Sistemi Operativi

Corso di Laurea in Informatica a.a. 2020-2021

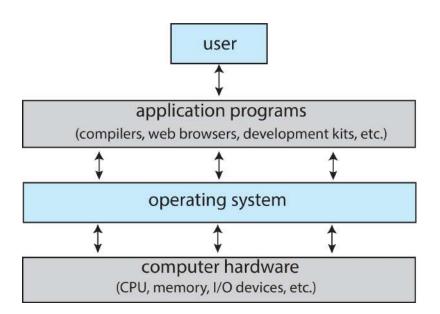
Gabriele Tolomei

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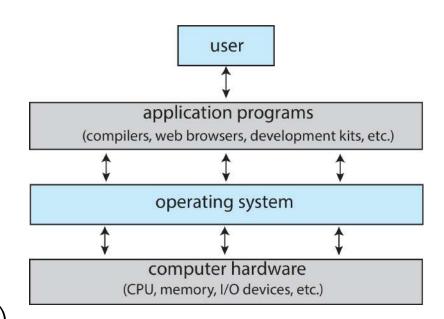
Recap from Last Lecture

- Operating System is a complex system which plays several roles:
 - resource manager
 - virtual machine
 - HW/SW interface



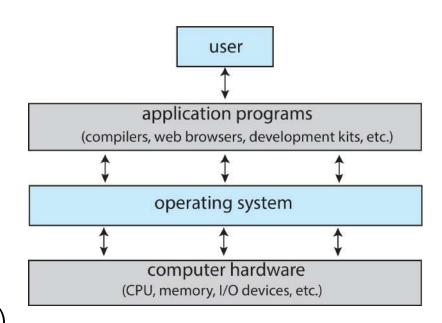
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 leveraging the physical machine (HW)
- Changes in HW may affect OS design



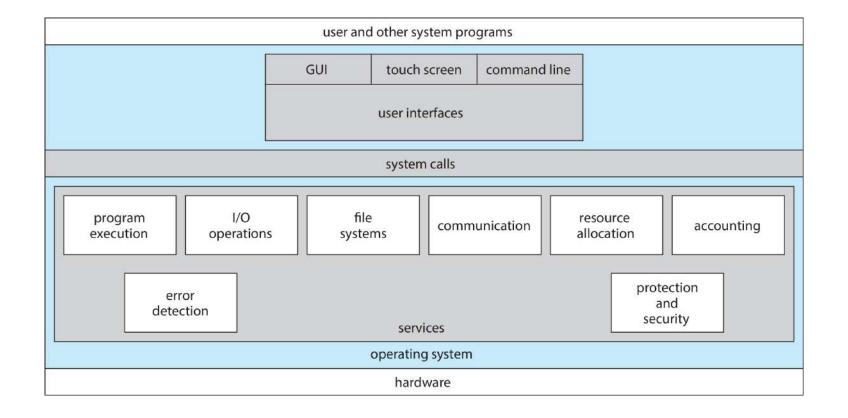
• Computer architecture review

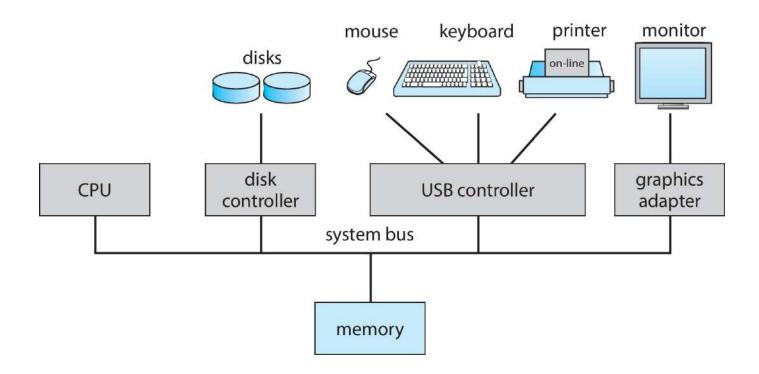
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- Architectural support may significantly simplify or complicate the OS design

Modern OS Functionalities





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- I/O devices -> terminal, keyboard, disks, etc.
 - associated with specific device controllers
- System Bus → communication medium between CPU, memory, and peripherals

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- Conceptually, the same architectural model for many computing devices:
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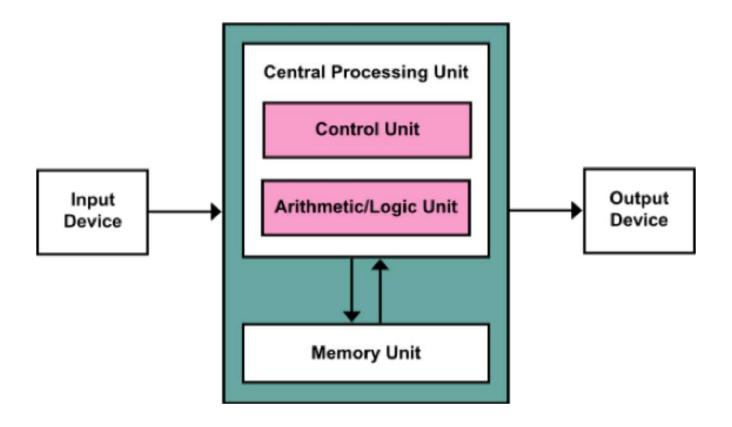
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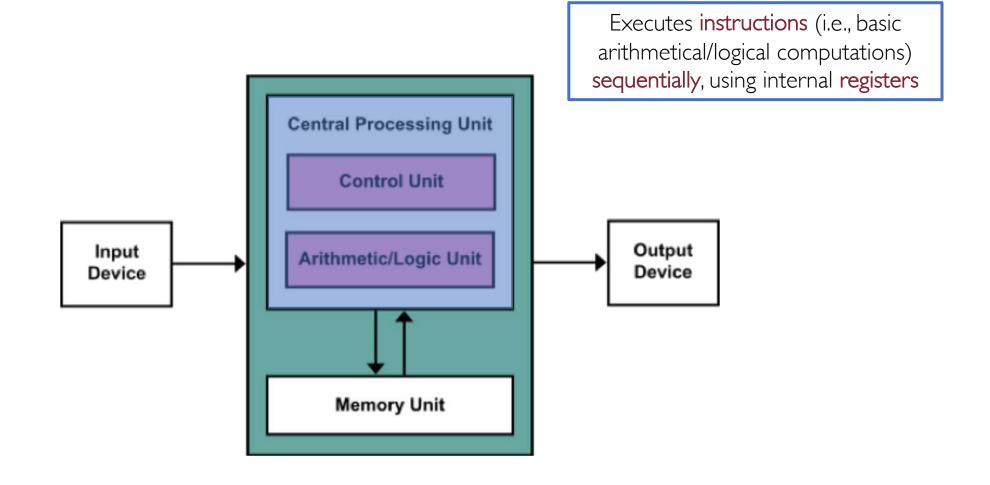


