

# Operating System Concepts

Che-Wei Chang

chewei@mail.cgu.edu.tw

Department of Computer Science and Information Engineering, Chang Gung University

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- 2. System Structures
- 3. Process Concept
- 4. Multithreaded Programming
- 5. Process Scheduling
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- 10. File System
- 11. Implementing File Systems
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## Chapter 9. Virtual-Memory Management

#### Objectives

- ▶ To describe the benefits of a virtual memory system
- To explain the concepts of demand paging, pagereplacement algorithms, and allocation of page frames
- ▶ To discuss the principle of the working-set model

### Background

#### Virtual Memory

 A technique that allows the execution of a process that may not be completely in memory

#### Motivation

- An entire program in execution may not all be needed at the same time
  - Error handling routines
  - A large array

#### Virtual Memory

- Potential Benefits
  - Programs can be much larger than the amount of physical memory
    - Users can concentrate on their problem programming
  - The level of multiprogramming increases because processes occupy less physical memory
  - Each user program may run faster because less I/O is needed for loading or swapping user programs
- Implementation: demand paging

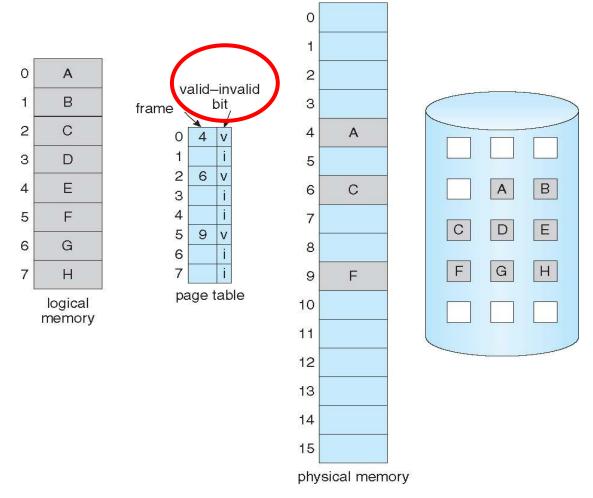
#### Demand Paging-Lazy Swapper

- Process image may reside on the backing store
  - Rather than swap in the entire process image into memory Lazy Swapper only swaps in a page when it is needed
- A mechanism is required to recover from the missing of non-resident referenced pages
  - A Page Fault occurs when a process references a non-memoryresident page

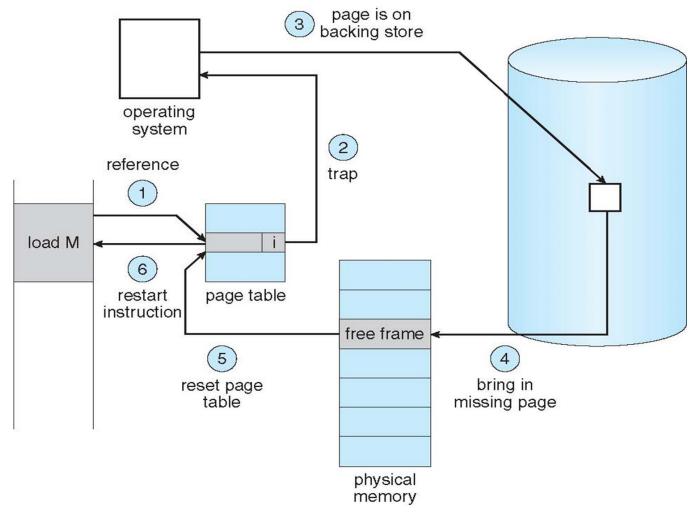
## Hardware Support for Demand Paging

- New bits in the page table
  - To indicate that a page is now in memory or not
- Secondary storage management
  - Swap space in the backing store
    - A continuous section of space in the secondary storage for better performance

#### Valid-Invalid Bits



### Steps in Handling a Page Fault



#### Copy-on-Write

- **Copy-on-Write** (COW) allows both parent and child processes to initially *share* the same pages in memory
  - If either process modifies a shared page, then the page is copied
- COW allows more efficient process creation as only modified pages are copied
- In general, free pages are allocated from a pool of zero-fill-on-demand pages

## Performance of Demand Paging

- ▶ Page Fault Rate  $0 \le p \le 1$ 
  - if p = 0 no page faults
  - if p = 1, every reference is a fault
- ▶ Effective Access Time (EAT)

```
EAT = (1 - p) x memory-access time
```

