



Operating Systems

1. Introduction



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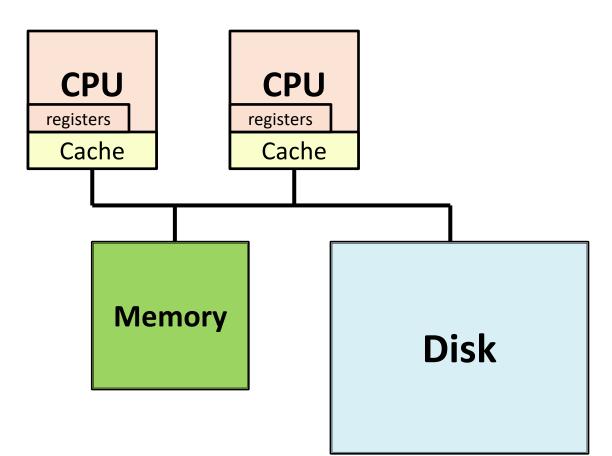
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Remember...

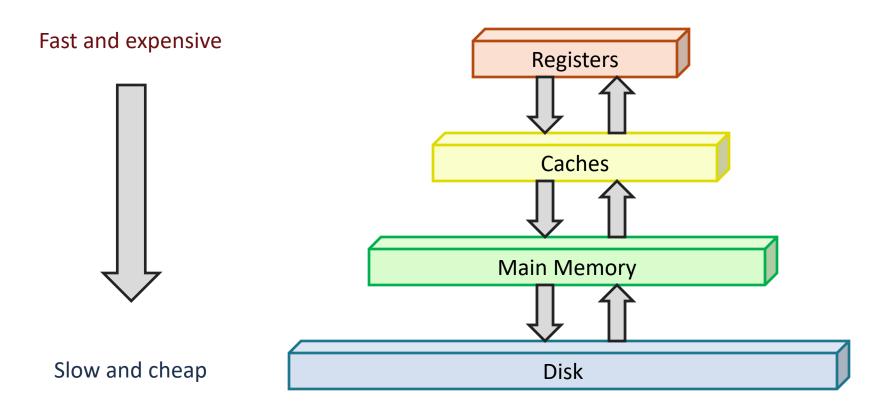






Remember...











Level	1	2	3	4
Name	Register	Cache	Main Memory	Disk Storage
Size	<1KB	From 32KB to > 16MB	Tens of GB	Hundreds of GB to TB
Technology	Custom memory multiple ports (CMOS)	On-chip CMOS SRAM	CMOS DRAM	Electrical, Magnetic or Optical disk
Access time (ns)	0.25 – 0.5	0.5 – 25	80 – 250	500000
Managed by	Compiler	Hardware	Operating System	Operating System







- A running program does one very simple thing: it executes instructions (many million every second):
 - The processor fetches an instruction from memory.
 - Decodes the instruction (figures out which instruction it is).
 - Executes it (does what it is supposed to do).
- After an instruction is done, the processor moves on to the next one, and so on, and so on until the program completes.

These are the basics of the Von Neumann model:

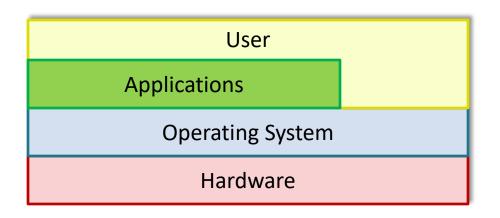
- Modern processors are quite a lot more complicated:
 - Multiple instructions at a time.
 - Out of Order execution...
 - ... Not the topic of this course.





What is an Operating System?

A program that acts as an intermediary between a user of a computer, the software and the computer hardware.



- A software layer to abstract away and manage details of hardware resources.
- A piece of software that makes the system easy to use.





Operating System Goals

- Execute user programs and make solving user problems easier.
- Make the computer system convenient to use.
- Use the computer hardware in an efficient manner.
- Control access to shared resources.





How does the OS provide this?

Resource Management:

• Share resources correctly.

