Operating System Basics CS 111 Operating Systems Peter Reiher

Outline

- Important properties for an operating system
- Critical abstractions for operating systems
- System services

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Important OS Properties

- For real operating systems built and used by real people
- What's most important depends on who you are talking about
 - Users
 - Service providers
 - Application developers
 - OS developers
- All are important clients for operating systems

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For the End Users,

- Reliability
- Performance
- Upwards compatibility in releases
- Support for differing hardware
 - Currently available platforms
 - What's available in the future
- Availability of key applications
- Security

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Reliability

- Your OS really should never crash
 - Since it takes everything else down with it
- But also need dependability in a different sense
 - The OS must be depended on to behave as it's specified
 - Nobody wants surprises from their operating system
 - Since the OS controls everything, unexpected behavior could be arbitrarily bad

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Performance

- A loose goal
- The OS must perform well in critical situations
- But optimizing the performance of all OS operations not always critical
- Nothing can take too long
- But if something is "fast enough," adding complexity to make it faster not worthwhile
 - Often overlooked by OS researchers and developers

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Upward Compatibility

- People want new releases of an OS
 - New features, bug fixes, enhancements
- People also fear new releases of an OS
 - OS changes can break old applications
- What makes the compatibility issue manageable?
 - Stable interfaces

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Stable Interfaces

- Designers should start with well specified Application Interfaces
 - Must keep them stable from release to release
- Application developers should only use committed interfaces
 - Don't use undocumented features or erroneous side effects

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Interfaces and Standards

- Standards in the Dark Ages (1965)
- The S/W Reformation (1985)
- The role of standards today
- APIs
- ABIs

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Standards in the Dark Ages (1965)

- No software industry as we now know it
- All the money was made on hardware
 - But hardware is useless without software
 - All software built by hardware suppliers
 - Platforms were distinguished by software
- Software portability was an anti-goal
 - Keep customers captive to your hardware
 - Portability means they could go elsewhere
- Standards were few and weak

The S/W Reformation (1985)

- An outgrowth of the popular commodity PC
- The advent of the "killer application"
 - Desk-top publishing, spreadsheets, ...
 - The rise of the Independent Software Vendor
- Fundamental changes to platform industry
 - The "applications, demand, volume" cycle
 - Application capture became strategic
- Applications portability also became strategic
 - Standards are the key to portability
 - Standards compliance became strategic

Standards Today

- There are many software standards
 - Subroutines, protocols and data formats, ...
 - Both portability and interoperability
 - Some are general (e.g. POSIX 1003, TCP/IP)
 - Some are very domain specific (e.g. MPEG2)
- Key standards are widely required
 - Non-compliance reduces application capture
 - Non-compliance raises price to customers
 - Proprietary extensions are usually ignored

APIs

- Application Program Interfaces
 - A source level interface, specifying:
 - Include files, data types, constants
 - Macros, routines and their parameters
- A basis for software portability
 - Recompile program for the desired architecture
 - Linkage edit with OS-specific libraries
 - Resulting binary runs on that architecture and OS
- An API compliant program will compile & run on any compliant system
 - APIs are primarily for programmers

ABIs

- Application Binary Interfaces
 - A binary interface, specifying:
 - Dynamically loadable libraries (DLLs)
 - Data formats, calling sequences, linkage conventions
 - The binding of an API to a hardware architecture
- A basis for binary compatibility
 - One binary serves all customers for that hardware
 - E.g. all x86 Linux/BSD/MacOS/Solaris/...
- An ABI compliant program will run (unmodified) on any compliant system
- ABIs are primarily for users

For the Service Providers,

- Reliability
- Performance
- Upwards compatibility in releases
- Platform support (wide range of platforms)
- Manageability
- Total cost of ownership
- Support (updates and bug fixes)
- Flexibility (in configurations and applications)
- Security

For the Application Developers,

- Reliability
- Performance
- Upwards compatibility in releases
- Standards conformance
- Functionality (current and roadmap)
- Middleware and tools
- Documentation
- Support (how to ...)