- + p ( page fault overhead
  - + swap page out
  - + swap page in
  - + restart overhead )



### An Example of Demand Paging

- ▶ Memory access time = 200 nanoseconds
- ▶ Average page-fault service time = 8 milliseconds
- EAT = (1 p) x 200 + p x 8,000,000 = 200 + p x 7,999,800
- If one access out of 1,000 causes a page fault, then EAT = 8.2 microseconds!
- ▶ If we want performance degradation < 10 percent
  - 220 > 200 + 7,999,800 x p
  - p < 0.0000025



### Performance Improvement of Demand Paging

- Preload processes into the swap space before they start up
- Preload pages into the main memory before the pages are used
- Design a good page replacement algorithm

### Algorithms for Demand Paging

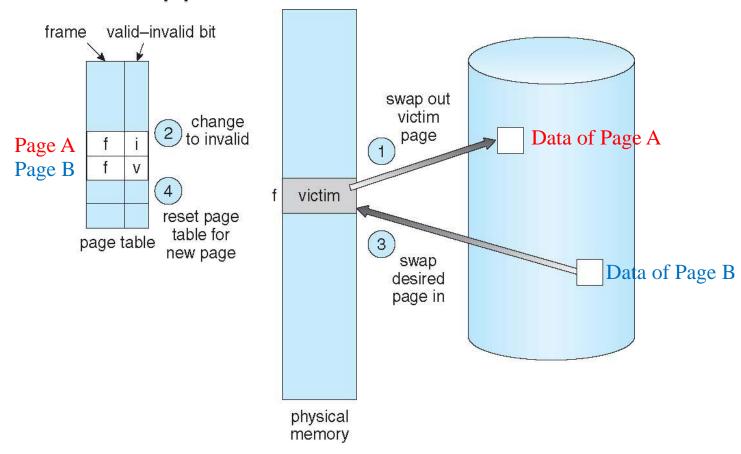
- Frame Allocation Algorithms
  - How many frames are allocated to a process?
- Page Replacement Algorithms
  - When page replacement is required, select the frame that is to be replaced!
- Goal: A low page fault rate!

#### Page Replacement

- Demand paging increases the multiprogramming level of a system by "potentially" over-allocating memory
  - Total physical memory = 40 frames
  - Run six processes of size equal to 10 frames
  - Each process currently uses only 5 frames
    - → 10 spare frames
- Most of the time, the average memory usage is close to the physical memory size if we increase a system's multiprogramming level

#### Victim Pages

#### What happens if there is no free frame?

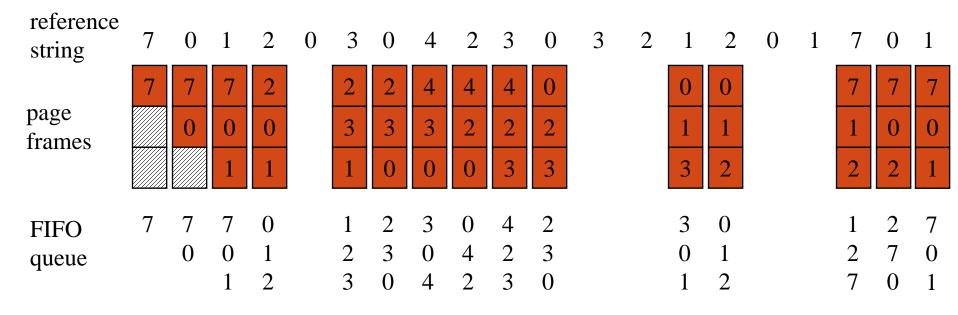


#### A Page-Fault Service

- Find the desired page on the disk
- Find a free frame
  - Select a victim and write the victim page out when there is no free frame
- ▶ Read the desired page into the selected frame
- Update the page and frame tables, and restart the user process

