Operating Systems Lecture Notes

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Contents

1 Lecture 2: Operating System Structure

1.1 Architectural features affecting OS*s*

- These features were built primarily to support OS*s*:
  - timer (clock) operationg
  - synchronisation instructions
  - memory protection
  - I/O control operations
  - interrupts and exceptions
  - protected modes of operation (kernel vs. user mode)
  - privileged instructions
  - system calls (including software interrupts)
  - virtualisation architectures
- ASPLOS

1.2 Privileged instructions

- Some instructions are restricted to the OS
  - known as *privileged* instructions
- Only the OS can:
  - directly access I/O devices
  - manipulate memory state management (page table pointers, TLB loads, etc.)
  - manipulate special *mode bits* (interrupt priority level)
- Restrictions provide safety and security

1.3 OS protections

- So how does the process know if a privileged instruction should be executed?
  - the architecture must support at least two modes of operation: kernel mode, and user mode
  - mode is set by status bit in a protected processor register.
    - user programs execute in user mode
    - OS executes in kernel (privileged) mode (OS == kernel)
  - Privileged instructions can only be executed in kernel (privileged) mode
    - if code running in user mode attempts to execute a privileged instruction, the illegal execution trap.

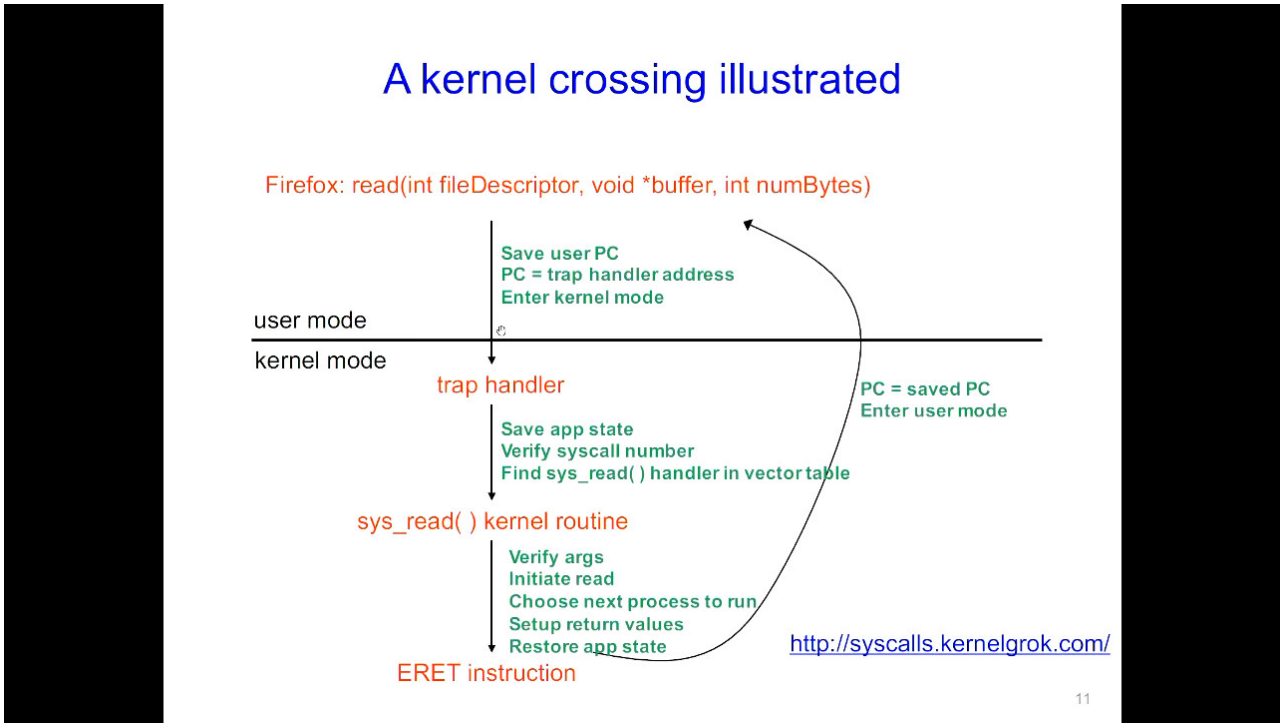
1.4 Crossing protection boundaries

- So how do user programs do something privileged?
  - e.g. how can you write to a disk if you can't execute any I/O instructions?
- User programs must call on OS procedure — that is to ask the OS to do it for them.
  - OS defines a set of system calls

  - User-mode program executes system call instruction
- Syscall instruction
  - like a protected procedure call

1.5 Syscall

- The syscall instruction *atomically*:
  - saves the current PC
  - sets the execution mode to privileged
  - sets the PC to a handler address
- Similar to a procedure call
  - Caller puts arguments in a place the callee expects (registers, or stack)
    - One of the args is a syscall number, indicating which OS function to invoke
  - Callee (OS) saves caller's state (registers, other control states) so it can use the CPU
  - OS function code runs
    - OS must verify caller's arguments (e.g. pointers)
  - OS returns using a special instruction
    - Automatically sets PC to return address and sets execution mode to user.



1.6 System call issues

- A syscall is not a subroutine call, with the caller specifying the next PC.
  - the caller knows where the subroutines are located in memory; therefore they can be the target of an attack.
- The kernel saves state?
  - Prevents overwriting of values

- The kernel verify arguments
  - Prevents buggy code crashing the system
- Referring to kernel objects as arguments
  - Data copied between user buffer and kernel buffer.

