Operating Systems Principles UCLA-CS111-W18

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1 L3: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 5: Interlude: Process API

1.1 The fork() System Call

- Crux: How to create and control processes
- fork()
 - Creates new process; returns child's PID to parent; returns 0 to child;
 - Each has own PC, registers, address space
- Nondeterministic Behavior
 - Scheduler will decide which process to run
 - May lead to problems in multi-threaded programs

1.2 The wait() System Call

- wait()
 - Parent calls wait() to wait for child to finish execution

1.3 The exec() System Call

- $-\operatorname{exec}()$
 - Loads code, overwrites code segment, and reinitializes memory space
 - Takes exceutable name and arguments
 - Does not create a new process; transform current process

1.4 Why? Motivating The API

- Separation
 - Separating fork() and exec() allows code to alter the environment of the about-to-run program
- Example
 - Shell forks a process, execs the program, and waits until finished
 - The separation allows for things such as output to be redirected (closes stdout and opens file)

1.5 Other Parts Of The API

- kill()
 - System call sends signal to process to sleep, die, etc

2 L3: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 6: Mechanism: Limited Direct Execution

2.1 Basic Technique: Limited Direct Execution

- Crux: How to efficiently virtualize CPU with control
- Limited Direct Execution
 - OS will create entry for process list, allocate memory for program, load program into memory, setup stack with argc/v, clear registers, execute call to main()
 - Program will run main(), execute return
 - OS will free memory, remove from process list
- LDE good bc fast, but
 - Problem of keeping control
 - Problem of time sharing still

2.2 Problem 1: Restricted Operations

- User mode vs. Kernel mode
 - Restricted mode which needs to ask kernel to perform system calls
 - Calls like open() are actually procedure calls with trap to enter kernel and raise privilege
 - Return-from-trap is used to enter user mode from kernel and drop privilege
 - Push counters, flags, registers onto per-process kernel stack when trapping
- Trap table is used to control what code is executed when trapping
 - Trap handler used by hardware to cause interrupts
 - Telling hardware where trap table is is privileged
 - Trap handler actually uses system-call number, rather than specifying an address (another layer of protection)
- Two phases of LDE
 - At boot, kernel initializes trap table and remembers where it is

OS @ boot	Hardware
(kernel mode)	
initialize trap table	
start interrupt timer	remember addresses of syscall handler timer handler
start interrupt timer	start timer interrupt CPU in X ms

2.3 Problem 2: Switching Between Processes

- How can OS regain control?
 - Because process is running, so OS is not running
- Cooperative Approach
 - System calls include explicit yield system call, transfering control back to OS
- Noncooperative Approach
 - Reboot, Timer Interrupt
- Saving and Restoring Context
 - Scheduler will choose when to switch processes

OS @ run	Hardware	Program
(kernel mode)		(user mode)
		Process A
	timer interrupt	
	save regs(A) to k-stack(A)	
	move to kernel mode	
	jump to trap handler	
Handle the trap	,	
Call switch() routine		
save regs(A) to proc-struct(A)		
restore regs(B) from proc-struct(B)		
switch to k-stack(B)		
return-from-trap (into B)		
return-from-trap (fitto b)	restore regs(B) from k-stack(B)	
	move to user mode	
	jump to B's PC	
		Process B

2.4 Worried About Concurrency?

- Interrupt during interrupt?
 - Many complex things to do
 - Could disable interrupts (but this might lose interrupts), or locking schemes, etc

2.5 Summary

- Reboot
 - Good technique because restores system to well-tested state
 - OS will 'baby-proof' by only allowing processes to run in restricted mode and with interrupt handlers

3 L3: Linking and Libraries: Object Modules, Linkage Editing, Libraries

3.1 Introduction

- Process as fundamental; as executing instance of program
 - Program as one or more files (these are not the executables though)
 - Source must be translated

3.2 The Software Generation Tool Chain

- Source module
 - Editable text in some language like C
- Relocatable object module
 - Sets of compiled instructions; incomplete programs
- Library
 - Collection of object modules
- Load module
 - Complete programs ready to be loaded into memory
- Compiler
 - Parse source modules; usually generates assembly, may generate pseudo-machine
- Assembler
 - Object module with mostly machine code
 - Memory addresses of functions, variables may not be filled in
- Linkage Editor
 - Find all required object modules and resolve all references
- Program Loader
 - Examines load module, creates virtual space, reads instructions, initializes data values
 - Find and map additional shared libraries

3.3 Object Modules

- Code in multiple files
 - Because more understandable if splitting functionality
 - Many functions are reused, so use external libraries
- Relocatable object modules are program fragments
 - Incomplete because make references to code in other modules
 - Even the references to other code are only relative
- ELF format
 - Header section with types, sizes, and location of other sections
 - Code and data section to be loaded contiguously
 - Symbol table of external symbols
 - Relocation entries describing location of field, width/type of field, symbol table entry

3.4 Libraries

- Reusable, standard functions in libraries
 - Libraries not always orthogonal and independent
- Build program by combining object modules and resolving external references

3.5 Linkage Editing

- Resolution
 - Search libraries to find object modules to resolve external references
- Loading
 - Lay text and data in single virtual address space
- Relocation
 - Ensure references correctly reflect chosen address

3.6 Load Modules

- Load module requires no relocation and is complete
- When loading new module
 - Determine required text and data sizes and locations, allocate segments, read contents, create a stack segment with pointer
- Load module has symbol table to help determine where exceptions occurred

3.7 Static vs. Shared Libraries

- Static Linking
 - Many copies, so inefficient; also, permenant copy, so don't receive updates
- Shared Libraries
 - Implementations vary, but one way
 - Reserve address for libraries, linkage edit, map with redirection table, etc, more mapping
 - Efficient, but doesn't work for static data because one copy
 - But can be slow to load many libraries, and must know library name at loadtime

3.8 Dynamically Loaded Libraries

- DLL loaded once needed
 - Choose and load library, binds, use library, unload
 - Resource efficient because can unload
- Implicitly Loaded Dynamically Loadable Libraries
 - Another implementation of DLL with different pros/cons

4 L3: Linkage Conventions: Stack Frames and Linkage Conventions

4.1 Introduction

- What is the state of computation and how can it be saved?
- What is the mechanism of requesting and receiving services?