An OS mediates programs' access to hardware resources:

- Computation (CPU).
- Volatile storage (memory) and persistent storage (disk, etc.).
- Network communications (TCP/IP stacks, Ethernet cards, etc.).
- Input/output devices (keyboard, display, sound card, etc.).

Advantages of OS providing resource management?:

- Protect applications from one another.
- Provide efficient use/access to resources:
 - Cost, time, energy...
- Provide fair access to resources.

• Challenges:

- What are the correct mechanisms?
- What are the correct policies?



How does the OS provide this?



Abstraction:

• The OS takes hardware resources and transforms them into logical versions and provides well-defined interfaces for those resources (**system calls**).

What is a resource?:

- Anything valuable (e.g. CPU, memory, disk...).
- What abstraction does modern OS typically provide for each resource?:
 - **CPU:** process and/or threads.
 - **Memory:** address space.
 - **Disk:** files.
 - Network: sockets.

Advantages of OS providing abstraction?:

- Allow applications to reuse common facilities.
- Make different devices look the same.
- Provide higher-level or more useful functionality.



Why bother with an OS?



- Programming simplicity:
 - See high-level abstractions (files) instead of low-level hardware details (device registers).
 - Abstractions are reusable across many programs.
- Portability (across machine configurations or architectures):
 - Device independence (3Com card or Intel card).

User benefits:

- Safety:
 - Program "sees" its own machine (virtualization).
 - OS protects programs from each other.
 - OS fairly distributes resources across programs.
- Efficiency (cost and speed):
 - Share one computer across many users.
 - Concurrent execution of multiple programs.
- Behavior of the OS impacts the entire machine.





Three Pieces



How to cover all the topics relevant to operating systems? - Three pieces:

• Virtualization:

- Make each application believe it has computer resources to itself.
- Take physical hardware and make a software version that is sharable and easier to use.
- Example:
 - CPU: multiple programs can run "at the same time".
 - **Memory**: programs see a linear range of addresses.
- Concurrency:
 - Events are occurring simultaneously and may interact with one another.
 - OS must be able to handle concurrent events, maintaining correctness.
 - Easy case: Concurrency from independent processes.
 - Tricky case: Concurrency from **interacting** processes.
- Persistence:
 - Keep data safe from crashes/reboots.

We will follow:

Remzi H. Arpaci-Dusseau & Andrea C. Arpaci-Dusseau: *«Operating Systems: Three Easy Pieces»*. <u>http://www.ostep.org</u>



Virtualizing the CPU

Let's run some programs:

• cpu.c.

During the course, all programming is in **C**.







Virtualizing the CPU

- Even though we have only one processor, somehow all four of these programs seems to be running at the same time.
- The Operating System (with some help from hardware) provides the illusion that the system has a large number of virtual CPUs (at least one for each process).
- This is what we call virtualizing the CPU.
- If two or more programs want to run at a particular time, which one should run?:
 - **Policy** (what/when will be done).
 - **Mechanisms** (how to do it).



Virtualizing Memory

Physical memory is very simple:

- Memory is just an array of bytes.
- One must specify an address to be able to access the data stored there.
- To write (update) memory, one must specify also the data to be written.

Memory is accessed all the time while a program runs:

• A program keeps all of its data structures and instructions in memory.

Let's run some programs:

• mem.c.







Running multiple instances (disabling Address Space Randomization):

- Seems each running program has allocated memory at the same address.
- Each seems to be updating the value independently.
- Seems each program has its own private memory, instead of sharing the physical memory.

• OS is virtualizing memory:

- Each process accesses its own private virtual address space, which the OS maps onto physical memory.
- Each running program is mapped separately.
- One running program does not affect the address space of other running programs (or the OS itself).
- This is what we call Virtual Memory.







Processes are devoted their own resources:

- Program Counter.
- Processor Registers.
- Address Space :
 - Code.
 - Heap (data).
 - Stack (Stack Pointer).
- User ID and state flags.
- OS Resources (files, network connections...).





What if a program (e.g.: web server) wants to use multiple processors (e.g.: handle multiple requests concurrently).