John von Neumann

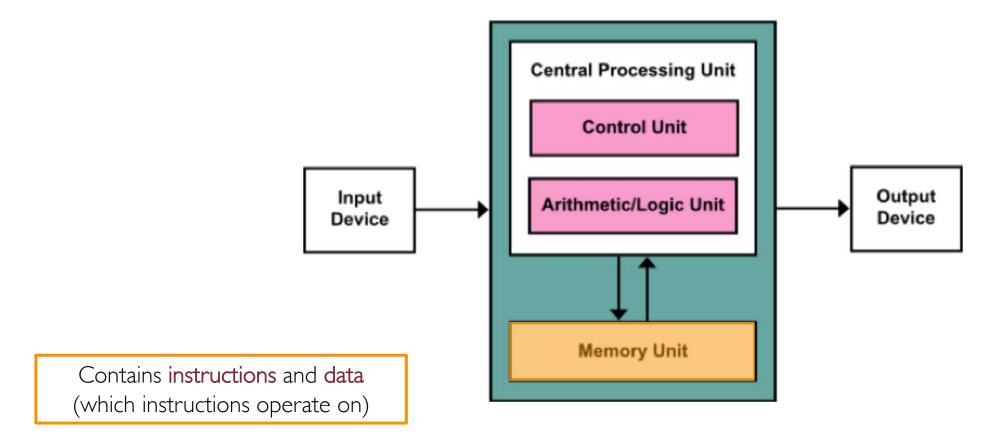
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Central Processing Unit (CPU)

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 - Decode: interprets the fetched instruction
 - Execute: runs the actual decoded instruction

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- A word is the unit of data the CPU can directly operate on
 - today ranging from 32 to 64 bits

Binary vs. Decimal Numeral System

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Binary vs. Decimal Numeral System

