
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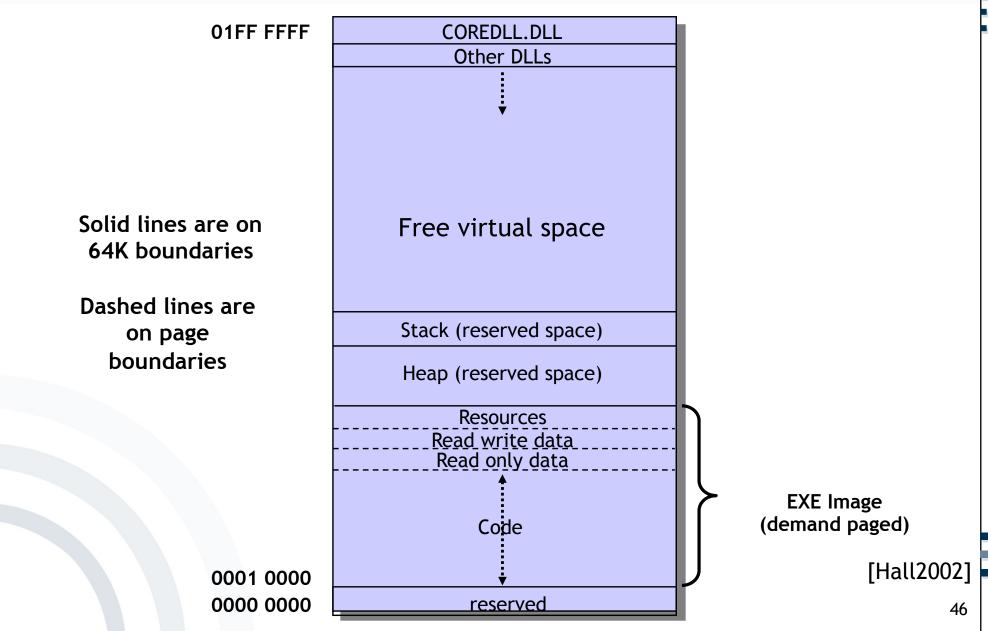




### Memory Management Examples System Memory Map

- Memory (RAM) is divided into 33 slots.
- One process per slot
  - Slot 2 to Slot 32
  - A process only has access to his own slot
    - ... and to slot 0, when it is active.
- Active process is placed into Slot 0.
- Kernel (NK.exe) is placed into Slot 1.
  - Remaining memory is shared.

### Memory Management Examples Application Memory Map (Slot 0)



### Memory Management Examples Virtual Memory

- Maximum of 32 MB for virtual memory
  - Virtual memory is used for the code and the data
- Memory is:
  - Allocated on the basis of pages
  - Reserved in blocks of 64 KB

Memory Management Examples Dynamic Link Libraries (DLL)

- Software library, containing a collection of functions and sub-programs that can be used by other independent programs.
- This methodology offers the following advantages:
  - Reutilisation of existing code
  - Distribution of the development process
  - Etc.

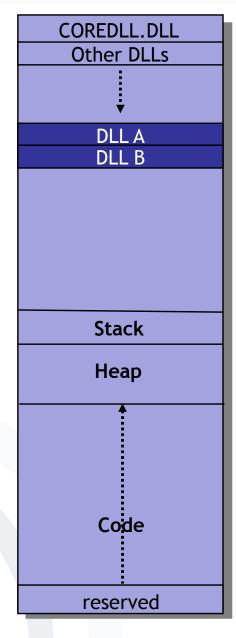
#### Memory Management Examples DLL Load Positioning

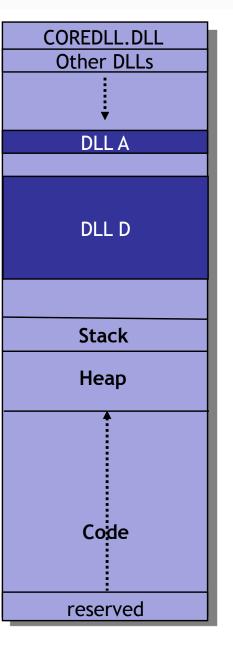
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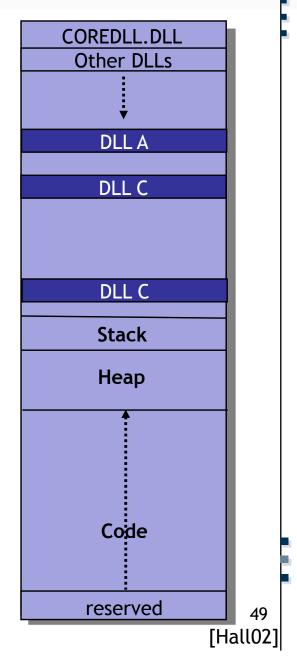


