# COMP 4736 Introduction to Operating Systems

**01. Computer Architecture and Overview** 

(OSTEP Ch. 2 & 4)

# Ch. 02. Introduction to Operating Systems

(OSTEP Ch 2)

#### What is an Operating System?

- Middleware between user programs and system hardware.
- Manages hardware: CPU, main memory, I/O devices (disk, network card, mouse, keyboard, etc.)

**User Programs** 

**Operating System** 

Hardware (CPU, Memory, I/O devices)

#### What happens when a program runs?

(Recall: a program is a sequence of instructions and data.)

- The processor fetches an instruction from memory, ...
- decodes it (i.e., figures out which instruction this is), ...
- and executes it (e.g., add two numbers, access memory, check a condition, jump to a function, etc.).

• The processor then moves to the **next instructions**. It repeats until program completes.

### **Operating Systems (OS)**

- Responsible for
  - Making it easy to run programs.
  - Allowing programs to share memory.
  - Enabling programs to interact with devices.

OS is in charge of making sure the system operates correctly and efficiently.

#### Virtualization

- The OS takes a physical resource and transforms it into a virtual form of itself.
  - Physical resource: processor, memory, disk, etc.
- The virtual form is more general, powerful and easy-to-use.
- Sometimes, we refer to the OS as a virtual machine.

#### **System Call**

- System call allows user to tell the OS what to do.
- The OS provides some interfaces (APIs, standard library).
- A typical OS exports a few hundred system calls.
  - Run programs
  - Access memory
  - Access devices

#### OS as a Resource Manager

- The OS manages resources such as CPU, memory and disk.
- The OS allows
  - Many programs to run 
     Sharing the CPU
  - Many programs to concurrently access their own instructions and data 
     Sharing memory
  - Many programs to access devices 

     Sharing disks

#### Virtualizing the CPU

- The system has a very large number of virtual CPUs.
- Turning a single CPU into a seemingly infinite number of CPUs.
- Allowing many programs to seemingly run at once
  - → Virtualizing the CPU

### Virtualizing the CPU (cpu.c)

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 #include <stdlib.h>
   #include <sys/time.h>
   #include <assert.h>
   #include "common.h"
6
   int
   main(int argc, char *argv[])
10
      if (argc != 2) {
         fprintf(stderr, "usage: cpu <string>\n");
11
         exit(1);
12
13
14
      char *str = argv[1];
      while (1) {
15
16
         Spin(1);
         printf("%s\n", str);
17
18
19
      return 0;
20 }
```

### Virtualizing the CPU (Result 1)

```
prompt> gcc -o cpu cpu.c -Wall
prompt> ./cpu "A"
A
A
A
C
prompt>
```

- Runs forever.
- We halt the program by pressing Ctrl+C.

### Virtualizing the CPU (Result 2)

```
prompt> ./cpu A & ./cpu B & ./cpu C & ./cpu D &
   7353
    7354
    7355
    7356
Α
D
Α
D
```

Even though we have only one processor, all four of programs seem to be running at the same time!

#### Virtualizing the CPU

- Running multiple programs at once raises new questions.
  - E.g., if two programs want to run at the same time, which should run?
- It is handled by policies of the OS.
- We will study them as we learn about the basic mechanisms that OS implement, as a resource manager.

#### **Virtualizing Memory**

- The physical memory is an array of bytes.
- A program keeps all of its data structures in memory.

- Read memory (load):
  - Specify an address to be able to access the data
- Write memory (store):
  - Specify the data to be written to the given address

### Virtualizing Memory (mem.c)

```
#include <unistd.h>
2 #include <stdio.h>
   #include <stdlib.h>
   #include "common.h"
6
   int
   main(int argc, char *argv[])
8
      int *p = malloc(sizeof(int));
                                                           // a1
10
      assert(p != NULL);
      printf("(%d) address pointed to by p: %p\n",
11
          getpid(), p);
                                                           // a2
12
                                                           // a3
13
      *p = 0;
      while (1) {
14
         Spin(1);
15
16
         *p = *p + 1;
         printf("(%d) p: %d\n", getpid(), *p);
17
                                                           // a4
18
19
      return 0;
20 }
```

## Virtualizing Memory (Result 1)

