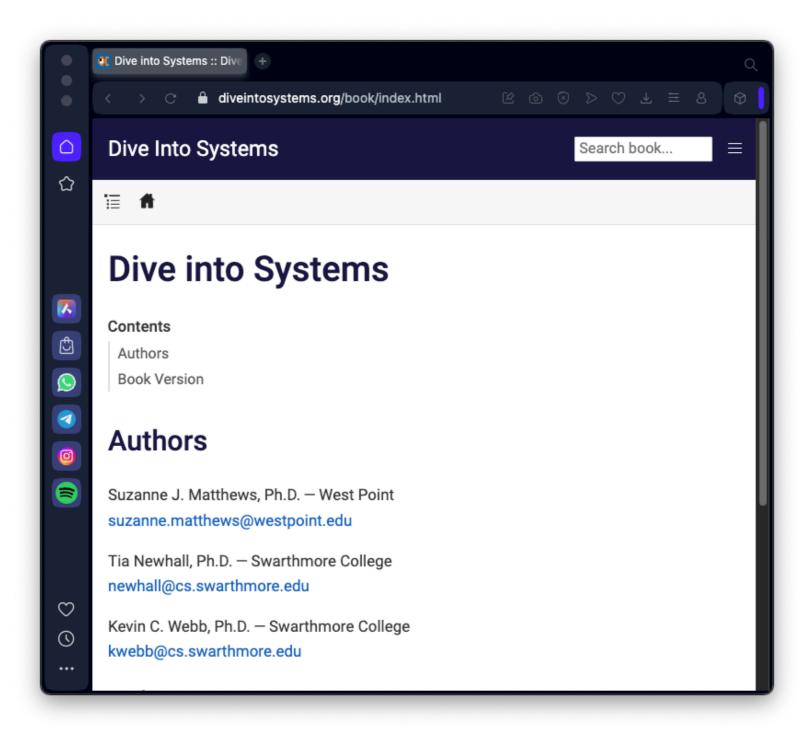
13. The Operating System

For COMSC 142

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Free online textbook



https://diveintosystems.org/book/index.html

Topics

- 13.1. Booting and Running
- 13.2. Processes
- 13.3. Virtual Memory
- 13.4. Interprocess Communication

13. The Operating System

- Such as Windows or Linux
- Manages hardware
- Supports initiating programs
 - Loads program into RAM
 - Starts CPU running its code
- Implements multiprogramming
 - More than one program can run at the same time
 - OS shares resources, including CPU, among the programs
 - When one program is waiting, another can proceed

Process

An abstraction of a running program

User/Program

Operating System (special system software)

Computer Hardware: CPU, RAM, I/O Devices

The Kernel

- Core OS functionality
 - Managing hardware
 - Managing OS abstractions exported to users
 - Such as files
 - Implementing interfaces to applications and devices

Mechanisms

Enable the hardware to run processes

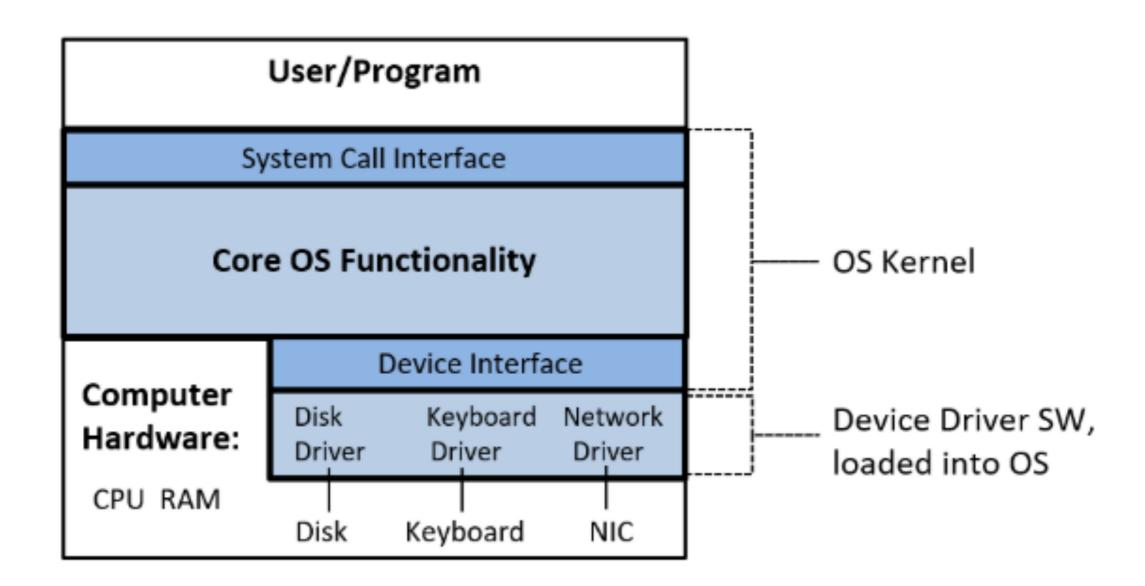
Policies

 Govern abstractions, such as deciding which process gets CPU time next

System Calls

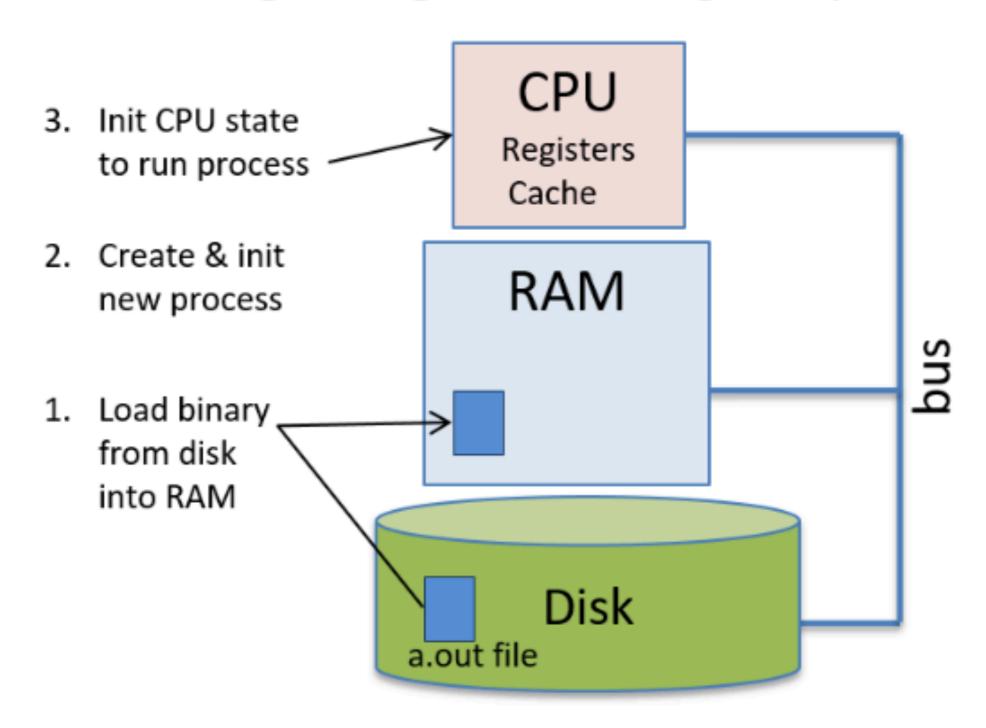
- A programming interface for users of the system
- Part of the kernel
- Example:
 - Get time of day from the gettimeofday system call