1.7 Exception handling and protection

- *All* entries to the OS occur via the mechanism just shown
  - Acquiring privileged mode and branching to the trap handler are inseparable
- Terminology
  - *Interrupt*: asynchronous; caused by an external device
  - *Exception*: synchronous; unexpected problem with instruction
  - *Trap*: synchronous; intended transition to OS due to an instruction

  In all three cases, they are instances of where something strange happens, and the OS takes control: whether by accident, or by intention.
- Privileged instructions and resources are the basis for most everything: memory protection, protected I/O, limiting user resource consumption.

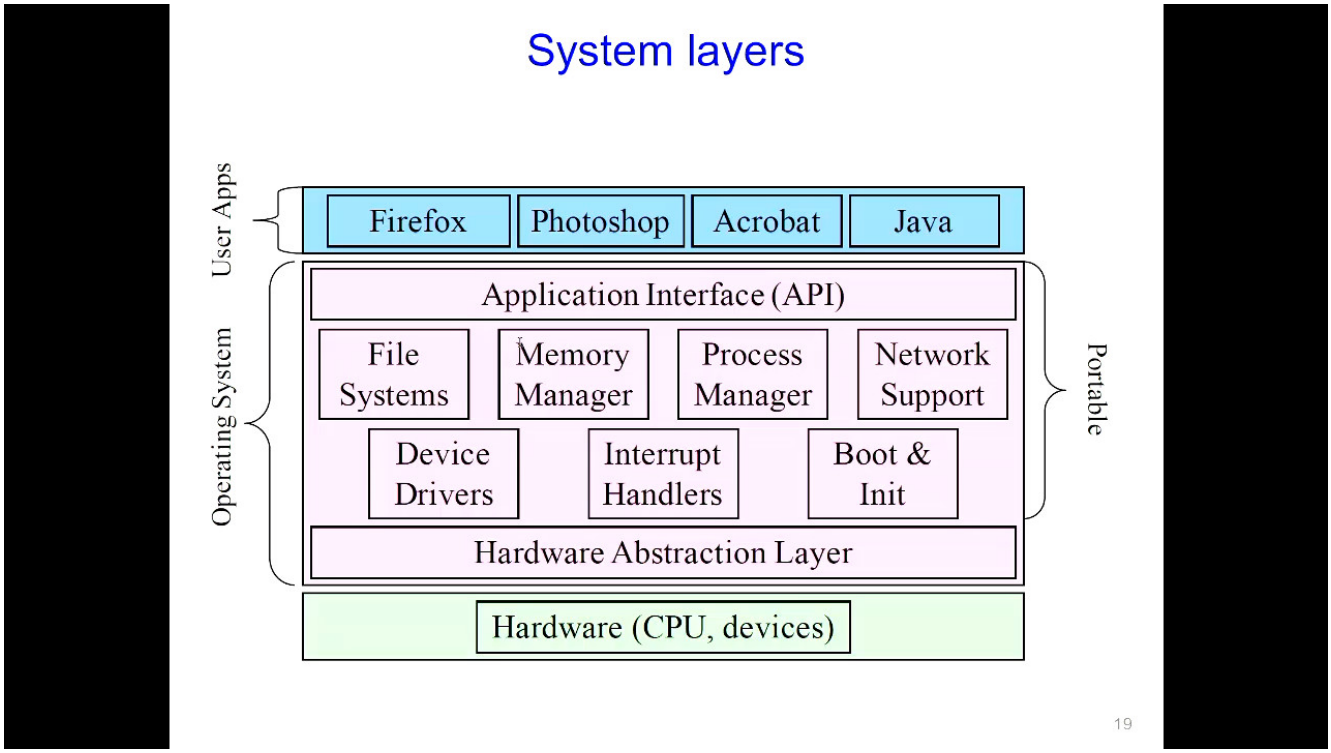
1.8 OS structure

- The OS sits between application programs and the hardware
  - it mediates access and abstracts away ugliness
  - programs request services via traps or exceptions
  - devices request attention via interrupts

1.9 Operating system design and implementation

- Design and implementation of OS not "solvable", but some approaches have proven successful.
- Internal structure of different OS*s* can vary widely.
- Start the design by defining goals and specifications.
- Affected by choice of hardware, type of system.
- *User* goals, and *system* goals
  - User goals: OS should be convenient to use, easy to learn, reliable, safe, and fast
  - System goals: OS should be easy to design, implement, and maintain, as well as flexible, reliable, error-free, and efficient.
- Important principle to separate
  - **Policy**: *What* will be done?
  - **Mechanism**: *How* to do it?
- Mechanisms determine how to do something, policies decide what will be done.
- The separation of policy from mechanism is a very important principle, it allows maximum flexibility if policy decisions are to be changed later (e.g. timer).
- Specifying and designing an OS is a highly creative task of *software engineering*.

1.10 System layers



1.11 Major OS components

- processes
- memory
- I/O
- secondary storage
- file systems
- protection
- shells
- GUI
- networking

1.12 OS structure

- There's no clear hierarchy within an OS — each of them needs access to different things.
- An OS consists of all these components, plus:
  - many other components
  - system programs (privileged, and non-privileged)
- Major issue:
  - how do we organize all this?
  - what are all of the code modules, and where do they exist?
  - how do they cooperate?

- Massive software engineering and design problem
  - design a large, complex program that: performs well, is reliable, is extensible, and is backwards compatible.

1.13 Monolithic design

- Traditionally, OS*s* (like UNIX) were built as a *monolithic* entity User programs — OS (everything) — hardware
- Major advantage: cost of module interactions is low (procedure call)
- Disadvantages:
  - hard to understand
  - hard to modify
  - unreliable (no isolation between system modules)
  - hard to maintain
- What is the alternative?
  Find a way to organise the OS in order to simplify its design and implementation.