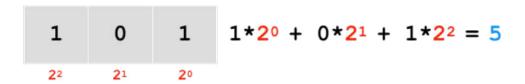
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```
1 0 1 1*10° + 0*10° + 1*10° = 101
```

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• In binary system (base-2), each digit is a bit



A Side Note on Units

Prefixes for multiples of bits (bit) or bytes (B)

Decimal SI Value 1000 10³ k kilo 1000² 10⁶ M mega 1000³ 10⁹ G giga 1000⁴ 10¹² T tera 1000⁵ 10¹⁵ P peta 1000⁶ 10¹⁸ E exa 1000⁷ 10²¹ Z zetta 1000⁸ 10²⁴ Y yotta

| Binary | | | | | |
|---------------------|------------------|------|---|--------------|--|
| Value | | IEC | | JEDEC | |
| 1024 2 | ¹⁰ Ki | kibi | K | kilo | |
| 1024 ² 2 | ²⁰ Mi | mebi | M | mega | |
| 1024 ³ 2 | ³⁰ Gi | gibi | G | giga | |
| 1024 ⁴ 2 | ⁴⁰ Ti | tebi | - | | |
| 1024 ⁵ 2 | ⁵⁰ Pi | pebi | _ | | |
| 1024 ⁶ 2 | ⁶⁰ Ei | exbi | _ | | |
| 1024 ⁷ 2 | ⁷⁰ Zi | zebi | _ | | |
| 1024 ⁸ 2 | ³⁰ Yi | yobi | _ | | |

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- An **abstraction** of the underlying physical (hardware) architecture (e.g., x86, ARM, SPARC, MIPS, etc.)
- Each realization of the same instruction set is an implementation of a physical architecture (e.g., $\times 86 \rightarrow$ Intel, AMD, Cyrix, etc.)

CPU Registers

• On-chip storage whose size typically coincides with the CPU word size

CPU Registers

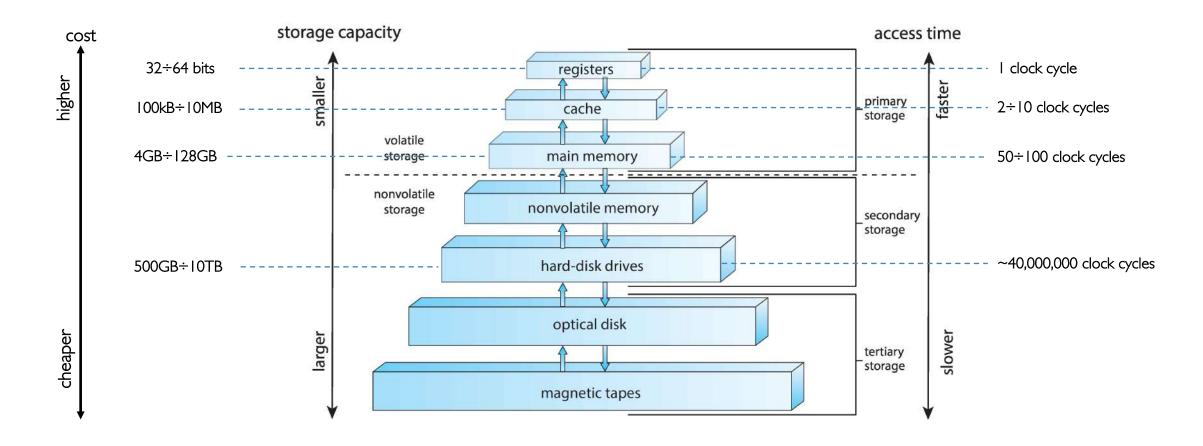
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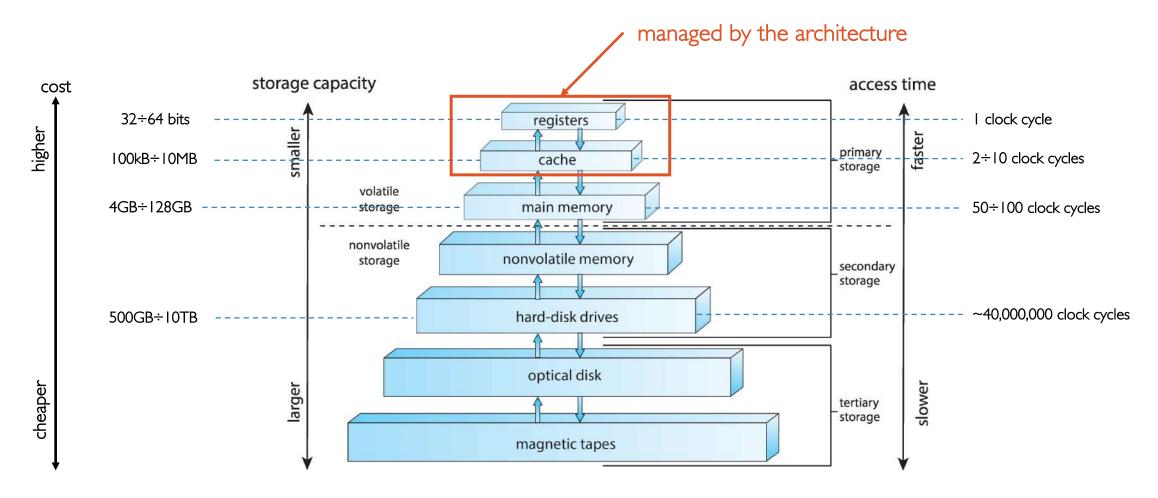
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- General-purpose (x86):
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- Special-purpose (x86):
 - esp → Stack pointer for top address of the stack
 - ebp Stack base pointer for the address of the current stack frame
 - eip → Instruction pointer, holds the program counter (i.e., the address of next instruction)

Memory

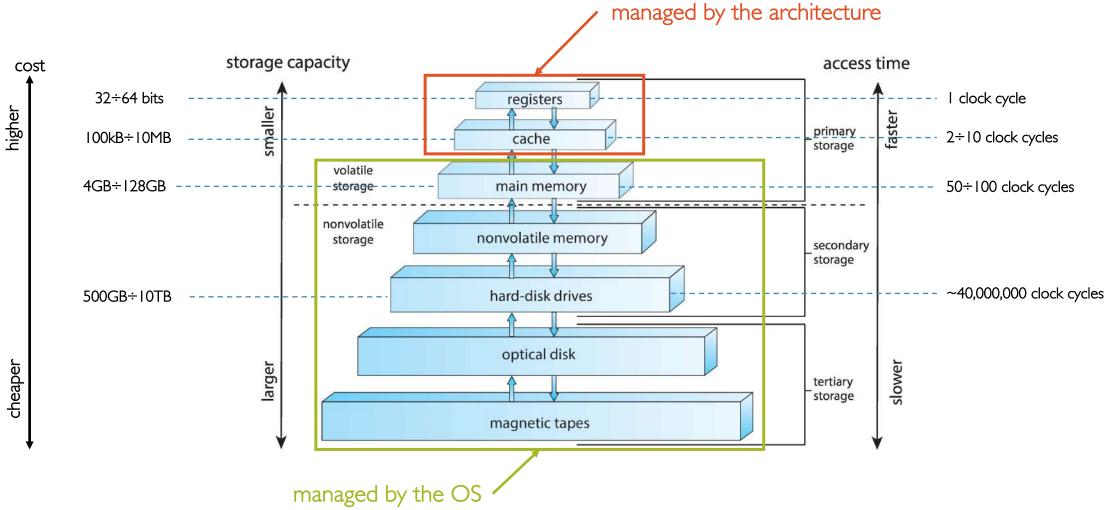
Memory Hierarchy



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• Essentially, a sequence of cells

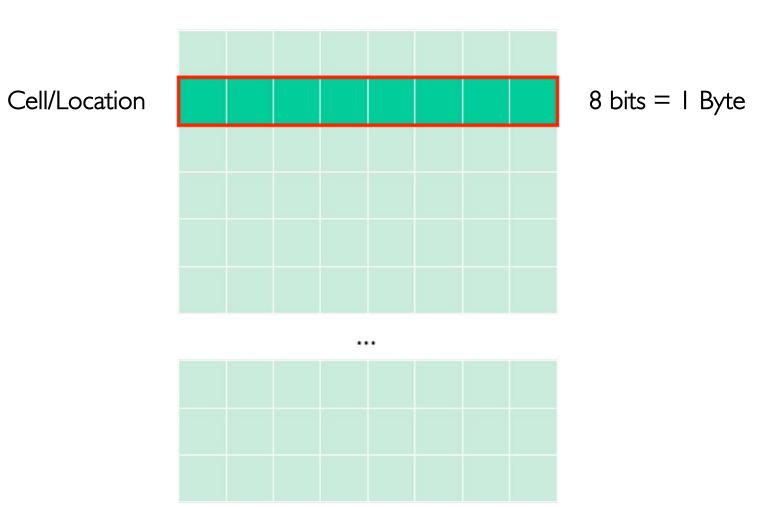
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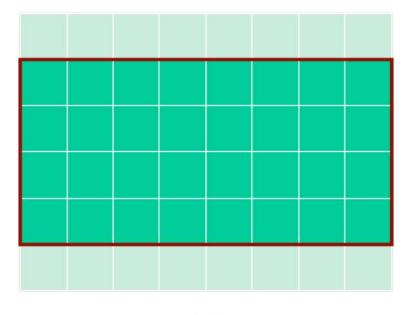
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- The smallest addressable unit is usually I Byte

Memory Cell (I)

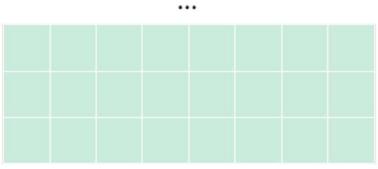


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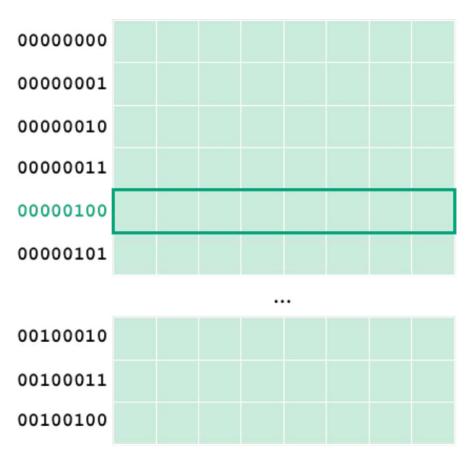
Cell/Location