```
prompt> ./mem
(2134) address pointed to by p: 0x200000
(2134) p: 1
(2134) p: 2
(2134) p: 3
(2134) p: 4
(2134) p: 5
^C
```

- The newly allocated memory is at address 0x200000.
- It updates the value and prints out the result.

## Virtualizing Memory (Result 2)

```
prompt> ./mem &; ./mem &
[1] 24113
[2] 24114
(24113) address pointed to by p: 0x200000
(24114) address pointed to by p: 0x200000
(24113) p: 1
(24114) p: 1
(24114) p: 2
(24113) p: 2
(24113) p: 3
(24114) p: 3
(24113) p: 4
(24114) p: 4
```

- It is as if each running program has its own private memory.
  - Each running program has allocated memory at the same address.
  - Each seems to be updating the value at 0x200000 independently.

#### **Virtualizing Memory**

• Each process accesses its own private virtual address space.

- The OS maps address space onto the physical memory.
- A memory reference within one running program does not affect the address space of other processes.
- Physical memory is a shared resource, managed by the OS.

#### **Problems of Concurrency**

• The OS is juggling many things at once, first running one process, then another, and so forth.

 Modern multi-threaded programs also exhibit the concurrency problem.

### Concurrency (thread.c)

```
#include <stdio.h>
2 #include <stdlib.h>
  #include "common.h"
   #include "common threads.h"
  volatile int counter = 0;
   int loops;
8
   void *worker(void *arg) {
10
      int i;
      for (i = 0; i < loops; i++) {
11
12
         counter++;
13
14
      return NULL;
15 }
16
   int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
18
      if (argc != 2) {
          fprintf(stderr, "usage: threads <value>\n");
19
         exit(1);
20
21
```

#### Concurrency (thread.c)

```
22
      loops = atoi(argv[1]);
      pthread t p1, p2;
23
24
      printf("Initial value : %d\n", counter);
25
      Pthread create(&p1, NULL, worker, NULL);
26
      Pthread create(&p2, NULL, worker, NULL);
27
      Pthread join(p1, NULL);
28
      Pthread join(p2, NULL);
      printf("Final value : %d\n", counter);
30
      return 0;
31
32 }
```

- The main program creates two threads.
  - Thread: a function running within the same memory space. Each thread start running in a routine called worker().
  - worker(): increments a counter

#### **Concurrency (Result)**

- loops determines how many times each of the two workers will increment the shared counter in a loop.
  - loops: 1000.

```
prompt> gcc -o thread thread.c -Wall -pthread
prompt> ./thread 1000
Initial value : 0
Final value : 2000
```

• loops: 100000.

### Why is this happening?

- Increment a shared counter 
   take three instructions.
- 1. Load the value of the counter from memory into register.
- 2. Increment it.
- 3. Store it back into memory.

- These three instructions do not execute atomically.
  - → Problem of concurrency can happen.

#### Persistence

- Devices such as DRAM store values in a volatile.
- Hardware and software are needed to store data persistently.

- Hardware: I/O device such as a hard drive, solid-state drives (SSDs)
- Software:
  - File system manages the disk.
  - File system is responsible for storing any files the user creates.

### Persistence (io.c)

