# **Operating Systems**

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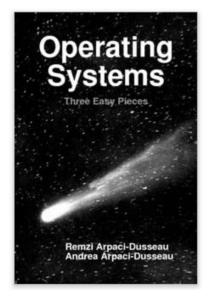
# **Computer resources**

- 1. CPU (covered by Chris and Marc).
- 2. Memory and storage (covered by Mike).
- 3. Input / output devices, including network.

# What is operating system?

Operating system is a software that meets the following needs:

- Resources need to be made easily usable (virtualized) and securely allocated to users' software.
- Users need to access software and system parameters via a user interface.



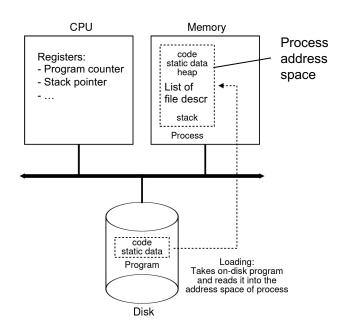
A great free textbook about operating systems!

https://pages.cs.wisc.edu/~remzi/OSTEP/

Examples and details are from UNIX-like systems.

How to run many programs simultaneously on one or just a handful of CPUs? **Process** abstraction.

**Process is a running program**, and any program is managed by the OS.



**Stack** is a part of the process address space where process' local variables, function parameters and return addresses are stored.

'stack overflow'

**Heap** is dynamically allocated memory explicitly requested by a process from the OS (for example, with malloc() in C programs).

In UNIX-like systems, a process usually has 3 default file descriptors (file IDs): stdin, stdout, stderr.

How do the OS and processes communicate? Via system calls and signals.

**System calls** are functions that processes can access to ask the OS do something for them.

#### Categories of system calls [edit]

System calls can be grouped roughly into six major categories:[12]

- 1. Process control
  - create process (for example, fork on Unix-like systems,
  - terminate process
  - load, execute
  - get/set process attributes
  - wait for time, wait event, signal event
  - allocate and free memory
- 2. File management
  - create file, delete file
  - open, close
  - read, write, reposition
  - get/set file attributes

- 3. Device management
  - request device, release device
  - read, write, reposition
  - get/set device attributes
  - · logically attach or detach devices
- 4. Information maintenance
  - get/set total system information (including time, date, computer name, enterprise etc.)
  - get/set process, file, or device metadata (including author, opener, creation time and date, etc.)
- 5. Communication
  - create, delete communication connection
  - send, receive messages
  - transfer status information
  - · attach or detach remote devices
- 6. Protection
  - get/set file permissions

How do the OS and processes communicate? Via system calls and signals.

**Signals** are messages / directives to running processes (for example, to pause or die). They may also be sent via system calls ☺

#### Examples:

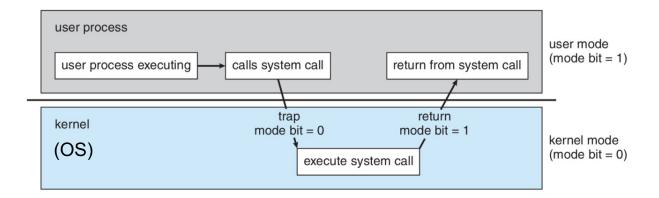
kill -9 <pid> or Ctrl+C to kill a process;

Ctrl+Z to suspend a process and the fg command to resume it.

The main system calls related to process management:

- Create a process (command in shell, click on an application icon, fork() / exec() in a program)
- Destroy a process (for example, kill -9 <pid> or Ctrl+C)
- Wait for a process to finish
- Suspend / resume a process

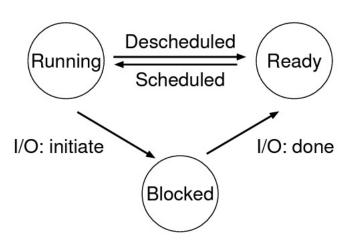
How are system calls performed? By the OS in the **kernel mode** of the *CPU*.



Adapted from <a href="https://medium.com/@er.samirshah/dual-mode-multimode-operation-bcdc93077f7a">https://medium.com/@er.samirshah/dual-mode-multimode-operation-bcdc93077f7a</a>

How does OS manage processes? Mechanisms: process states and context switch

Process states (extremely simplified!)