Kernel Components



13.1. Booting and Running

Starting a Program Running on System



13.1.1. OS Booting

Booting

- Runs firmware (nonvolatile code)
 - BIOS (Basic Input/Output System) or
 - UEFI (Unified Extensible Firmware Interface)
 - Loads boot block into RAM and starts it running
- That loads the rest of the OS from disk
 - Discovers and initializes hardware resources
 - Initializes data structures and abstractions to make the system ready for users

13.1.2. Getting the OS to Do Something: Interrupts and Traps

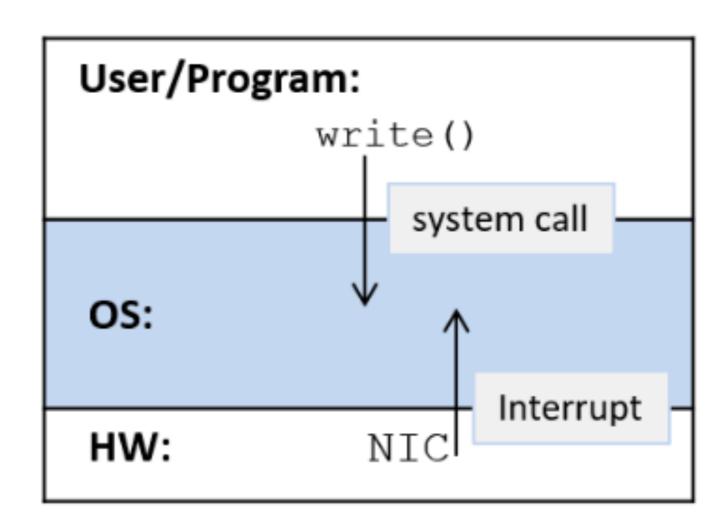


Figure 2. In an interrupt-driven system, user-level programs make system calls, and hardware devices issue interrupts to initiate OS actions.

Interrupts and Traps

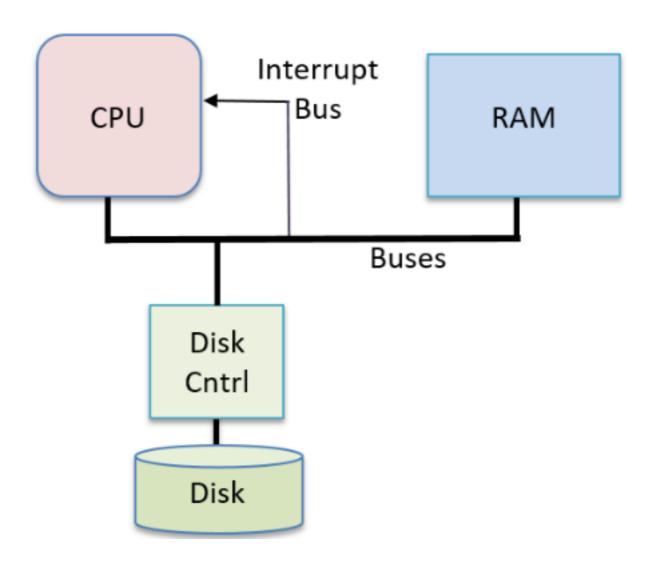
- Interrupts that come from the hardware layer
 - such as when a NIC receives data from the network,
 - are called hardware interrupts, or just interrupts
- Interrupts that come from the software layer
 - such as when an application makes a system call
 - are called *traps*
- Exceptions from either layer may also interrupt the OS
 - Such as disk read error, or divide by zero

Example: Write system call

```
GNU nano 3.2
                               hello.asm
section .text
global _start
_start:
   mov edx, len
   mov ecx, msg
   mov ebx, 1
   mov eax, 4
   int 0x80
   mov eax, 1
        0x80
   int
section .data
msg db "Hello World!"
len equ $ - msg
```

Interrupt Bus

- Sends a signal from hardware to the CPU
- CPU runs *handler* code



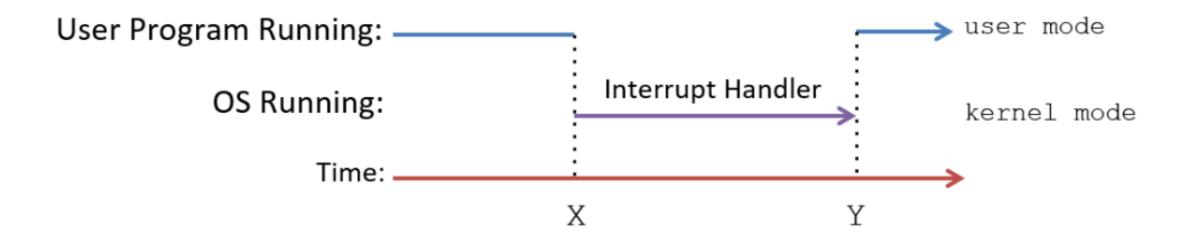
User Mode and Kernel Mode

User Mode

- Restricted access to hardware
- Cannot access OS instructions or date
- Can only access memory allocated to it by the OS

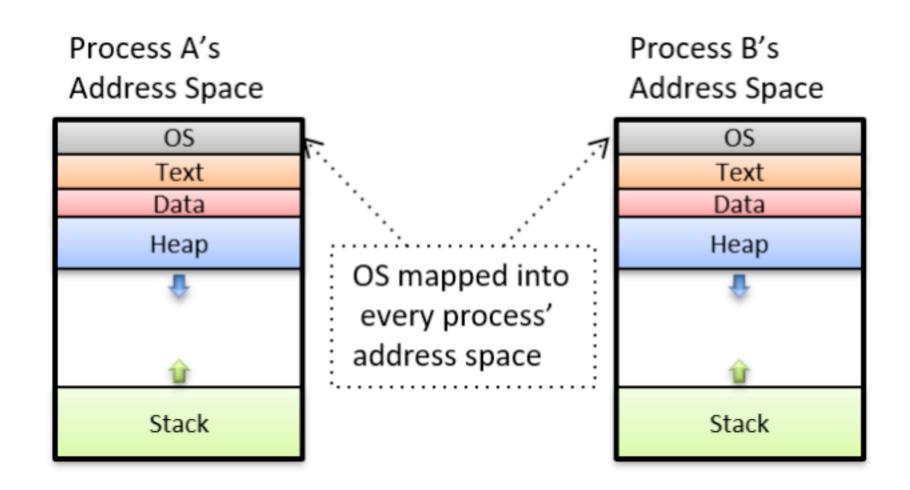
Kernel Mode

- Can execute any instructions
- Can access any memory location
- Can access all hardware directly



Process Address Space

- The Kernel was mapped into the top of every process's address space
- This system was replaced in 2018 to mitigate the Meltdown hardware exploit