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For the OS Developers,

- Reliability
- Performance
- Maintainability
- Low cost of development
 - Original and ongoing

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Maintainability

- Operating systems have very long lives
 - Solaris, the "new kid on the block," came out in 1993
 - Even smart phone OSes have roots in the 80s or 90s
- Basic requirements will change many times
- Support costs will dwarf initial development
- This makes maintainability critical
- Aspects of maintainability:
 - Understandability
 - Modularity/modifiability

Testability

Maintainability: Understandability

- Code must be learnable by mortals
 - It will not be maintained by the original developers
 - New people must be able to come up to speed
- Code must be well organized
 - Nobody can understand 1 million lines of random code
 - It must have understandable, hierarchical structure
- Documentation
 - High level structure, and organizing principles
 - Functionality, design, and rationale for modules
 - How to solve common problems

Why a Hierarachical Structure?

- Not <u>absolutely</u> necessary, but . . .
- Hierarchical layers usually understandable without completely understanding the implementation
- Expansion of one sub-system in a hierarchy usually understandable w/out understanding the expansion of other sub-systems
- Other structures tend not to have those advantages

Maintainability: Modularity and Modifiability

- Modules must be understandable in isolation
 - Modules should perform coherent functions
 - Well-specified interfaces for each module
 - Implementation details hidden within module
 - Inter-module dependencies should be few/simple/clean
- Modules must be independently changeable
 - Lots of side effects mean lots of bugs
 - Changes to one module should not affect others
- Keep It Simple Stupid
 - Costs of complexity usually outweigh the rewards

Side Effects

- A *side effect* is a situation where an action in one object has non-obvious consequences
 - Perhaps even to other objects
 - Generally not following the interface specification
- Side effects often happen when state is shared between seemingly independent modules and functions
- Side effects lead to unexpected behaviors
 - And the resulting bugs can be hard to find

Maintainability: Testability

- OS <u>must</u> work, so its developers <u>must</u> test it
- Thorough testing is key to reliability
 - All modules must be thoroughly testable
 - Most modules should be testable in isolation
- Testability must be designed in from the start
 - Observability of internal state
 - Triggerability of all operations and situations
 - Isolability of functionality
- Testing must be automated
 - Functionality, regression, performance,
 - Stress testing, error handling handling

Automated Testing

- Why is it important that testing be automated?
- Automated tests can be run often (e.g. after every change) with very little cost or effort
- Automatically executed tests are much more likely to be run completely and correctly every time
- And discrepancies are much more likely to be noted and reported

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Cost of Development

- Another area where simplicity wins
- If it's simple, it will be quicker and cheaper to build
- Even better, there will be fewer bugs
 - And thus less cost for bug fixes
- And changing/extending it will be cheaper
- Low cost development usually implies speedy development
 - Quicker time to market

Critical OS Abstractions

- One of the main roles of an operating system is to provide abstract services
 - Services that are easier for programs and users to work with
- What are the important abstractions an OS provides?

Abstractions of Memory

- Many resources used by programs and people relate to data storage
 - Variables
 - Chunks of allocated memory
 - Files

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- Database records
- Messages to be sent and received
- These all have some similar properties

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The Basic Memory Operations

- Regardless of level or type, memory abstractions support a couple of operations
 - WRITE(name, value)
 - Put a value into a memory location specified by name
 - value <- READ(name)</pre>
 - Get a value out of a memory location specified by name
- Seems pretty simple
- But going from a nice abstraction to a physical implementation can be complex

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Some Complicating Factors

- Persistent vs. transient memory
- Size of operations
 - Size the user/application wants to work with
 - Size the physical device actually works with
- Coherence and atomicity
- Latency
- Same abstraction might be implemented with many different physical devices
 - Possibly of very different types

Where Do the Complications Come From?