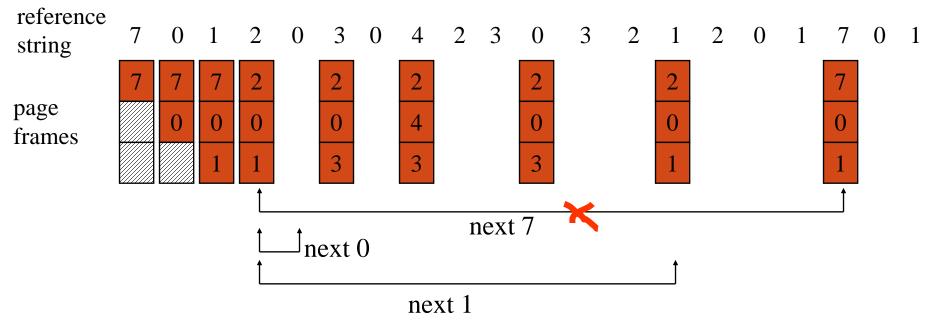
## Page Replacement — FIFO Algorithm

- First In First Out (FIFO) Implementation
  - 1. Each page is given a time stamp when it is brought into memory
  - 2. Select the oldest page for replacement



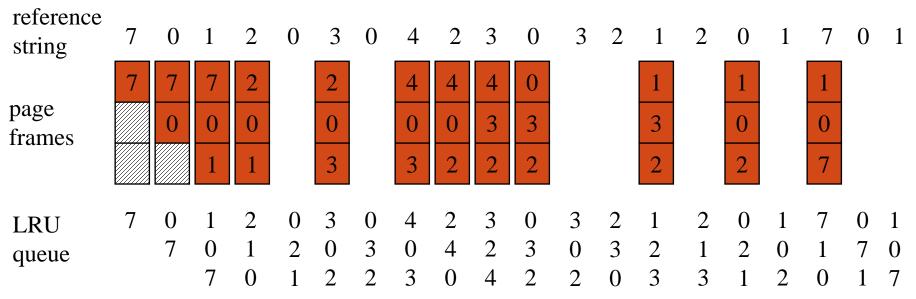
## Page Replacement — Optimal Algorithm

- Optimality
  - One with the lowest page fault rate
- Replace the page that will not be used for the longest period of time → It needs future prediction



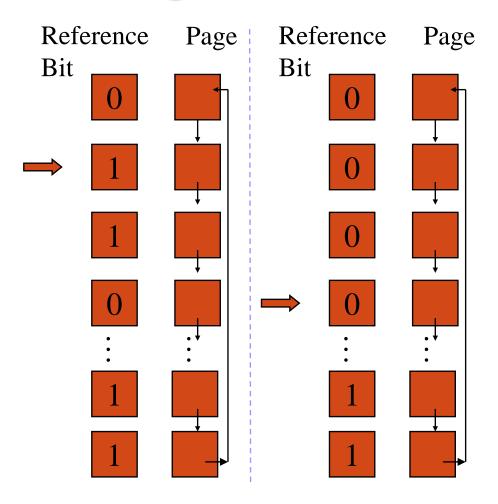
#### Page Replacement — Least-Recently-Used Algorithm

- ▶ Least-Recently-Used Algorithm (LRU)
  - We don't have knowledge about the future
  - Thus, we use the history of page referencing in the past to predict the future
  - → However, it is too expensive to update the time stamp for each memory access!



## Page Replacement — LRU Approximation Algorithms

- Second-Chance Algorithm
  - When a page is selected
    - Take it as a victim if its reference bit = 0
    - Otherwise, clear the bit and advance to the next page
- Basic Data Structure
  - Use a reference bit for each page in memory
  - Define a circular FIFO queue of pages



## Enhanced Second-Chance Algorithm

Considering the reference bit and the modify bit as an ordered pair

Low Priority

High

**Priority** 

- (0, 0) neither recently used nor modified best page to replace
- (0, 1) not recently used but modified the page will need to be written out before replacement
- (1, 0) recently used but clean probably will be used again soon
- (1, 1) recently used and modified probably will be used again soon, and the page will need to be written out to disk before it can be replaced
- We replace the first page encountered in the lowest nonempty class

#### Counting-Based Algorithms

#### Motivation:

- Count the number of references made to each page, instead of their referencing times
- ▶ Least Frequently Used Algorithm (LFU)
  - LFU pages are less actively used pages
  - Hazard: Some heavily used pages may no longer be used
    - A Solution Aging
  - Pages with the smallest number of references are probably just brought in and has yet to be used
- Most Frequently Used Algorithm (MFU)
- ▶ LFU & MFU replacement schemes can be fairly expensive
- They do not approximate OPT very well