13.2. Processes

Processes

A process

- represents an instance of a program running in the system, which includes
- the program's binary executable code, data, and execution context
- The context tracks the program's execution
 - maintaining its register values, stack location, and the instruction it is currently executing
- Multiprogramming systems
 - support multiple processes at the same time

Lone View

- OS isolates processes from one another
- Gives each process the illusion that it's controlling the entire machine

13.2.1. Multiprogramming and Context Switching

Timesharing

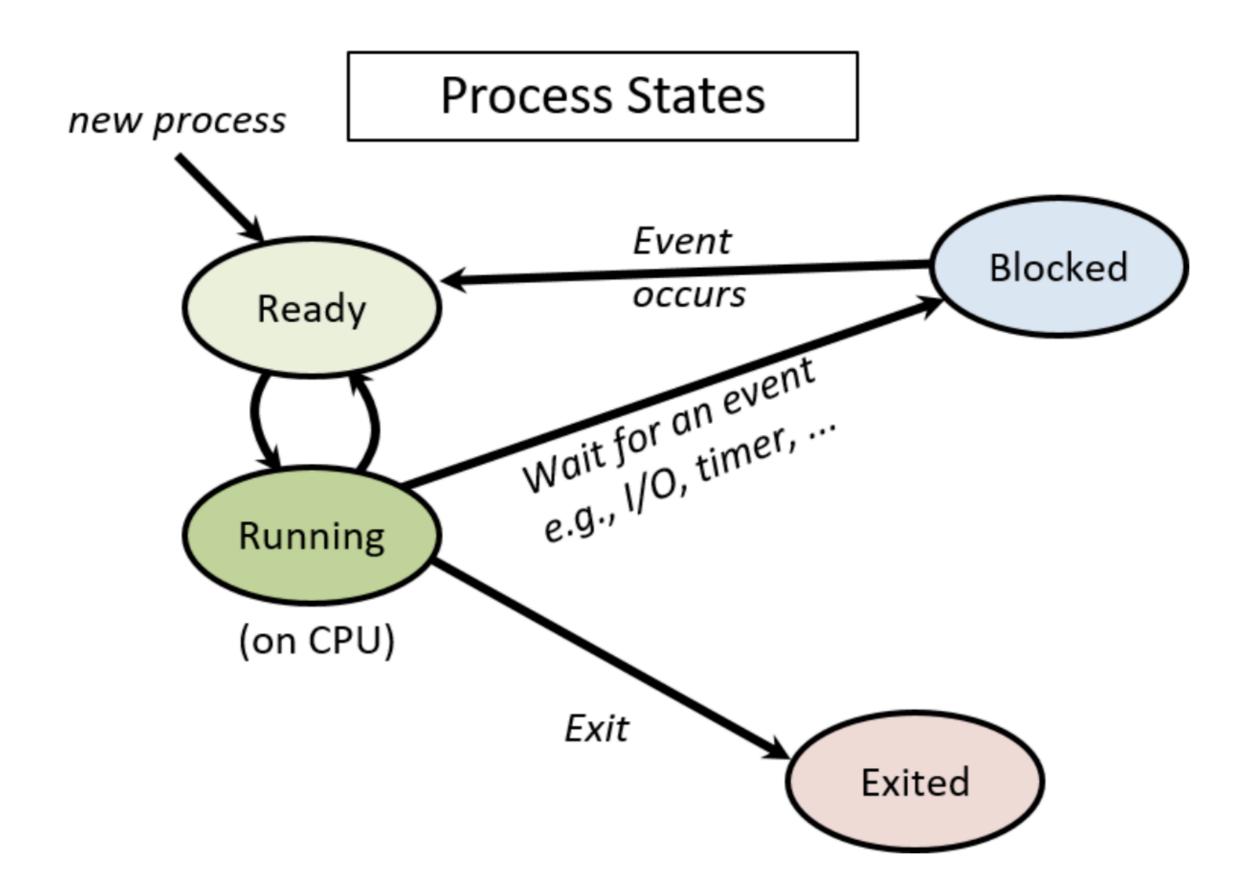
- OS gives each process a time slice or quantum
- a few milliseconds of CPU time
- Processes run concurrently
 - their executions overlap in time

Context Switching

- OS saves context of the currently running process
 - register values (PC, stack pointers, general-purpose register, condition codes, etc.)
 - memory state
 - other states like open files
- OS restores the saved context from another process
 - resumes execution from the instruction where it left off

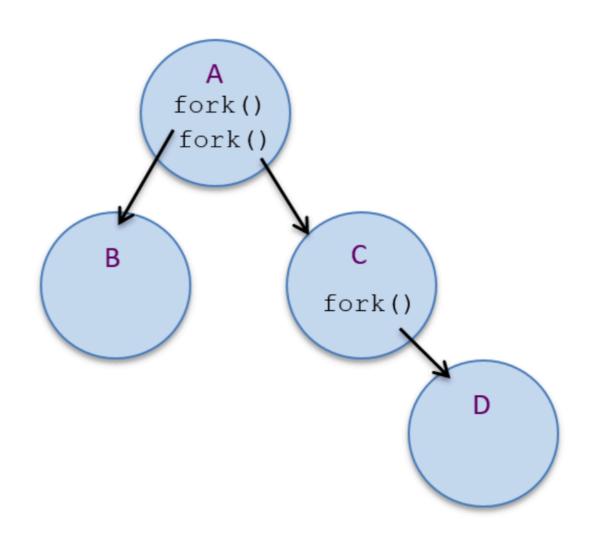
13.2.2. Process State

- Process id (PID)
 - unique identifier for a process
 - ps command shows PID values
- Address space information
- Execution state
 - CPU register values, stack location
- Resources
 - e.g., open files
- Process state
 - determines its eligibility for execution on the CPU



13.2.3. Creating (and Destroying) Processes

- The fork system call
 - creates a new process
- Parent process
 - the process calling fork
- Child process
 - the new process it creates
- init
 - The first process
 - Created at boot time



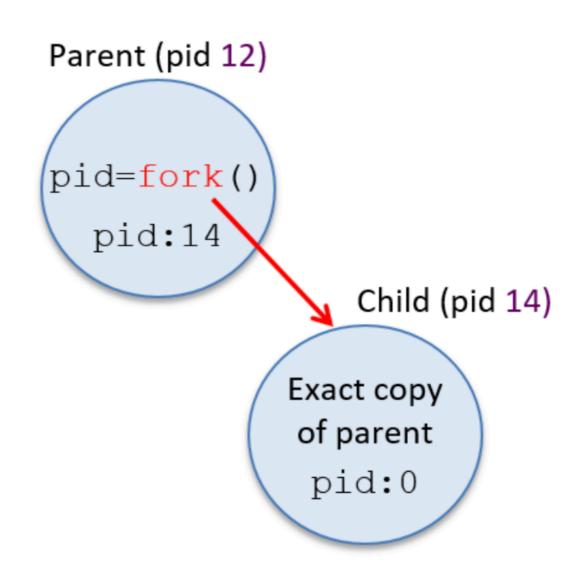
Fork Demo

- wget https://samsclass.info/COMSC-142/proj/forkdemo3.c
- gcc -o forkdemo3 forkdemo3.c

```
• Sambowne — debian@debian: ~/COMSC-142/ch13 — ssh debian@192.168.121.173 —...
debian@debian:~/COMSC-142/ch13$ cat forkdemo3.c
#include <stdio.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
int main() {
   pid_t pid;
   /* create a new child process */
   pid = fork();
   /* both parent and child execute this */
   printf("pid = %d\n", pid);
}debian@debian:~/COMSC-142/ch13$ ./forkdemo3
pid = 6582
pid = 0
debian@debian:~/COMSC-142/ch13$
```

Fork's Return Value

 fork returns 0 to the child process and the child's PID value (14) to the parent.



