Chapter 1: Introduction

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- What Operating Systems Do
- Computer-System Organization
- Computer-System Architecture
- Operating-System Structure
- Operating-System Operations
- Process Management
- Memory Management
- Storage Management
- Protection and Security
- Kernel Data Structures
- Computing Environments
- Open-Source Operating Systems

Objectives

- To describe the basic organization of computer systems
- To provide a grand tour of the major components of operating systems
- To give an overview of the many types of computing environments
- To explore several open-source operating systems

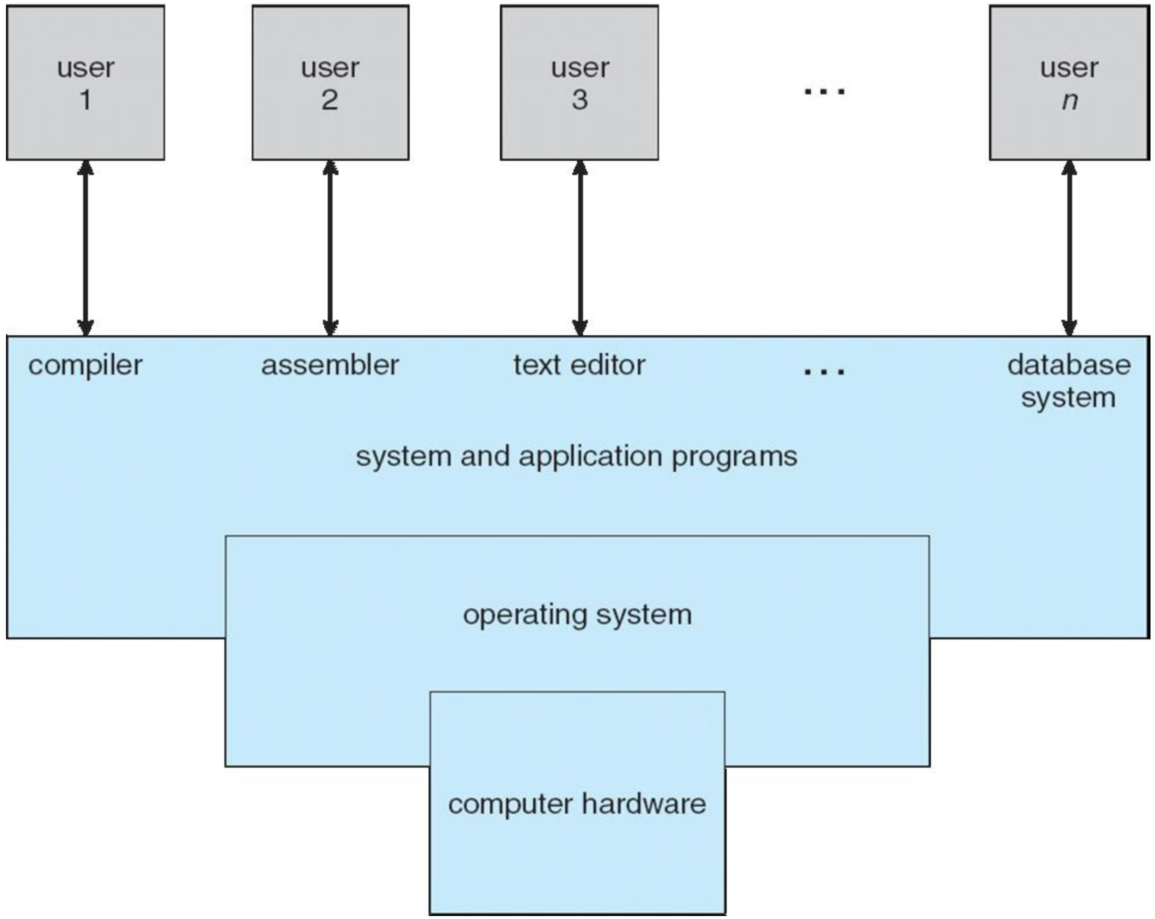
What is an Operating System?

- A program that acts as an intermediary between a user of a computer and the computer hardware
- Operating system goals:
  - Execute user programs and make solving user problems easier
  - Make the computer system convenient to use
  - Use the computer hardware in an efficient manner

Computer System Structure

- Computer system can be divided into four components:
  - Hardware – provides basic computing resources
    - CPU, memory, I/O devices
  - Operating system
    - Controls and coordinates use of hardware among various applications and users
  - Application programs – define the ways in which the system resources are used to solve the computing problems of the users
    - Word processors, compilers, web browsers, database systems, video games
  - Users
    - People, machines, other computers

Four Components of a Computer System



What Operating Systems Do

- Depends on the point of view
- Users want convenience, **ease of use**
  - Don't care about **resource utilization**
- But shared computer such as **mainframe** or **minicomputer** must keep all users happy
- Users of dedicate systems such as **workstations** have dedicated resources but frequently use shared resources from **servers**
- Handheld computers are resource poor, optimized for usability and battery life
- Some computers have little or no user interface, such as embedded computers in devices and automobiles

Operating System Definition

- OS is a **resource allocator**
  - Manages all resources
  - Decides between conflicting requests for efficient and fair resource use

- OS is a **control program**
  - Controls execution of programs to prevent errors and improper use of the computer

Operating System Definition (Cont.)

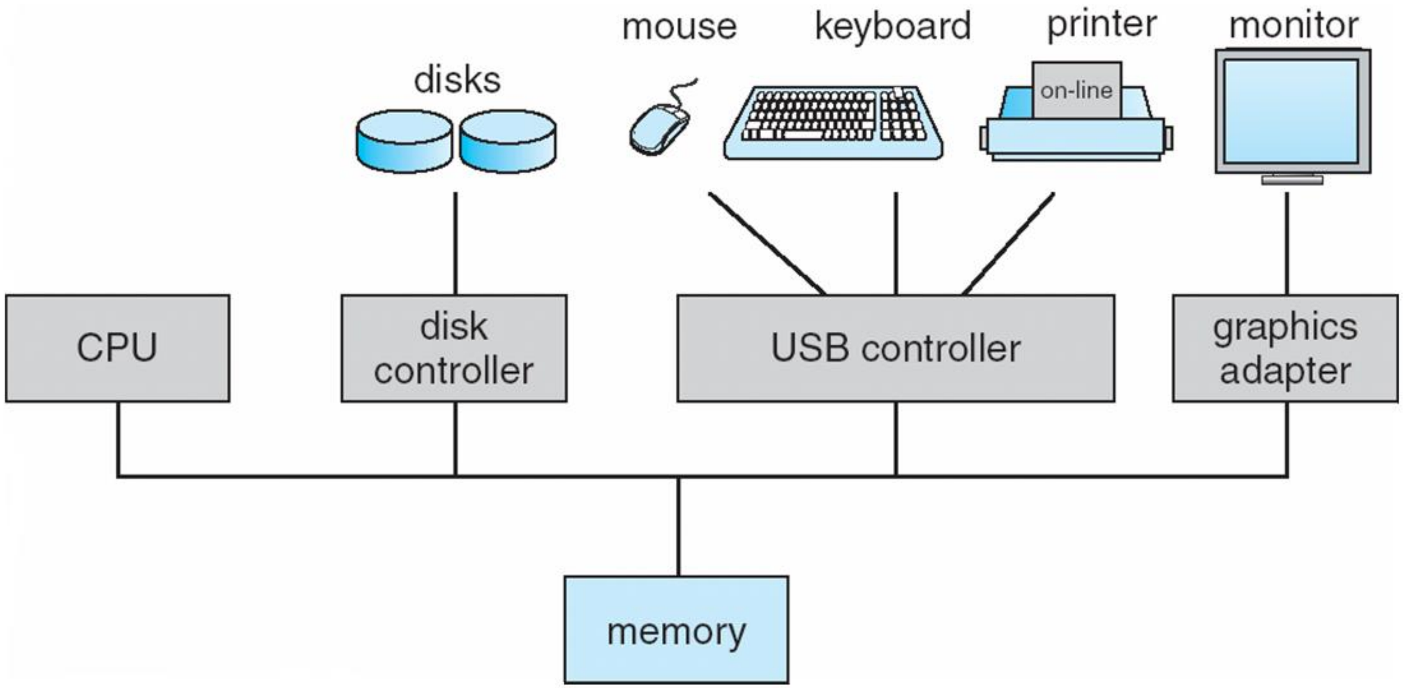
- No universally accepted definition
- "Everything a vendor ships when you order an operating system" is good approximation
  - But varies wildly
- "The one program running at all times on the computer" is the **kernel**. Everything else is either a system program (ships with the operating system) or an application program.