There is a "light" kind of process: Thread:

- Threads share:
 - Address Space:
 - Code.
 - Heap (data).
 - Privileges.
 - OS resources.
- Each thread has its own:
 - Program Counter.
 - Processor Registers.
 - Stack Pointer.





Sharing resources opens new problems.

• Let's run some programs:

• threads.v0.c.





- With higher values for loops, final value differs from the expected one:
 - Also different values on different runs.

Instructions are executed one at a time:

- The key part of the program (counter increment) takes three instructions:
 - Load from memory to register.
 - Increment register value.
 - Store back into memory.
- What if the other thread executes in between?



Persistence



- Information lifetime is longer than lifetime of one process.
- Machine may be rebooted, lose power or crash unexpectedly.
- We need hardware and software to store data persistently:
 - Hardware: I/O device (hard drive, solid-state drives).
 - Software (OS): File system.
- OS does not create a private-virtualized disk for each application. Rather, information is usually shared between processes/users in files.

• Example:

You use an editor to write a C program → Then you compile the source code into an executable → Then you run the executable (maybe another user does one of these steps).



Design Goals

open course ware

Provide Abstractions to make the system easy to use:

• OS as a standard library. System calls.

High Performance:

- Minimize the overhead of the OS (extra time, extra space...).
- Trade-off: Virtualization/easy to use vs. Performance. Perfection is not always attainable.

Ensure some Fairness:

• Avoid starvation. New trade-off.

Provide Protection between applications as well as the OS:

- Many programs running at the same time, but not harming others.
- Isolation is the key.

Reliability:

• If the OS fails, all applications running on the system fail as well.

Other more specific goals:

- Energy efficiency (green world).
- Security (interconnected world).
- Mobility (small devices...).

• Each system considers some goals more important than others.



History



Operating Systems were born and evolve out of need.

In the 1950s there are scarcely tens of computers in the world:

- "I think there is a world market for maybe five computers":
 - Even though it is probably a fallacy attributed to T.J Watson (IBM 1943), it reflects the computer situation.
- Computers were quite expensive, and machine time was more valuable than person time...:
 - IBM 7090: \$2.9 million.
 - Resource Management and efficiency were important.





History - Mainframes



NSA: IBM 7950 HARVEST



NASA: IBM 7090



History



• Early days: OS just as a Library:

- Instead of having each programmer write low-level I/O handling code, the OS provides such APIs (Application Program Interface).
- Usually, on a mainframe, only one program at a time controlled by a human operator:
 - Human OS (e.g. scheduler) \rightarrow Be nice with the operator.
- Computer cannot be interactive:
 - Too expensive having a user sit in front of a computer, most of the time idle.



History



Automatic mechanisms need Protection:

- OS code is special \rightarrow control of common devices:
 - File system \rightarrow privacy.
- System call (Atlas computing systems) instead of libraries:
 - Privilege instructions executed by the OS (kernel).
 - Requires hardware privilege levels: kernel mode as opposed to user mode.
 - E.g.: a program wants to initiate an I/O request to the disk:
 - 1. The program issues a system call.
 - 2. Hardware special instruction (trap) transfers the control to a pre-specified trap handler and raises privilege level to kernel mode.
 - 3. OS now has full access to hardware and does the required service.
 - 4. OS passes control back to the user via special return-from-trap instruction while lowering the privilege level to user mode.





History – mini computers



DEC PDP-8

Nokkia Mikko 3



History



Multiprogramming Era:

- Computers more affordable (minicomputer):
 - \rightarrow More people working on computer systems.
 - \rightarrow New ideas (multiprogramming).
- Make better use of machine resources:
 - Instead of one job at a time, the OS loads a number of jobs into memory and switches between them.
 - Particularly important due to I/O being slow.
- Memory protection became important.
- Concurrency issues.

UNIX operating system (Ken Thompson and Dennis Ritchie) at Bell Labs:

 Take ideas from Multics (mainly), TENEX and Berkeley Time-Sharing System but made them simpler.