Fork Demo

wget https://samsclass.info/COMSC-142/proj/forkdemo4.c

```
sambowne — debian@debian: ~/COMSC-142/ch13 — ssh debian@192.168.121.173 — 73×26
int main(void) {
    pid_t pid, mypid;
    printf("A\n");
    pid = fork(); /* create a new child process */
    if(pid == -1) { /* check and handle error return value */
        printf("fork failed!\n");
        exit(pid);
    }
    if (pid == 0) { /* the child process */
        mypid = getpid();
        printf("Child: fork returned %d, my pid %d\n", pid, mypid);
    } else { /* the parent process */
        mypid = getpid();
        printf("Parent: fork returned %d, my pid %d\n", pid, mypid);
    }
    printf("B:%d\n", mypid);
    return 0;
debian@debian:~/COMSC-142/ch13$ ./forkdemo4
```

Fork Demo

Possible Order of Outputs

Parent and child run independently

Table 1. All Six Possible Orderings of Example Program Output

Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Option 5	Option 6
Α	Α	Α	Α	Α	Α
Parent	Parent	Parent	Child	Child	Child
Child	Child	B:12	Parent	Parent	B:14
B:12	B:14	Child	B:12	B:14	Parent
B:14	B:12	B:14	B:14	B:12	B:12

13.2.4. exec

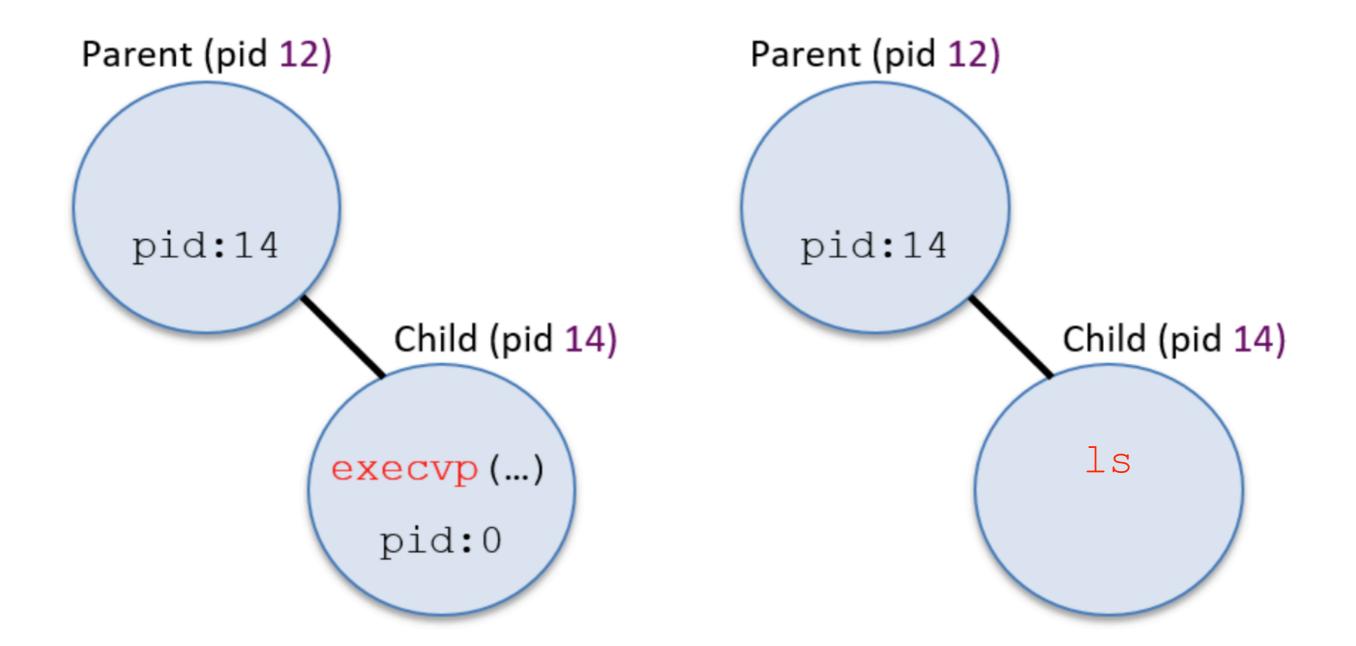
 Overlays the calling process's image with a new image from a binary executable file.

```
int execvp(char *filename, char *argv[]);
```

execvp Demo

wget https://samsclass.info/COMSC-142/proj/execvpdemo.c

```
sambowne — debian@debian: ~/COMSC-142/ch13 — ssh debian@192.168.121.173 — 69×21
int main() {
   pid_t pid;
   int ret;
   char *argv[2];
   argv[0] = "ls";
   argv[1] = NULL;
   pid = fork();
   if (pid == 0) { /* child process */
      ret = execvp("ls", argv);
      if (ret < 0) {
         printf("Error: execvp returned!!!\n");
         exit(ret);
   }
debian@debian:~/COMSC-142/ch13$ ./execvpdemo
debian@debian:~/COMSC-142/ch13$ execvpdemo execvpdemo.c forkdemo3
forkdemo3.c forkdemo4 forkdemo4.c
debian@debian:~/COMSC-142/ch13$
```



execvp Return

- The program should not return from execvp
- It should be replaced by the new executable
- With the same pid

```
pid = fork();
if (pid == 0) { /* child process */
  ret = execvp("ls", argv);
  if (ret < 0) {
    printf("Error: execvp returned!!!\n");
    exit(ret);
}
</pre>
```



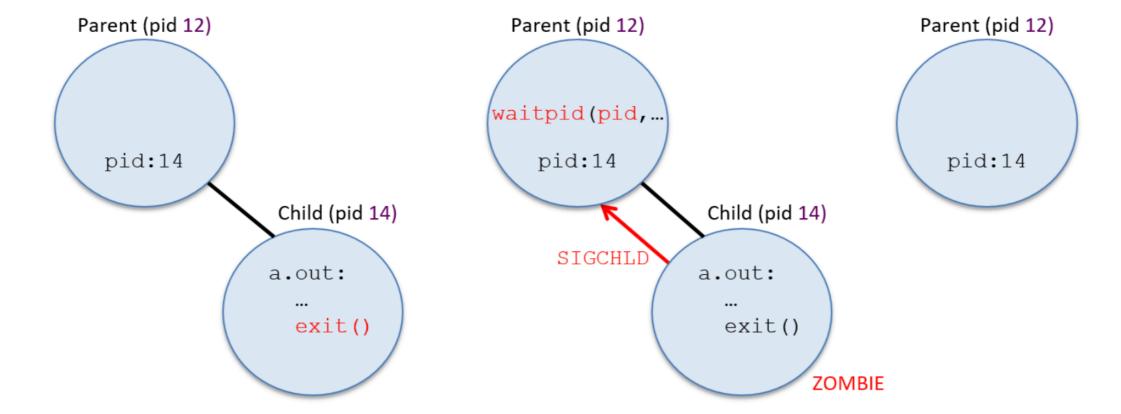
Ch13b

13.2.5. exit and wait

- Processes can be triggered to exit by:
 - Completing all of its application code
 - returning from its main function leads to a process invoking the exit system call
 - Perform an invalid action
 - such as dividing by zero or dereferencing a null pointer
 - Receiving a signal
 - from the OS or another process
 - telling it to exit
- In fact, dividing by zero and NULL pointer dereferences result in the OS sending the process SIGFPE and SIGSEGV signals telling it to exit