```
#include <stdio.h>
2 #include <unistd.h>
  #include <assert.h>
  #include <fcntl.h>
   #include <sys/types.h>
6
   int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
      int fd = open("/tmp/file", O WRONLY|O CREAT|O TRUNC,
8
         S IRWXU);
      assert(fd > -1);
10
      int rc = write(fd, "hello world\n", 13);
11
      assert(rc == 13);
12
      close(fd);
13
14
      return 0;
15 }
```

• open(), write(), and close() system calls are routed to the part of OS called the file system, which handles the requests.

#### Persistence

- What OS does in order to write to disk?
  - Figure out where on disk this new data will reside.
  - Issue I/O requests to the underlying storage device.

- File system handles system crashes during write.
  - Journaling or copy-on-write.
  - Carefully ordering writes to disk.

#### **Design Goals**

- Build up abstraction
  - Make the system convenient and easy to use.

- Provide high performance
  - Minimize the overheads of the OS.
  - OS must strive to provide virtualization without excessive overheads.

- Protection between applications
  - Isolation: Bad behavior of one does not harm other and the OS itself.

#### **Design Goals**

- High degree of reliability
  - The OS must also run non-stop.

- Other issues
  - Energy-efficiency
  - Security
  - Mobility

## **Some History**

- IBM 701 Electronic Data Processing Machine (1952)
- No OS. Operated manually.



### **Batch Processing**

- IBM 709 Data Processing System (1952)
- SHARE Operation System (SOS). Manages buffers and I/O devices.



# Multiprogramming

- PDP-11 minicomputer (1970)
- Unix. Supports multiprogramming.



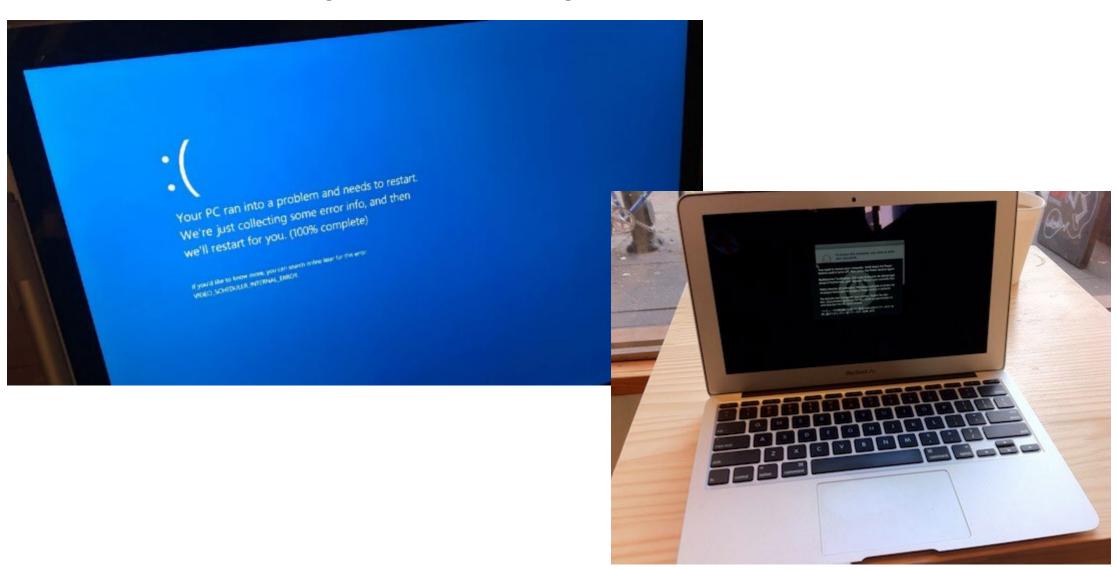
## Personal Computer (PC)

- Apple II (1977) and IBM PC (1981)
- Disk Operating System (DOS) and Mac OS

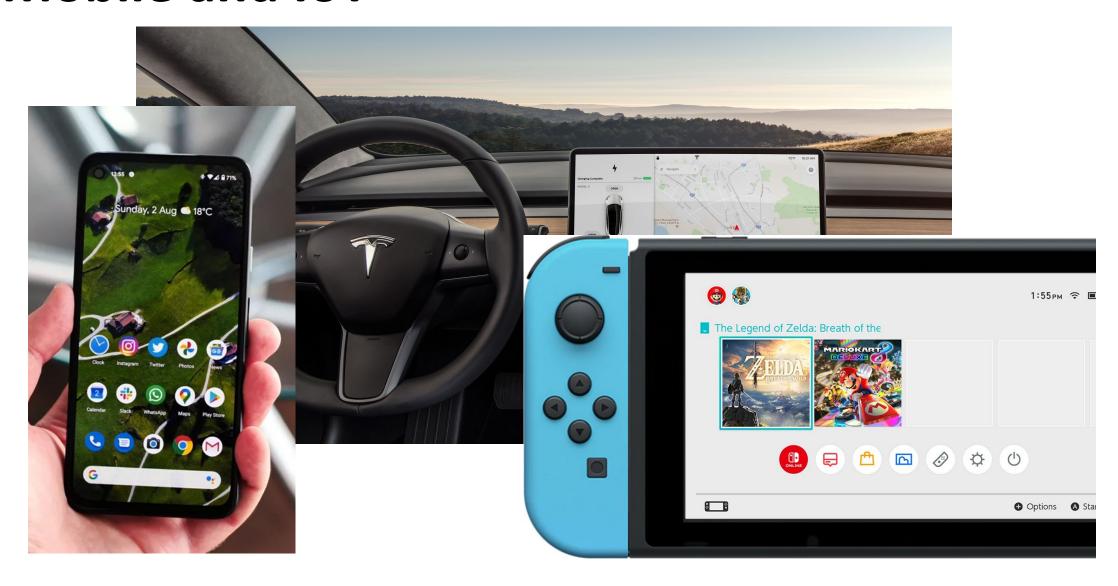




# **Modern Era (and Error)**



#### **Mobile and IoT**



#### Summary

- We have briefly introduced what an operating system (OS) is.
- Included in this course:
  - Virtualization of CPU and memory
    - Resource management. Allows multiple programs to run.
  - Concurrency
    - Data consistency. Data protection.
- Not included (but important topics nonetheless):
  - Persistence via devices and file systems.
  - Networking
  - Graphics devices
  - Security

#### References

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## Ch. 04. The Process

(OSTEP Ch. 4)

## How to Provide the Illusion of Many CPUs?

- CPU virtualization