1.14 Layering

- The traditional approach is layering
  - implement OS as a set of layers
  - each layer presents an enhanced *virtual machine* to the layer above
- The first description of this approach was Dijkstra's THE system
  - Layer 5: *Job managers* execute users' programs
  - Layer 4: *Device managers* handle devices and provide buffering
  - Layer 3: *Console manager* implements virtual consoles
  - Layer 2: *Page manager* implements virtual memories for each process
  - Layer 1: *Kernel* implements a virtual processor for each process
  - Layer 0: *Hardware*
- Each layer can be tested and verified independently
- Imposes a hierarchical stricture
  - but real systems are more complex: file systems require VM services (buffer); VM would like to use files for its backing store
  - strict layering isn't flexible enough
- Poor performance: each layer crossing has *overhead* associated with it
- Disjunction between model and reality: systems modelled as layers, but not really built that way.

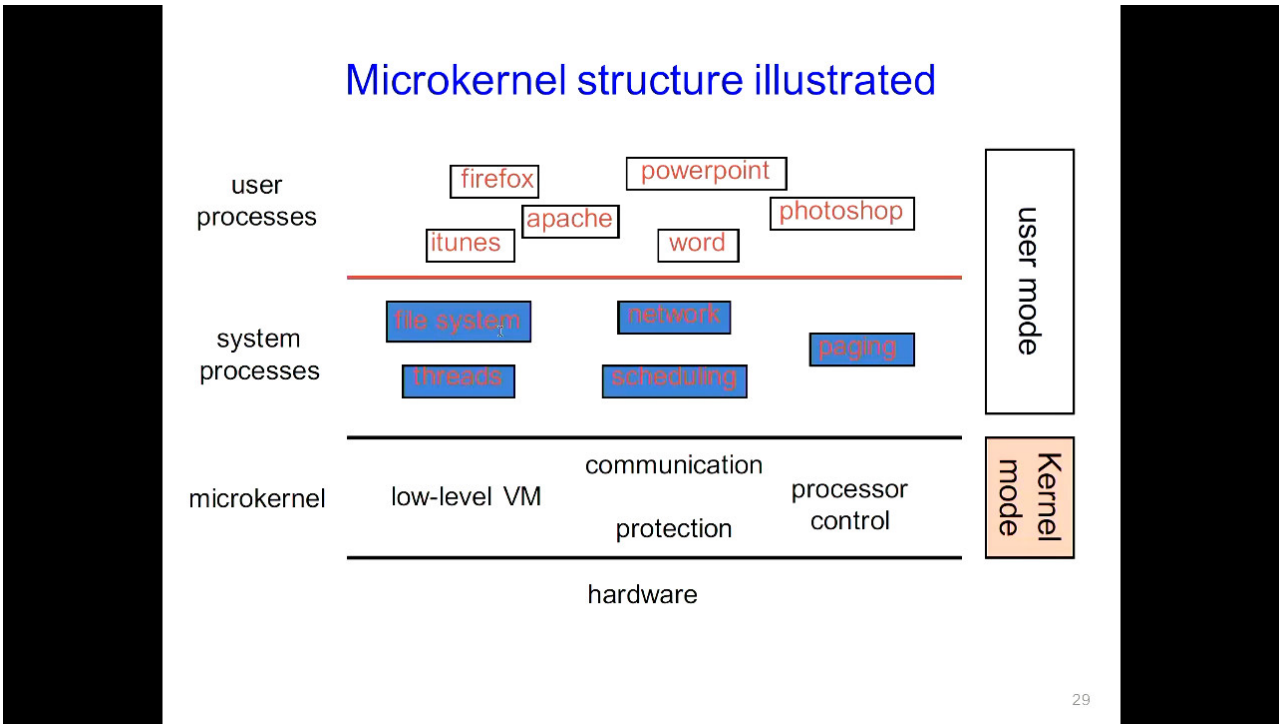
1.15 Hardware abstraction layer

- An example of layering in modern operating systems
- Goal: separates hardware-specific routines from the *core* OS