Signals

- Signals are software interrupts
 - SIGSEGV for null pointer dereference
 - SIGKILL from a parent calls exit in a child process
 - Pressing Ctrl+C sends SIGINT, which also calls exit
 - After calling exit, the OS delivers a SIGCHLD signal to the parent process
 - The child becomes a zombie process
 - it moves to the Exited state and can no longer run on the CPU
 - A parent process **reaps** its zombie child (cleans up the rest of its state from the system) by calling the **wait** system call



Blocking

- If the child is still executing when the parent process calls wait
 - the parent blocks until the child exits
 - (the parent enters the **Blocked** state waiting for the **SIGCHLD** signal event to happen)
- The blocking behavior of the parent can be seen if you run a program (a.out) in the foreground of a shell—the shell program doesn't print out a shell prompt until a.out terminates, indicating that the shell parent process is blocked on a call to wait, waiting until it receives a SIGCHLD from its child process running a.out.

```
sambowne - debian@debian: ~ - ssh debian@192.168.121.173 - 54×5

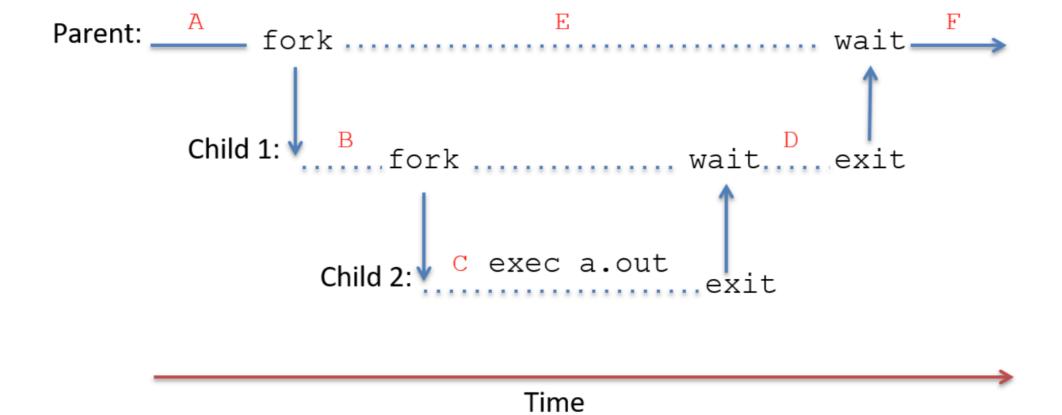
| debian@debian: ~$
| debian@debian: ~$
| debian@debian: ~$
| debian@debian: ~$
```

Backgrounding

- If the parent implements a SIGCHLD signal handler that contains the call to wait
 - then the parent only calls wait when there is an exited child process to reap
 - and thus it doesn't block on a wait call.
- This behavior can be seen by running a program in the background in a shell (a.out &).

Example

```
pid_t pid1, pid2, ret;
int status;
printf("A\n");
pid1 = fork();
if (pid1 == 0 ) {     /* child 1 */
   printf("B\n");
   pid2 = fork();
   if (pid2 == 0 ){  /* child 2 */
       printf("C\n");
       execvp("a.out", NULL);
   } else { /* child 1 (parent of child 2) */
       ret = wait(&status);
       printf("D\n");
       exit(0);
} else {
          /* original parent */
   printf("E\n");
   ret = wait(&status);
   printf("F\n");
```



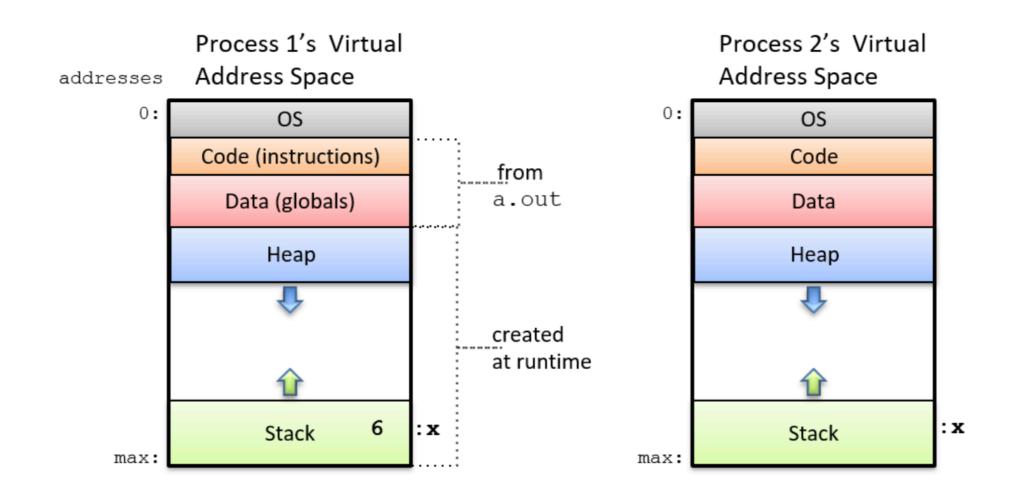
13.3. Virtual Memory

Virtual Memory

- Virtual memory is an abstraction that gives each process its own private, logical address space in which its instructions and data are stored—lone view
- Processes cannot access the contents of one another's address spaces
- Some parts of a process's virtual address space come from the binary executable file it's running (e.g., the text portion contains program instructions from the a.out file)
- Other parts of a process's virtual address space are created at runtime (e.g., the stack)

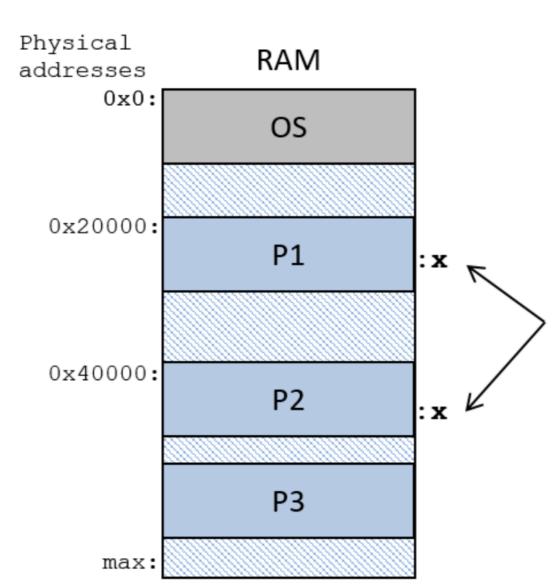
Two Processes

- From the same executable file
- Each instance of the variable **x** is independent