4.2 The Stack Model of Programming Languages

- Procedure-local variables
 - Stored on a LIFO stack
 - New call frames pushed onto stack when procedure called; old frames popped when procedure reutrns
 - Long-lived resources on heap, not stack

4.3 Subroutine Linkage Conventions

- X86 Subroutine Linkage
 - Pass parameters to be called by routine
 - Save return address and transfer control to entry
 - Save content of non-volatile registers
 - Allocate space for local variables
- X86 Return Process
 - Return value to where routine expects it
 - Pop local storage
 - Restore registers
 - Subroutine transfer control to return address
- Responsibilities split between caller and callee
- Saving and restoring state of procedure is mostly a matter of stack frame and registers

4.4 Traps and Interrupts

- Procedure call vs Trap/Interrupt
 - Procedure requested by running software and expects result; linkage conventions under software control
 - After trap/interrupt, should restore state
- How
 - Number associated with every interrupt/exception, maps to PS/PC
 - Push new program counter and program status (from interrupt/trap vector table) onto CPU stack
 - Resume execution at new PC
 - First level handler
 - Save general registers on stack
 - Choose second level handler based on info from interrupt/trap
 - Second level handler (procedure call)
 - Deal with interrupt/exception
 - Return to first level handler
 - Restore saved registers and return-from-interrupt/trap
 - CPU realoads PC/PS and resumes execution
- Stacking/unstacking interrupt/trap is 100x+ slower than procedure call

5 L4: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 7: Scheduling: Introduction

5.1 Workload Assumptions

- Workload as the processes running in the system
- Fully-operational scheduling discipline
 - Assume each job runs for same amount of time, arrives at same time, once started will run to completion, only uses CPU, run-time length is known

5.2 Scheduling Metrics

- Scheduling metric is something we can measure is useful for scheduling
 - $Turnaround_{time}: Time_{completion} Time_{arrival}$
- Performance and Fairness often at odds with each other
 - Fairness measured by Jain's Fairness Index

5.3 First In, First Out (FIFO)

- Properties of FIFO
 - Simple and easy to implement while working well based on assumptions
- Convoy Effect
 - FIFO fails if few high-resource consumers are ahead of low-resource consumers

5.4 Shortest Job First (SJF)

- SJF is optimal given the assumptions
 - But fails if relaxes arrival-time assumption
 - A long process may start, then a short process comes in

5.5 Shortest Time-to-Completion First (STCF)

- Preemptive schedulers will context switch to run another process
 - Non-preemptive schedulers run jobs to completion before considering another
 - SJF is nonpreemptive
- Shortest time-to-completion (STCF) also known as Preemptive shortest job first (PSJF)
 - Anytime a new job arrives, determine which job has shortest time remaining, and runs that one

5.6 A New Metric: Response Time

- $-T_{response}:T_{firstrun}-T_{arrival}$
- STCF is especially bad for optimizing response time

5.7 Round Robin

- RR (time-slicing) runs job for a time slice (scheduling quantum) before switching to next
 - Length of time slice is essential; if long, then long $T_{response}$; if short, context switching dominates
 - Must choose a length of time which will amortize the cost well
 - Also must consider cost of flushing CPU caches, TLBs, branch predictors, chip hardware
- Performs extremely poorly wrt turnaround time
 - Most fair policies (evenly distribute) are like this

5.8 Incorporating I/O

- Overlap leads to higher utilization and better performance
 - Use for IO, messages, etc
- Overlap CPU when one process requires IO
 - While IO for process A, run process B on CPU (because A is blocked)

5.9 No More Oracle/Summary

- Assumption of known run-time length is highly invalid
- Shortest job remaining optimizes turnaround time
- Alternating between jobs optimizes response time
- Looking ahead
 - Multi-level feedback: Using past events to predict future

6 L4: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 8: Scheduling: The Multi-Level Feedback Queue

6.1 MLFQ: Basic Rules

- MFLQ has a number of distinct queues with different priority levels
- If priority(A) < priority(B), A runs
- If priority(A) == priority(B), A and B run in RR
- Vary priority based on observed behavior

6.2 Attempt 1: How To Change Priority

- When job enters, has highest priority
- If job uses entire time slice, priority is reduced
- If job gives up CPU early, priority remains the same
- Assume jobs are short so that it will either complete or move down in priority
- Starvation
 - If there are too many interactive (IO) jobs, then longer processes with low priority will never run
- Gaming the scheduler
 - Could write program to use less than entire timeslice, to always keep highest priority
- Changing Behavior
 - Program may become interactive after computations, so needs higher priority

6.3 Attempt 2: The Priority Boost

- Boost all processes to top priority after a certain time length
- Difficult to know correct value for these voo-doo constant parameters (refer to Ousterhouts Law)

6.4 Attempt 3: Better Accounting

- Account CPU time (Anti-gaming method)
 - Once job uses up time allotment on given level, priority is reduced

6.5 Tuning MLFQ And Other Issues

- Difficult to find correct parameters
 - High-priority queue contains interactive processes and run for short timeslices (20ms)
 - Low-priority queue contains long-running processes and so run for longer timeslices (up to a few hundred ms)
 - Many queues, like 60

- Priorities boosted every second or so
- Other schedulers use mathematical formulas to calculate priority (decay-usage)
- Even may offer advice to scheduler using Linux's nice program

6.6 MLFQ: Summary

- Multiple levels of queues with feedback to determine priority
- Rules
 - If priority(A) > priority(B), A runs
 - If priority(A) = priority(B), A and B run in RR
 - When a job enters the system, has highest priority
 - When a job uses entire time allotment at a given level, its priority is reduced
 - After some time period S, move all the jobs in the system to the topmost queue