32 bits = 4 Bytes



Memory Address (Single Byte)

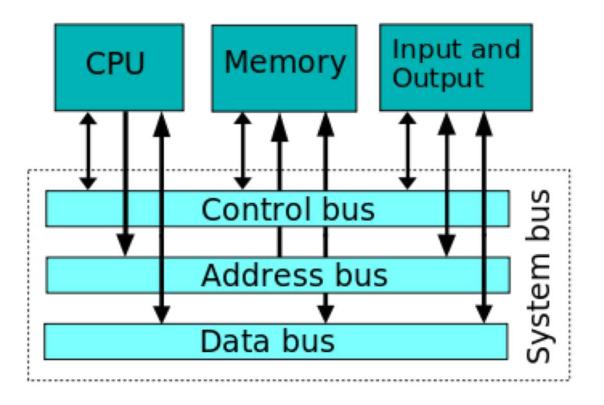


Computer Buses

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- More dedicated buses have been added to manage CPU-to-memory and I/O traffic
 - PCI, SATA, USB, etc.



I/O Devices

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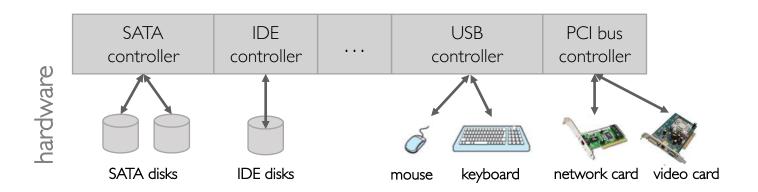
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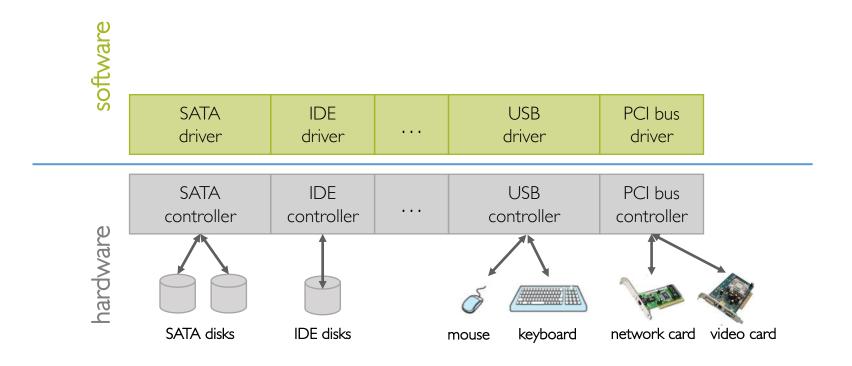
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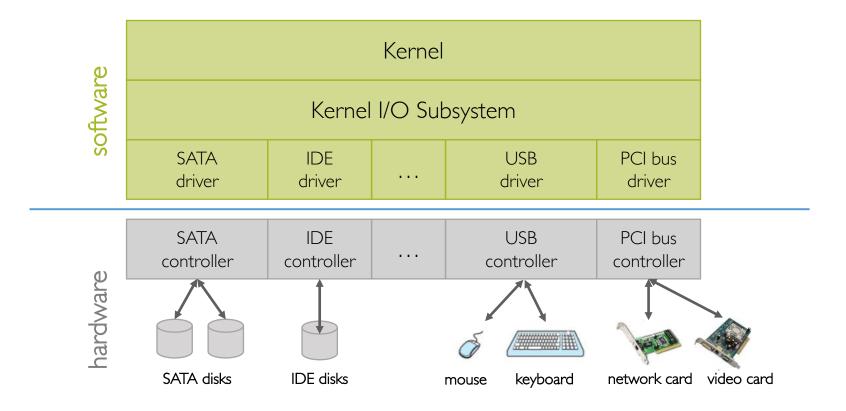
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- OS talks to a device controller using a specific device driver

SATA disks IDE disks mouse keyboard network card video card







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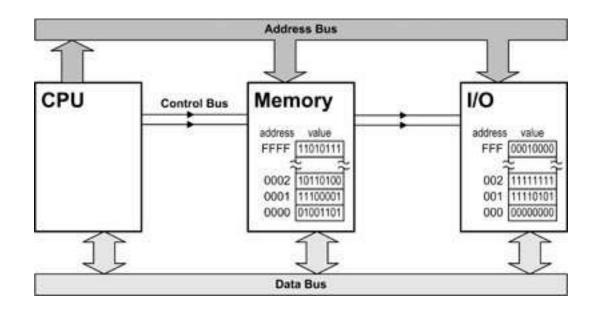
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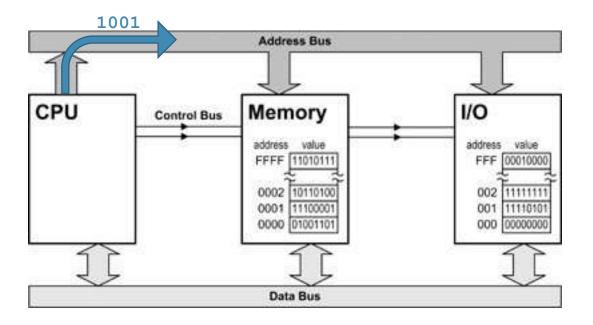
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How does the CPU know how to address (registers of) I/O devices?

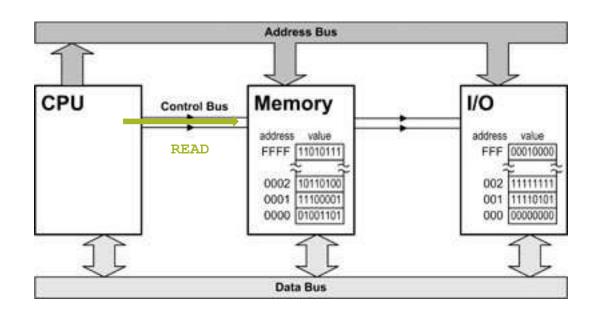


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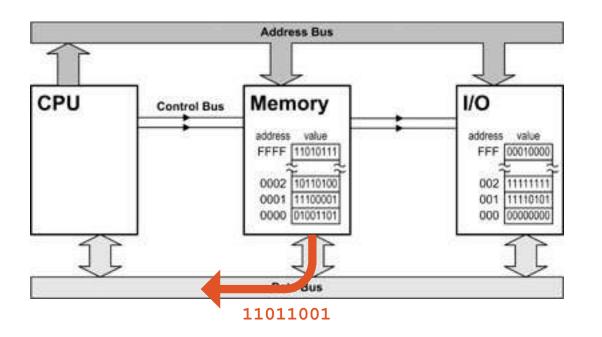
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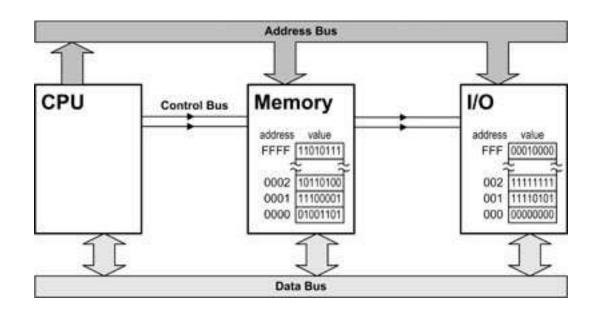


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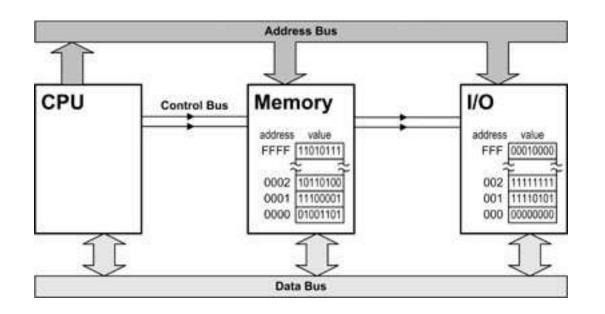
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The control bus has a special line called "M/#IO" which asserts whether the CPU wants to talk to memory or an I/O device

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 - Memory-mapped I/O → mapping controller's registers to the same address space used for main memory

Port-Mapped I/O

- Each I/O device controller's register is mapped to a specific port (address)
- Requires special class of CPU instructions (e.g., IN/OUT)
 - The IN instruction reads from an I/O device, OUT writes
- When you use the IN or OUT instructions, the M/#IO is not asserted, so memory does not respond and the I/O chip does

Memory-Mapped I/O

- Memory-mapped I/O "wastes" some address space but doesn't need any special instruction
- To the CPU I/O device ports are just like normal memory addresses
- The CPU use MOV-like instructions to access I/O device registers
- In this way, the **M/#IO** is asserted indicating the address requested by the CPU refers to main memory