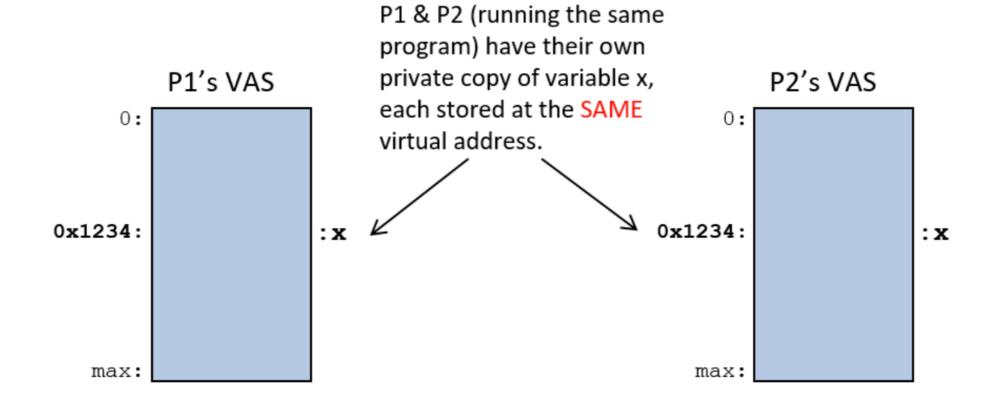
13.3.1. Memory Addresses

- Virtual addresses
 - locations in a process's virtual address space
- Physical addresses
 - locations in physical memory (RAM)



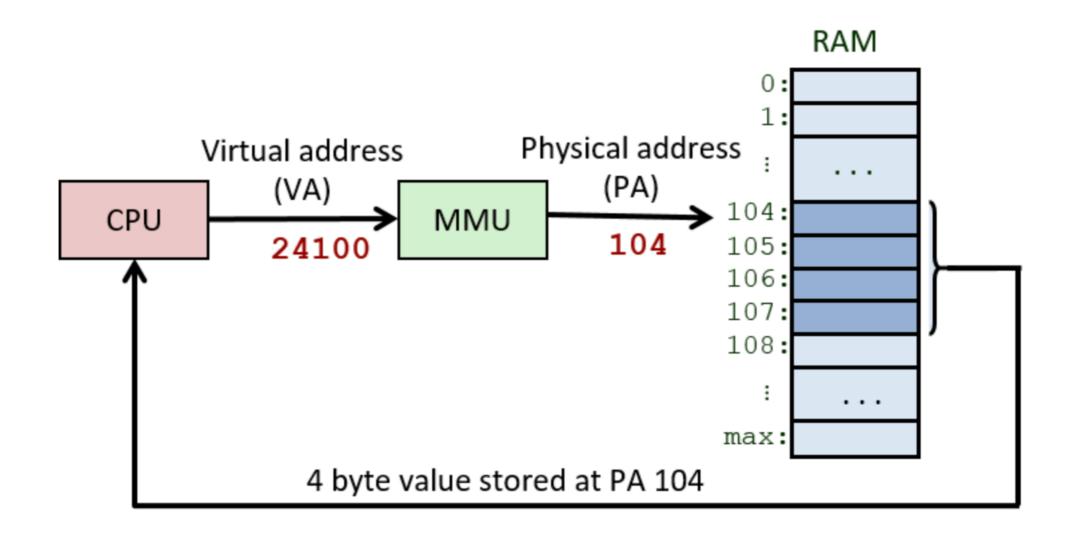
P1 & P2 (running the same program) get their own private copy of variable x, each one stored at a DIFFERENT physical address in RAM.

Virtual Addresses



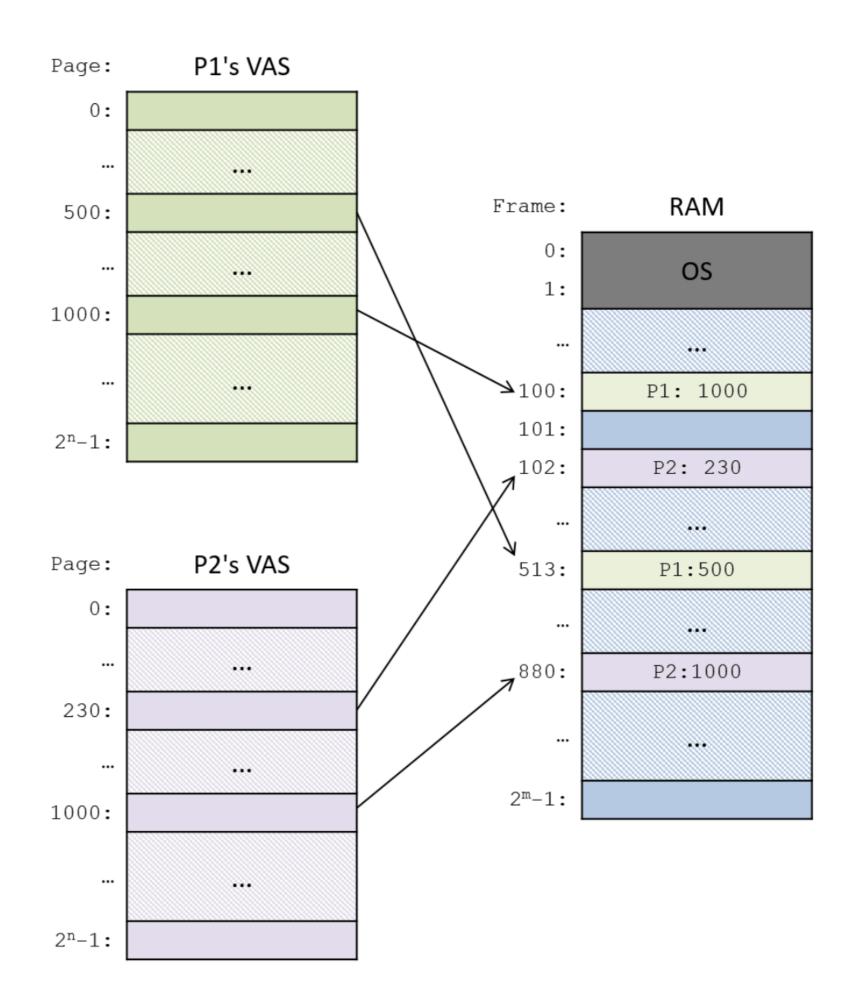
13.3.2. Virtual Address to Physical Address Translation

- Memory Management Unit (MMU) is the part of the computer hardware that implements address translation
- When the CPU needs to fetch data from physical memory, the virtual address is first translated by the MMU to a physical addresses that is used to address RAM.