7 L4: Real Time Scheduling

7.1 What are Real-Time Systems

- Priority scheduling is best effort
 - Sometimes need more than just best effort (space shuttle reentry, data, assembly line, media players)
- Traditonal vs Real-time systems
 - Turn-around time, fairness, response time for traditional
 - Timeliness may be ms/day of accumulated tardiness
 - Predictability is deviation in delivered timeliness
 - Feasibility is whether possible to meet requirements
 - Hard real-time is a requirement to run specifiy tasks at specified intervals
 - Soft real-time requires good response time, at the cost of degraded performance or recoverable failure
- Real-time systems
 - May know length of jobs/priorities, and starvation of certain jobs may be acceptable

7.2 Real-Time Scheduling Algorithms

- Static scheduling
 - May be possible to define fixed schedule if know all tasks to run and expected completion time
- Dynamic Scheduling for changing workloads
 - Questions of how to choose next task and how to deal with overload
- If high enough frequency of work, may just work for sufficiently-light loaded systems

7.3 Real-Time and Linux

- Linux was not designed as embedded or real-time system
 - Supports a real-time scheduler sched_setscheduler, but still does not have same level of response-times
- Windows believes in general throughput not deadlines, and is bad for critical real-time operations

8 L5: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 12: A Dialogue on Memory Virtualization

8.1 Overview

- Every address generated by a user program is a virtual address
 - Large contiguous address space is easier to work with than small crowded space
 - Isolation and protetion are also important in preventing processes each other's memory

9 L5: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 13: The Abstraction: Address Spaces

9.1 Early Systems

- OS as set of routines (a library)
- Program in physical memory used rest of space

9.2 Multiprogramming and Time Sharing

- Multiprogramming
 - Multiple processes ready to run at a given time with OS switching between them
 - Increases utilization of CPU; increased efficiency of CPU is very relevant bc so expensive
- Timesharing and interactivity
 - Long program-debug cycles bad for programmers
 - Giving all programs full access to memory is not safe

9.3 The Address Space

- Address space is easy to use abstraction of physical memory
 - Contains code, stack, heap
 - Every program thinks it had very large address space, even though it doesn't

9.4 Goals

- Transparency
 - Cannot tell that memory is virtual
- Efficiency
 - OS should make virtualization efficient wrt time and space, relying on hardware for this
- Protection
 - Isolate process memory from each other

10 L5: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 14: Interlude: Memory API

10.1 Types of Memory

- Stack
 - Automatic memory is managed implicitly by compiler
- Heap
 - Long lived memory where allocations and deallocations handled by programmer

10.2 The malloc()/free() Call

- double *d = (double *) malloc(sizeof(double));
- free(d); // prevents memory leaks

10.3 Common Errors

- Modern languages have automatic memory-management or a garbage collector because people don't free
- Seg fault if you forget to allocate
- Buffer overflow if not enough allocated space
- Dangling pointer if you free memory before finished using it
- Double freeing memory is undefined
- Incorrect use of free (passing it things other than pointer from malloc) is dangerous
- Use Valground and Purify to find memory leaks

10.4 Underlying OS Support

- Break is the location at the end of the heap
 - System call brk is used to increase/decrease size of heap

11 L5: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 17: Free-Space Management

11.1 Assumptions

- Free list manages the heap; contains references to all the free chunks in the region
- External fragmentation
 - Have enough space, but not contiguous, so can't malloc
- Internal fragmentation
 - Gives memory larger than requested, which remains unused

11.2 Low-level Mechanisms

- Splitting and Coalescing
 - Split free chunk in two, returning first to the caller
 - Coalesces adjacent free memory together, forming a single larger free chunk
- Header of allocated memory
 - Contains size of region and magic number to speed up deallocation
- Embedding free list
 - Build free list inside the free space itslf
 - Nodes with size and next pointer
- Growing heap
 - Just give up and return NULL
 - Or call sbrk system call to OS to grow heap

11.3 Basic Strategies

- Best fit
 - Return smallest chunk that is equal or larger than the requested size
 - Requires linear search
- Worst fit
 - Find largest chunk, split it, return requested size
 - Requires linear search
- First fit
 - Returns first block big enough
 - Faster because no exhaustive search
- Next fit
 - Returns first block big enough starting from previous location
 - Spreads searches through free space more uniformly

11.4 Other Approaches

- Segregated Lists
 - Keep separated list to manage all objects of that size
 - Hard to determine much memory to dedicate to that list
- Slab allocator by Jeff Bonwick
 - Object caches for kernel objects
 - Each object cache are segregated free lists
 - Requests slabs of memory from general allocator, when running low
- Binary buddy Allocation
 - Big space of 2^N
 - Suffers from internal fragmentation but can recursively coalesce

12 L5: Garbage Collection and Defragmentation

12.1 Garbage Collection

- Allocated resources are freed through explicit/implicit action by client
 - close(2), free(3), delete operator, returning from a C/C++ subroutin, exit(2)
- If shared by multiple concurrent clients
 - Free only if reference count is zero (don't free if others are still using it, just decrement the reference count)
- Garbage Collection
 - Analyzes allocated resources to determine which are still in use
 - Data structures assoc with resource references are designed to be easily enumerated to enable the scan for accessible resources
 - Comes at a performance cost

12.2 Defragmentation

- Shards of free memory are not useful
 - Coalescing is only useful if adjacent memory free at same time
- Defragmentation
 - Changes which resources are still allocated
- Flash management
 - NAND Flash is a pseudo-Write-Once-Read-Many medium
 - Identify large (64MB) block with many 4KB blocks not in use
 - Move all in use blocks and update resource allocation map
 - Erase large block and add 4KB blocks to free list
- Disk Space Allocation
 - Choose region to create contiguous free space
 - For each file in that region, move it elsewhere
 - Coalesce all that free memory
 - Move set of files into that region
 - Repeat until all files and free space is contiguous
- Internal fragmentation is like rust, it never sleeps
 - Defragmentation used to be run periodically, now is run continuously
- Conclusions
 - If using garbage collection, must make all resources discoverable, how to trigger scans, prevent race conditions with application
 - Must not disrupt running applications when using defragmentation