```
MOV DX,1234h
MOV AL,[DX] ;reads memory address 1234h (memory address space)
IN AL,DX ;reads I/O port 1234h (I/O address space)
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Both put the value **1234h** on the CPU address bus, and both assert a **READ** operation on control bus

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The second one will **not** assert **M/#IO** to indicate that the address belongs to I/O address space

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 - CPU periodically checks for the I/O task status

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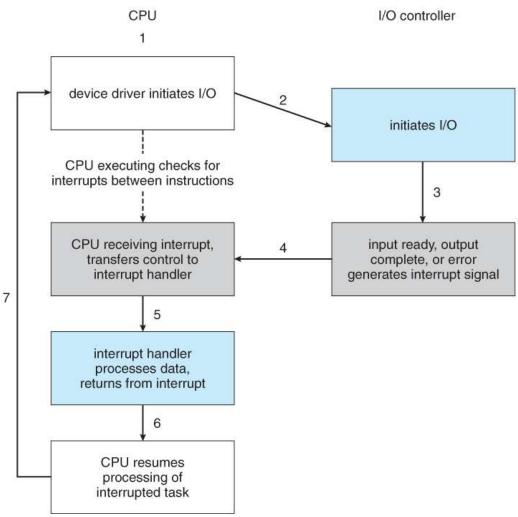
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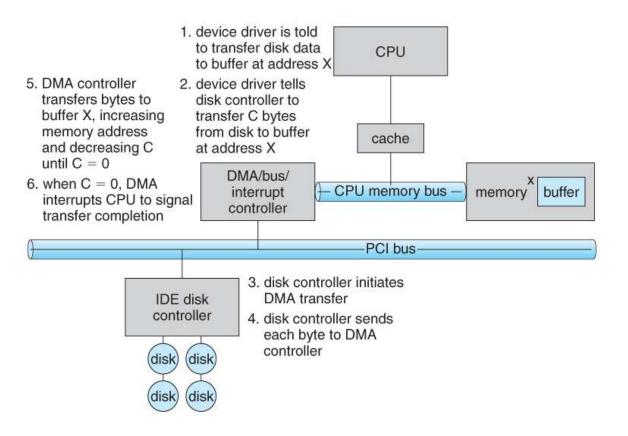


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Interrupt-driven I/O



Direct Memory Access (DMA)



Overcome the limitation of Programmed I/O

Maybe wasteful to tie up the CPU transferring data in and out of registers one byte at a time

Useful for devices that transfer large quantities of data (such as disk controllers)

Typically, used in combination with interruptdriven I/O

Architectural Features Enabling OS Services

| OS Service | HW Support |
|-------------------------|--|
| Protection and Security | Kernel/user mode, protected instructions, base/limit registers |
| System calls | Trap instructions and interrupt vectors |
| Exception handling | Trap instructions and interrupt vectors |
| I/O operations | Trap instructions, interrupt vectors, and memory mapping |
| Scheduling | Timer |
| Synchronization | Atomic instructions |
| Virtual memory | Translation Look-aside Buffer (TLB) |

Protection and Security

Privileged Instructions

- Some CPU instructions are more sensitive than others
 - MOV %eax, %ebx → move the content of the register ebx into eax
 - MOV %eax, [%ebx] → move the content of memory indexed by register ebx to eax
 - HLT → halt the system
 - INT X → generate interrupt X

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Idea: sensitive (privileged) instructions can be executed only by the OS

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Implemented in HW!
A status bit stored in a protected CPU register
(0=kernel, 1=user)