Computer Startup

- **bootstrap program** is loaded at power-up or reboot
  - Typically stored in ROM or EPROM, generally known as **firmware**
  - Initializes all aspects of system
  - Loads operating system kernel and starts execution

Computer System Organization

- Computer-system operation
  - One or more CPUs, device controllers connect through common bus providing access to shared memory
  - Concurrent execution of CPUs and devices competing for memory cycles



Computer-System Operation

- I/O devices and the CPU can execute concurrently
- Each device controller is in charge of a particular device type
- Each device controller has a local buffer
- CPU moves data from/to main memory to/from local buffers
- I/O is from the device to local buffer of controller
- Device controller informs CPU that it has finished its operation by causing an interrupt
  - Another technique is polling

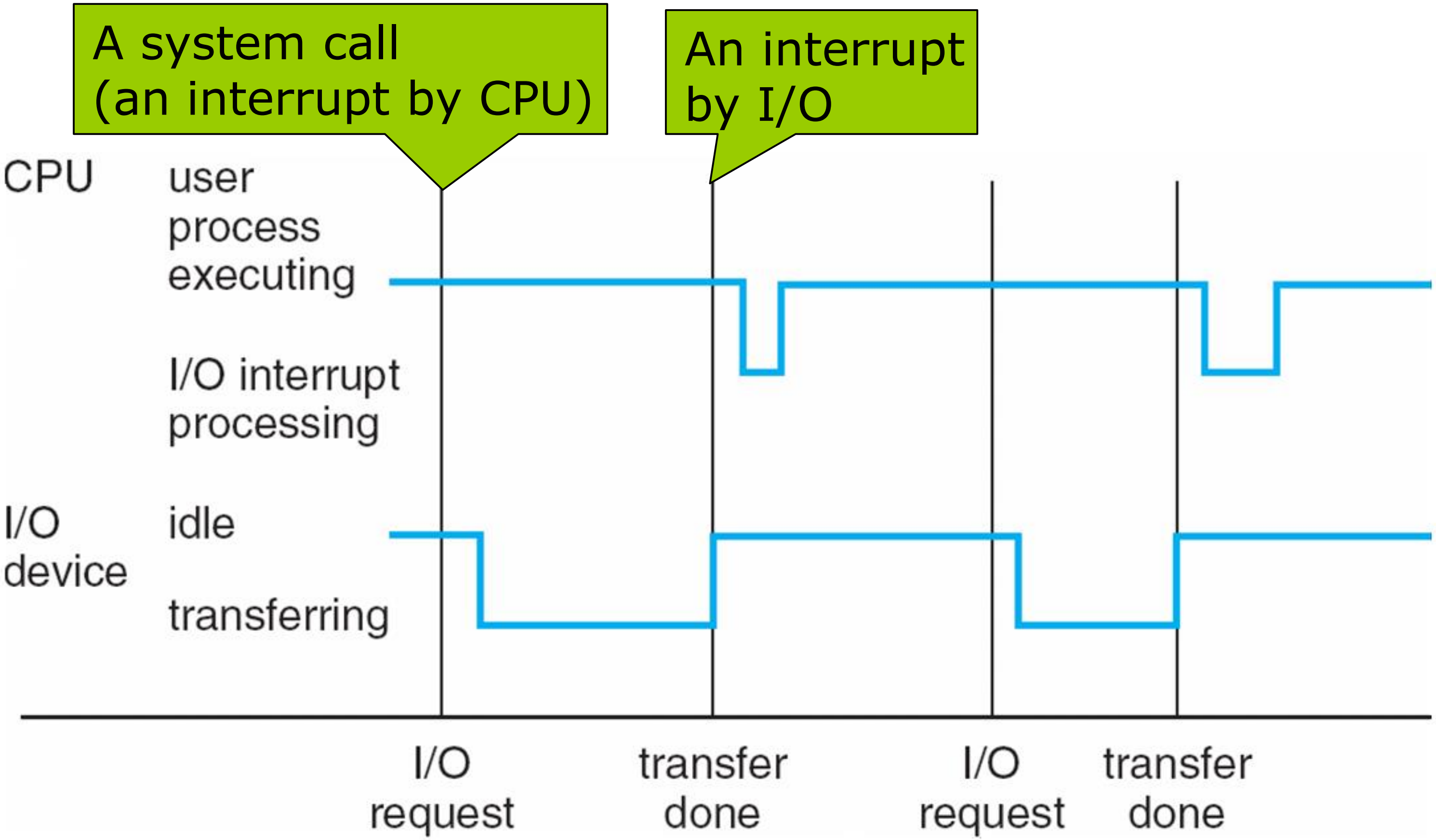
Common Functions of Interrupts

- Interrupt transfers control to the interrupt service routine generally, through the **interrupt vector**, which contains the addresses of all the service routines
- Interrupt architecture must save the address of the interrupted instruction
- A **trap** or **exception** is a software-generated interrupt caused either by an error or a user request
- An operating system is **interrupt driven**

Interrupt Handling

- The operating system preserves the state of the CPU by storing registers and the program counter
- Determines which type of interrupt has occurred:
  - **polling**
  - **vectored** interrupt system
- Separate segments of code determine what action should be taken for each type of interrupt