0001 0000

0000 0000







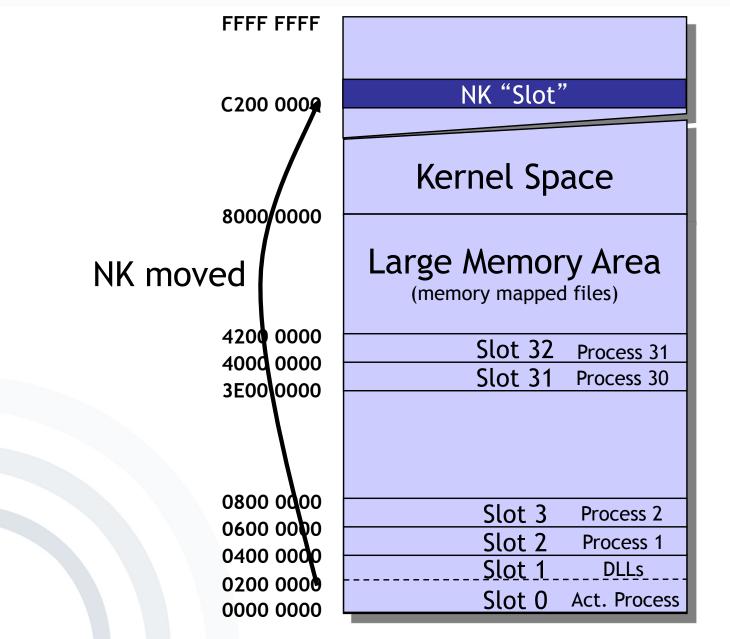
Memory Management Examples DLL Load Positioning

- Any DLL being loaded by any process allocates memory of other processes, regardless if the DLL is used by other processes or not.
- The address, the DLL is loaded to, is dependent on the other DLLs being loaded by other processes.
- All DLLs are loaded/stored into memory blocks of 64K.
- The more DLLs are loaded, the bigger is the problem.

Memory Management Examples Solution in Windows CE .NET

- Windows CE .NET solves the DLL load problem by modifying the memory map.
- The kernel (NK.EXE) is relocated from Slot 1 into the kernel space starting from address 0xC200 0000.
- Slot 1 is used for the DLLs:
  - Is connected with all applications for Slot 0

### Memory Management Examples Windows CE .NET Memory Map



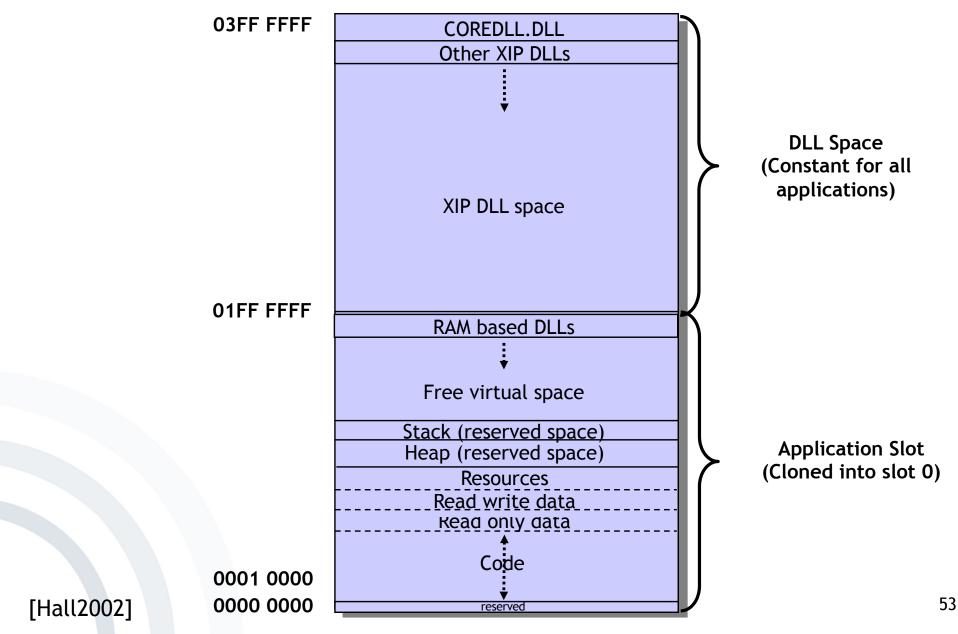
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#### Memory Management Examples Windows CE .NET Application Memory Map





Memory Management Examples Application Memory Map

- Windows CE .NET Application Memory Map
  - Application memory is now extended to 64 MB (from 0000 0000 up to 03FF FFFF).
  - DLLs are loaded into the upper 32 MB (from 0200 0000 up to 03FF FFFF).
  - Executable (EXE) code, heaps and stacks are using the lower 32 MB (from 0000 0000 up to 01FF FFFF).
  - There is no possibility for loaded applications to allocate memory above 32 MB.

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55

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### Sandboxing

- Security mechanism provided by all mobile operating systems
  - Separation of running programs
  - Memory Management allocates well-defined memory areas for every sandboxed application at runtime.
  - Protection of device's resources from mobile applications in the sandbox
  - Untested (program) code cannot cause damage from within the sandbox.
- Examples
  - Network-access restrictions
  - Restricted file system access





### Mobile Device Management

- Software to secure, monitor, manage and support mobile devices
- Over-the-air distribution of
  - Applications
  - Data
  - Configuration settings
- Higher security level, lower cost and fewer downtimes

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