

Introduction to Operating Systems

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Based on slides by Troels Henriksen

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Incorporating material by Mathias Payer
(<https://github.com/HexHive/OSTEP-slides>).

The purpose of operating systems

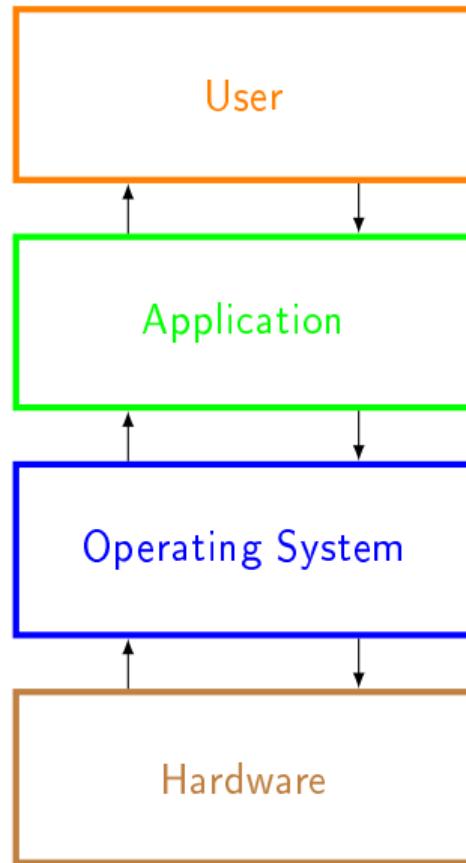
Kernel and Processes

System calls

Process management in Unix

Main takeaways

What is an operating system?



OS is middleware between applications and hardware.

- Provides standardized interface to resources.
- Manages hardware.
- Orchestrates currently executing processes.
- Responds to resource access requests.
- Handles access control.

Why study operating systems?

Inspirational

- One of the most potent *abstractions* in computing.
 - ▶ Each process thinks it has machine to itself.
 - ▶ Controlled communication.
 - ▶ Abstracts over hardware differences.

Practical

- You almost always use an operating system.
- Its performance characteristics are important to understand.
- It often determines what is fundamentally possible.

They are where the magic happens.

In the old days

Each brand of machine would have its own operating system.



IBM System/360 running OS/360 (man not part of computer)