- Provides portability
- Improves readability

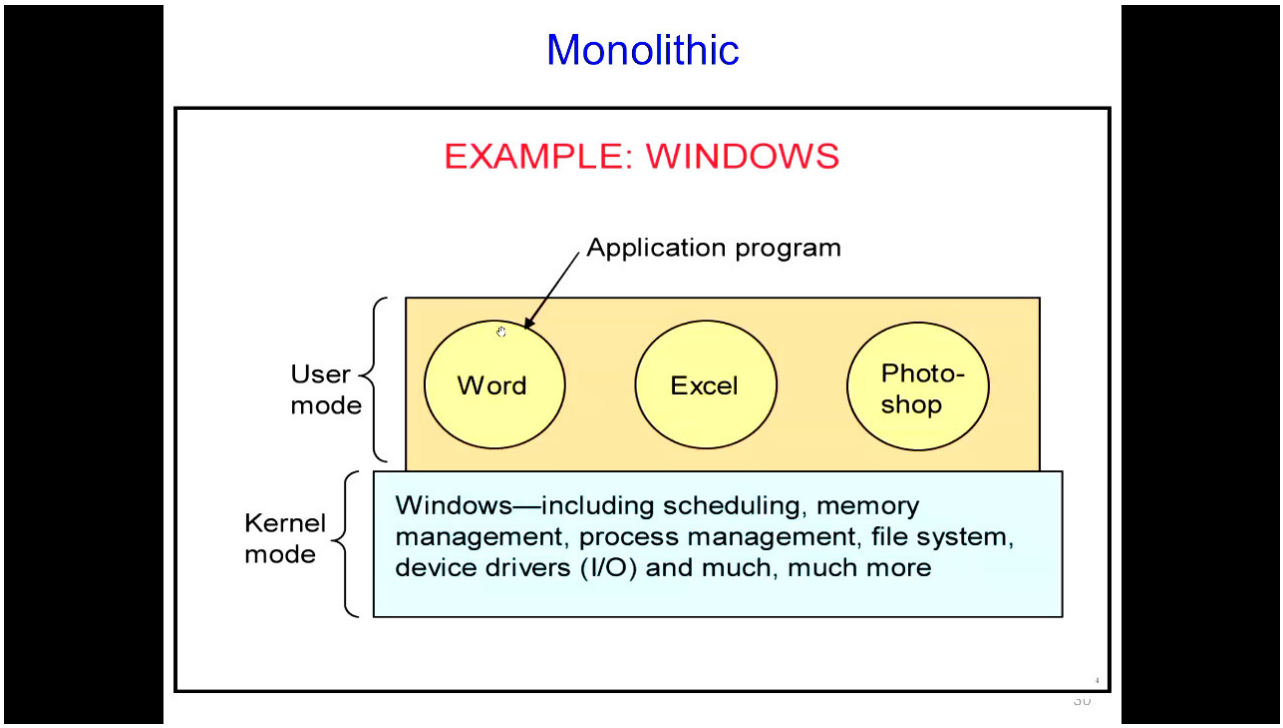
1.16 Microkernels

- Popular in the late 80s, early 90s
- Goal: minimize what happens in kernel; item organize rest of OS as user-level processes.
- This results in:
  - better reliability (isolation between components)
  - easy of extension and customisation
  - poor performance (user/kernel boundary crossings)
- First microkernel system was Hydra (CMU, 1970)
  - Contemporaries: Mach (CMU), Chorus (French UNIX-like OS), OS X (Apple), in some ways NT (Microsoft)

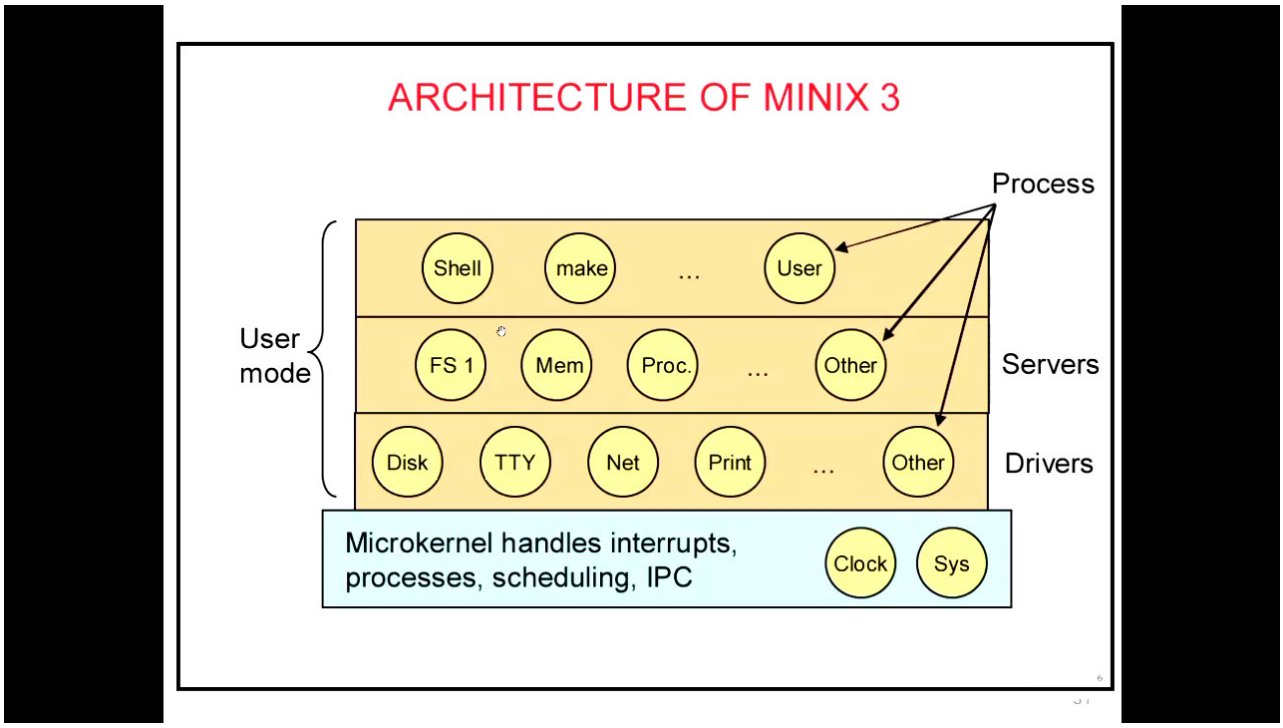


1.17 Comparison of OS structures

Windows



MINIX 3



1.18 Loadable kernel modules

- (Perhaps) the best practice for OS design
- Core services in the kernel, and others dynamically loaded
- Common implementations include: Solaris, Linux, etc.
- Advantages
  - convenient: no need for rebooting for newly added modules
  - efficient: no need for message passing unlike micro-kernel

- flexible: any module can call any other module unlike layered model

1.19 Summary

- Fundamental distinction between user and privileged mode supported by most hardware
- OS design has been an evolutionary process of trial and error.
- Successful OS designs have run the spectrum from monolithic, to layered, to micro-kernels
- The role and design of an OS are still evolving
- It is impossible to pick one "correct" way to structure an OS