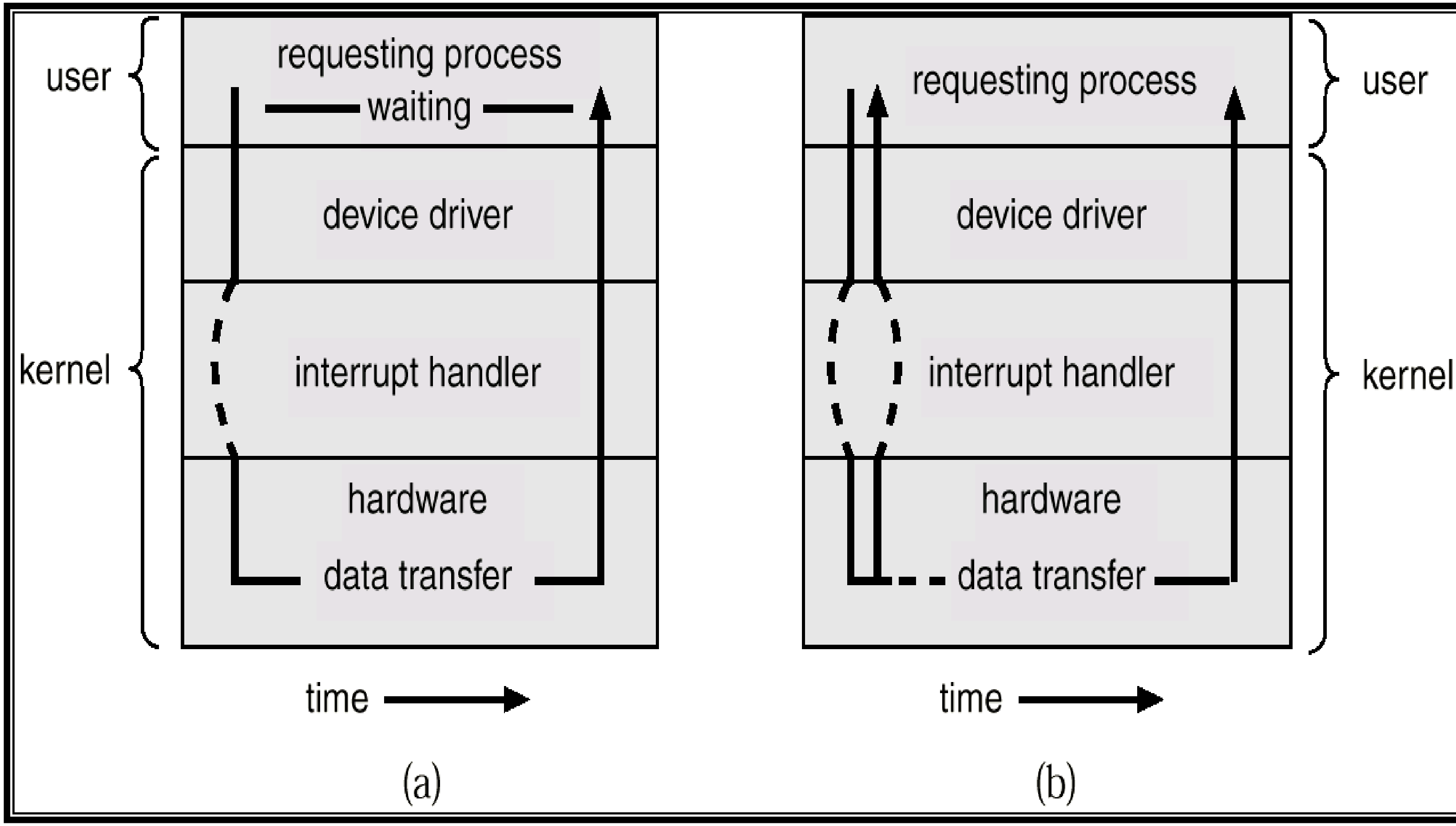
Interrupt Timeline



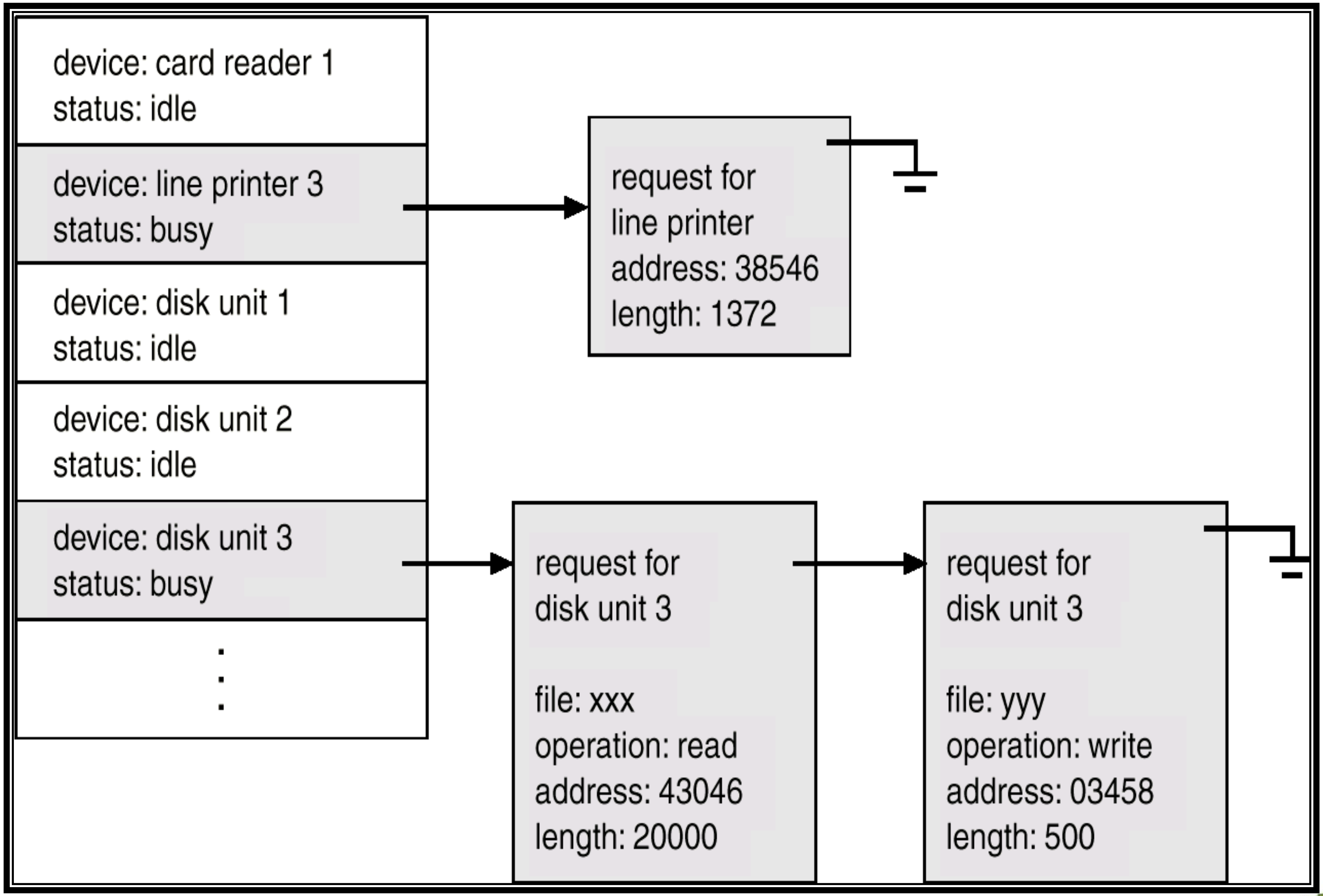
I/O Structure

- **Synchronous**: After I/O starts, control returns to user program only upon I/O completion
  - Wait instruction idles the CPU until the next interrupt
  - Wait loop (contention for memory access)
  - At most one I/O request is outstanding at a time, no simultaneous I/O processing
- **Asynchronous**: After I/O starts, control returns to user program without waiting for I/O completion
  - **System call** – request to the OS to allow user to wait for I/O completion
  - **Device-status table** contains entry for each I/O device indicating its type, address, and state
  - OS indexes into I/O device table to determine device status and to modify table entry to include interrupt

Two I/O Methods



Device-Status Table



Storage Definitions and Notation Review

- The basic unit of computer storage is the **bit**.
  A bit can contain one of two values, 0 and 1.
  All other storage in a computer is based on collections of bits.
- A **byte** is 8 bits, and on most computers it is the smallest convenient chunk of storage.
- A less common term is **word**,
  a given computer architecture's native unit of data.
  a computer that has 64-bit registers and 64-bit memory addressing
  typically has 64-bit (8-byte) words.
- A **kilobyte**, or **KB**, is 1,024 bytes;
- a **megabyte**, or **MB**, is 1,0242 bytes;
- a **gigabyte**, or **GB**, is 1,0243 bytes;
- a **terabyte**, or **TB**, is 1,0244 bytes; and
- a **petabyte**, or **PB**, is 1,0245 bytes.

Computer manufacturers often round off these numbers and say that a megabyte is 1 million bytes and a gigabyte is 1 billion bytes.

Networking measurements are an exception to this general rule; they are given in bits (because networks move data a bit at a time).

Direct Memory Access Structure

- Used for high-speed I/O devices able to transmit information at close to memory speeds
- Device controller transfers blocks of data from buffer storage directly to main memory without CPU intervention
- Only one interrupt is generated per block, rather than the one interrupt per byte

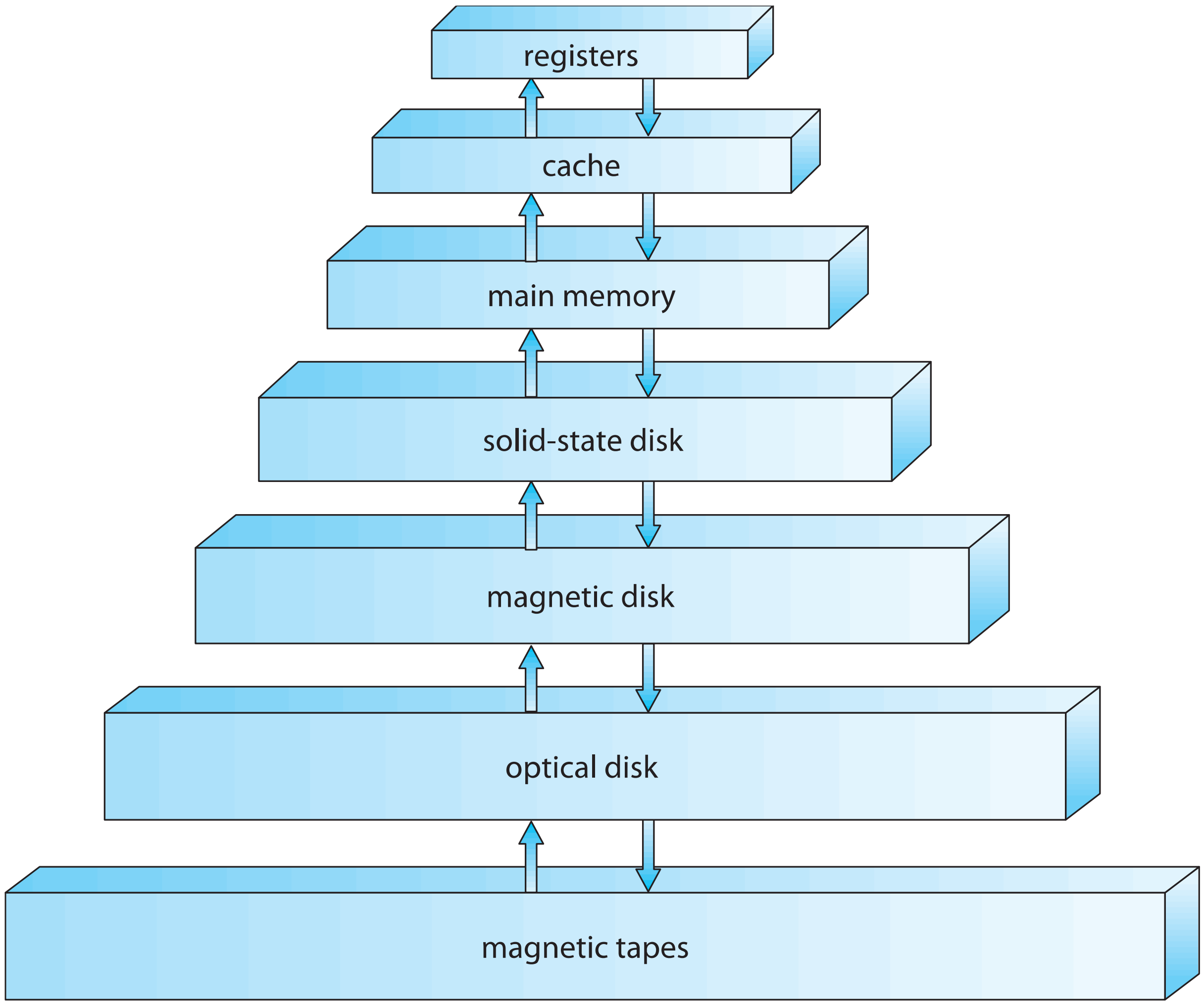
Storage Structure

- Main memory – only large storage media that the CPU can access directly
  - **Random access**
  - Typically **volatile**
- Secondary storage – extension of main memory that provides large **nonvolatile** storage capacity
- Magnetic disks – rigid metal or glass platters covered with magnetic recording material
  - Disk surface is logically divided into **tracks**, which are subdivided into **sectors**
  - The **disk controller** determines the logical interaction between the device and the computer
- **Solid-state disks** – faster than magnetic disks, nonvolatile
  - Various technologies
  - Becoming more popular

Storage Hierarchy

- Storage systems organized in hierarchy
  - Speed
  - Cost
  - Volatility
- **Caching** – copying information into faster storage system; main memory can be viewed as a cache for secondary storage
- **Device Driver** for each device controller to manage I/O
  - Provides uniform interface between controller and kernel

Storage-Device Hierarchy



Performance of Various Levels of Storage

Level	1	2	3	4	5
Name	registers	cache	main memory	solid state disk	magnetic disk
Typical size	< 1 KB	< 16MB	< 64GB	< 1 TB	< 10 TB
Implementation technology	custom memory with multiple ports CMOS	on-chip or off-chip CMOS SRAM	CMOS SRAM	flash memory	magnetic disk
Access time (ns)	0.25 - 0.5	0.5 - 25	80 - 250	25,000 - 50,000	5,000,000
Bandwidth (MB/sec)	20,000 - 100,000	5,000 - 10,000	1,000 - 5,000	500	20 - 150
Managed by	compiler	hardware	operating system	operating system	operating system
Backed by	cache	main memory	disk	disk	disk or tape

- Movement between levels of storage hierarchy can be explicit or implicit

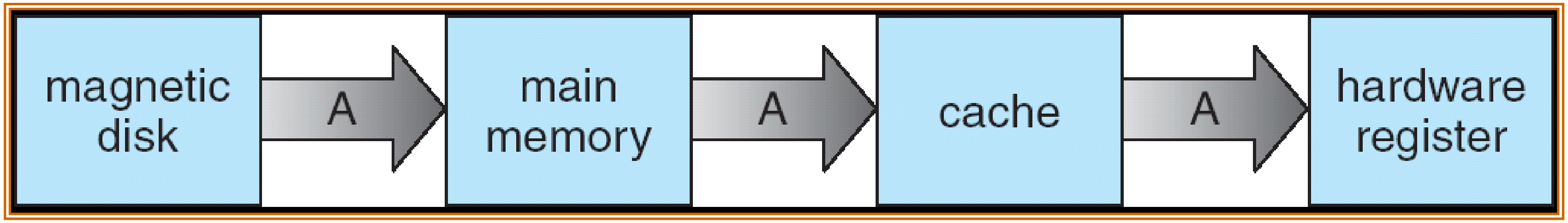
Caching

- Important principle, performed at many levels in a computer (in hardware, operating system, software)
- Information in use copied from slower to faster storage temporarily
- Faster storage (cache) checked first to determine if information is there
  - If it is, information used directly from the cache (fast)
  - If not, data copied to cache and used there
- Cache smaller than storage being cached
  - Cache management important design problem
  - Cache size and replacement policy