DEC PDP-10 running TENEX

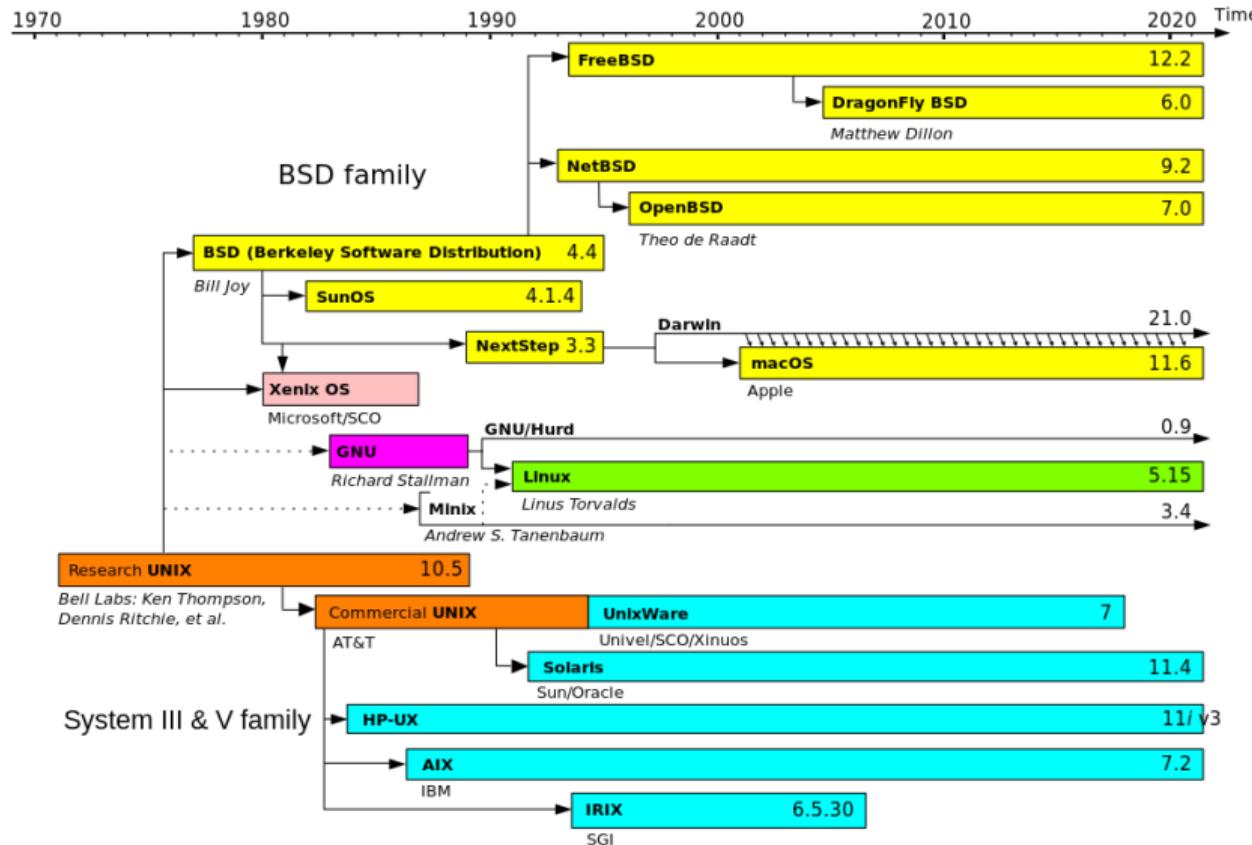


VAX 11/780 running VMS



- PDP-11 running early UNIX, written in C.
- Developed at AT&T, who were banned from selling UNIX.
- Shared it (almost) freely with others, who *ported* UNIX to every machine under the sun.
- Unix was *popular, good enough, and cheap.*

Unix lifetime



What is Unix

- What?**
- Unix is a family of operating systems derived from original UNIX developed in the 1970s by Ken Thompson and Dennis Ritchie.
 - Most modern operating systems are heavily influenced by Unix (even Windows).
 - Many operating systems are *direct descendants*: Linux, iOS, macOS, the BSDs, etc.
- Why?**
- We teach Unix because it is *simple* and *representative* of modern systems.
 - We use Unix designs for all examples.
 - ...does not mean Unix is always *good design*.

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More than one process

- So far we've made strictly *sequential* code that does one thing after another until it is done.
- This is a useful (and not inaccurate) concept for how our programs run.
- But is also not entirely true...

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- So far we've made strictly *sequential* code that does one thing after another until it is done.
- This is a useful (and not inaccurate) concept for how our programs run.
- But is also not entirely true...
- Modern computers run many processes at once, to manage different devices and services.
- If all processes ran entirely sequentially then we'd have to wait for the clock to finish before we could browse the internet
- A key abstraction the OS provides us is the concept of a process, to allow different sequential systems to be interleaved.

Processes contra programs

Program: is a file containing code. Stateless and **dead**.

Process: a running *instance* of a program. The same program can be running in multiple instances. Stateful and **alive**.

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- Operating systems manage *processes*.
 - ▶ Switching between multiple *concurrent* processes.
 - ▶ Handling process termination.
 - ▶ Starting new processes (perhaps from a given *program file*).

The kernel

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Kernel

Always-resident code that services requests from the hardware and manages processes.
It is not a process.

- The kernel uses the same CPU, memory, and other hardware as ordinary code.
- When running process code, the CPU is in *unprivileged state*, and many operations are restricted (e.g. access to hardware devices).
 - ▶ When an *interrupt* happens, the CPU switches to *privileged state* and jumps to kernel code, which handles it and then resumes the previously running process.
 - ▶ Think of it like a sudden and unplanned procedure call.
 - ▶ Interrupts can be outside events (keyboard press, network traffic) or special instructions (invalid memory accesses, *system calls*).