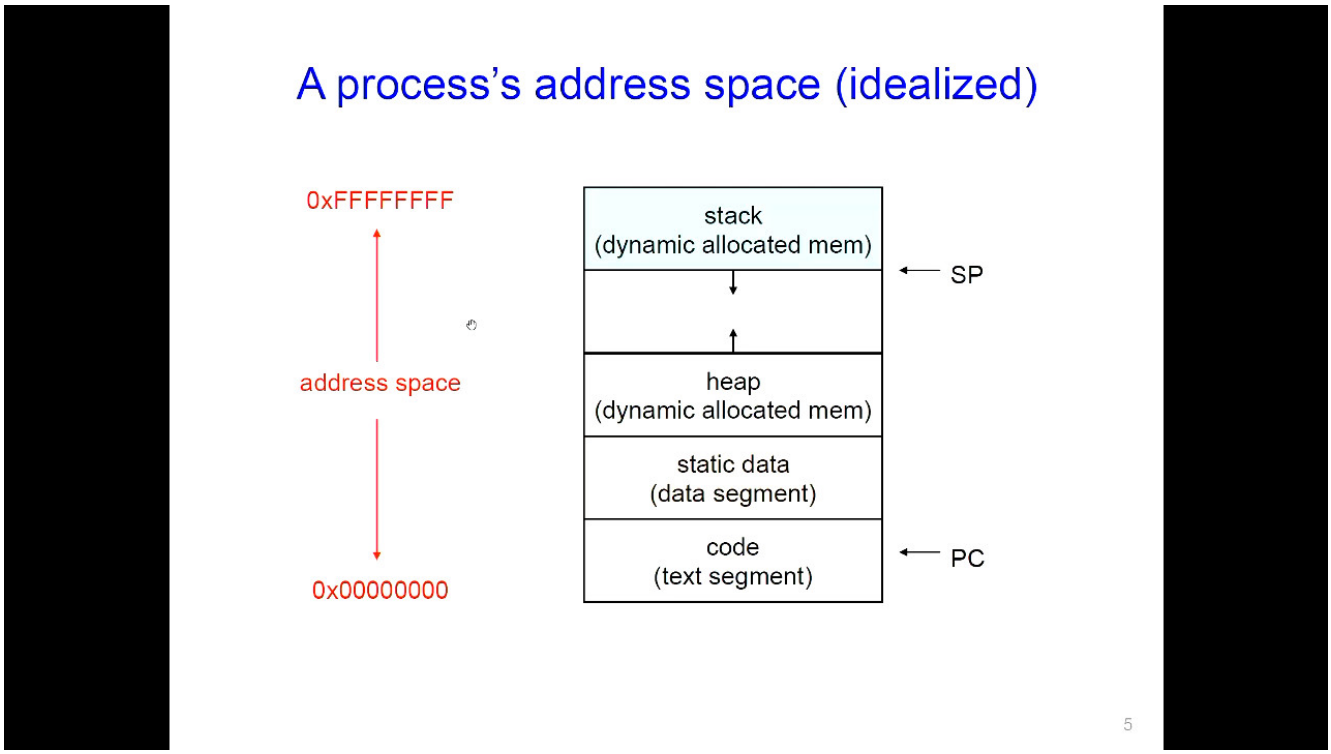
2 Lecture 3: Processes

2.1 What is a "process"?

- The process is the OS*s* abstraction for execution
  - A process is a program in execution
- Simplest (classic) case: a *sequential process*
  - An address space (an abstraction of memory)
  - A single thread of execution (an abstraction of the CPU)
- A sequential process is:
  - The unit of execution
  - The unit of scheduling
  - The dynamic (active) execution context (as opposed to the program — static, just a bunch of bytes)

2.2 What's "in" a process?

- A process consists of (at least):
  - An *address space*, containing:
    - the code (instructions) for the running program
    - the data for the running program (static data, heap data, stack)
  - *CPU state*, consisting of:
    - the program counter (PC), indicating the next instruction;
    - the stack pointer;
    - other general purpose register values.
  - A set of *OS resources*
    - open files, network connections, sound channels, ...
  - In other words, everything needed to run the program (or to restart, if interrupted).



2.3 The OS process namespace

- The particulars depend on the specific OS, but the principles are general;
- The name for a process is called a *process ID* (PID) (an integer);
- The PID namespace is global to the system;
- Operations that create processes return a PID (e.g. fork);
- Operations on processes take PIDs as an argument (e.g. kill, wait, nice).

2.4 Representation of processes by the OS

- The OS maintains a data structure to keep track of a process's state
  - called the *process control block* (PCB) or *process descriptor*;
  - identified by the PID.
- OS keeps all of a process's execution state in (or linked from) the PCB when the process isn't running
  - PC, SP, registers, etc.
  - when a process is unscheduled, the state is transferred out of the hardware into the PCB
  - (when a process is running, its state is spread between the PCB and the CPU).