Beyond Kernel vs. User Mode

• The underlying HW must support at least kernel and user mode

Beyond Kernel vs. User Mode

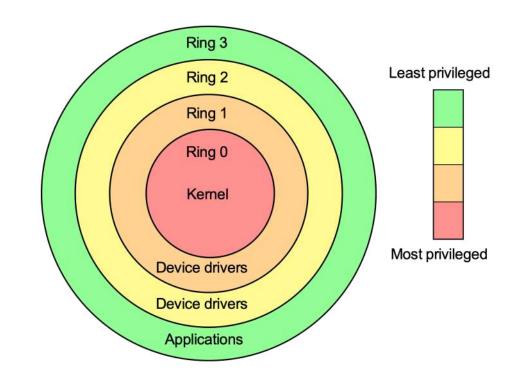
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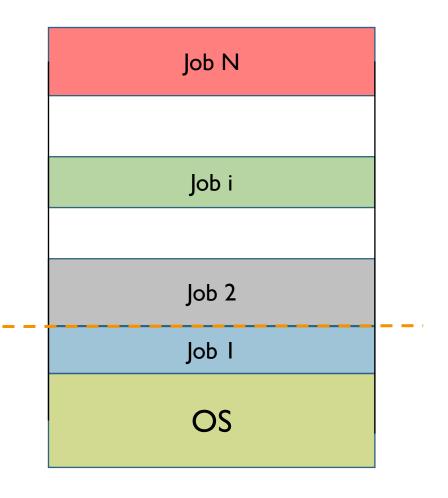
Protection Rings

- 4 different privilege levels {0, ..., 3}
- Still implementable in HW (2 bits)



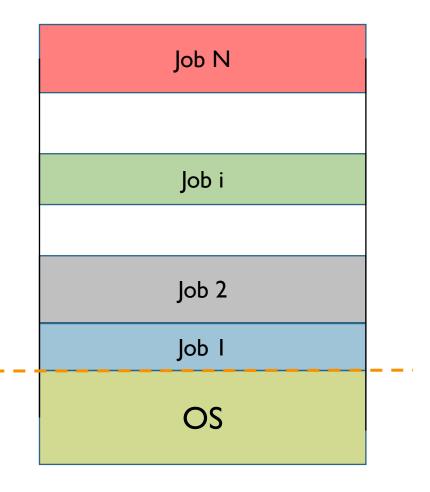
Memory Protection

- Architecture must provide support for the OS to:
 - Protect user programs from each other



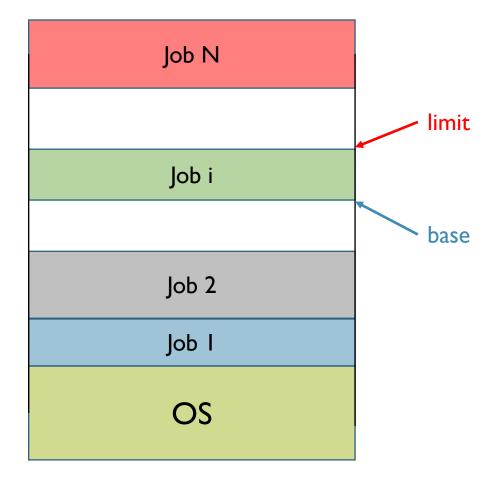
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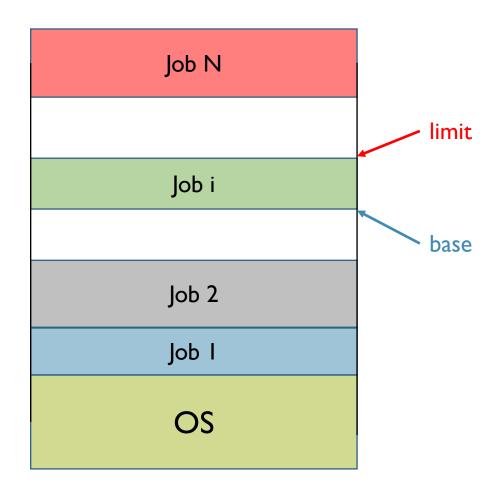
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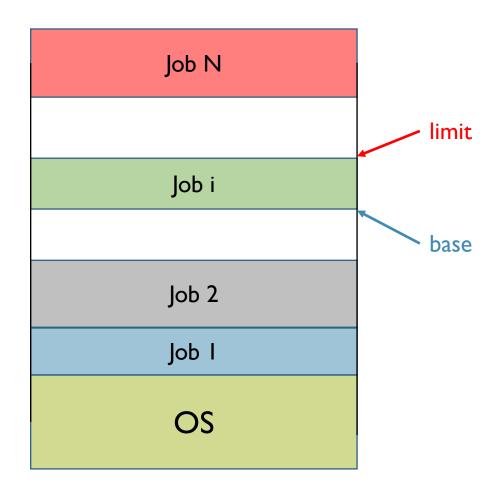
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- The OS loads the base and limit registers upon program startup
- The CPU checks each memory address referenced by user program falls between base and limit values



Program vs. Process

- A program is an executable file which resides on the persistent memory (e.g., disk),
 - contains only the set of instructions needed to accomplish a specific job
 - e.g., the **1s** program is an executable file stored at **/bin/1s** on the disk of a UNIX-like OS

Program vs. Process

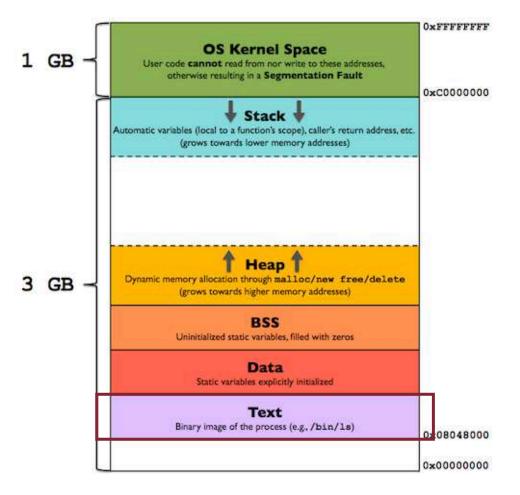
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 - e.g., the **1s** program is an executable file stored at **/bin/1s** on the disk of a UNIX-like OS
- A process is a particular instance of a program when loaded to main memory
 - e.g., multiple instances of the **1s** program above, thus multiple processes for the same program