Pareto's Principle

Migration of Integer A from Disk to Register

- Multitasking environments must be careful to use most recent value, not matter where it is stored in the storage hierarchy

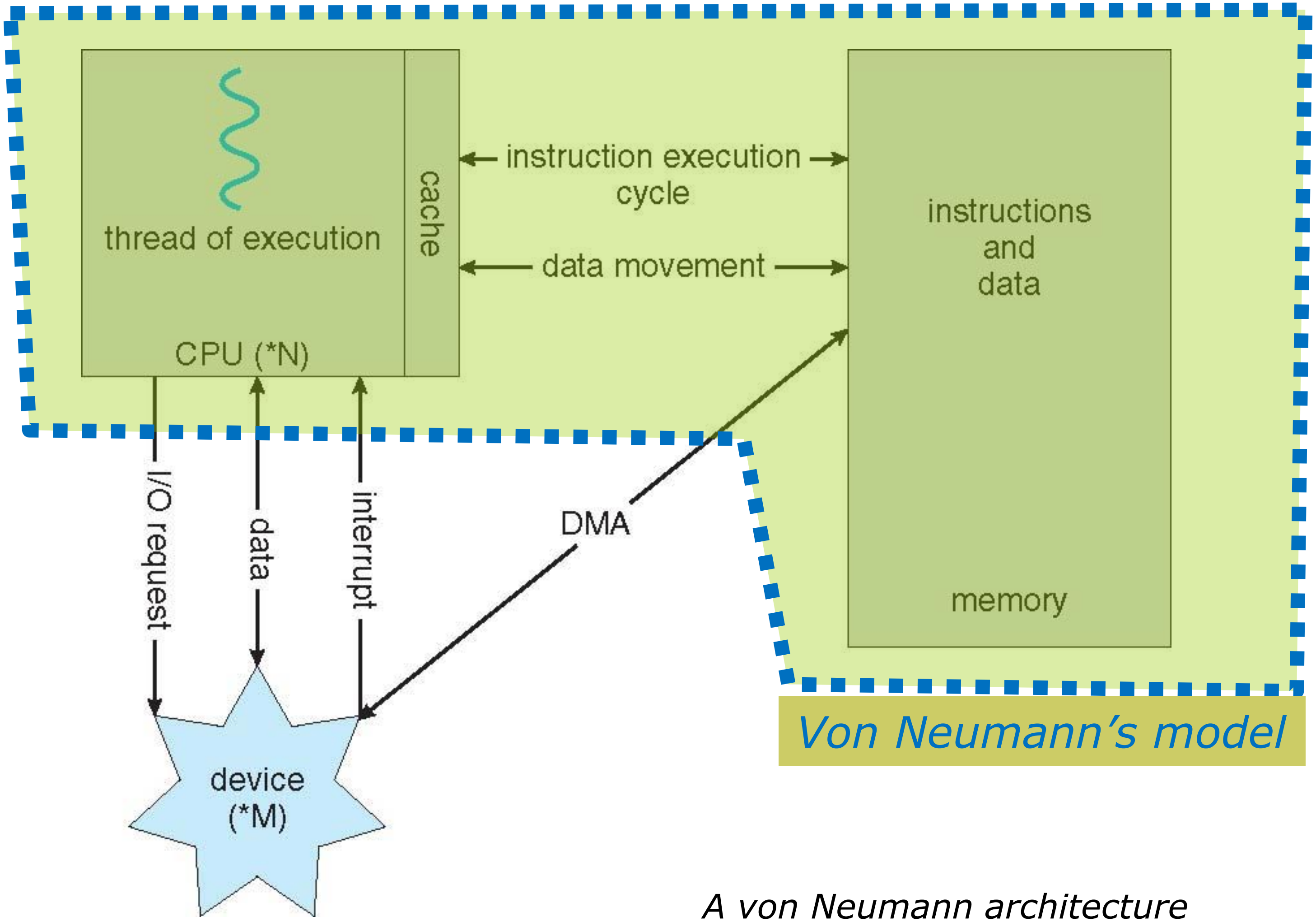


- Multiprocessor environment must provide cache coherency in hardware such that all CPUs have the most recent value in their cache
- Distributed environment situation even more complex
  - Several copies of a datum can exist
  - Various solutions covered in Chapter 17

Computer-System Architecture

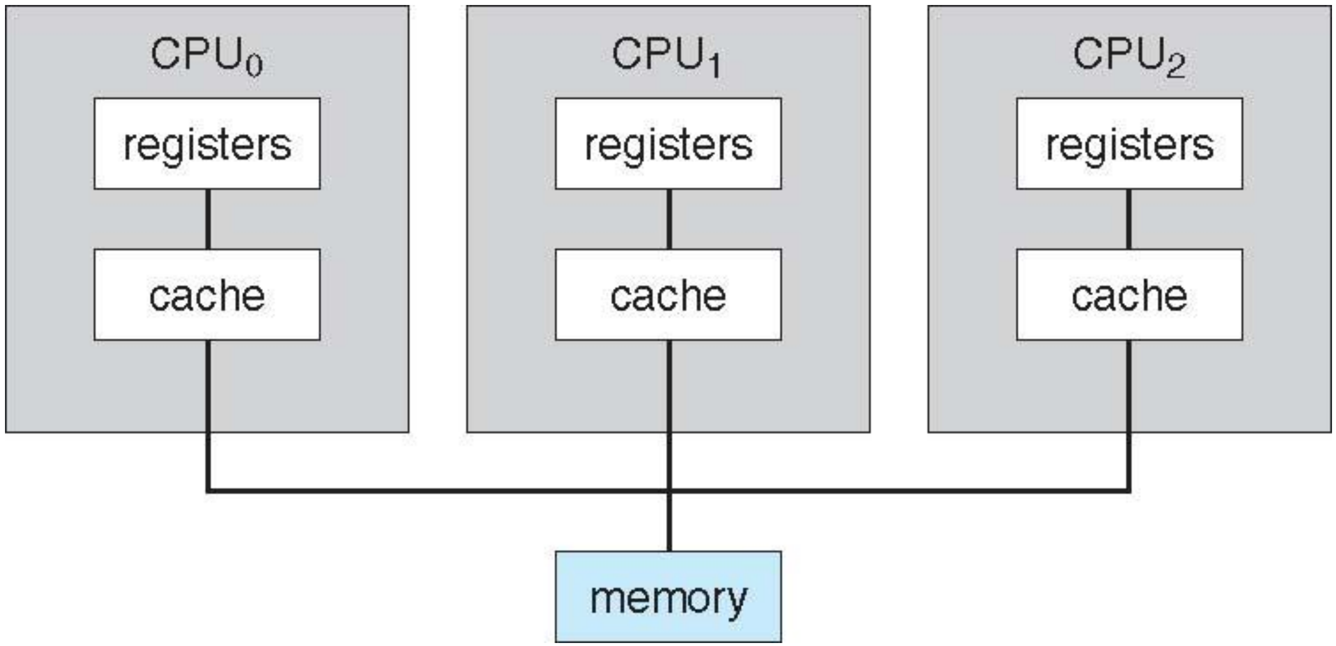
- Most systems use a single general-purpose processor (PDAs through mainframes)
  - Most systems have special-purpose processors as well
- **Multiprocessors** systems growing in use and importance
  - Also known as **parallel systems**, **tightly-coupled systems**
  - Advantages include:
    1. **Increased throughput**
    2. **Economy of scale**
    3. **Increased reliability – graceful degradation** or **fault tolerance**
  - Two types:
    1. **Asymmetric Multiprocessing**
    2. **Symmetric Multiprocessing**