### Page Buffering

- ▶ Basic Idea: to reduce the latency for writing victims out
  - Systems keep a pool of free frames
  - Desired pages are first "swapped in" some frames in the pool
  - When the selected page (victim) is later written out, its frame is returned to the pool
- Basic Approach
  - Maintain a list of modified pages
  - Whenever the paging device is idle, a modified page is written out and reset its "modify bit"
  - The clean pages can be included in the pool

#### Allocation of Frames (1/2)

- ▶ Each process needs minimum number of frames
- ▶ Example: IBM 370 6 pages to handle SS MOVE instruction:
  - instruction is 6 bytes, might span 2 pages
  - 2 pages to handle *from*
  - 2 pages to handle to
- Maximum of course is total frames in the system
- Fixed allocation
  - Use a formula to derive the number of required frames for each application
- Dynamic allocation
  - Measure some behavior, e.g. page fault rated, to know the needs of applications



#### Allocation of Frames (2/2)

#### Global Allocation

- Processes can take frames from others
- For example, high-priority processes can increase its frame allocation at the expense of the low-priority processes

#### Local Allocation

- Processes can only select frames from their own allocated frames
- The set of pages in memory for a process is affected by the paging behavior of only that process

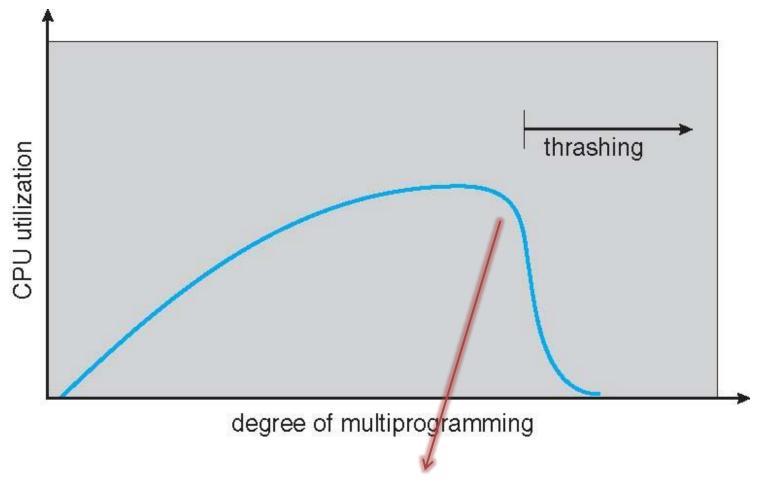
#### Non-Uniform Memory Access

- ▶ Many systems are NUMA speed of access to memory varies
  - Consider system boards containing CPUs and memory, interconnected over a system bus
- Optimal performance comes from allocating memory "close to" the CPU on which the thread is scheduled
  - Modifying the scheduler to schedule the thread on the same CPU when possible

### Thrashing (1/2)

- If a process does not have "enough" memory frames, the page-fault rate is very high
  - Page fault to get pages into memory frames
  - Replace existing pages in frames
  - But soon need to get the replaced pages back
  - This leads to:
    - Low CPU utilization
    - Operating system is then thinking that it needs to increase the degree of multiprogramming
    - Another processes are added to the system
    - More page faults
- ► Thrashing → Process is busy swapping pages in and out

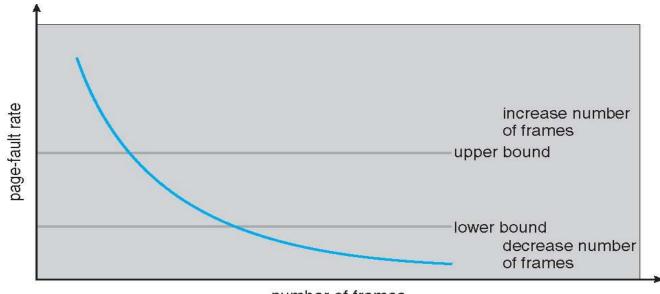
## Thrashing (2/2)



Be careful of the page fault rate

#### Page-Fault Frequency

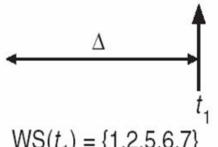
- Establish "acceptable" page-fault frequency rate and use local replacement policy
  - Control thrashing directly through the observation on the page-fault rate
  - If actual rate too low, process loses frame
  - If actual rate too high, process gains frame