2.5 The PCB

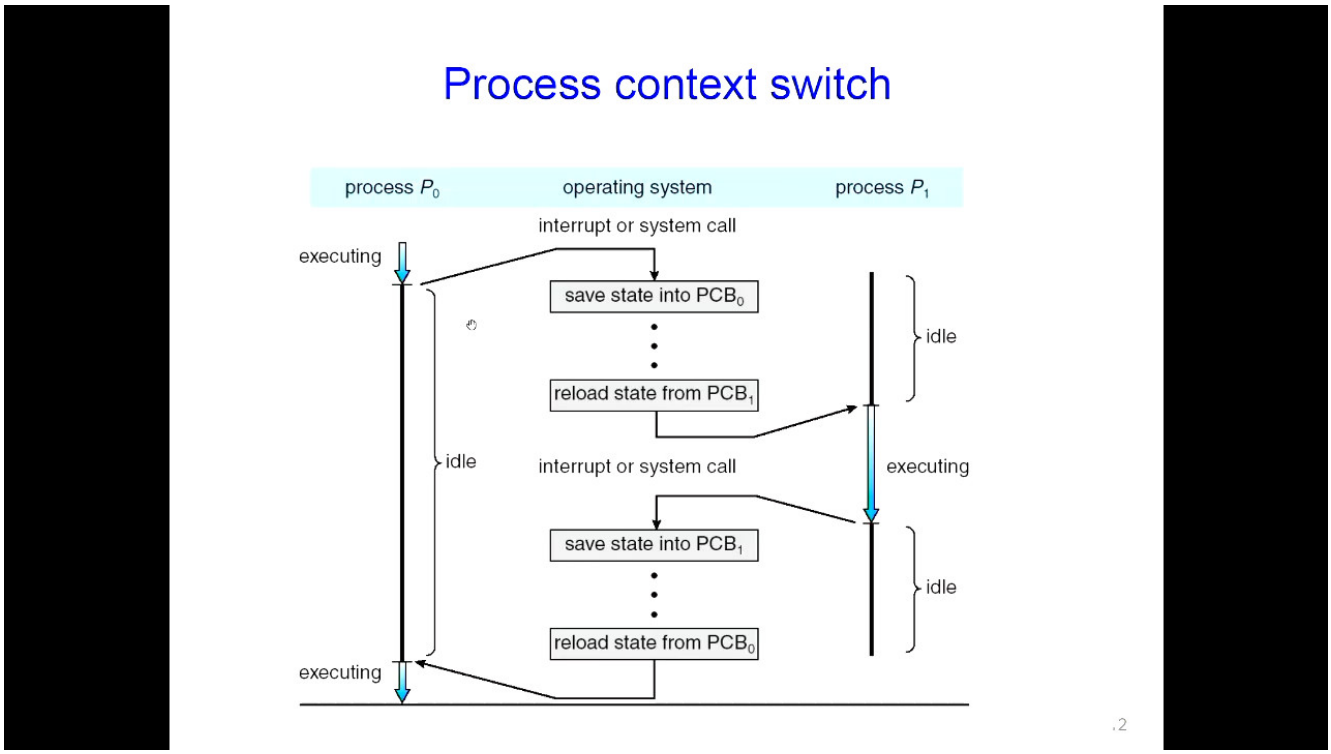
- The PCB is a data structure with many, many fields
  - PID
  - parent PID
  - execution state
  - PC, SP, registers

  - address space info
  - UNIX user id, group id
  - scheduling priority
  - accounting info
  - pointers for state queues
- In Linux:
  - defined in `task_struct (include/linux/sched.h)`
  - Over 95 fields!

2.6 PCBs and CPU state

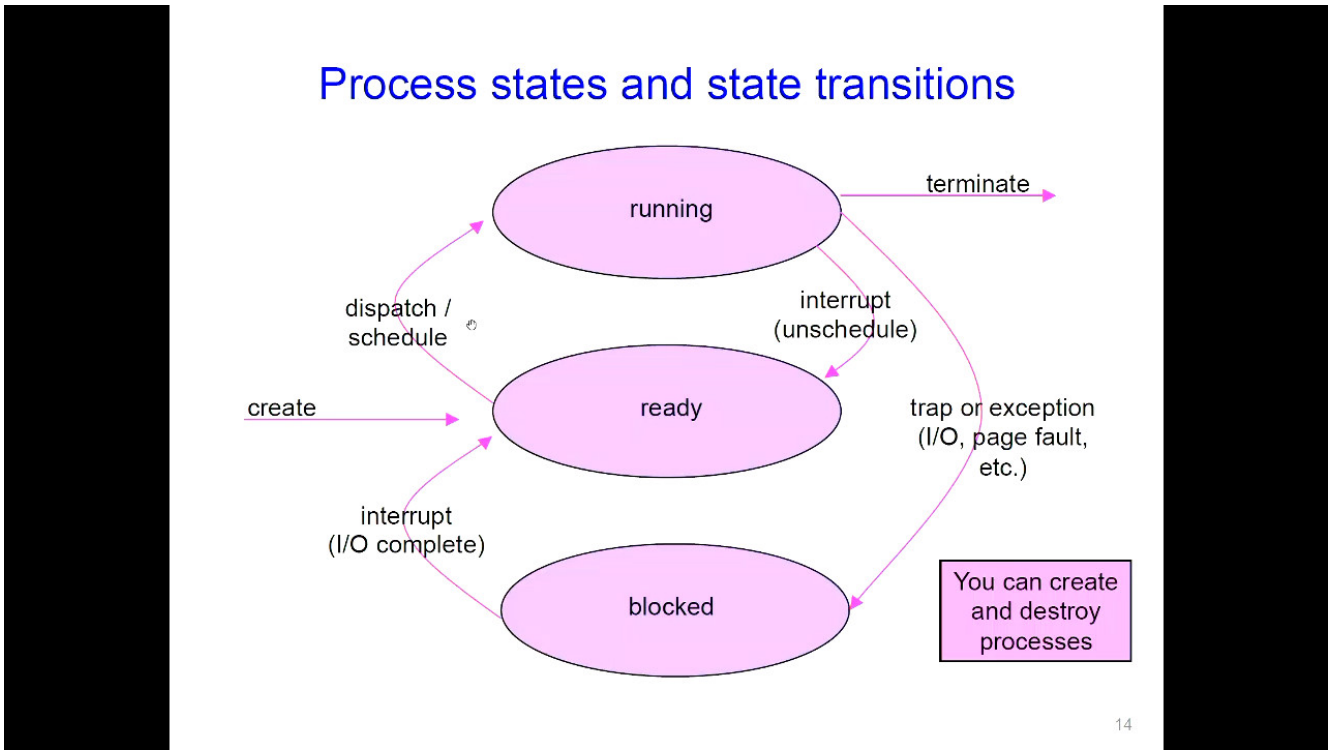
- When a process is running, its CPU state is inside the CPU
  - PC, SP, registers
  - CPU contains current values
- When the OS gets control because of a
  - *Trap*: program executes a syscall
  - *Exception*: program does something unexpected (e.g. page fault)
  - *Interrupt*: A hardware device requests service