How a Modern Computer Works



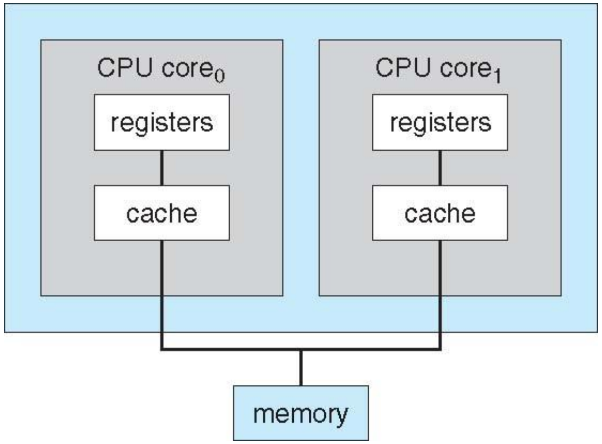
A von Neumann architecture

Symmetric Multiprocessing Architecture



A Dual-Core Design

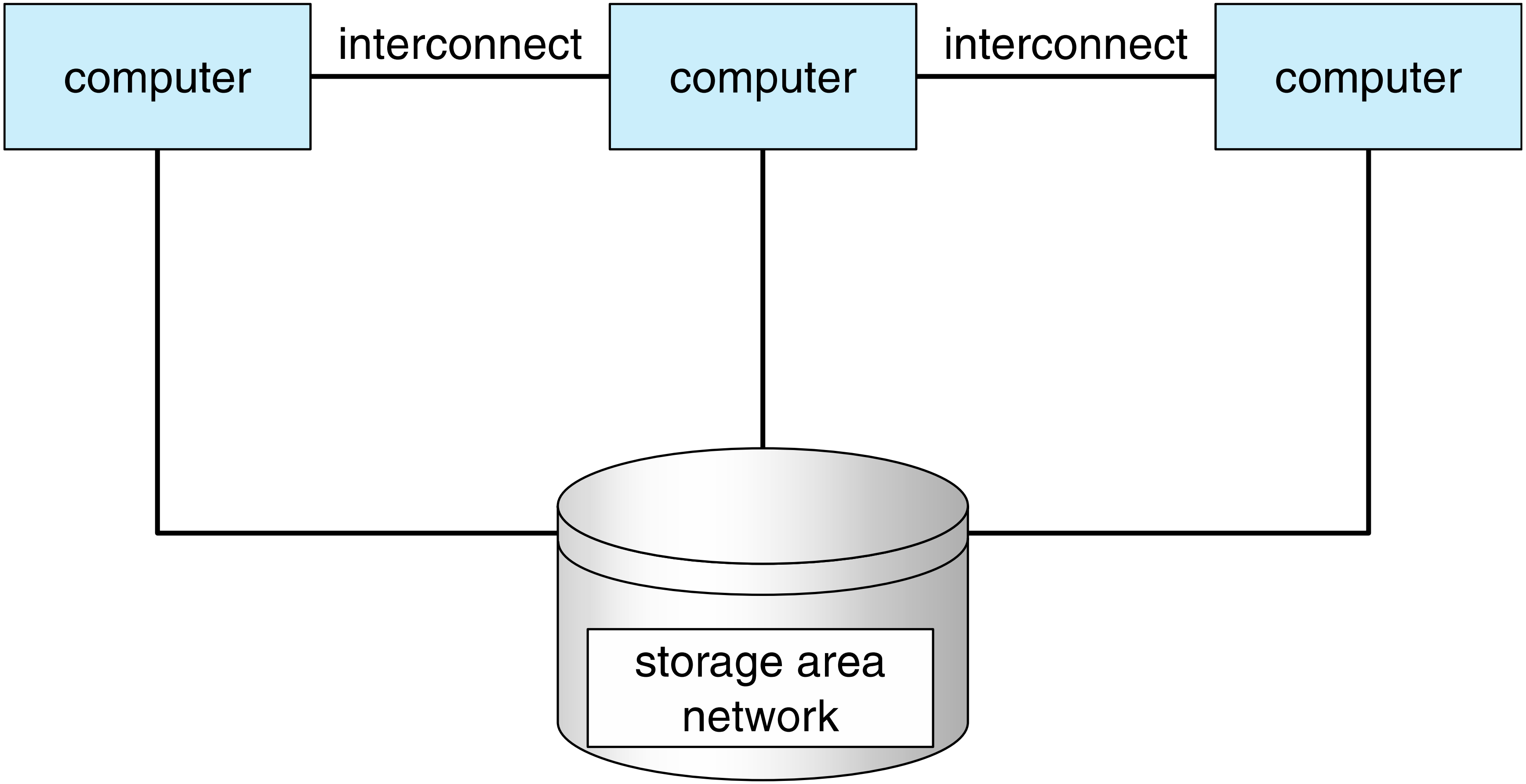
- **UMA** and **NUMA** architecture variations
- Multi-chip and **multicore**
- Systems containing all chips vs. **blade servers**
  - Chassis containing multiple separate systems



Clustered Systems

- Like multiprocessor systems, but multiple systems working together
  - Usually sharing storage via a **storage-area network (SAN)**
  - Provides a **high-availability** service which survives failures
    - **Asymmetric clustering** has one machine in hot-standby mode
    - **Symmetric clustering** has multiple nodes running applications, monitoring each other
  - Some clusters are for **high-performance computing (HPC)**
    - Applications must be written to use **parallelization**
  - Some have **distributed lock manager** (**DLM**) to avoid conflicting operations

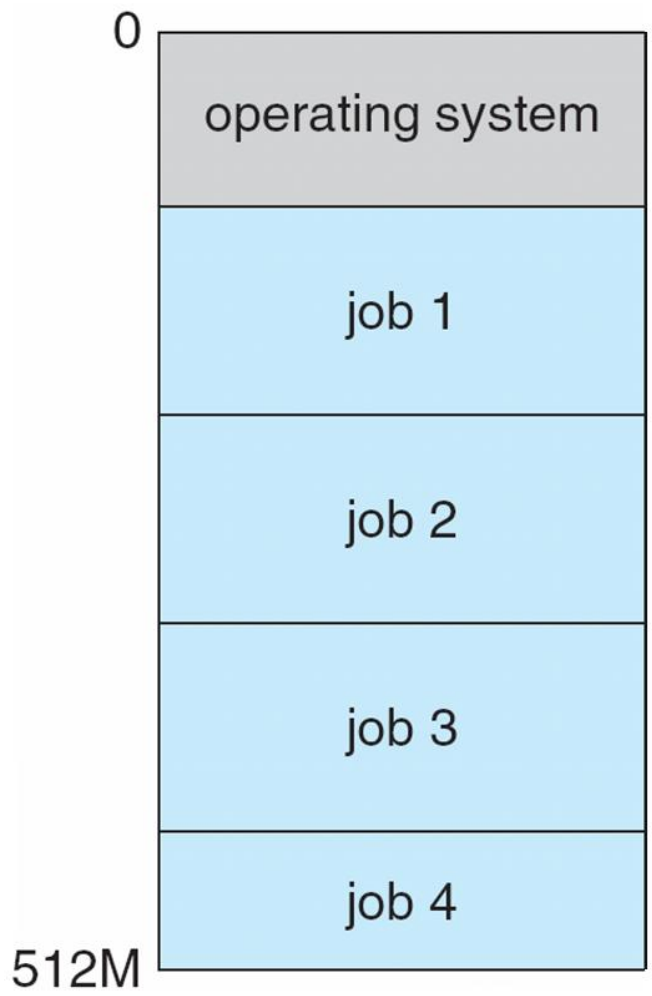
Clustered Systems



Operating System Structure

- **Multiprogramming** needed for efficiency
  - Single user cannot keep CPU and I/O devices busy at all times
  - Multiprogramming organizes jobs (code and data) so CPU always has one to execute
  - A subset of total jobs in system is kept in memory
  - One job selected and run via **job scheduling**
  - When it has to wait (for I/O for example), OS switches to another job
- **Timesharing** (**multitasking**) is logical extension in which CPU switches jobs so frequently that users can interact with each job while it is running, creating **interactive** computing
  - **Response time** should be < 1 second
  - Each user has at least one program executing in memory ⇨ **process**
  - If several jobs ready to run at the same time ⇨ **CPU scheduling**
  - If processes don't fit in memory, **swapping** moves them in and out to run
  - **Virtual memory** allows execution of processes not completely in memory

Memory Layout for Multiprogrammed System

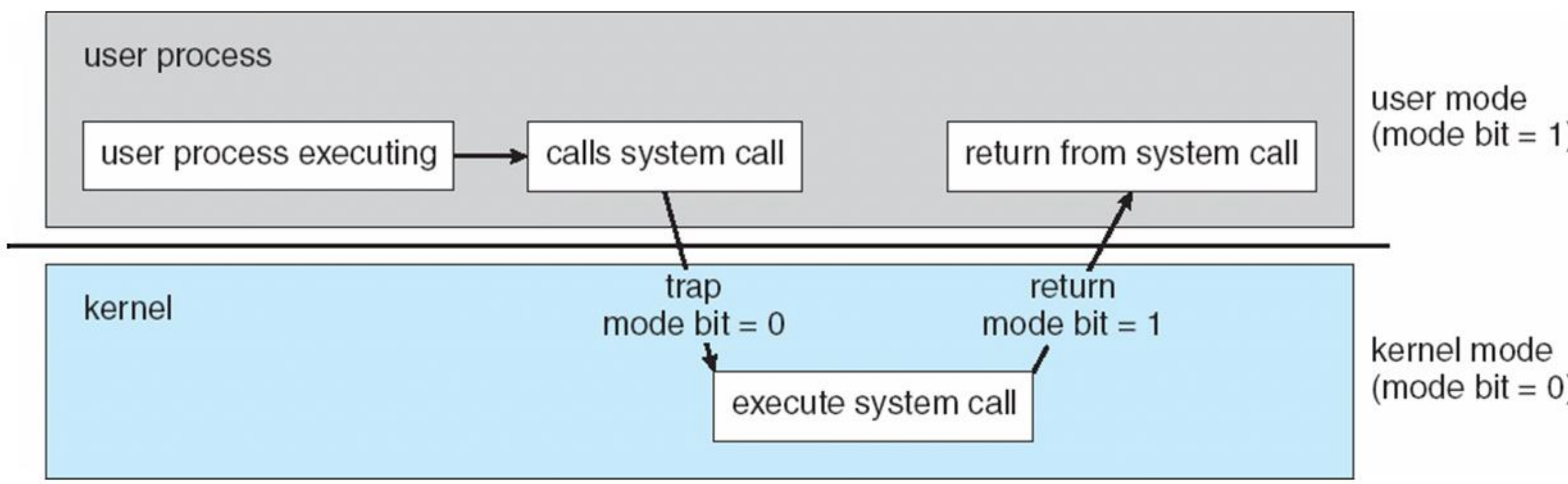


Operating-System Operations

- **Interrupt driven** by hardware
- Software error or request creates **exception** or **trap**
  - Division by zero, request for operating system service
- Other process problems include infinite loop, processes modifying each other or the operating system
- **Dual-mode** operation allows OS to protect itself and other system components
  - **User mode** and **kernel mode**
  - **Mode bit** provided by hardware
    - Provides ability to distinguish when system is running user code or kernel code
    - Some instructions designated as **privileged**, only executable in kernel mode
    - System call changes mode to kernel, return from call resets it to user
- Increasingly CPUs support multi-mode operations
  - i.e. **virtual machine manager** (**VMM**) mode for guest **VMs**

Transition from User to Kernel Mode

- Timer to prevent infinite loop / process hogging resources
  - Set interrupt after specific period
  - Operating system decrements counter
  - When counter zero generate an interrupt
  - Set up before scheduling process to regain control or terminate program that exceeds allotted time