13 L6: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 18: Paging: Introduction

13.1 A Simple Example And Overview

- Paging
 - Divide process address space into fixed-sized units
 - View memory as fixed-sized page frames
- Free list
 - OS may hold list of free pages
- Page table is a per process data structure
 - Stores address translations for virtual pages so we know where it is in physical memory
- Virtual address [VPN, OFFSET]
 - Virtual page number (VPN) indexes page table to find physical frame/page number (PFN/PPN)
 - Translate VPN to PPN then load from memory
 - Offset determines which byte within page

13.2 Where Are Page Tables Stored?

- Page table entry
 - Holds physical translation
 - If roughly 4 bytes per PTE, page tables would be big
 - Problem bc page table per process
- Stored somewhere in memory

13.3 Whats Actually In The Page Table?

- Linear Page Table
 - Index array by VPN to look up PTE and to find physical frame number (PFN)
 - Valid bit indicates if memory is valid (traps if invalid)
 - Proction bit indicates whether page can be read/written/executed (trap if bad access)
 - Present bit indicates whether page is in memory or disk (if it has been swapped out)
 - Dirty bit indicates if page has been modified since brought into memory
 - Reference/access bit indicates if page has been accessed (to determine which pages are popular; used for page replacement)

13.4 Paging: Also Too Slow

- Must translate virtual address
 - VPN = (Virtual address & VPN_{MASK}) >> SHIFT
 - PTEaddr = Page table base address + VPN * sizeof(PTE)
 - Offset = Virtual address & $OFFSET_{MASK}$
 - \bullet PhysAddr = (PFN << SHIFT) Offset

14 L6: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 19: Paging: Faster Translations (TLBs)

14.1 TLB Basic Algorithm

- TLB
 - Bc chopped address space into many fixed-sized units, paging requires a lot of memory to map addresses
 - This mapping memory is also stored in physical memory, which would require an additional memory lookup to read
 - Instead, use a TLB, which is an address translation cache, to hold popular virtual-to-physical translations
- TLB Hit/miss
 - If virtual page number (VPN) from virtual address (VA) is inside the TLB (translation lookaside buffer), then have TLB hit and may extract the page frame number (PFN)

• If VPN from VA is not inside TLB, then have TLB miss and must access page table (in memory) to find translation, update TLB, then restart lookup into TLB

14.2 Example: Accessing An Array

- Start with a miss, then multiple hits
 - Rely on spatial locality for first pass
 - Rely on temporal locality for second pass
- Caching is fundamental
 - Temporal and spatial locality are necessary
 - Can't make caches large because physics says large cache is slow

14.3 Who Handles The TLB Miss?

- Hardware
 - Use page table base register to walk page table and find PTE
- Software
 - Hardware raises exception, pauses instructions, privilege raises to kernel mode, jumps to trap handler
- Infinite TLB misses
 - If is a problem, keep TLB miss handlers in physical memory (unmapped) so it will always be a hit
- RISC vs CISC (Aside)
 - Complex has more and more powerful instructions
 - Reduced has fewer and simpler primitives

14.4 TLB Contents: Whats In There?

- Fully associative means a given translation can be anywhere in the TLB
- VPN PFN other bits
 - Other bits include valid bit, protection bits (regarding w/r/x), address space identifier, dirty bit, etc

14.5 TLB Issue: Context Switches

- Fully associative means a given translation can be anywhere in the TLB
- VPN PFN other bits
 - Other bits include valid bit, protection bits (regarding w/r/x), address space identifier, dirty bit, etc
 - Could flush TLB on context switch, or could use address space identifier

14.6 Issue: Replacement Policy

- LRU Replacement Policy
 - Least recently used, but usually can't actually do this, so vaguely do LRU

15 L6: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 21: Beyond Physical Memory: Mechanisms

15.1 Swap Space

- Swap Space
 - Use hard disk drive as storage
 - Reserved space on disk for moving pages back and forth

15.2 The Present Bit

- Extract VPN from VA, check for TLB hit and produce PA if possible
 - Otherwise, receive TLB miss and go to memory through page table base register to find PTE
- Present bit
 - Set to one if page is in physical memory
 - Otherwise, is not in physical memory and is a page fault
 - OS invoked to service page fault, so page-fault handler runs

15.3 The Page Fault

- OS page-fault handler
 - Hardware does not do it because hardware does not know enough about swap space, I/O, etc
 - OS looks in PTE to find address and request it from disk
 - Process is blocked during this, so run another process

15.4 What If Memory Is Full?

- Page-replacement Policy
 - Page in from swap space; Page out from memory
 - Replace if memory is full
 - 10k-100k times slower if poor page-replacement policy

15.5 Page Fault Control Flow

- If TLB miss
 - If invalid, OS trap handle terminates process
 - If not present, run page fault handler
 - Find physical frame for soon-to-be-faulted-in page
 - Run replacement alg if necessary
 - I/O request page from swap space
 - Retry for TLB miss, then retry for TLB hit
 - If present and valid, grab PFN from PTE and retry

15.6 When Replacements Really Occur

- Swap daemon
 - If fewer pages than the low watermark, then background thread evicts pages
 - Continues evicting pages until the high watermark
 - Then goes back to sleep and waits
- Clustering
 - Clustering/grouping these pages to swap partition increases efficiency because it reduces disk seek and rotational overheads
- Background work
 - Do work in background (buffered disk writes, etc) because it is more efficient and makes better use of idle time

16 L6: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 22: Beyond Physical Memory: Policies

16.1 Cache Management

- Minimize cache misses because a single miss will make it very slow
 - Average memory access time (AMAT) = $T_M + (P_{miss} * T_D)$