Virtualising the CPU

Goal Give each process the illusion of exclusive CPU access.

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Solution: context switching

- Only one process gets to run at a time.
- ...but we regularly switch between available processes.
- Doing this often and rapidly creates the illusion of simultaneous execution.

Context switching

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So when do we do this?

- Regular *timer interrupts* transfer control to the kernel, whose *scheduler* decides the next process to run.
 - ▶ Scheduling is a big and interesting topic that we don't have time to go into.

We've seen this before...

- Recall from our time with Assembler we discussed procedures
- In that context we presented the shift in control as between different function calls
- The same principle applies here, control is shifted from one process to another, though *usually* lacks a direct communication between them.
- But the same principle applies, memory must be saved and maintained between switches.
- But in this context, EVERYTHING must be saved.

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System calls

- Only the kernel has direct access to hardware and system memory.
- Whenever we want to do IO we have to perform a *system call*.

System calls

A request by a process that the kernel carries out some operation on its behalf.

- Much like a function call, but implemented very differently.

System calls in RISC-V

- The `ecall` (*environment call*) instruction transfers control to the kernel.
 - ▶ Kernel then inspects registers (mostly `a0-a7`) to see what it has been asked to do.
 - ▶ Specific interpretation varies between operating systems.
 - ▶ System call identified by a number.

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In RARS

<https://github.com/TheThirdOne/rars/wiki/Environment-Calls>

- System call number passed in `a7`.
- Excerpt:

Human name	Number	Description	Reads	Writes
PrintInt	1	Prints int to console.	a0	
ReadInt	5	Reads int from console.		a0

How does that work?

- These system calls are both very basic, but also 'higher level' than assembly calls;
- Recall that most input/output really is just file manipulation.
- Many of these OS calls are really just shortcuts to reading or writing to certain files.

Used in A0's `io.s` (Not any more :P)

```
read_loop:  
    beq    t1, t2, read_done  
    li     a7, 5  
    ecall           # read int  
    sw    a0, 0(t0)  
    addi   t0, t0, 4      # next output addr  
    addi   t1, t1, 1      # increment count  
    jal    zero, read_loop
```

System calls in C

- C exposes system calls as functions.
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Example

```
// system calls
int open(const char *pathname, int flags);
ssize_t write(int fd, const void *buf, size_t count);

// stdio functions
FILE *fopen(const char *pathname, const char *mode);
size_t fwrite(const void *ptr, size_t size, size_t nmemb,
              FILE *stream);
```

File descriptors

```
int open(const char *pathname, int flags);  
  
ssize_t write(int fd, const void *buf, size_t count);
```

- The `int` returned by `open` is a *file descriptor*.
- Has no significance in itself, but allows the kernel to recognise the open file when passed to other system calls.
 - ▶ Typically an index into some kernel-side table.
 - ▶ Such values are known as *handles*.
- Passing complex data structures or pointers between *kernel space* and *user space* is annoying and fragile, so we usually use numeric identifiers instead.

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Basic principles

- Each process in Unix has a *process ID* (PID).
- Each process has a *parent*.
 - ▶ ...except the *initial process* (`init`) with PID 1.
- A process may have multiple *children*.
- Implies processes are organised as a *tree* (`pstree` command shows it).
- **Creating processes:** `fork()`.
- **Terminating current process:** `exit()`.
- **Loading program code from disk into current process:** `exec()`.
- **Waiting for a specific child to die:** `waitpid()`.
- **Getting PID of running process:** `getpid()`.

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- Hardware provides *mechanisms* such as interrupts, privileged/unprivileged mode, and *virtual memory* (next week).
 - ▶ Kernels implement *policy* and *abstractions* on top.
- Processes are a *purely virtual concept*—CPU has no idea what they are.
- Processes are *isolated* from each other.
- Processes can only directly interact with the outside world through *system calls*, mediated by the kernel.