Possible additional states:

- Initial when a process is being created.
- Final when a process has stopped but has not been cleared up yet.

- OS shares the CPU(s) between many processes by scheduling and descheduling processes.
- When one process is descheduled or blocked, another can be scheduled via the context switch: The OS saves registers of the process that was descheduled into memory and loads the registers of the process that it is going to schedule.
- OS gains back the control of the CPU when a process does a system call or initiates an I/O operation, or by an interrupt timer set in the hardware.

How does OS manage processes? **Scheduling metrics**.

Some metrics to optimize for when scheduling processes:

- Turnaround time = T(completion) T(arrival)
- Response time = T(first run) T(arrival)
- Fairness are all processes given equal chances to run?



How does OS manage processes? **Schedulers**.

MLFQ (Multi-Level Feedback Queue): Move processes in a hierarchy of queues.

- **Rule 1:** If Priority(A) > Priority(B), A runs (B doesn't).
- **Rule 2:** If Priority(A) = Priority(B), A & B run in round-robin fashion using the time slice (quantum length) of the given queue.
- **Rule 3:** When a job enters the system, it is placed at the highest priority (the topmost queue).
- Rule 4: Once a job uses up its time allotment at a given level (regardless of how many times it has given up the CPU), its priority is reduced (i.e., it moves down one queue).
- **Rule 5:** After some time period *S*, move all the jobs in the system to the topmost queue.

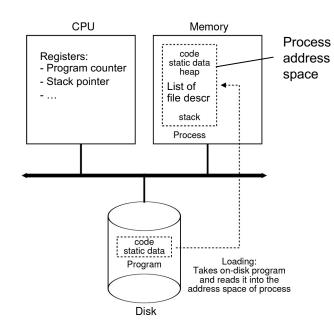
Versions of MLFQ are used in BSD, Solaris, Windows. Linux uses **CFS** (Completely Fair Scheduler).

#### **Summary:**

- OS virtualizes CPU for programs by creating an abstraction of an unlimited number of available CPUs and of parallel program execution on the same CPU (core).
- OS gives processes a secure abstract interface to hardware and other processes via system calls.

How to share physical memory between many processes but make it easily usable for each of them?

Via the address space and virtual addresses.



**Virtual address** is any address in memory generated by a process. All virtual addresses must lie in the process' **address space**.

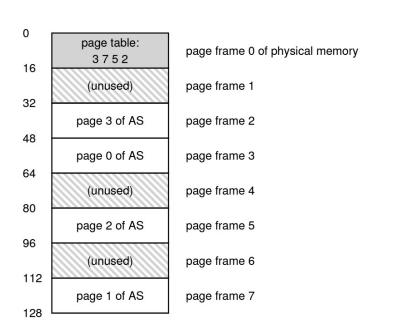
It is **translated** into **physical** (real) **address** by the **MMU** (memory management unit) of the CPU.

physical address = virtual address + base

| OS Requirements        | Notes   |
|------------------------|---|
| Memory management      | Need to allocate memory for new processes;        |
|                        | Reclaim memory from terminated processes;         |
|                        | Generally manage memory via free list             |
| Base/bounds management | Must set base/bounds properly upon context switch |
| Exception handling     | Code to run when exceptions arise;                |
|                        | likely action is to terminate offending process   |

How to share physical memory between many processes *efficiently*?

Via **paging: A virtual page** is a fixed-sized part of a process' address space.



Physical memory is hence divided into **page frames**, each of which can accommodate one **virtual page**.

A **segmentation fault** happens when a process tries to access memory that is not allocated to it.

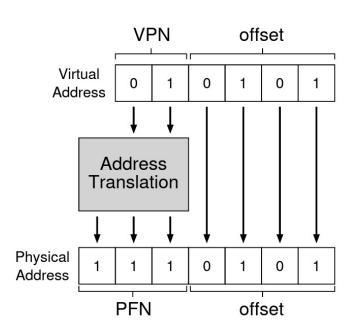
The usual policy in this case is to kill the process.

Highly optimized **page tables** describe the correspondence between virtual and physical pages.