16.2 The Optimal Replacement Policy

- Farthest in the future
 - Is optimal
 - Use this as a reference point, something to compare our algorithms against
- Types of misses
 - Cold-start miss is compulsory because cache is empty
 - Capacity miss is because cache ran out of space
 - Conflict miss is because of hardware limits on where items can be placed in a hardware cache (not a problem for OS page cache)

16.3 Replacement Policies

- FIFO
 - Performs quite terribly, but is simple to implement
 - Belady's Anomaly: FIFO performs even worse on larger cache than on smaller cache
- Random
 - Can work
- Least-Frequently-Used (LFU)/Least-Recently-Used (LRU)
 - Rely on locality and do what their names say
- Most-Frequently-Used (MFU)/Most-Recently-Used (MRU)
 - Exist and do not work well
- Workload examples
 - FIFO doesn't do well, random can do well, LRU does fairly well

16.4 Implementing LRU

- True LRU is expensive
 - Finding truly least-recently-used page is prohibitively time-consuming
- Approximate LRU using Clock algorithm
 - Whenever page is referenced, use bit is set
 - Clock hand points to some page, if bit is set, unsets it and checks next
 - If bit is unset, replaces it

16.5 Considering Dirty Pages

- If page is dirty (set dirty bit), then must be written back to disk if we want to evict it
 - Prefer to evict clean pages

16.6 Other VM Policies

- Demand Paging
 - Bring page into memory only 'on demand'
 - Opposite of prefetching memory
- Clustering/Grouping of writes
 - Write many things at same time because of how disk drive works

16.7 Thrashing

- If memory is just oversubscribed
 - Then will constantly page and thrash
- Admission control
 - Decide to not run some processes, so that we may do well on the remaining processes
- Out-of-memory killer
 - Will choose a memory-intensive process and kill it

17 L6: Working Sets

17.1 LRU is not enough

- Global LRU
 - Most-recently used page is from current process and will not run for a while
 - Least-recently used page is from old process about to run

17.2 The concept of a Working Set

- Is the set of pages for a given process
 - Increasing the number of pages makes little difference in performance, but decreasing makes a difference
- Different computations require different sizes, getting the number correct will minimize page faults and maximize throughput

17.3 Implementing Working Set replacement

- More information recorded about pages
 - Associated with owning process
 - Accumulated CPU time
 - Last referenced time
 - Target age parameter
- Age decisions are made on the basis of accumulated CPU time
 - Page ages if owner runs without them
 - Pages younger than a target age are preferrably not replaced
 - Give pages older than target age away

17.4 Dynamic Equilibrium to the rescue

- Page stealing algorithm
 - Every process is continuously losing and stealing pages
 - Processes that reference more pages more often will accumulate larger working sets while others will find their set reduced
 - Working sets adjust automatically

18 L7: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 25: A Dialogue on Concurrency

18.1 Dialogue

- Multi-threaded applications
 - Threads access memory; we don't want multiple threads to access memory at same time
 - OS supports primitives such as locks and condition variables

19 L7: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 26: Concurrency: An Introduction

19.1 Introduction

- Context switch
 - Save state (program counter, registers) to thread control block
 - Address space stays the same, so page table does not need to be switched
- Multiple stacks in address space if multiple threads
- Thread-local storage
 - Stack of that thread

19.2 Why Use Threads?

- Used threads to exploit parallelism
 - If single processor, then not relevant
 - Otherwise, parallelize and used thread per CPU
- Use threads to do someting when blocked program
 - Instead of waiting for IO, just switch to another thread and do things
- Choose process for logically separate tasks with little sharing of data structures

19.3 An Example: Thread Creation

- Use pthreads
- Will run in different order according to scheduler
- May not be deterministic

19.4 The Heart Of The Problem: Uncontrolled Scheduling

- Race condition
 - Execution depends on timing execution of code (indeterminate)
- Critical section
 - Multiple threads executing code resulting in race condition
- Mutual exclusion
 - If one thread executing inside critical section, others will be prevented

19.5 The Wish For Atomicity

- Atomic (all or nothing)
 - Don't just have atomic instructions for all because too many instrucions
- Synchronization primitives
 - General set of instructions to control multi-threaded programs

20 L7: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 27: Interlude: Thread API

20.1 Threads

- Use pthreat_create to create new thread
- Use pthread_join to wait for thread to complete
- Use pthread_mutex_lock and pthread_mutex_unlock to provide mutual exclusion to critical sections via locks
 - Need to properly initialize and check that lock/unlock actually succeed
- Condition variables
 - Enables thread to wait until particular condition occurs
 - Needs lock and condition
 - Sleeps until other thread signals
- Spinlock
 - Wait in loop until lock available, consuming CPU cycles

21 L7: User-Mode Thread Implementation

21.1 Introduction

- Threads are independent schedulable unit of execution
 - Runs within address space of process
 - Has access to system resources from process
 - Has own registers and stack

21.2 User/Kernel

- User-level thread done without OS
 - Allocates memory, dispathes thread, sleeps, exits, free memory
 - If system call blocks, entire process blocks
 - Cannot exploit multi-processors
- Kernel implemented threads
 - Exploits multi-processors and switches between threads when one blocks

21.3 User/Kernel

- Non-preemptive scheduling
 - User-mode threads are more efficient than kernel for contex-switches
- Preemptive scheduling
 - Allowing OS to schedule is better than setting alarms and signals

22 L7: Inter-Process Communication

22.1 Introduction

- coordination of operations with other processes
 - synchronization (e.g. mutexes and condition variables)
 - the exchange of signals (e.g. kill(2))
 - control operations (e.g. fork(2), wait(2), ptrace(2))
- the exchange of data between processes:
 - uni-directional/bi-directional