History – Microcomputers



Google glass



History



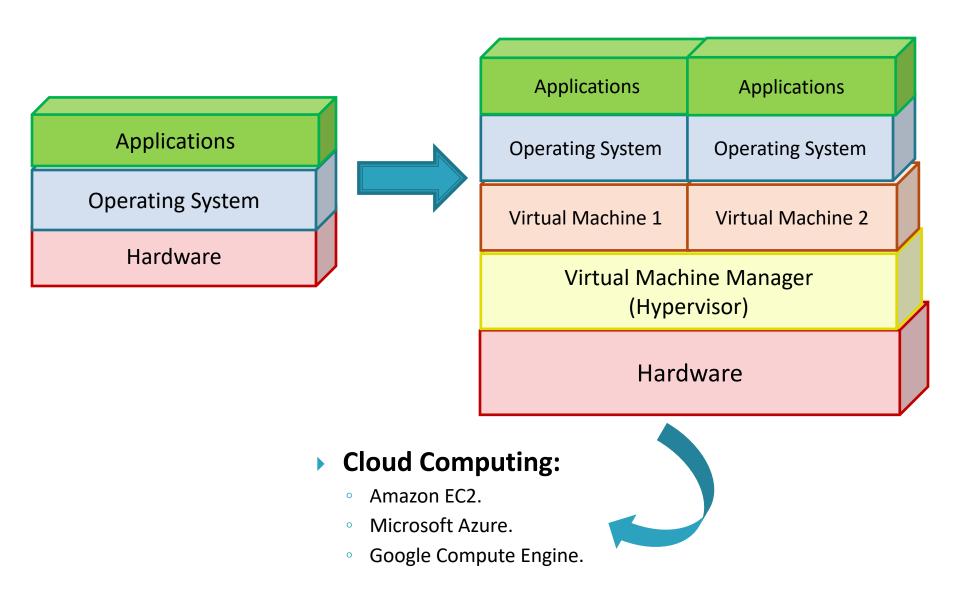
Modern Era:

- Cheaper and faster machine: Personal Computer (PC):
 - Led by Apple early machines and the IBM PC.
 - One machine per desktop.
- OS at first leap backwards:
 - DOS (Disk Operative System from MS) didn't support memory protection.
 - First versions of Mac OS could make processes get stuck in an infinite loop.
- Nowadays OS include features expected in a mature system:
 - Mac OS X (with UNIX at its core).
 - Windows, starting in particular with windows NT.
- Even cell phones run operating systems (such as Linux).
- Nowadays Operating Systems continue to develop, providing more features and making modern systems better and easier for users and applications.













- Originally Unics (Uniplexed Information and Computing System) influenced by the mainframe OS Multics from MIT.
- Developed at Bell Labs by Ken Thompson (and Dennis Ritchie) on a PDP-7 computer.

Main ideas:

- Multiple jobs at a time (concept of process).
- Multiple users. The shell (command-line interpreter).
- File system. Used as inter-process communication.
- Small powerful programs that could be connected to form larger workflows:
 - The shell includes primitives such as pipes to enable meta-level programming.





- The UNIX environment was friendly to programmers and developers:
 - Provides a compiler for the new C programming language.
 - Also provides a text editor.
- Originally written in Assembler, kernel was re-written in C in 1972.
- The authors gave out copies of the OS to anyone who asked (including Universities, Companies and Government):
 - An early form of open-source software.
- The accessibility and readability of the code leads others to play with the kernel and add new features:
 - Berkeley System Distribution (BSD) by a group led by Bill Joy (who later founded Sun Microsystems):
 - Advanced virtual memory, file system and network subsystem.



History - UNIX



Many companies have their own variants:

- SunOS from Sun Microsystems.
- AIX from IBM.
- HPUX from HP.
- IRIX from SGI.
- OS X from Apple...

• UNIX almost disappears:

- AT&T/Bell expensive license.
- Companies try to make profit from it.
- Windows was introduced.







- Improvement of Minix (Tanenbaum academic OS).
- Borrows heavily the ideas and principles of UNIX.
- But not the code, completely rewritten.
- The code became public and many others around the world helped → GNU/Linux was born:
 - As well as the modern open-source software movement.
- In the internet era, most companies (Google, Amazon, Facebook...) chose Linux as it is free and easily modified to suit their needs.
- Linux also gets into smart phones via Android.