**TLB (translation-lookaside buffer)** contains most frequent address translations.

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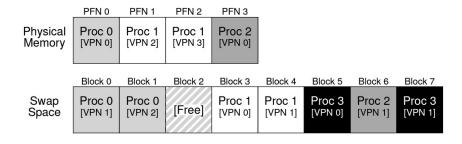
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How to free up memory without killing processes? How to support many large address spaces in a limited physical memory?

Via **swapping**: OS **swaps** (copies) pages from physical memory to the disk and back.



- OS swaps pages to the disk to make space in the physical memory.
- Page fault occurs when a process tries to access a page which in currently on the disk.
- OS handles page faults by blocking the process, swapping the page back to RAM and resuming the process.
- While the process is blocked another process is running!

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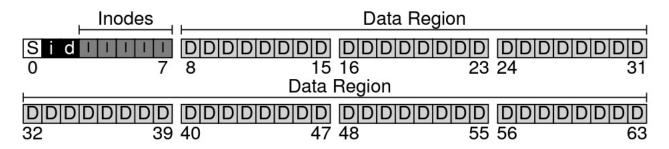
- Which pages to swap to disk (**page out**)? Policy: (Number of page faults) → min.
- Swapping is slow! ⇒ Optimizations: (a) **prefetching** of pages; (b) **grouping of writes** to the disk.
- Thrashing is constant swapping of pages to disk in order to swap other pages to back to RAM.
- OS may use out-of-memory (OOM) killer to kill memory-heavy processes in case of thrashing.

#### **Summary:**

 OS virtualizes memory for programs by creating an abstraction of a large private address space for each process while sharing physical memory between many processes and swapping data between the RAM and disk.

How does OS manage long-term storage ("disk")? Via **file systems**.

**File system** is an on-disk structure plus a **driver** in OS.



- The disk is split into blocks of an equal size.
- Most blocks store user data, but some are reserved for the file system own data structures.
- Inodes ("index nodes") store information about each file and its data blocks.
- Allocation structures (for example, bitmaps) indicate which inodes (i) and data blocks (d) are allocated.
- A superblock stores information about the file system itself: its type, number of inodes and data blocks, etc.

How does OS manage long-term storage ("disk")? Via file systems.

| A simplistic <b>inode</b> : | Size | Name        | What is this inode field for?                     |
|-----------------------------|------|-------------|---|
|                             | 2    | mode        | can this file be read/written/executed?           |
|                             | 2    | uid         | who owns this file?                               |
|                             | 4    | size        | how many bytes are in this file?                  |
|                             | 4    | time        | what time was this file last accessed?            |
|                             | 4    | ctime       | what time was this file created?                  |
|                             | 4    | mtime       | what time was this file last modified?            |
|                             | 4    | dtime       | what time was this inode deleted?                 |
|                             | 2    | gid         | which group does this file belong to?             |
|                             | 2    | links_count | how many hard links are there to this file?       |
|                             | 4    | blocks      | how many blocks have been allocated to this file? |
|                             | 4    | flags       | how should ext2 use this inode?                   |
|                             | 4    | osd1        | an OS-dependent field                             |
|                             | 60   | block       | a set of disk pointers (15 total)                 |
|                             | 4    | generation  | file version (used by NFS)                        |
|                             | 4    | file_acl    | a new permissions model beyond mode bits          |
|                             | 4    | dir_acl     | called access control lists                       |

Figure 40.1: Simplified Ext2 Inode

How does OS manage long-term storage ("disk")? Via **file systems**.

- **Directory** is stored on disk as a list of tuples <inode, filename, any\_additional\_meta>.
- Directories are often just a type of file!
- To delete a file means to delete a link to it, not the contents.

How does OS manage long-term storage ("disk")? Via file systems.

Many file systems exist, for example:

- To access the local disk: EXT3, EXT4, XFS, NTFS, ...
- For network access: NFS, SMBFS, ...
- For "indefinitely scalable storages": ZFS

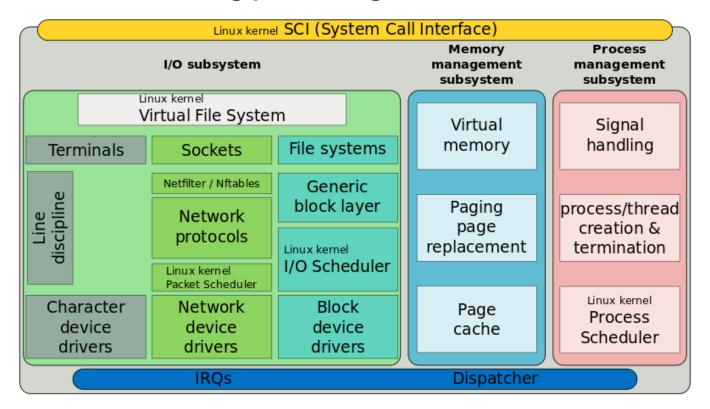
#### Virtual file system:

- Combine (mount) different file systems on one machine.
- Possibly, represent devices and some internal structures as files too.