Process Management

- A process is a program in execution. It is a unit of work within the system. Program is a ***passive entity***, process is an ***active entity***.
- Process needs resources to accomplish its task
  - CPU, memory, I/O, files
  - Initialization data
- Process termination requires reclaim of any reusable resources
- Single-threaded process has one **program counter** specifying location of next instruction to execute
  - Process executes instructions sequentially, one at a time, until completion
- Multi-threaded process has one program counter per thread
- Typically system has many processes, some user, some operating system running concurrently on one or more CPUs
  - Concurrency by multiplexing the CPUs among the processes / threads

Process Management Activities

The operating system is responsible for the following activities in connection with process management:

- Creating and deleting both user and system processes
- Suspending and resuming processes
- Providing mechanisms for process synchronization
- Providing mechanisms for process communication
- Providing mechanisms for deadlock handling

Memory Management

- All data in memory before and after processing
- All instructions in memory in order to execute
- Memory management determines what is in memory when
  - Optimizing CPU utilization and computer response to users
- Memory management activities
  - Keeping track of which parts of memory are currently being used and by whom
  - Deciding which processes (or parts thereof) and data to move into and out of memory
  - Allocating and deallocating memory space as needed

Storage Management

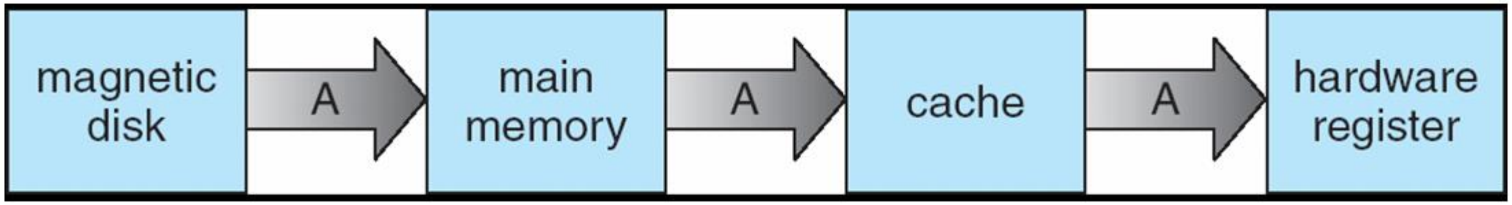
- OS provides uniform, logical view of information storage
  - Abstracts physical properties to logical storage unit - **file**
  - Each medium is controlled by a device (i.e., disk drive, tape drive)
    - Varying properties include access speed, capacity, data-transfer rate, access method (sequential or random)
- File-System management
  - Files usually organized into directories
  - Access control on most systems to determine who can access what
  - OS activities include
    - Creating and deleting files and directories
    - Primitives to manipulate files and dirs
    - Mapping files onto secondary storage
    - Backup files onto stable (non-volatile) storage media

Mass-Storage Management

- Usually disks used to store data that does not fit in main memory or data that must be kept for a "long" period of time
- Proper management is of central importance
- Entire speed of computer operation hinges on disk subsystem and its algorithms
- OS activities
  - Free-space management
  - Storage allocation
  - Disk scheduling
- Some storage need not be fast
  - Tertiary storage includes optical storage, magnetic tape
  - Still must be managed – by OS or applications
  - Varies between WORM (write-once, read-many-times) and RW (read-write)

Migration of Integer A from Disk to Register

- Multitasking environments must be careful to use most recent value, no matter where it is stored in the storage hierarchy



- Multiprocessor environment must provide **cache coherency** in hardware such that all CPUs have the most recent value in their cache
- Distributed environment situation even more complex
  - Several copies of a datum can exist
  - Various solutions covered in Chapter 17

I/O Subsystem

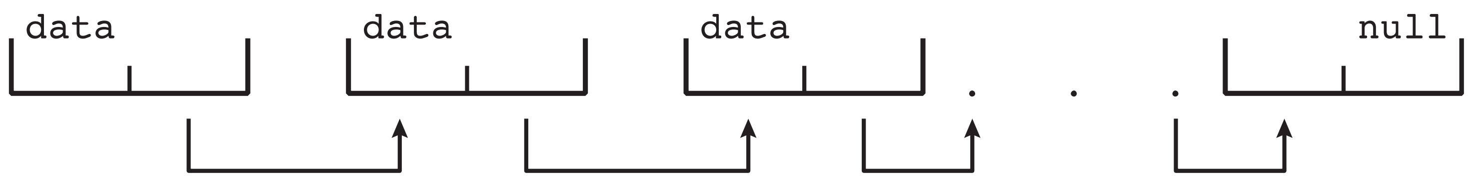
- One purpose of OS is to hide peculiarities of hardware devices from the user
- I/O subsystem responsible for
  - Memory management of I/O including
    - buffering (storing data temporarily while it is being transferred),
    - caching (storing parts of data in faster storage for performance),
    - Spooling, *simultaneous peripheral operation online*
      - (the overlapping of output of one job with input of other jobs)
  - General device-driver interface
  - Drivers for specific hardware devices

Protection and Security

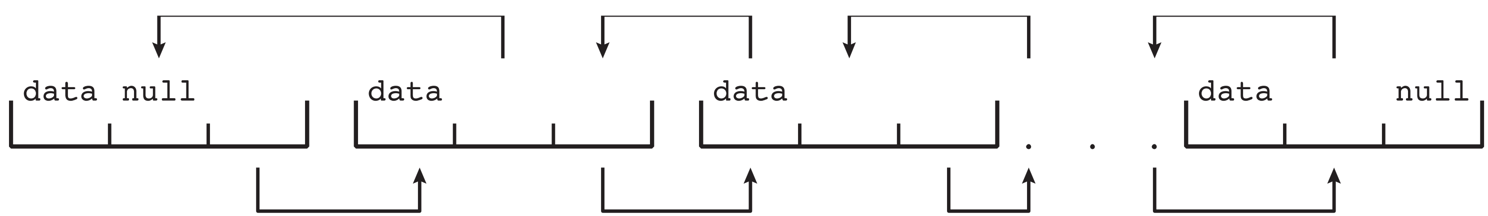
- **Protection** – any mechanism for controlling access of processes or users to resources defined by the OS
- **Security** – defense of the system against internal and external attacks
  - Huge range, including denial-of-service, worms, viruses, identity theft, theft of service
- Systems generally first distinguish among users, to determine who can do what
  - User identities (**user IDs**, security IDs) include name and associated number, one per user
  - User ID then associated with all files, processes of that user to determine access control
  - Group identifier (**group ID**) allows set of users to be defined and controls managed, then also associated with each process, file
  - **Privilege escalation** allows user to change to effective ID with more rights

Kernel Data Structures

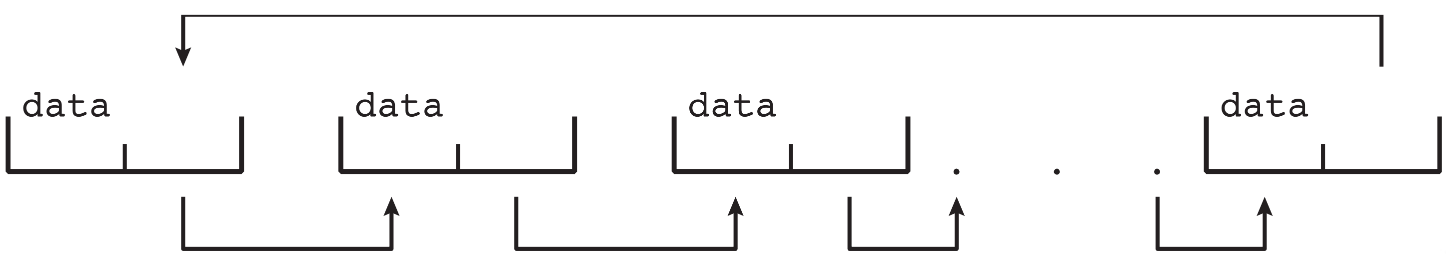
- Many similar to standard programming data structures
- ***Singly linked list***



- ***Doubly linked list***

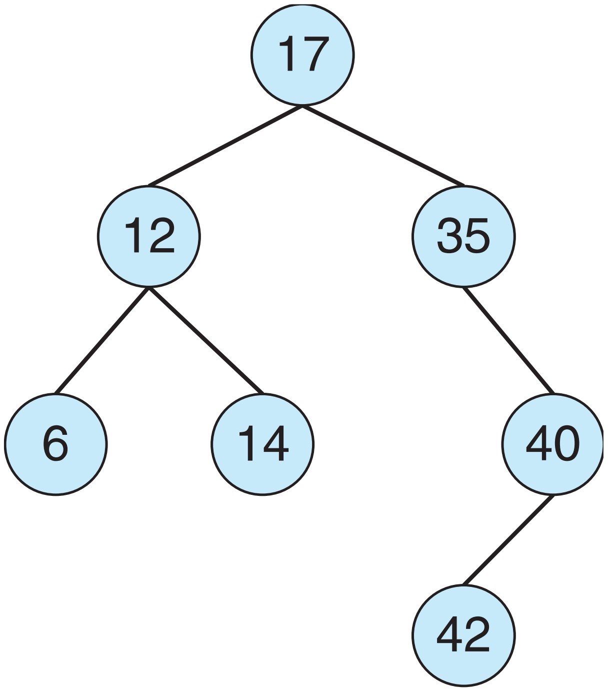


- ***Circular linked list***



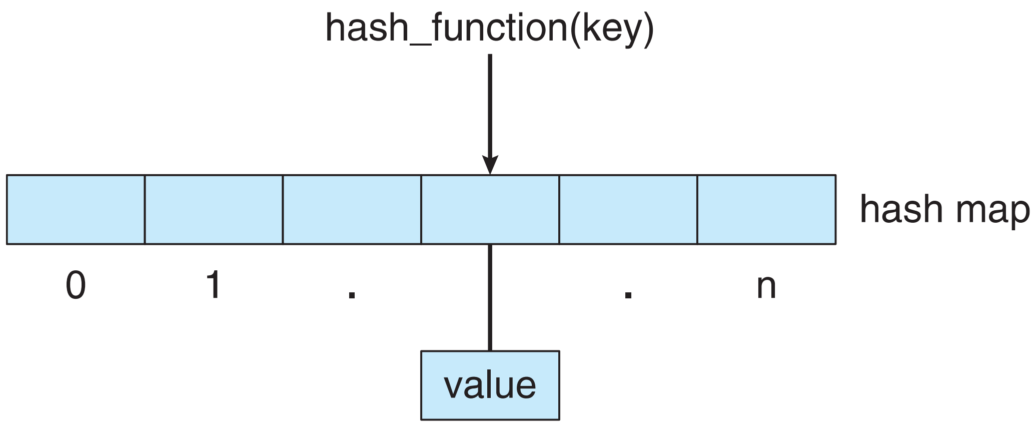
Kernel Data Structures

- **Binary search tree**
  left <= right
  - Search performance is *O(n)*
  - **Balanced binary search tree** is *O(lg n)*