  the OS saves the CPU state of the running process in that process's PCB.
- When the OS returns the process to the running state
  - it loads the hardware registers with values from that process's PCB
  - e.g. general purpose registers, SP, instruction pointer
- This act of switching the CPU from one process to another is called a *context switch*
  - systems may do 100s or 1000s of switches per second;
  - takes a few microseconds on today's hardware;
  - still expensive relative to thread-based context switches.
- Choosing which process to run next is called *scheduling*.



2.7 Process execution states

- Each process has an *execution state*, which indicates what it's currently doing
  - *ready*: waiting to be assigned to a CPU — could run, but another process has the CPU;
  - *running*: executing on a CPU — it's the process that currently controls the CPU;
  - *waiting* (aka "blocked"): waiting for an event, e.g. I/O completion, or a messing from (or the completion of) another process — cannot make progress until the event happens.
- As a process executes, it moves from state to state
  - UNIX: run `top`, STAT column shows current state
  - which state is a process most of the time?



2.8 State queues

- The OS maintains a collection of queues that represent the state of all processes in the system
  - typically one queue for each state (e.g. ready, waiting, ...);
  - each PCB is queued onto a state queue according to the current state of the process it represents;
  - as a process changes state, its PCB is unlinked from one queue, and linked onto another.
- The PCBs are moved between queues, which are represented as linked lists.
- There may be many wait queues, one for each type of wait (particular device, timer, message, ...).

2.9 PCBs and state queues

- PCBs are data structures
  - dynamically allocated inside OS memory.
- When a process is created:
  - OS allocates a PCB for it;
  - OS initializes PCB;
  - (OS does other things not related to the PCB);
  - OS puts PCB on the correct queue.
- As a process computes:
  - OS moves its PCB from queue to queue.
- When a process is terminated:
  - PCB may be retained for a while (to receive signals, etc.)

- eventually, OS deallocates the PCB.

2.10 Process creation

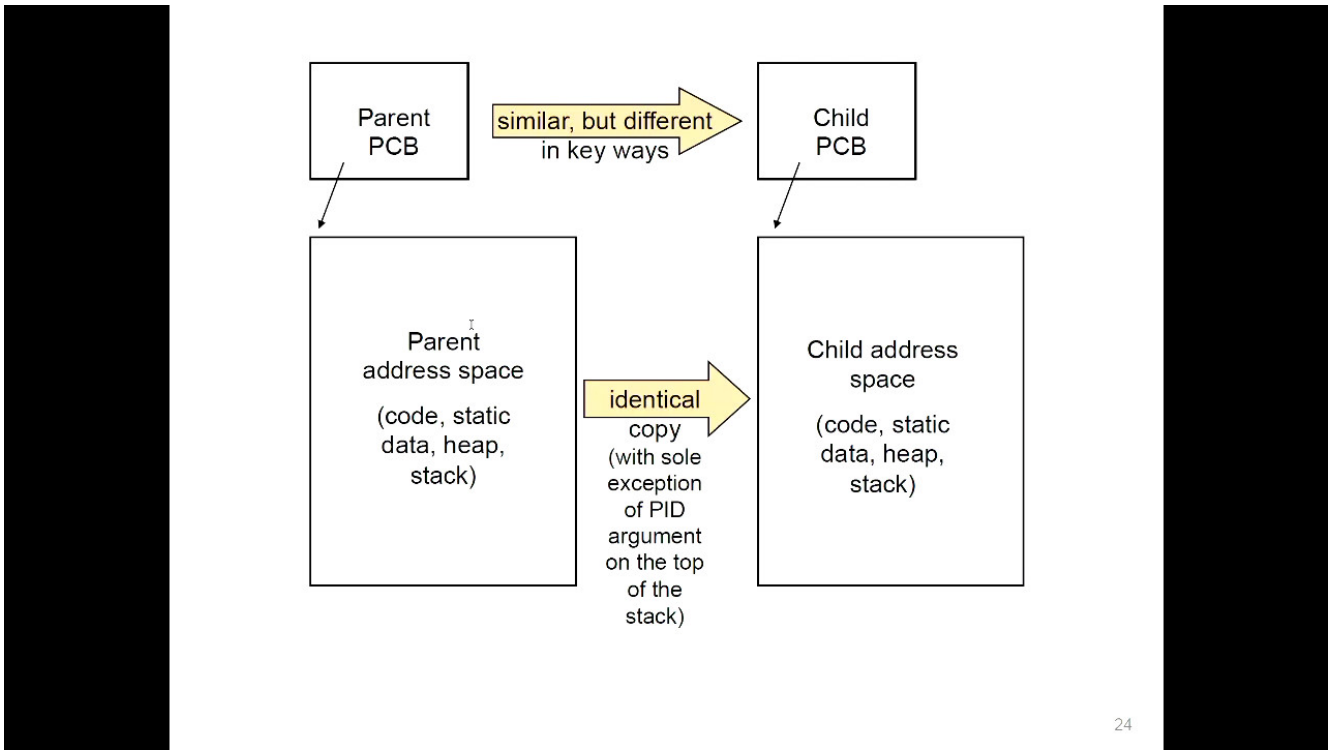
- New processes are created by existing processes
  - creator is called the *parent*;
  - created process is called the *child*;
    UNIX: do `ps -ef`, look for PPID field
  - what creates the first process, and when?
    on UNIX, this first process is init;
    on many Linux distributions, this is SystemD or Runit (on Void).