  - The OS can promote the illusion that many virtual CPUs exist.
  - Time sharing: Running one process, then stopping it and running another.

• The potential cost is **performance**.

## Implementing Virtualization

OS will need low-level machinery and high-level intelligence.

- Mechanisms: How to "context switch" between processes.
- Policies: Decides which process to run, e.g., a scheduling policy.

### **Process**

A process is a running program.

- Comprising of a process:
- Memory (address space)
  - Instructions
  - Data section
- Registers
  - Program counter
  - Stack pointer

### **Process API**

- These APIs are available on any modern OS.
- Create
  - Create a new process to run a program
- Destroy
  - Halt a runaway process
- Wait
  - Wait for a process to stop running
- Miscellaneous Control
  - Some kind of method to suspend a process and then resume it
- Status
  - Get some status info about a process

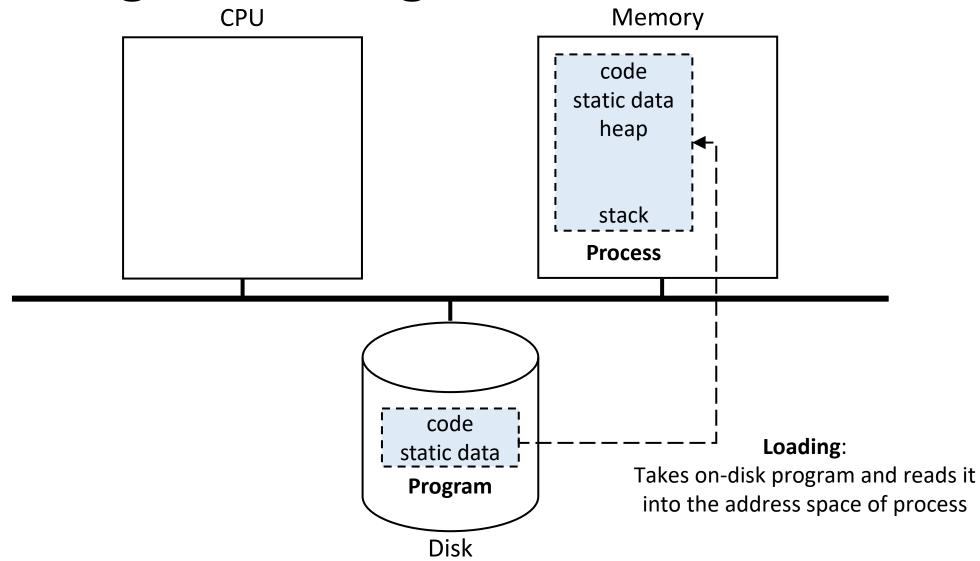
## **Process Creation**

- 1. Load a program code into memory, into the address space of the process.
  - Programs initially reside on disk in executable format.
  - Modern OS perform the loading process lazily.
    - Loading pieces of code or data only as they are needed during program execution.
- 2. The program's run-time stack is allocated.
  - Use the stack for local variables, function parameters, and return address.
  - Initialize the stack with arguments → argc and the argv array of main()
     function

## **Process Creation**

- 3. The program's heap is created.
  - Used for explicitly requested dynamically allocated data.
  - Program request such space by calling malloc() and free it by calling free().
- 4. The OS do some other initialization tasks.
  - Input/output (I/O) setup
  - Each process by default has three open file descriptors.
    - Standard input, output and error
- 5. Start the program running at the entry point, namely main().
  - The OS transfers control of the CPU to the newly-created process.

## **Loading: From Program To Process**



### **Process States**

• A process can be one of three states.

### Running

A process is running on a processor.

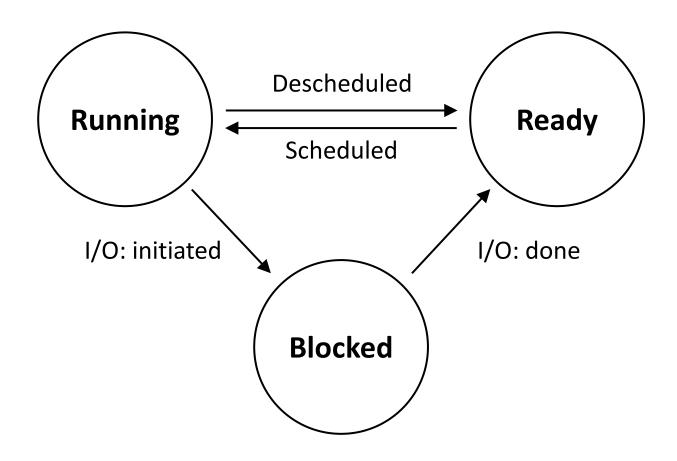
### Ready

• A process is ready to run but for some reason the OS has chosen not to run it at this given moment.

#### Blocked

- A process has performed some kind of operation.
- When a process initiates an I/O request to a disk, it becomes blocked and thus some other process can use the processor.