13.3.3. Paging

- The OS divides the virtual address space of each process into fixed-sized chunks called pages
 - Typically 4 KB
- Physical memory is similarly divided by the OS into page-sized chunks called frames



Virtual and Physical Addresses in Paged Systems

- Paged virtual memory systems divide the bits of a virtual address into two parts:
 - high-order bits specify the page number on which the virtual address is stored
 - low-order bits correspond to the byte offset within the page
- Physical addresses are also divided:
 - high-order bits specify the frame number
 - low-order bits specify the byte offset within the frame

Virtual Address Space of 2ⁿ bytes, Page size 2^k bytes, VA bits:

Virtual Page number: p

Byte offset within Page: d

Physical Address Space of 2^m bytes, Page size 2^k bytes, PA bits:

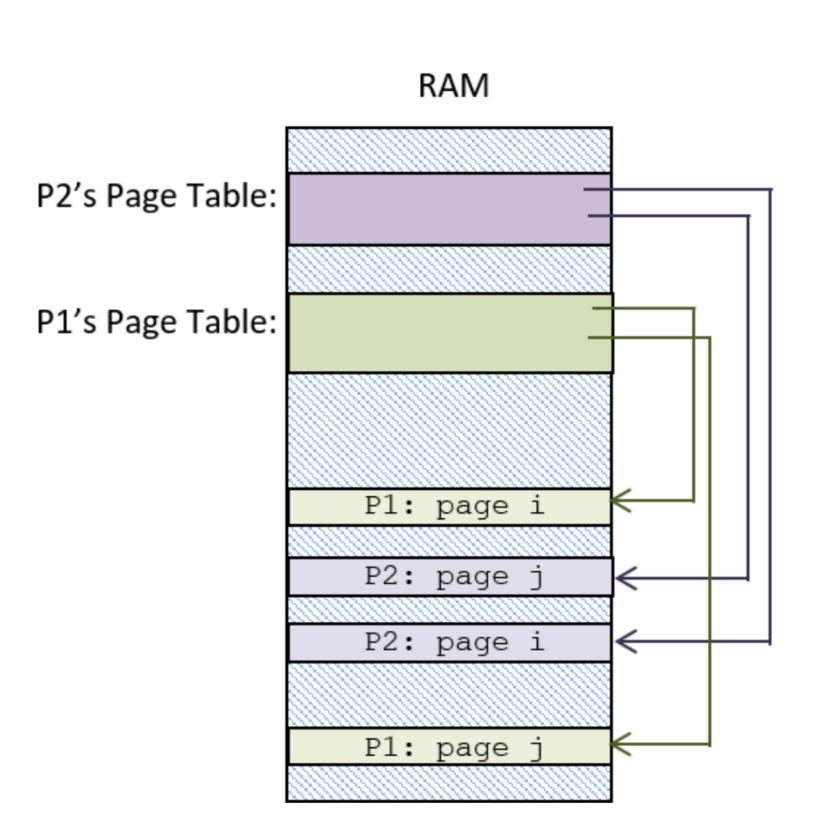
m-1 k k-1 0

Frame number: f

Byte offset within Frame: d

Page Tables for Virtual-to-Physical Page Mapping

- The OS keeps a perprocess page table
- Stores the process's virtual page number to physical frame number mappings



Page Table Entries

- For each page of virtual memory, the page table stores one page table entry (PTE)
 - contains the frame number of physical memory (RAM) storing the virtual page.
 - may also contain other info, such as a valid bit

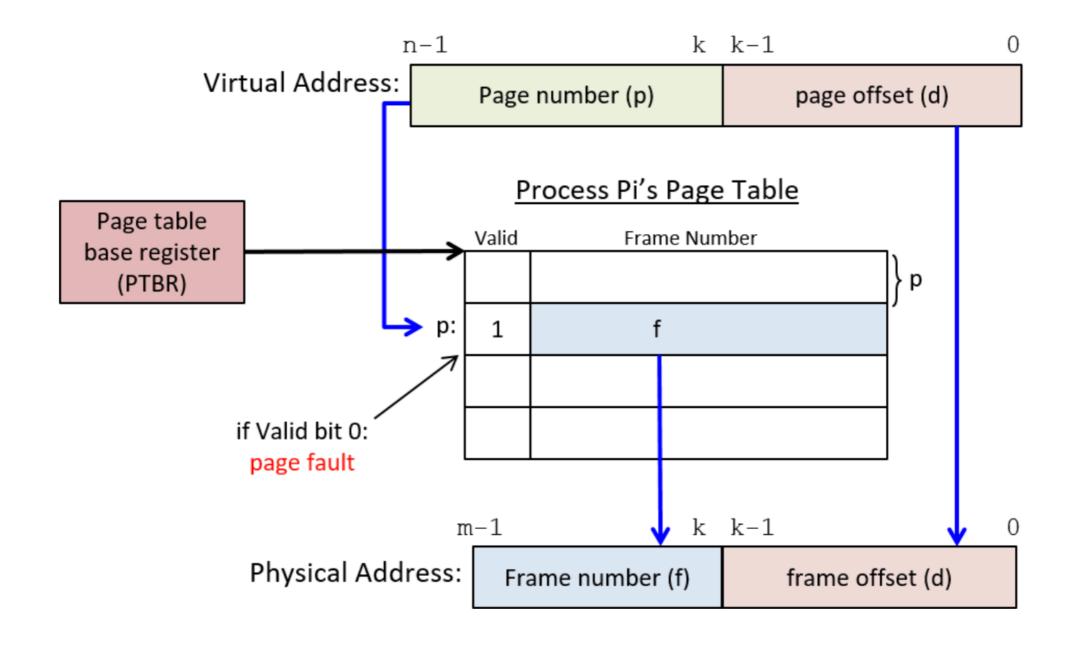
Page Table Entry: Valid Bit Frame Number For Virtual Page P: 1 Physical Frame # (f) storing Virtual Page P

(ex) PTE for Virtual Page 6 if it is currently stored in RAM Frame 23:

PT[6]:	1	23
--------	---	----

Page Table Base Register (PTBR)

RAM address of the running process's page table



13.3.4. Memory Efficiency

- Processes tend to access pages of their memory space with a high degree of temporal or spatial locality
- RAM as a cache for disk:
 - OS allows processes to run only having some of their virtual memory pages in RAM
 - Their other virtual memory pages remain on secondary storage devices, such as disk
 - OS only brings them into RAM when the process accesses addresses on these pages