Program vs. Process

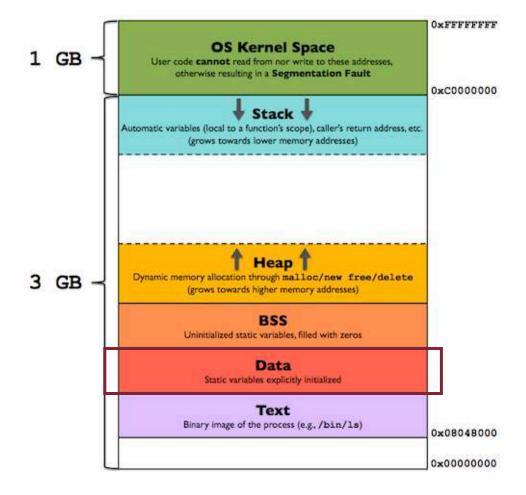
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program → "static/passive" vs. process → "dynamic/active"

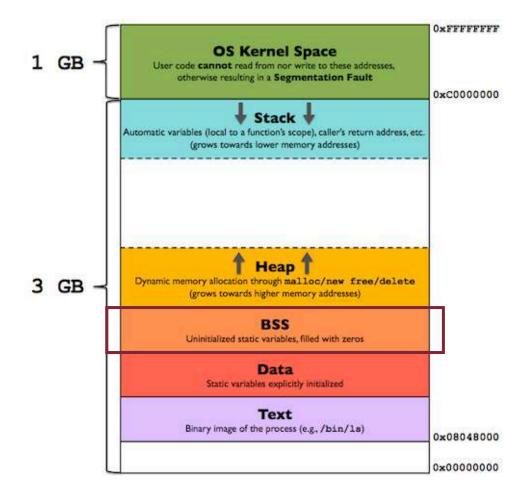
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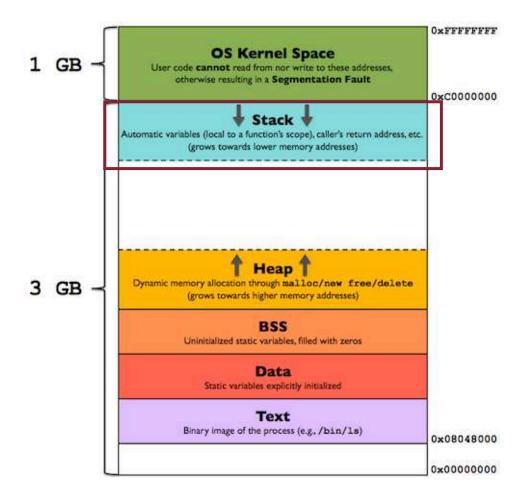


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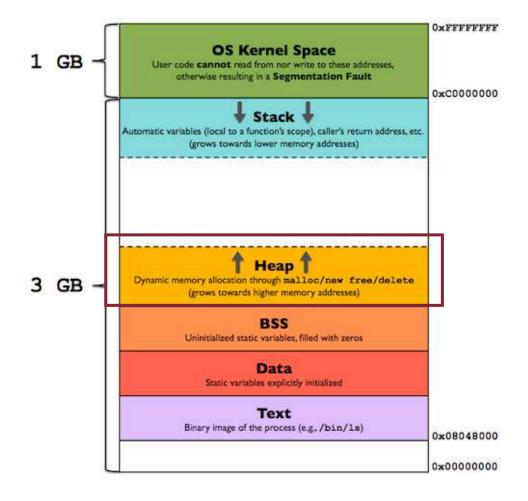
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 LIFO structure used to store all the data needed by a function call (stack frame)
- Heap → used for dynamic allocation



Function Call: Stack Frame

- Each function uses a portion of the stack, and we call it a stack frame
- The stack frame for each function is divided into 3 parts:
 - function parameters
 - back-pointer to the previous stack frame
 - local variables

- This part of a function's stack frame is set up by the caller
- 2 operations are defined on a stack:
 - **push** \rightarrow used to place items onto the stack
 - pop \rightarrow user to remove items from the stack
- Different languages may push the parameters on in different orders

foo (a, b, c);



```
foo (a, b, c);

The caller converts to

push c
push b
push a
call foo
```

- Each item is pushed onto the stack, the stack grows down
- The stack-pointer register (**esp**) is decremented by 4 bytes (in 32-bit mode), and the item is copied to the memory location pointed to by the stack-pointer register
- The **call** instruction will implicitly push the return address on the stack

```
[esp + 0] - return address
[esp + 4] - parameter 'a'
[esp + 8] - parameter 'b'
[esp + 12] - parameter 'c'
```

Stack Frame: Base Pointer

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This way of accessing parameters from the callee might get clumsy, especially when several local variables need to be stored

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Save the stack frame base pointer (ebp)!

```
[ebp + 16] - parameter 'c'
[ebp + 12] - parameter 'b'
[ebp + 8] - parameter 'a'
[ebp + 4] - return address
[ebp + 0] - saved stackbase-pointer register
```

Stack Frame: Putting All Together

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[ebp + 16] - parameter 'c'
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Parameters (of the caller) are accessed through the stack frame base pointer (**ebp**)

```
[esp + (# - 4)] - top of local variables section
[esp + 0] - bottom of local variables section
```

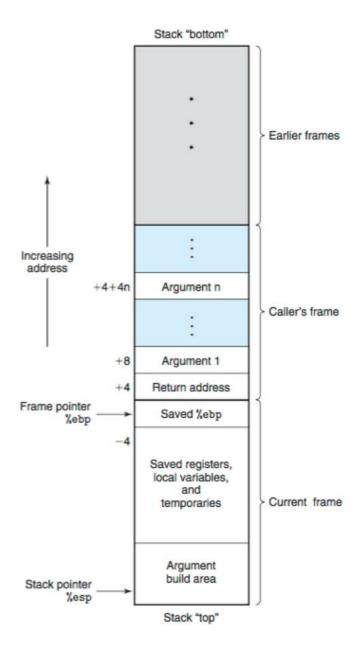
Local variables (of the callee) are accessed through the stack frame top pointer (**esp**)

Stack Frame: Cleanup

```
mov esp, ebp ; undo the carving of space for the local variables pop ebp ; restore the previous stackbase-pointer register
```

The old stack frame base pointer is restored

Stack: Outline



System Calls, Exceptions, I/O Interrupts

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Crossing protection boundaries using system calls

Exceptions and Interrupts

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Interrupts

- hardware-generated (by external devices)
- e.g., I/O completion or timer interrupt on a multi-tasking system