22.2 Simple Uni-Directional Byte Streams

- Pipes
 - Opened by parent and inherited from child
 - Each program in pipeline is unaware of what others do, byte streams are unstructured, etc
 - If reader exhausts data in pipe, reader does not get EOF (is blocked instead)
 - Flow control: Available buffering capacity of pipe may be limited, so writer may be blocked for reader to catch up
 - Writing to pipe without open read fd is illegal (gets signal exception)
 - When both read/write fd are closed, pipe file is deleted
- Only data privacy mechanisms are on initial/output file
 - Generally no auth/encryption while passing

22.3 Named Pipes and Mailboxes

- Named-pipe fifo
 - Persistent pipe whos reader/writers can open by name (rather than inheriting)
 - Writes may be interspersed
 - Readers/writers can't authenticate identity
- Mailboxes
 - Data is not bytestream, each write is stored as message
 - Each write has authenticated ID
 - Unprocessed msgs remain in mailbox

22.4 General Network Connections

- Higher level communication/service models
 - Remote procedure calls distributed request/response APIs
 - RESTful service models layered on HTTP GETS/PUTS
 - Publish/Subscribe services content based info flow
- Complexity
 - Interoperability with software running different OS and ISA
 - Security issues, changing addresses, failing connections

22.5 Shared Memory

- High performance for Inter-Process Communication
 - Efficiency wrt low cost per byte
 - Throughput wrt bytes per second
 - Latency wrt minimum delay
- Ultra high performance
 - Shared memory by creating a file for communication
 - Process maps file into virtual address space
 - Is available immediately upon writing
 - Very fast but can only be used on same memory bus
 - Has no authentication and a single bug can kill both

22.6 Network Connections and Out-of-Band Signals

- Preempting queued operations
 - Have a reserved out-of-band channel so signal can preempt others if urgent
 - Adds overhead but allows important messages to skip FIFO line (network connection is FIFO)

23 L7: Named pipes, Send, Recv, Mmap

23.1 Named Pipes

- Named pipes exist as device special file
- Can be accessed by processes of different ancestries
- When I/O done, pipe remains
- Normally, if FIFO opened for reading, process will block until another process opens it for writing
- If write to pipe without reader, will get SIGPIPE

23.2 Send, Recv, Mmap

- Send
 - Send a message on a socket
- $-\operatorname{Recv}$
 - Receive a message from a socket
- Mmap
 - Map or unmap files or devices into memory
 - Creates a new mapping in the virtual address space of the calling process

24 L8: Arpaci-Dussseau Chapter 28: Locks

24.1 Locks: The Basic Idea

- Use of lock
 - Put around critical sections so that it is performed atomically
- Lock variable
 - If no other thread holds lock, thread acquires lock and enters critical section
 - If another thread holds lock, then will not return

24.2 Pthread Locks

- Mutex is the POSIX library lock
 - Provides mutual exclusion (exclude other threads from entering until first thread has completed)
- Use multiple locks (as opposed to one big lock for any critical section)
 - Fine-grained vs coarse-grained approach

24.3 Evaluating Locks

- Mutual exclusion, fairness, performance
 - Needs to prevent multiple threads from entering critical section
 - Needs to not let contending threads starve
 - Need time overheads to not be high

24.4 Controlling Interrupts

- Disable interrupts during critical section to provide mutual exclusion
 - For single-processor system, makes code atomic
- Cons
 - Requires user to call privileged operation
 - Greedy user could lock for entire process
 - Buggy user could break computer
 - Does not work for multiprocessors because multiple threads can still enter critical section
 - Interrupts may be lost
- OS is allowed to use this as mutual-exclusion primitive for updating data structures

24.5 A Failed Attempt: Just Using Loads/Stores

- Flag
 - Doesn't work because the checking/setting of flag is not atomic
 - Also spin-waiting (persistently checking value of flag) is incredibly inefficient

24.6 Building Working Spin Locks with Test-And-Set

- Test-and-set instruction (atomic exchange)
 - Puts new value into old value; returns old value (atomically)
 - Is sufficient to build a spinlock
- Spinlock
 - To work on a single processor, requires preemptive scheduler (otherwise, thread would never relinquish CPU)
 - Is a correct lock
 - No fairness guarantees
 - Terrible performance if single processor
 - If N threads contending, N-1 time slices may be wasted while spinning on single processor
 - Okay performance if multiple processors

24.7 Compare-And-Swap

- Compare-and-swap (compare-and-exchange)
 - Test if value of ptr is equal to value at expected, if so, update with new value, otherwise, do nothing
 - Can build spinlock with this

24.8 Load-Linked and Store-Conditional

- Load-linked
 - Fetch value from memory and put in register
- Store-conditional
 - If success, updates and returns 1; otherwise, no update and returns 0
 - Only one thread is able to acquire lock if using these (because store-conditional will fail)

24.9 Fetch-And-Add

- Fetch-and-add
 - Increment value and return old value
- Ticket lock
 - If thread wants lock, do fetch-and-add and wait
 - Global lock-¿turn determines who's turn
 - All threads make progress

24.10 A Simple Approach: Just Yield, Baby

- Yield
 - System call yield to allow processes to deschedule self
 - Better than spinlock, but still costly
 - Does not address starvation issue

24.11 Using Queues: Sleeping Instead Of Spinning

- Sleep and wake
 - Test-and-set with explicit queue of lock waiters
 - Avoids starvation
 - May sleep forever in wakeup/waiting race if release of lock occurs after park()
 - So have setpark() to indicate a thread is about to park; if interrupted and another thread unparks, thread will return rather than sleep
- Solaris uses park/unpark
- Linux uses futex

24.12 Two-Phase Locks

- Spins during first cycle, then on second cycle will sleep
- Hybrid approach is effective

25 L8: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 30.1: Condition Variables

25.1 Definition and Routines

- Condition variable
 - Explicit queue for threads if condition is not met
 - When condition is correct, wakes