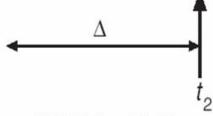
#### Working-Set Model (1/2)

#### page reference table

... 2615777751623412344434344413234443444...



$$WS(t_1) = \{1,2,5,6,7\}$$



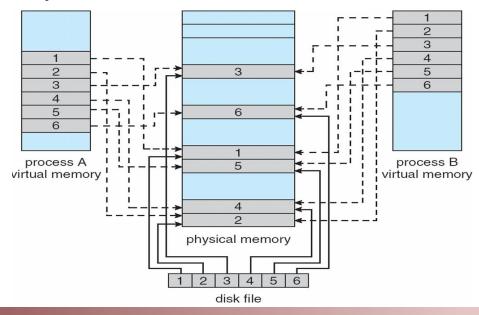
$$WS(t_2) = \{3,4\}$$

#### Working-Set Model (2/2)

- $\triangle \equiv$  a working-set window  $\equiv$  a fixed number of page references
  - Example: 10,000 instructions
- ▶  $WSS_i$  (working set of Process  $P_i$ ) = total number of pages referenced in the most recent  $\triangle$ 
  - if  $\triangle$  is too small: will not encompass entire locality
  - if  $\triangle$  is too large: will encompass several localities
  - if  $\triangle = \infty$ : will encompass entire program
- $D = \Sigma WSS_i \equiv \text{total demand frames}$ 
  - Approximation of locality
- if  $D > the number of frames \rightarrow$  Thrashing

#### Memory-Mapped Files

- Memory-mapped file I/O allows file I/O to be treated as routine memory access by mapping a disk block to a page in memory
  - But when does written data make it to disk?
  - Periodically and/or at file close() time

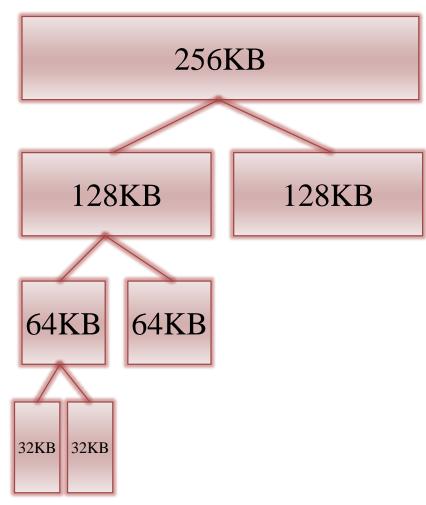


#### Memory-Mapped I/O

- Processor can have direct access
- Memory-Mapped I/O
  - (1) Frequently used devices
  - (2) Devices must be fast, such as video controller, or special I/O instructions are used to move data between memory & device controller registers
- Programmed I/O polling
  - or interrupt-driven handling

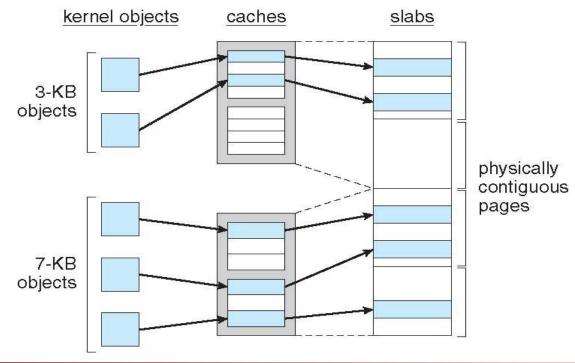
#### Kernel Memory Allocation (1/2)

- ▶ The Buddy System
  - A fixed-size segment of physically contiguous pages
  - A power-of-2 allocator
  - Advantage: quick coalescing algorithms
  - Disadvantage: internal fragmentation



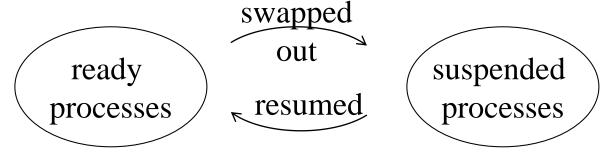
#### Kernel Memory Allocation (2/2)

- Slab Allocation
  - Slab: one or more physically contiguous pages
  - Cache: one or more slabs with the same size



#### Other Considerations: Pre-Paging

- Pre-Paging
  - Bring into memory at one time all the pages that will be needed!