TRAP

We will refer to **trap** as any event that causes switch to OS kernel mode

TRAP

SYSTEM CALL

(software trap)

synchronous
SW-initiated
request an OS service
e.g., SYSCALL, INT on
the x86



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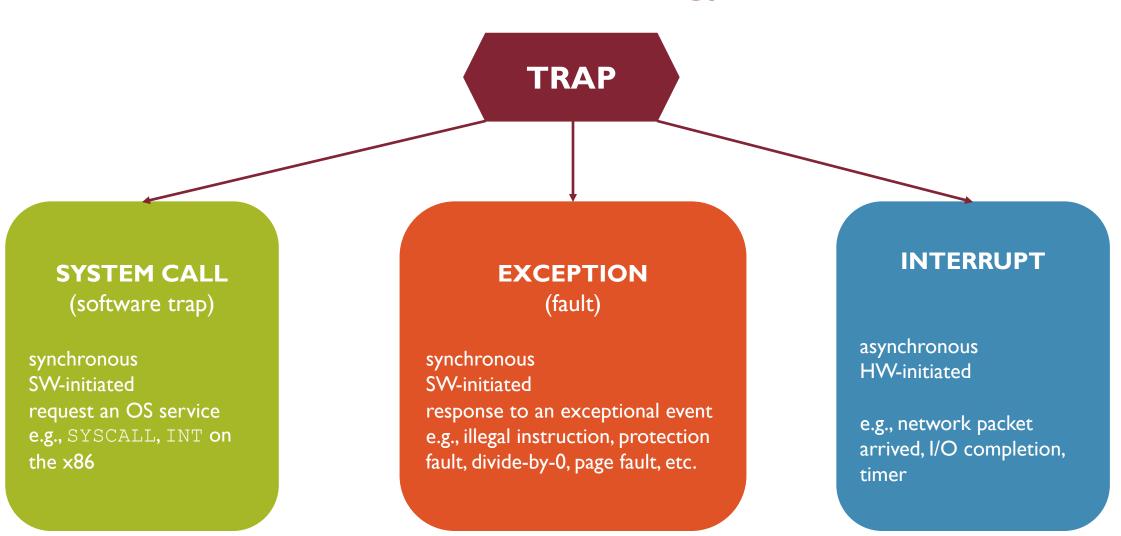
synchronous
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EXCEPTION

(fault)

synchronous SW-initiated

response to an exceptional event e.g., illegal instruction, protection fault, divide-by-0, page fault, etc.



Scheduling and Synchronization

Timer

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- At each timer interrupt, the CPU scheduler takes over and decides which process to execute next

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- Interrupts may occur at any time and interfere with running processes
- OS must be able to synchronize the activities of cooperating, concurrent processes
- Hardware must ensure that short sequences of instructions (e.g., read-modify-write) are executed **atomically** by either:
 - Disabling interrupts before the sequence and re-enable them afterwards or
 - Special instructions that are natively executed atomically

Virtual Memory

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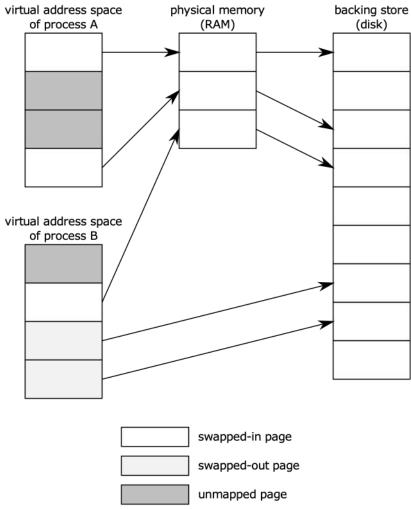
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- It allows to run programs without them being entirely loaded in main memory
 - They are entirely loaded in virtual memory, though!
- Implemented both in HW (MMU) and SW (OS)
 - MMU is responsible for translating virtual addresses into physical ones
- OS is responsible for managing virtual address spaces

Virtual vs. Physical Address Space

- On a 64 bit system the CPU is able to address 2^{64} bytes = 16 exbibytes (EiB)
- Virtual address space ranges from 0 to $2^{64} 1$
- This is about a billion times more than main memory capacity currently available!
- Virtual address space is typically divided into contiguous blocks of the same size (e.g., 4 KiB), called **pages**
- Pages which are not loaded in main memory are stored on disk

Virtual vs. Physical Address Space



Memory Management Unit (MMU)

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- Maps virtual addresses to physical ones through a page table managed by the OS
- Uses a cache called **Translation Look-aside Buffer** (TLB) with "recent mappings" for quicker lookups
- The OS must be aware of which pages are loaded in main memory and which ones are on disk

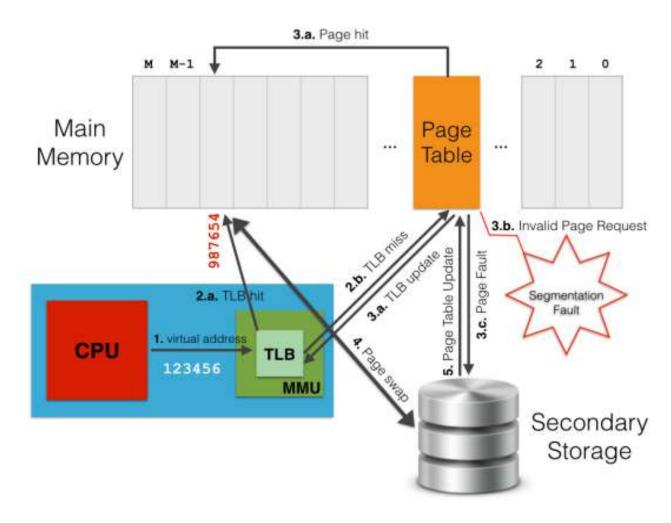
Lookup Fault

- Page lookup may fail due to 2 reasons:
 - no valid mapping exists for a virtual address -> segmentation fault
 - requested page is not in main memory → page fault
- Both cases the Page Supervisor (OS kernel) takes over

Lookup Fault Handling

- In case of a page fault the Page Supervisor:
 - checks if there is enough room in main memory
 - if not, it has to free some space by removing a page from main memory and storing to disk (swapping)
 - several page replacement algorithms (e.g., LRU)
 - retrieves the missing page from disk and stores it in main memory
 - updates the Page Table and the TLB cache

Lookup Fault Handling



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- Most of the services provided by the OS to the applications rely on specific HW features
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- Advice: Keep your Computer Architecture book at hand!