2.11 Process creation semantics

- (Depending on the OS) child processes inherit certain attributes of the parent. E.g.
  - Open file table: implies `stdin`/`stdout`/`stderr`;
  - On some systems, resource allocation to parent may be divided among children.
- (In Unix) when a child is created, the parent may either wait for the child to finish, or continue in parallel.

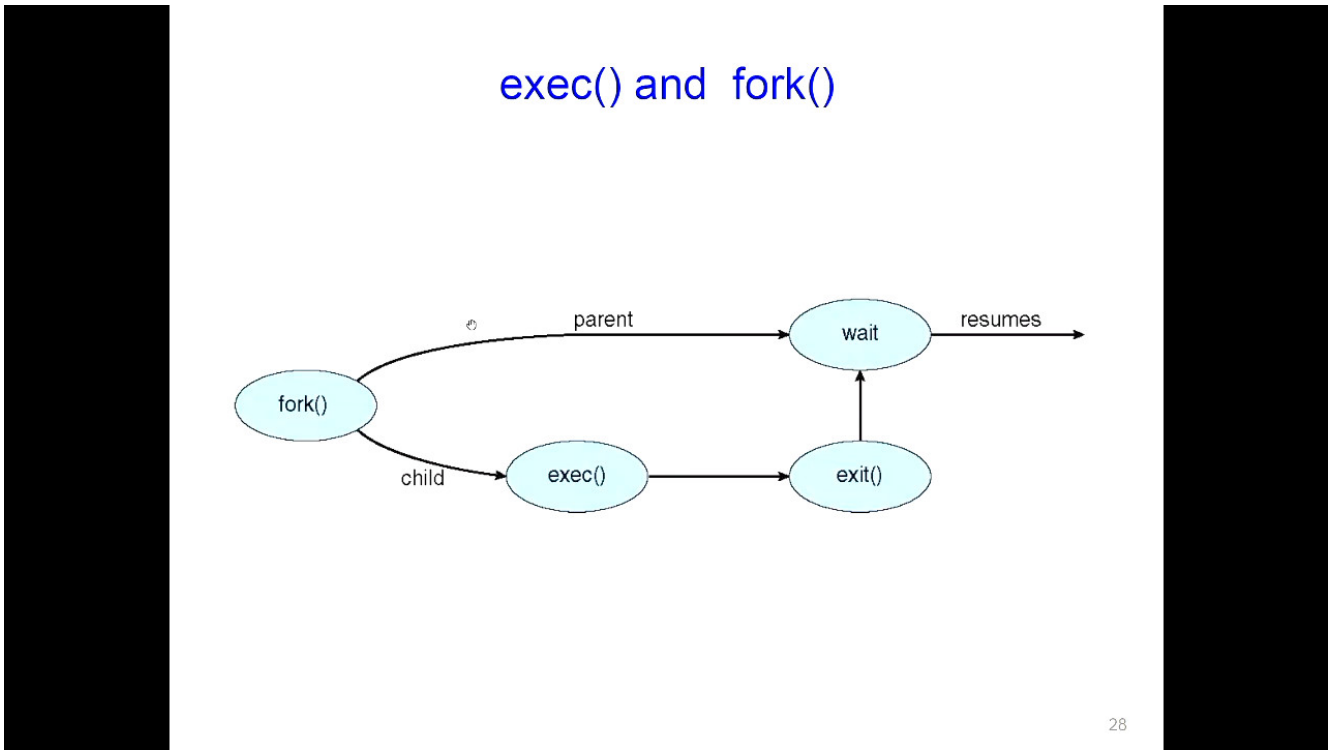
2.11.1 UNIX process creation details

- UNIX process creation through `fork` system call
  - creates and initializes a new PCB
    - initializes kernel resources of new process with resources of parent (e.g. open files)
    - initializes PC, SP to be same as parent.
  - creates a new address space
    - initialises new address space with a copy of the entire contents of the address space of the parent
  - places new PCB on the ready queue.
- the `fork` system call "returns twice"
  - once into the parent, and once into the child
    - returns the child's PID to the parent
    - returns `0` to the child
- `fork` = "clone me".
  The return value is used to determine whether we're the clone or the original.



2.12 `exec` v.s. `fork`

- Q: So how do we start a new program, instead of just forking the old program?
- A: First `fork`, then `exec`.
- `exec`
  - stops the current process
  - loads program 'prog' into the address space (i.e. overwrites the existing process image)
  - initialises hardware context, args for new program
  - places PCB onto ready queue
  - *does not create a new process!*



2.13 Method 1: `vfork`

- `vfork` is the older (now uncommon) of the two approaches.
- Instead of "child's address space is a copy of the parent's", the semantics are "child's address space *is* the parent's",
  - with a "promise" that the child won't modify the address space before doing an `execve`.
  - When `execve` is called, a new address space is created and it's loaded with the new executable.
  - Parent is blocked until `execve` is executed by child.
  - Saves wasted effort of duplicating parent's address space.

2.14 Method 2: copy-on-write

- Retains the original semantics, but copies "only what is necessary" rather than the entire address space.
- On `fork`:
  - Create a new address space
  - Initialise page tables with same mappings as the parent's (i.e. they both point to the same physical memory).
    - (No copying of address space contents have occurred at this point — with the sole exception of the top page of the stack.)
  - Set both parent and child page tables to make all pages read-only
  - If either parent or child writes to memory, an exception occurs.
  - When exception occurs, OS copies the page, adjusts page tables, etc.

2.15 Summary

- Process
- PCB
- Process state
- Context switch
- Process creation and termination