- At the bottom, the OS doesn't have abstract devices with arbitrary properties
- It has particular physical devices
 - With unchangeable, often inconvenient, properties
- The core OS abstraction problem:
 - Creating the abstract device with the desirable properties from the physical device without them

An Example

- A typical file
- We can read or write the file
- We can read or write arbitrary amounts of data
- If we write the file, we expect our next read to reflect the results of the write
 - Coherence
- If there are several reads/writes to the file, we expect each to occur in some order
 - With respect to the others

What Is Implementing the File?

- Most commonly a hard disk drive
- Disk drives have peculiar characteristics
 - Long, and worse, variable access latencies
 - Accesses performed in chunks of fixed size
 - Atomicity only for accesses of that size
 - Highly variable performance depending on exactly what gets put where
 - Unpleasant failure modes
- So the operating system needs to smooth out these oddities

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What Does That Lead To?

- Great effort by file system component of OS to put things in the right place on a disk
- Reordering of disk operations to improve performance
 - Which complicates providing atomicity
- Optimizations based on caching and readahead
 - Which complicates maintaining consistency
- Sophisticated organizations to handle failures

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Abstractions of Interpreters

- An interpreter is something that performs commands
- Basically, the element of a computer (abstract or physical) that gets things done
- At the physical level, we have a processor
- That level is not easy to use
- The OS provides us with higher level interpreter abstractions

Basic Interpreter Components

- An instruction reference
 - Tells the interpreter which instruction to do next
- A repertoire
 - The set of things the interpreter can do
- An environment reference
 - Describes the current state on which the next instruction should be performed
- Interrupts
 - Situations in which the instruction reference pointer is overriden

For Example,

- A CPU
- It has a program counter register indicating where the next instruction can be found
 - An instruction reference
- It supports a set of instructions
 - Its repertoire
- It has contents in registers and RAM
 - Its environment

Another Example

- A process
- The OS maintains a program counter for the process
 - An instruction reference
- Its source code specifies its repertoire
- Its stack, heap, and register contents are its environment
 - With the OS maintaining pointers to all of them
- No other interpreters should be able to mess up the process' resources

Implementing the Process Abstraction in the OS

- Easy if there's only one process
- But there almost always are multiple processes
- The OS has a certain amount of physical memory
 - To hold the environment information
- There is usually only one set of registers
- The process doesn't have exclusive access to the CPU
 - Due to other processes

What Does That Lead To?

- Schedulers to share the CPU among various processes
- Memory management hardware and software
 - To multiplex memory use among the processes
 - Giving each the illusion of full exclusive use of memory
- Access control mechanisms for other memory abstractions
 - So other processes can't fiddle with my files

Abstractions of Communications Links

- A communication link allows one interpreter to talk to another
 - On the same or different machines
- At the physical level, wires and cables
- At more abstract levels, networks and interprocess communication mechanisms
- Some similarities to memory abstractions
 - But also differences

Basic Communication Link Operations

- SEND(link_name, outgoing_message_buffer)
 - Send some information contained in the buffer on the named link
- RECEIVE(link_name, incoming message buffer)
 - Read some information off the named link and put it into the buffer
- Like WRITE and READ, in some respects

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Why Are Communication Links Distinct From Memory?

- Highly variable performance
- Potentially hostile environment for the operations
- Generally asynchronous
- Receiver may only perform the operation because the SEND occurred
 - Unlike a typical READ
- No necessary guarantee of delivery

An Example Communications Link

- A Unix-style socket
- SEND interface:
 - -send(int sockfd, const void *buf, size t len, int flags)
 - The sockfd is the link name
 - The buf is the outgoing message buffer
- RECEIVE interface:
 - -recv(int sockfd, void *buf, size_t len, int flags)
 - Same parameters as for send

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What About Those Other Socket Parameters?

- The len and flag fields?
- A common attribute of instances of abstractions
 - Especially higher level versions
- They provide additional semantics specific to the abstraction
- Generally improving the power of the higher level abstraction

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Implementing the Communications Link Abstraction in the OS

- A bit trickier than the memory and interpreter abstraction, in some cases
- Unlike those, the OS does not have full control of what's going on
- The network doesn't belong to the OS
 - Only its own network interface does
- Another entity is often doing half the work
 - Typically another machine's OS

What Are the Implications?