Do pre-paging if the working set is known!

Issue

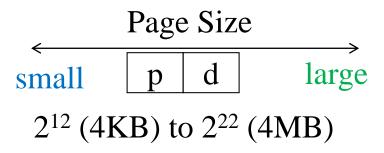
Pre-Paging Cost ← Cost of Page Fault Services

Not every page in the working set will be used!

#### Other Considerations: Page Size

Page Size

Better
Resolution
for Locality &
Internal
Fragmentation



Smaller Page
Table Size &
Better I/O
Efficiency

- Trends: Large Page Size
  - The CPU speed and the memory capacity grow much faster than the disk speed!

#### Other Considerations: TLB Reach

- TLB Reach The amount of memory accessible from the TLB
- ► TLB Reach = (TLB Size) X (Page Size)
- Ideally, the working set of each process is stored in the TLB
  - Otherwise there is a high degree of page faults
- Increase the Page Size
  - This may lead to an increase in fragmentation as not all applications require a large page size

# Other Considerations: Program Structures

- Program Structures:
  - int data [1024][1024];
  - Each row is stored in one page
  - Program 1

for 
$$(j = 0; j < 1024; j++)$$
  
for  $(i = 0; i < 1024; i++)$   
data[i][j] = 0;

1024 x 1024 page faults

Program 2

1024 page faults

# Other Considerations: I/O Interlock

- ► I/O Interlock Pages must sometimes be locked into memory
- Consider I/O Pages that are used for copying a file from a device must be locked from being selected for eviction by a page replacement algorithm

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# File Concepts

#### File Attributes

- ▶ Name only information kept in human-readable form
- ▶ **Identifier** unique tag (number) identifies file within file system
- ▶ **Type** needed for systems that support different types
- ▶ **Location** pointer to file location on device
- ▶ **Size** current file size
- ▶ **Protection** controls who can do reading, writing, executing
- ▶ Time, date, and user identification data for protection, security, and usage monitoring
- Information about files are kept in the directory structure, which is maintained on the disk
- Many variations, including extended file attributes such as file checksum

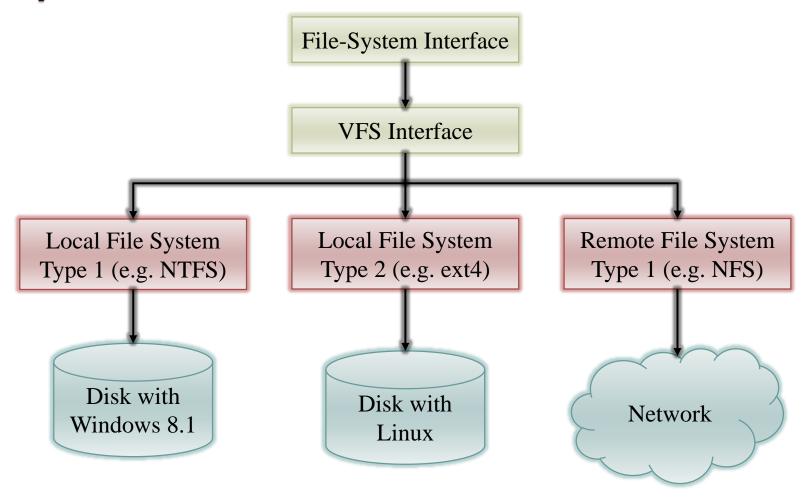
## File Operations

- File is an abstract data type
- Create
- ▶ Write at write pointer location
- ▶ **Read** at **read pointer** location
- **▶** Reposition within file seek
- Delete
- Truncate
- $Open(F_i)$  search the directory structure on disk for entry  $F_i$ , and move the content of entry to memory
- Close  $(F_i)$  move the content of entry  $F_i$  in memory to directory structure on disk

## File Systems

- Microsoft Windows File Systems
  - FAT
  - NTFS
  - exFAT
- Linux File Systems
  - ext2
  - ext3
  - ext4
  - JFFS → for Flash devices
- Network File Systems
  - NFS
  - Samba