#### **Summary:**

• OS virtualizes storage for programs by creating an *abstraction* of a tree of directories and files and by hiding the actual model of the storage (of a hard drive / SSD / ... ) behind the file system driver, virtual file system and system calls.

# Linux kernel: Combining pieces together

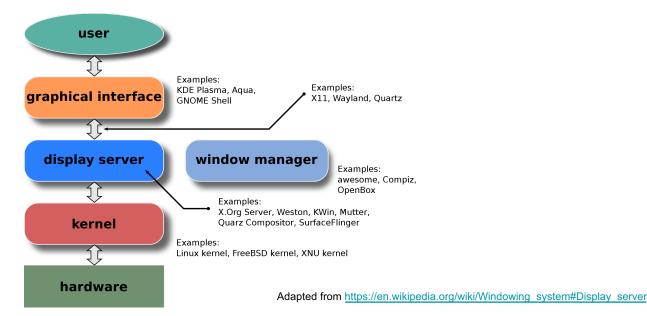


# There is much more to operating systems than this!

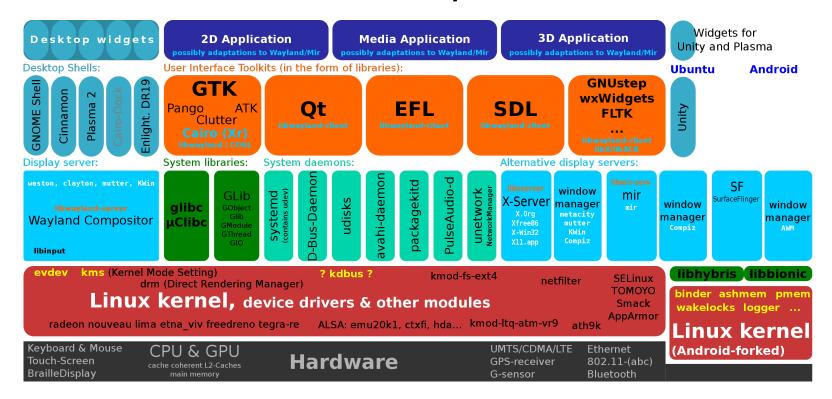
Multithreading and mechanisms to control concurrency.

# There is much more to operating systems than this!

- Multithreading and mechanisms to control concurrency.
- Command line, display server and graphical interface:



#### GNU/Linux OS: Possible media components above the kernel



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- Multithreading and mechanisms to control concurrency.
- Command line, display server and graphical interface.
- Managing all the periphery (including network connections):



### There is much more to operating systems than this!

- Multithreading and mechanisms to control concurrency.
- Command line, display server and graphical interface.
- Managing all the periphery (including network connections).
- Managing users and system security.

#### **GNU/Linux distributions**

**GNU/Linux distribution** = Linux kernel + GNU tools and libs + applications + package manager + display server + window manager + desktop environment + shell + docs.

Some general-purpose distributions:

Debian, Ubuntu, Arch, openSUSE (Leap & Tumbleweed), Fedora, Mint, ...

Some specialized distributions:

- Gentoo machine-specific optimization.
- Rocks for high-performance computer clusters.
- OpenWrt for embedded devices, such as network routers and smartphones.

Phylogenetic tree of a plethora of GNU/Linux distributions:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Linux\_distribution#/media/File:Linux\_Distribution\_Timeline\_21\_10\_2021.svg

## **Different kinds of operating systems**

• Real-time operating systems (often, for embedded devices): Meet stringent time constraints.

Examples: **ThreadX** (Microsoft), **FreeRTOS** (currently developed by Amazon).

• Distributed operating systems: Unite a set of computers into an illusion of one big computer.

Examples: Plan9, Inferno.