- Greater uncertainty about the outcome of an operation
 - Things fail for reasons our OS can't see or learn
- Greater asynchrony
 - The remote OS might not regard the operations as equally important as our OS does
- Higher possibilities for security problems
 - Remote OS not equally trusted
 - Network between the two potentially untrustworthy

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What Do We Do About Those Issues?

- OS must be prepared for likely failures
- And high degrees of asynchrony
 - Bad idea to block entire system while waiting for the network
- OS shouldn't have complete trust in what comes in from the network
 - But often the OS is in no position to determine its trustworthiness

Some Other Abstractions

- Actors
 - Users or other "active" entities
- Virtual machines
 - Collections of other abstractions
- Protection environments
 - Security related, usually
- Names
- Not a complete list
- Not everyone would agree on what's distinct

System Services for OSes

- One major role of an operating system is providing services
 - To human users
 - To applications
- What services should an OS provide?

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An Object Oriented View of OS System Services

- Services are delivered through objects
 - Can be instantiated, named, and destroyed
 - They have specified properties
 - They support specified methods
- To understand a service, study its objects
 - How they are instantiated and managed
 - How client refers to them (names/handles)
 - What a client can do with them (methods)
 - How objects behave (interface specifications)

Typical OS System Service Types

- Execution objects
 - Processes, threads, timers, signals
- Data objects
 - Files, devices, segments, file systems
- Communications objects
 - Sockets, messages, remote procedure calls
- Protection objects
 - Users, user groups, process groups
- Naming objects
 - Directories, DNS domains, registries

System Services and Abstractions

- Services are commonly implemented by providing appropriate abstractions
- For example,
 - The service of allowing user code to run in a computing environment
 - Requires a couple of abstractions, at least:
 - The virtual environment abstraction
 - The process abstraction

The Virtual Environment Abstraction

- A CPU executes one program at a time
 - It is a serially reusable resource
- But we want to run multiple programs "simultaneously"
 - Without them treading on each other's toes
- A good way to do that is to build a virtual execution environment abstraction
 - Make it look like each program has its own computer

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What Should This Abstraction Provide?

- Each program should see its own resource set
 - A complete virtual computer with all elements
 - CPU
 - Memory
 - Persistent storage
 - Peripherals
- Isolation from other activities
 - Including non-related OS activities
- Each program should think it has the real machine to itself

How To Do That?

- We won't go into detail now
 - But will later
- In essence, the OS must multiplex its real resources
 - Among the various process' virtual computers
- Requiring care in saving and restoring state
- And attention to fair use and processes' various performance requirements

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The Process Service

- Given we want per program virtual environments,
- We need an interpreter abstraction that provides the ability to run user code
 - The process
- With some very useful properties:
 - Isolation from other code
 - Isolation from many system failures
 - Guarantees of access to certain resources
- Processes can communicate and coordinate
 - But do so through the OS
 - Which provides isolation and synchronization

What Is a Process?

- An interpreter that executes a single program
 - It provides illusion of continuous execution
 - Despite fact that the actual CPU is time-shared
 - Runs process A, then process B, then process A
- What virtual environment does a program see?
 - Programs don't run on a real bare computer
 - They run inside of a process
 - Process state is saved when it is not running
 - Process state is restored when it runs again

Processes and Programs

- Program = set of executable instructions
 - Many processes can run the same program
- Process = executing instance of program
 - It has saved state
 - Memory, contents, program counter, registers, ...
 - It has resources and privileges
 - Open files, user-ID, capabilities, ...
 - It may be the unit of CPU sharing
 - CPU runs one process, then another

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Problems With the Process Abstraction

- Processes are very expensive
 - To create: they own resources
 - To dispatch: they have address spaces
- Different processes are very distinct
 - They cannot share the same address space
 - They cannot (usually) share resources
- Not all programs want strong separation
 - Cooperating parallel threads of execution
 - All are trusted because they run same code