## **Process: State Transitions**



# **Tracing Process State: CPU Only**

Time	Process <sub>0</sub>	Process <sub>1</sub>	Notes
1	Running	Ready	
2	Running	Ready	
3	Running	Ready	
4	Running	Ready	Process <sub>o</sub> is now done
5	_	Running	
6	_	Running	
7	_	Running	
8	_	Running	Process <sub>1</sub> is now done

# **Tracing Process State: CPU and I/O**

Time	Process <sub>0</sub>	Process <sub>1</sub>	Notes
1	Running	Ready	
2	Running	Ready	
3	Running	Ready	Process <sub>0</sub> initiates I/O
4	Blocked	Running	Process <sub>0</sub> is blocked, so Process <sub>1</sub> runs
5	Blocked	Running	
6	Blocked	Running	
7	Ready	Running	I/O done
8	Ready	Running	Process <sub>1</sub> is now done
9	Running	_	
10	Running	_	Process <sub>0</sub> is now done

### **Data Structures**

• OS maintains a data structure (e.g., process list) of all ready, running and blocked processes.

- Process Control Block (PCB)
  - A C-structure that contains information about each process.
  - Register context: a set of registers that define the state of a process

## The xv6 Proc Structure

```
// the information xv6 tracks about each process
// including its register context and state
struct proc {
  char *mem;
                          // Start of process memory
  uint sz;
                         // Size of process memory
                   // Bottom of kernel stack for this process
  char *kstack;
  enum proc state state;
                            // Process state
                            // Process ID
  int pid;
  struct proc *parent; // Parent process
  void *chan;
                 // If !zero, sleeping on chan
  int killed;
                            // If !zero, has been killed
  struct file *ofile[NOFILE]; // Open files
  struct inode *cwd; // Current directory
  struct context; // Switch here to run process
  struct trapframe *tf; // Trap frame for the current interrupt
};
```

## The xv6 Proc Structure

```
// the registers xv6 will save and restore
// to stop and subsequently restart a process
struct context {
   int eip;
   int esp;
   int ebx;
   int ecx;
   int edx;
   int esi;
   int edi;
   int ebp;
};
// the different states a process can be in
enum proc_state { UNUSED, EMBRYO, SLEEPING, RUNNABLE, RUNNING, ZOMBIE };
```

## Summary

- We have introduced the most basic abstraction of the OS: the process.
- Low-level mechanisms are needed to switch between processes.
- High-level policies are required to schedule the processes in an intelligent way.