Kernel Data Structures

- **Hash function** can create a **hash map**



- **Bitmap** – string of *n* binary digits representing the status of *n* items
- Linux data structures defined in ***include*** files `<linux/list.h>`, `<linux/kfifo.h>`, `<linux/rbtree.h>`

Computing Environments - Traditional

- Stand-alone general purpose machines
- But blurred as most systems interconnect with others (i.e. the Internet)
- **Portals** provide web access to internal systems
- **Network computers** (**thin clients**) are like Web terminals
- Mobile computers interconnect via **wireless networks**
- Networking becoming ubiquitous – even home systems use **firewalls** to protect home computers from Internet attacks

Computing Environments - Mobile

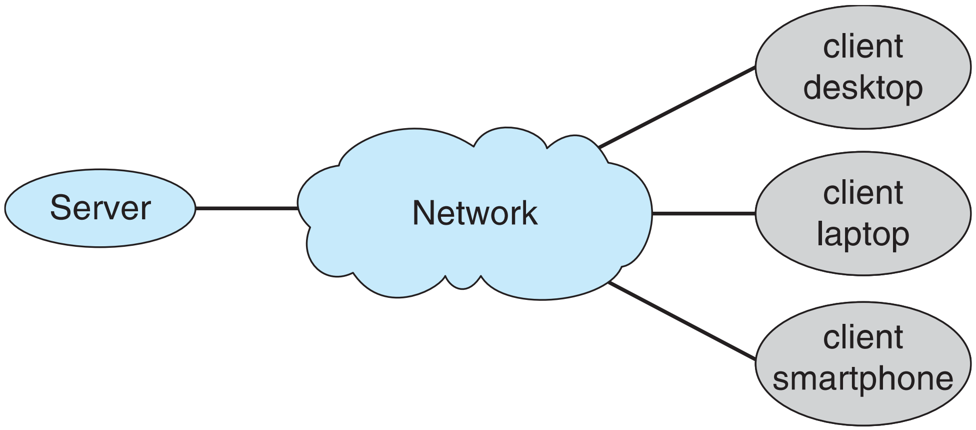
- Handheld smartphones, tablets, etc
- What is the functional difference between them and a “traditional” laptop?
- Extra feature – more OS features (GPS, gyroscope)
- Allows new types of apps like ***augmented reality***
- Use IEEE 802.11 wireless, or cellular data networks for connectivity
- Leaders are **Apple iOS** and **Google Android**

Computing Environments – Distributed

- Distributed
  - Collection of separate, possibly heterogeneous, systems networked together
    - **Network** is a communications path, **TCP/IP** most common
      - **Local Area Network** (**LAN**)
      - **Wide Area Network** (**WAN**)
      - **Metropolitan Area Network** (**MAN**)
      - **Personal Area Network** (**PAN**)
  - **Network Operating System** provides features between systems across network
    - Communication scheme allows systems to exchange messages
    - Illusion of a single system

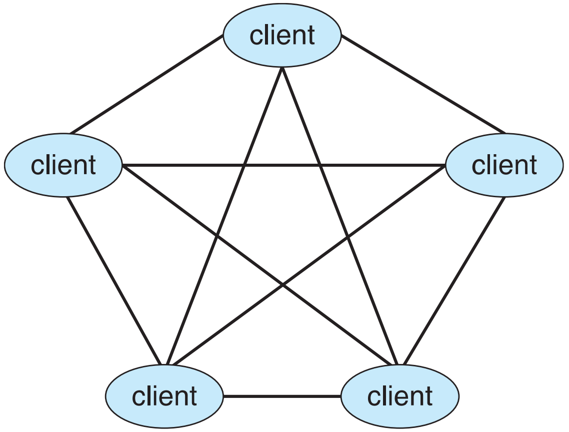
Computing Environments – Client-Server

- Client-Server Computing
  - Dumb terminals supplanted by smart PCs
  - Many systems now **servers**, responding to requests generated by **clients**
    - **Compute-server system** provides an interface to client to request services (i.e., database)
    - **File-server system** provides interface for clients to store and retrieve files



Computing Environments - Peer-to-Peer

- Another model of distributed system
- P2P does not distinguish clients and servers
  - Instead all nodes are considered peers
  - May each act as client, server or both
  - Node must join P2P network
    - Registers its service with central lookup service on network, or
    - Broadcast request for service and respond to requests for service via ***discovery protocol***
  - Examples include Napster and Gnutella, **Voice over IP** (**VoIP**) such as Skype



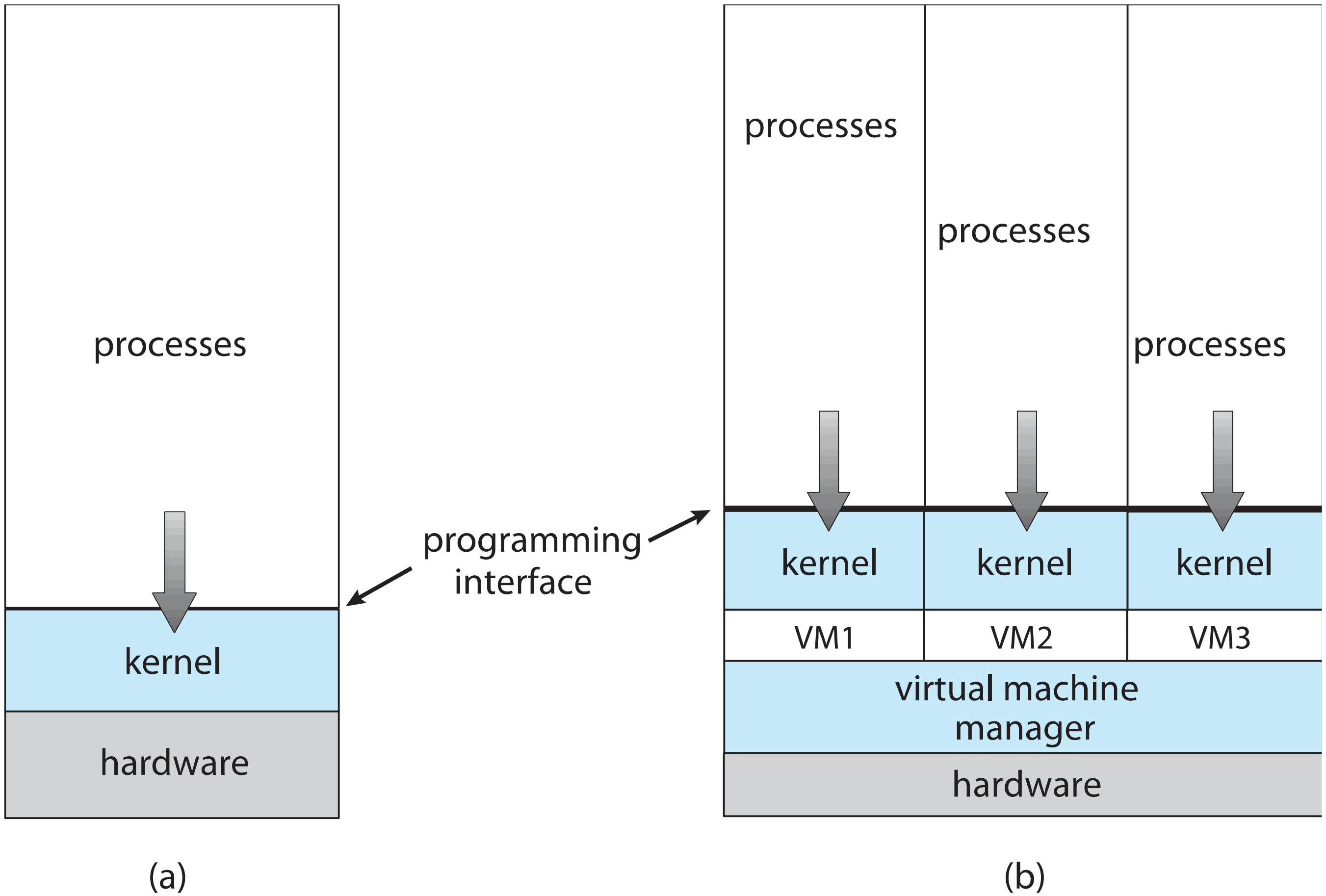
Computing Environments - Virtualization

- Allows operating systems to run applications within other OSes
  - Vast and growing industry
- **Emulation** used when source CPU type different from target type (i.e. PowerPC to Intel x86)
  - Generally slowest method
  - When computer language not compiled to native code – **Interpretation**
- **Virtualization** – OS natively compiled for CPU, running **guest** OSes also natively compiled
  - Consider VMware running WinXP guests, each running applications, all on native WinXP **host** OS
  - **VMM** provides virtualization services

Computing Environments - Virtualization

- Use cases involve laptops and desktops running multiple OSes for exploration or compatibility
  - Apple laptop running Mac OS X host, Windows as a guest
  - Developing apps for multiple OSes without having multiple systems
  - QA testing applications without having multiple systems
  - Executing and managing compute environments within data centers
- VMM can run natively, in which case they are also the host
  - There is no general purpose host then
  - VMware ESX and Citrix XenServer ARE the hosts.