So the Process Abstraction Isn't Sufficient

- To meet common user needs
- What if I have a program that can do multiple things simultaneously?
- And requires regular, cheap communications between those different things?
- Processes are too expensive
- And make regular communications costly
- So I need another abstraction

Threads

- An abstraction built on top of the process abstraction
- Each process contains one or more threads
- Each thread has some separate context of its own
 - Like a program counter and scheduling info
- But otherwise shares the resources of its process
- Threads within a process can thus communicate easily and cheaply

Characteristics of Threads

- Strictly a unit of execution/scheduling
 - Each thread has its own stack, PC, registers
- Multiple threads can run in a process
 - They all share the same code and data space
 - They all have access to the same resources
 - This makes the cheaper to create and run
- Sharing the CPU between multiple threads
 - User level threads (with voluntary yielding)
 - Kernel threads (with preemption)

Using the Abstractions

- When a programmer wants to run code, then, he can choose between abstractions
- Does he want just a process?
- Or does he want a process containing multiple threads?
- Or perhaps multiple processes?
 - With one thread each?
 - With multiple threads?

When To Use Processes

- When running multiple distinct programs
- When creation/destruction are rare events
- When running programs (even instances of the same code) with distinct privileges
- When there are limited interactions and few shared resources
- When you need to prevent interference between programs
 - Or need to protect one from failures of the other

An Example of Choosing Processes

• When implementing compilation in a shell script

cpp \$1.c | cc1 | ccopt > \$1.s

as \$1.s

ld /lib/crt0.o \$1.o /lib/libc.so

mv a.out \$1

rm \$1.s \$1.o

• Each of these programs gets a separate process

Why?

- The activities are serial
- The only resources to be shared are through the file system
- Failure of one program could damage the others if too much is shared
 - Who knows what rm might get rid of, for example?

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When To Use Threads

- When there are parallel activities in a single program
- When there will be frequent creation and destruction
- When all activities can run with same privileges
- When they need to share resources
- When they exchange many messages/signals
- When there's no need to protect them from each other

An Example for Choosing Threads

- A web server
- Multiple users will request service
- Desirable to share much of the server data
 - Such as copies of pages many users want to see
 - And information about overall load and performance
- But the pages can be served to users in parallel
 - In particular, if serving one user's page is slow, don't slow down other users

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Which Abstraction To Choose?

- If you use multiple processes
 - Your application may run much more slowly
 - It may be difficult to share some resources
- If you use multiple threads
 - You will have to create and manage them
 - You will have serialize resource use
 - Your program will be more complex to write
 - You may get weird bugs
- TANSTAAFL

- There Ain't No Such Thing As A Free Lunch

Generalizing the Concepts

- There are many other abstractions offered by the OS
- Often they provide different ways of achieving similar goals
 - Some higher level, some lower level
- The OS must do work to provide each abstraction
 - The higher level, the more work
- Programmers and users have to choose the right abstractions to work with

Abstractions and Layering

- It's common to create increasingly complex services by layering abstractions
 - E.g., a file system layers on top of an abstract disk,
 which layers on top of a real disk
- Layering allows good modularity
 - Easy to build multiple services on a lower layer
 - E.g., multiple file systems on one disk
 - Easy to use multiple underlying services to support a higher layer
 - E.g., file system can have either a single disk or a RAID below it

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A Downside of Layering

- Layers typically add performance penalties
- Often expensive to go from one layer to the next
 - Since it frequently requires changing data structures or representations
 - At least involves extra instructions
- Another downside is that lower layer may limit what the upper layer can do
 - E.g., an abstract disk prevents disk operation reorderings to maximize performance

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Layer Bypassing

- Often necessary to allow a high layer to access much lower layers
 - Not going through one or more intermediaries
- Most commonly for performance reasons
- If the higher layer plans to use the very low level layer's services,
 - Why pay the cost of the intermediate layer?
- Has its downsides, too
 - Intermediate layer can't help or understand