26 L9: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 29: Lock-based Concurrent Data Structures

26.1 Concurrent Counters

- Simple but not Scalable Counter
 - Use pthread_mutex_lock/unlock to create a threadsafe, concurrent data structure
 - Poor performance if multiple threads (compared to one thread)
- Sloppy Counter for Scalable Counting
 - Numerous local physical counters (one per CPU core) as well as single global counter
 - Periodically transfer local values to global counter; reset local counter
 - How often we transfer is determined by S, the sloppy threshold

26.2 Concurrent Linked Lists/Queues/Hash tables

- Concurrent Linked List
 - Global lock or hand-over-hand lock
 - Hand-over-hand locking tends to be too slow
- Concurrent Queue
 - Lock for head and tail
 - Dummy node to separate head and tail operations
- Concurrent Hash table
 - Lock per hash bucket has good performance
- More concurrency may not be faster if there are many locks

27 L9: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 30.2+: Condition Variables

27.1 The Producer/Consumer (Bounded Buffer) Problem

- Bounded Buffer
 - Producer puts data into it, consumer gets data from it
 - Is a shared resource which requires synchronization
- Mesa Semantics
 - No guarantee that the state will still be as desired when a woken thread runs
 - Need to check condition before run, so while loop
- Hoare Semantics
 - Stronger guarantee that woken thread will run immediately once woken
- Two condition variables
 - Producers wait on empty and signal filled
 - Consumers wait on filled and signal empty
- Spurious wakeups
 - If multiple threads are woken up
 - Use while loop to recheck condition a thread is waiting on
- Correct solution
 - Producer sleeps only if all buffers are filled
 - Consumer sleeps only if all buffers are empty

27.2 Covering Conditions

- Memory allocator problem
 - If multiple threads sleep because need different amounts of memory (100, 10)
 - Other thread frees memory (50), how does it know which thread to wake?
- Memory allocator solution
 - Covering Condition will broadcast a signal to wake up all threads

28 L9: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 31: Semaphores

28.1 Semaphores: A Definition

- Semaphore
 - Sem_wait() or P()
 - Decrement counter and wait if negative
 - Sem_post() or V()
 - Increment counter and wake up a thread if one is sleeping

28.2 Binary Semaphores (Locks)

- Example of holding the lock
 - Thread 0 calls sem_wait() (decrements counter from 1 to 0), takes lock, and enters
 - Thread 1 calls sem_wait() (decrements counter from 0 to -1) and waits
 - Thread 0 runs and calls call_post() (increment counter from -1 to 0) and wakes thread 1
 - Thread 1 runs and calls call_post() (increment counter from 0 to 1)
- Binary semaphore
 - Call a semaphore used only as a lock (held or not held) a binary semaphore

28.3 Semaphores For Ordering

- Semaphores for child to run before parent
 - Initiate counter to 0, parent calls sem_wait(), child calls sem_post(), parent finishes
 - Initiate counter to 0, child calls sem_post(), parent finishes

28.4 The Producer/Consumer (Bounded Buffer) Problem

- Multiple producers/consumers
 - Need mutex because filling buffer and incrementing index of buffer is a critical section
 - Mutex should be inside of the wait()/post() to avoid deadlock

28.5 Reader-Writer Locks

- Reader-writer lock
 - Multiple reads can occur at same time if no write
 - Write has to wait if there are reads going on
- Overhead might make it not worthwhile wrt performance

28.6 Dining Philosophers

- Problem
 - There are 5 philosophers at around table with 5 forks
 - Each philosopher wants to think (does not need any fork) and eat (needs both left and right fork)
- Solution
 - Each philosopher, except one, grabs right fork before left fork
 - Last philosopher grabs left fork before right fork
- If all philosophers grabbed forks in same order, a deadlock may occur

29 L9: Flock and Lockf

29.1 Man

- flock
 - Apply or remove an advisory lock on the open file

- \bullet A single file may not simultaneously have both shared and exclusive locks lockf
 - Apply, test or remove a POSIX lock on a section of an open file

30 L10: Arpaci-Dusseau Chapter 32: Common Concurrency Problems

30.1 Non-Deadlock Bugs

- Atomicity-Violation Bugs
 - Ex: First thread performs check for not null, then dereferences; Second thread sets value to null
 - The desired serializability among multiple memory accesses is violated
 - Can use locks to fix this
- Order-Violation Bugs
 - Ex: First thread inits and uses; second thread just uses (assumes it was init)
 - Can use condition variables to enforce order

30.2 Deadlock Bugs

- Hard to find deadlock bugs
 - Encapsulation + modularity does not mesh with locking
- Conditions for Deadlock
 - Mutual Exclusion threads claim exclusive control of resources they require
 - Hold-and-wait threads hold resources while waiting for additional resources
 - No preemption resources cannot be forcibly removed from threads holding them
 - Circular waits circular chain of threads each holding a resource required by the next thread in the chain
 - All these conditions must occur together for deadlock to occur
- Prevention
 - Circular wait
 - provide total/partial ordering such that no cyclical waiting may occur
 - Is difficult to find order, and is only a convention/suggestion (not enforced
 - Hold-and-wait
 - Prevention lock prevents deadlock from context switch during lock acquisition
 - No Preemption
 - Use trylock to grab the lock or return error if it doesn't work
 - Livelock could occur (two threads repeatedly failing to acquire both locks)
 - Difficult because would have to release everything acquired
 - Mutual Exclusion
 - Use lock-free and wait-free data structures (built using powerful hardware instructions)
 - knowledge of which threads need which locks
 - Schedule threads on multiple CPU's such that threads which need the same lock are never run together
 - Rarely used approach
 - Detect and Recover
 - Tom West's Law "Not everything worth doing is worth doing well"
 - Just let the computer freeze if it only happens once/yr on consumer PC
- Use a different concurrency model
 - MapReduce (from Google)

31 L10: Deadlock avoidance

31.1 Introduction

- Deadlock arises from exhaustion of critical resource
 - This time, the problem is not a resource dependency graph
 - Problem is that some processes will free up memory once complete, but require additional memory to complete
 - Solution is to refuse to grant requests which would put the system in a dangerously resource-depleted state