# Schematic View of Virtual File System



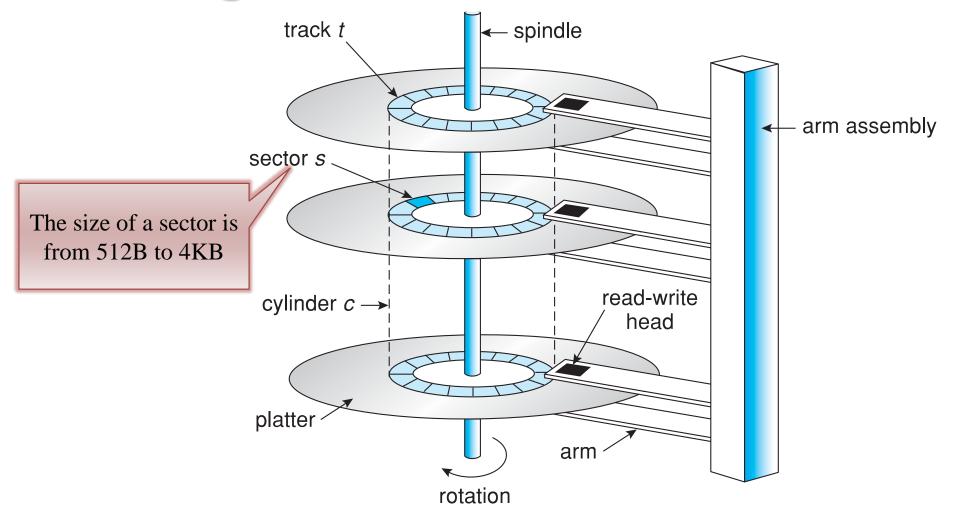
#### Virtual File System

- Virtual File Systems (VFS) on provide an object-oriented way of implementing file systems
- VFS allows the same system call interface (the API) to be used for different types of file systems
  - Separates file-system generic operations from implementation details
  - Implementation can be one of many file systems types, or network file system
  - Then dispatches operation to appropriate file system implementation routines
- ▶ The API is to the VFS interface, rather than any specific type of file system



# Mass-Storage Structure

#### Moving-Head Disk Mechanism



## Disk Scheduling

- ▶ The disk I/O request specifies several pieces of information:
  - Whether this operation is input or output
  - What the disk address for the transfer is
  - What the memory address for the transfer is
  - What the number of sectors to be transferred is
- When there are multiple request pending, a good disk scheduling algorithm is required
  - Fairness: which request is the most urgent one
  - Performance: sequential access is preferred

Cylinders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Requests	5	7	2	6	4	1	3

Resort the requests?

#### Magnetic Disk Performance

- Access Latency = Average access time = average seek
   time + average rotation latency
  - For fastest disk 3ms + 2ms = 5ms
  - For slow disk 9ms + 5.56ms = 14.56ms
- Average I/O time = average access time + (amount to transfer / transfer rate) + controller overhead



# System Protection and Security

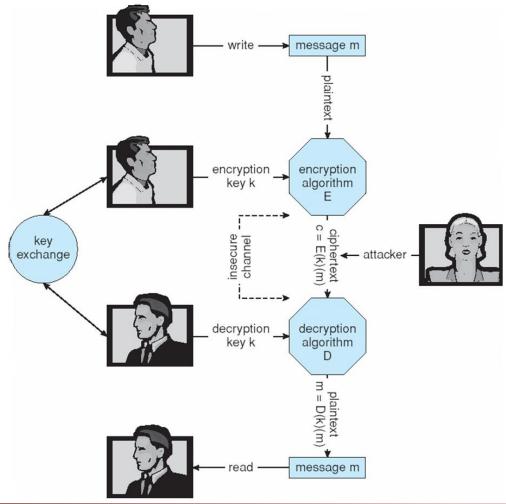
#### **Principles of Protection**

- Principle of Least Privilege
  - Programs, users and systems should be given just enough privileges to perform their tasks
  - Limits damage if entity has a bug or gets abused
- Principle of Need-to-Know
  - At any time, a process should be able to access only those resources that it currently requires to complete its task

## Security Violation Categories

- Breach of confidentiality
  - Unauthorized reading of data
- Breach of integrity
  - Unauthorized modification of data
- Breach of availability
  - Unauthorized destruction of data
- ▶ Theft of service
  - Unauthorized use of resources
- Denial of service (DOS)
  - Prevention of legitimate use

#### Secure Communication over Insecure Medium



## Scenario of Asymmetric Encryption