Computing Environments - Virtualization

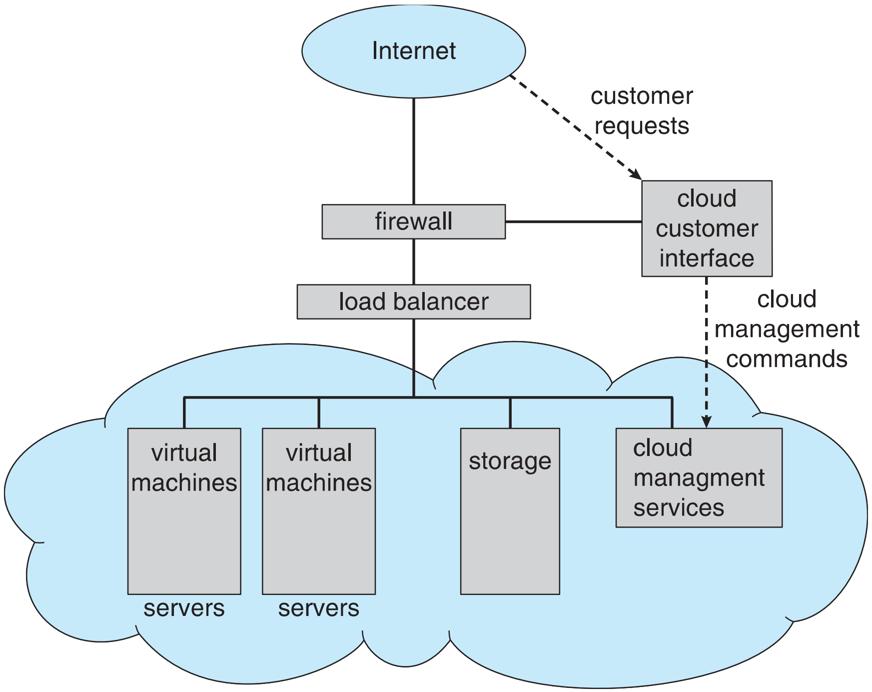


Computing Environments – Cloud Computing

- Delivers computing, storage, even apps as a service across a network
- Logical extension of virtualization as based on virtualization
  - Amazon **EC2** has thousands of servers, millions of VMs, PBs of storage available across the Internet, pay based on usage
- Many types
  - **Public cloud** – available via Internet to anyone willing to pay
  - **Private cloud** – run by a company for the company's own use
  - **Hybrid cloud** – includes both public and private cloud components
  - Software as a Service (**SaaS**) – one or more applications available via the Internet (i.e. word processor)
  - Platform as a Service (**PaaS**) – software stack ready for application use via the Internet (i.e a database server)
  - Infrastructure as a Service (**IaaS**) – servers or storage available over Internet (i.e. storage available for backup use)

Computing Environments – Cloud Computing

- Cloud compute environments composed of traditional OSes, plus VMMs, plus cloud management tools
  - Internet connectivity requires security like firewalls
  - Load balancers spread traffic across multiple applications



Computing Environments – Real-Time Embedded Systems

- Real-time embedded systems most prevalent form of computers
  - Vary considerable, special purpose, limited purpose OS, **real-time OS**
  - Use expanding
- Many other special computing environments as well
  - Some have OSes, some perform tasks without an OS
- Real-time OS has well-defined fixed time constraints
  - Processing ***must*** be done within constraint
  - Correct operation only if constraints met

Open-Source Operating Systems

- Operating systems made available in source-code format rather than just binary **closed-source**
- Counter to the **copy protection** and **Digital Rights Management (DRM)** movement
- Started by **Free Software Foundation (FSF)**, which has "copyleft" **GNU Public License (GPL)**
- Examples include **GNU/Linux** and **BSD UNIX** (including core of **Mac OS X**), and many more
- Can use VMM like VMware Player (Free on Windows), Virtualbox (open source and free on many platforms - http://www.virtualbox.com)
  - Use to run guest operating systems for exploration

Exercises (1/2)

An operating system manages memory by keeping track of what parts of memory are being used and by whom. The operating system is also responsible for dynamically allocating and freeing memory space. Storage space is also managed by the operating system; this includes providing file systems for representing files and directories and managing space on mass-storage devices.

Operating systems must also be concerned with protecting and securing the operating system and users. Protection measures control the access of processes or users to the resources made available by the computer system. Security measures are responsible for defending a computer system from external or internal attacks.

Several data structures that are fundamental to computer science are widely used in operating systems, including lists, stacks, queues, trees, hash functions, maps, and bitmaps.

Computing takes place in a variety of environments. Traditional computing involves desktop and laptop PCs, usually connected to a computer network. Mobile computing refers to computing on handheld smartphones and tablet computers, which offer several unique features. Distributed systems allow users to share resources on geographically dispersed hosts connected via a computer network. Services may be provided through either the client–server model or the peer-to-peer model. Virtualization involves abstracting a computer's hardware into several different execution environments. Cloud computing uses a distributed system to abstract services into a "cloud," where users may access the services from remote locations. Real-time operating systems are designed for embedded environments, such as consumer devices, automobiles, and robotics.

The free software movement has created thousands of open-source projects, including operating systems. Because of these projects, students are able to use source code as a learning tool. They can modify programs and test them, help find and fix bugs, and otherwise explore mature, full-featured operating systems, compilers, tools, user interfaces, and other types of programs.

GNU/Linux and BSD UNIX are open-source operating systems. The advantages of free software and open sourcing are likely to increase the number and quality of open-source projects, leading to an increase in the number of individuals and companies that use these projects.

Exercises

1.1 In a multiprogramming and time-sharing environment, several users share the system simultaneously. This situation can result in various security problems.

a. What are two such problems?

b. Can we ensure the same degree of security in a time-shared machine as in a dedicated machine? Explain your answer.

1.2 The issue of resource utilization shows up in different forms in different types of operating systems. List what resources must be managed carefully in the following settings:

a. Mainframe or minicomputer systems

b. Workstations connected to servers

c. Mobile computers

1.3 Under what circumstances would a user be better off using a time-sharing system than a PC or a single-user workstation?

1.4 Describe the differences between symmetric and asymmetric multiprocessing. What are three advantages and one disadvantage of multiprocessor systems?

1.5 How do clustered systems differ from multiprocessor systems? What is required for two machines belonging to a cluster to cooperate to provide a highly available service?

1.6 Consider a computing cluster consisting of two nodes running a database. Describe two ways in which the cluster software can manage access to the data on the disk. Discuss the benefits and disadvantages of each.

1.7 How are network computers different from traditional personal computers? Describe some usage scenarios in which it is advantageous to use network computers.

1.8 What is the purpose of interrupts? How does an interrupt differ from a trap? Can traps be generated intentionally by a user program? If so, for what purpose?

1.9 Direct memory access is used for high-speed I/O devices in order to avoid increasing the CPU's execution load.

a. How does the CPU interface with the device to coordinate the transfer?

b. How does the CPU know when the memory operations are complete?

c. The CPU is allowed to execute other programs while the DMA controller is transferring data. Does this process interfere with the execution of the user programs? If so, describe what forms of interference are caused.

1.10 Some computer systems do not provide a privileged mode of operation in hardware. Is it possible to construct a secure operating system for these computer systems? Give arguments both that it is and that it is not possible.

1.11 Many SMP systems have different levels of caches; one level is local to each processing core, and another level is shared among all processing cores. Why are caching systems designed this way?

1.12 Consider an SMP system similar to the one shown in Figure 1.6. Illustrate with an example how data residing in memory could in fact have a different value in each of the local caches.

1.13 Discuss, with examples, how the problem of maintaining coherence of cached data manifests itself in the following processing environments:

a. Single-processor systems

Exercises (2/2)

b. Multiprocessor systems

c. Distributed systems

1.14 Describe a mechanism for enforcing memory protection in order to prevent a program from modifying the memory associated with other programs.

1.15 Which network configuration—LAN or WAN—would best suit the following environments?

a. A campus student union

b. Several campus locations across a statewide university system

c. A neighborhood

1.16 Describe some of the challenges of designing operating systems for mobile devices compared with designing operating systems for traditional PCs.

1.17 What are some advantages of peer-to-peer systems over client-server systems?

1.18 Describe some distributed applications that would be appropriate for a peer-to-peer system.

1.19 Identify several advantages and several disadvantages of open-source operating systems. Include the types of people who would find each aspect to be an advantage or a disadvantage.

Bibliographical Notes

[Brookshear (2012)] provides an overview of computer science in general. Thorough coverage of data structures can be found in [Cormen et al. (2009)].

[Russinovich and Solomon (2009)] give an overview of Microsoft Windows and covers considerable technical detail about the system internals and components. [McDougall and Mauro (2007)] cover the internals of the Solaris operating system. Mac OS X internals are discussed in [Singh (2007)]. [Love (2010)] provides an overview of the Linux operating system and great detail about data structures used in the Linux kernel.

Many general textbooks cover operating systems, including [Stallings (2011)], [Deitel et al. (2004)], and [Tanenbaum (2007)]. [Kurose and Ross (2013)] provides a general overview of computer networks, including a discussion of client-server and peer-to-peer systems. [Tarkoma and Lagerspetz (2011)] examines several different mobile operating systems, including Android and iOS.

[Hennessy and Patterson (2012)] provide coverage of I/O systems and buses and of system architecture in general. [Bryant and O'Hallaron (2010)] provide a thorough overview of a computer system from the perspective of a computer programmer. Details of the Intel 64 instruction set and privilege modes can be found in [Intel (2011)].

The history of open sourcing and its benefits and challenges appears in [Raymond (1999)]. The Free Software Foundation has published its philosophy