31.2 Reservations

- Declining allocation mid-operation is hard
 - Solution is to make processes reserve resources beforehand
 - Extends to creating new files, processes, and sockets

31.3 Over-booking

- Few users request their maximum resource allocation
 - So is relatively safe to over-book resources
 - Airlines and networks both do this
 - OS does not do this with memory because running out of memory and having to kill a process is extremely bad
- Dealing with Rejection
 - OK to reject requests, because the error is clean and we can move on

32 L10: Health Monitoring and Recovery

32.1 Introduction + Health Monitoring

- Formal deadlock detection is difficult to perform + inadequate for most problems
- Health Monitoring
 - Internal monitoring agent has transaction log
 - This agent may fail
 - Clients submit failure report to central monitoring service
 - But maybe other requests failed
 - Server sends heart beat to central monitoring service
 - This does not tell if server is serving requests
 - External health monitoring service periodically sends tests to servers
 - But maybe other requests failed
- Use a combination of methods

32.2 Managed Recovery

- Highly available services
 - Must be designed to be killed and restarted at any time
- Restart types
 - Warm-start restore from last saved state
 - Cold-start ignore any saved state and restart from scratch
 - Reset and reboot reboot system and cold-start
 - Restart single process
 - Restart groups of processes
 - Restart software on a node
 - Restart groups or nodes or entire system

32.3 False Reports and Other Restarts

- Tradeoff between cancelling all requests for a restart vs. prolonging outage
 - Misdiagnosing problem may be even worse
 - Preferable for server to detect its own problems and restart components
- Non-disruptive rolling upgrades
 - If system can operate without some of its nodes, then restart nodes one-at-a-time while upgrading
 - New software must be upwards compatible; must be able to roll-back to previous release
- Prophylactic reboots

- Periodically reboot system because it seems to fix problems
- Systems become slower as time progresses, so just restart it regularly

33 L10: Java Synchronized Methods

33.1 Synchronized Methods

- Add to declaration of function
 - Two invocations of synchronized methods on same object will not interleave
 - Synchronized method has happens-before relationship with any subsequent invocation of synchronized method
- Constructors cannot be synchronized (because it does not make sense)

34 L10: Java Intrinsic Locks + Synchronization

34.1 Intrinsic Locks and Synchronization

- Internal entity known as intrinsic lock or monitor lock
 - If thread owns lock, no other thread can acquire
 - Once thread releases, happens-before relationship established between this and subsequent acquisitions of the lock
 - When thread invokes synchronized method, automatically tries to acquire lock
 - Releases lock on return (even if exception)

34.2 Synchronized Statements

- Create synchronized code by specifying object that provides the intrinsic lock
 - Fine-grained concurrency
- Reentrant synchronization
 - Synchronized code may call a method which also contained synchronized code, where both sets of code use the same lock
 - Synchronized blocks in java are reentrant; therefore, a thread may enter other synchronized blocks on same ock

35 L10: Monitors

35.1 Monitors

- Synchronization construct
 - Has both mutex and condition variables
 - Thread-safe class that uses mutual exclusion to safely allow access to a method/variable by more than one thread
 - By using multiple condition variables, can allow threads to wait on certain condition

36 L10: Measuring Operating Systems Performance

36.1 Metrics

- Metrics should be numerical and relevant to your goals
- Need to be practically measurable and measurable in ways which don't affect the measured value

36.2 Complexity and the Role of Statistics in Measurement

- Statistics
 - Need to measure many times usually should report median, mean, range, standard deviation
- Think first, measure second
 - There are many options in software, should not measure possibility, because combinatorial explosion
 - Measure things that are necessary and measure enough to be confident
 - Some things are hard to account for, like hardware caching, so metrics will vary across multiple runs

36.3 Workloads

- Workloads
 - Traces, live workloads, standard benchmarks, simulated workloads
 - Traces are good because realistic and but not easy to reconfigure system; also privacy is a concern
 - Live workloads are good because realistic and can capture a range of behavior, but not easy to control behavior
 - Standard benchmarks are good because easy integrate, easy comparison, are scalable and bugfree, but may be limited in testing
 - Simulated workloads are good for ease of varying models and flexibility in scaling, but only as useful as the quality of tests

36.4 Common Mistakes in Performance Measurements

- Measure things realistic and pertinent to real-world behavior
- Measure latency with regard to utilization (fully loaded system)
- Report variability of measurements with distribution type (bimodal, modal, uniform, etc)
- Do not ignore special cases
 - Do not ignore startup effects (caching is significant)
 - These sort of things may or may not be relevant to what you are trying to measure
- Do not ignore effect of measurement program on measurements
- Don't toss any data + label each case well
- Use the numbers to attain wisdom; remember the goal

37 L10: Load and Stress Testing

37.1 Introduction

- Functional Validation
 - Establish conditions, perform operations, confirm assertions
- Load and Stress Testing
 - Run a set of tests many times, may not even care about return values, just care that it runs

37.2 Load Testing

- Performance Metrics
 - Response time, throughput, CPU time/utilization, disk I/O utilization, network packet utilization
- Load Generators
 - Generate test traffic at calibrated rate on the whole system
 - Test load for request rate, mix, and particular request patterns
- Performance assessment
 - Deliver at specified rate and measure response time
 - Deliver requests at increasing rate until max throughput
 - Deliver requests and use this as background for performance of other system services
 - Deliver requests at a rate and use this as a test

- Accelerated Aging
 - Simulate high rate of traffic to accelerate aging

37.3 Stress Testing

- Use randomly generated complex usage scenarios to increase likelihood of unlikely events
- Generate large number of conflicting requests
- Introduce wide range of errors
- Introduce wide changes in load
- Perform once-a-year type situations hundreds of times per minute
- Few products survive, but necessary for mission-critical programs

38 L11: Health Monitoring and Recovery

38.1 f