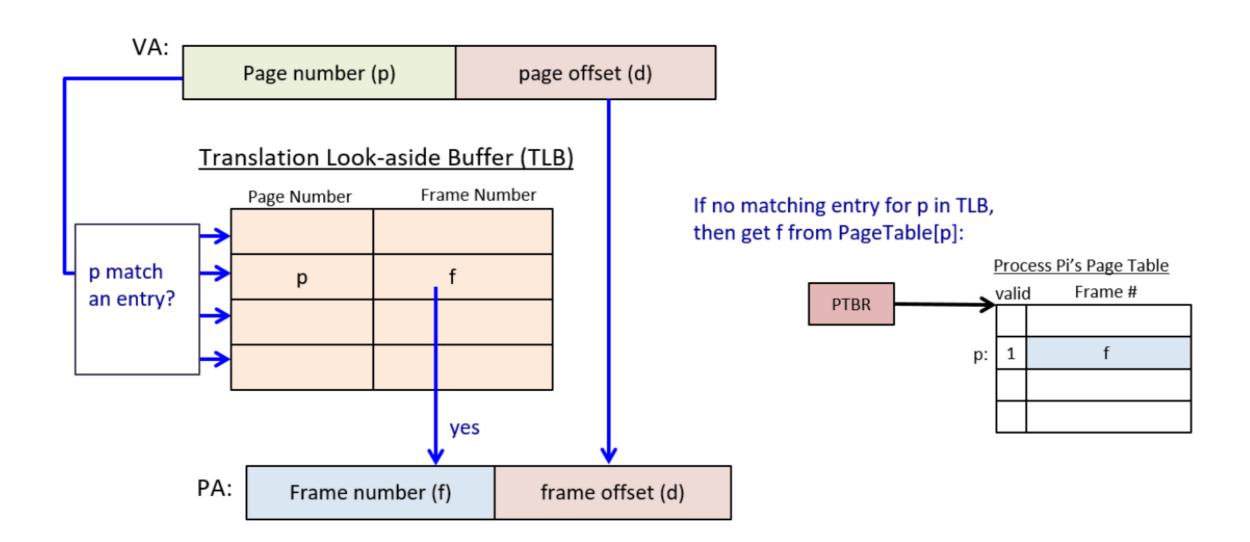
Page Fault

- A process tries to access a page that is currently not stored in RAM
- OS finds a free frame of RAM and loads the page into it
- A page replacement policy
 - used when free RAM is exhausted in the system
 - for example, an OS might implement the least recently used (LRU) policy
 - which replaces the page stored in the frame of RAM that has been accessed least recently

Making Page Accesses Faster

- In a paged virtual memory system
- every load and store to a virtual memory address requires two RAM accesses
 - Read the page table entry to get the frame number for virtual-to-physical address translation
 - Read or write the byte(s) at the physical RAM address
- twice as slow as in a system that supports direct physical RAM addressing
- Translation Look-aside Buffer (TLB) is a hardware cache that stores (page number, frame number) mappings

Translation Look-aside Buffer



13.4. Interprocess Communication

Three Methods

Signals

- very restricted form of interprocess communication
- one process can send a signal to another process to notify it of some event

Message passing

a process exchanges messages with another process

Shared memory

 a process shares all or part of its virtual address space with other processes

13.4.1. Signals

- Signals are similar to hardware interrupts and traps
 - but are different from both.
- Trap is a synchronous software interrupt
 - occurs when a process explicitly invokes a system call
- Signals are asynchronous
 - a process may be interrupted by the receipt of a signal at any point in its execution
- Signals also differ from asynchronous hardware interrupts in that they are triggered by software rather than hardware devices

Signals

Signal Name	Description
SIGSEGV	Segmentation fault (e.g., dereferencing a null pointer)
SIGINT	Interrupt process (e.g., Ctrl-C in terminal window to kill process)
SIGCHLD	Child process has exited (e.g., a child is now a zombie after running exit)
SIGALRM	Notify a process a timer goes off (e.g., alarm(2) every 2 secs)
SIGKILL	Terminate a process (e.g., pkill -9 a.out)
SIGBUS	Bus error occurred (e.g., a misaligned memory address to access an int value)
SIGSTOP	Suspend a process, move to Blocked state (e.g., Ctrl-Z)
SIGCONT	Continue a blocked process (move it to the Ready state; e.g., bg or fg)

Default Actions

- When a process receives a signal, one of several default actions can occur:
 - the process can terminate
 - the signal can be ignored
 - the process can be blocked
 - the process can be unblocked
- Application programmers, however, can change the default action of most signals and can write their own signal handler code

Signal Handlers

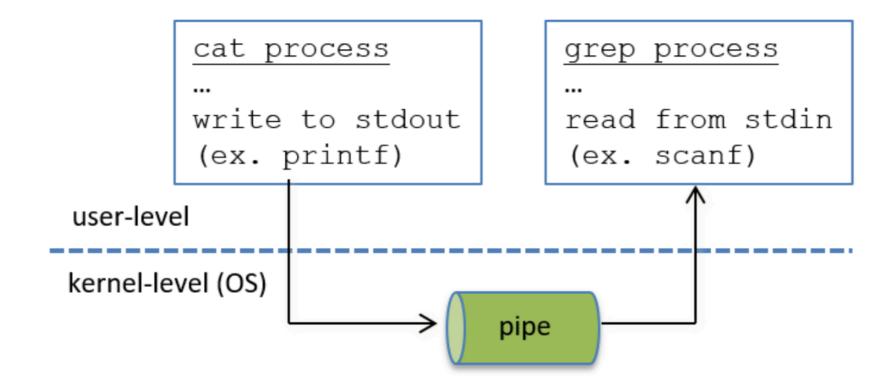
```
/* signal handler for SIGALRM */
void sigalarm_handler(int sig) {
    printf("BEEP, signal number %d\n.", sig);
    fflush(stdout);
    alarm(5); /* sends another SIGALRM in 5 seconds */
/* signal handler for SIGCONT */
void sigcont_handler(int sig) {
    printf("in sigcont handler function, signal number
    fflush(stdout);
/* signal handler for SIGINT */
void sigint_handler(int sig) {
    printf("in sigint handler function, signal number %
    fflush(stdout);
    exit(0);
```

```
/* main: register signal handlers and repeatedly block
int main(void) {
    /* Register signal handlers. */
    if (signal(SIGCONT, sigcont_handler) == SIG_ERR) {
       printf("Error call to signal, SIGCONT\n");
       exit(1);
    if (signal(SIGINT, sigint_handler) == SIG_ERR) {
       printf("Error call to signal, SIGINT\n");
       exit(1);
    if (signal(SIGALRM, sigalarm_handler) == SIG_ERR) {
       printf("Error call to signal, SIGALRM\n");
       exit(1);
```

```
printf("kill -CONT %d to send SIGCONT\n", getpid())
alarm(5); /* sends a SIGALRM in 5 seconds */
while(1) {
    pause(); /* wait for a signal to happen */
}
```

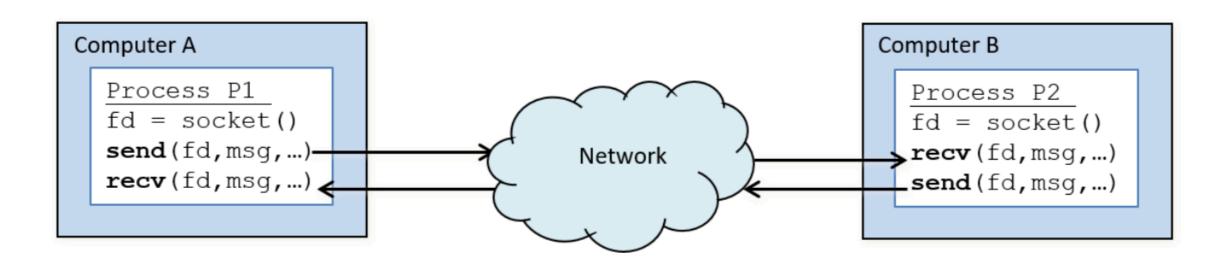
13.4.2. Message Passing

- pipe is a one-way communication channel for two processes running on the same machine
 - Example: cat foo.c | grep factorial



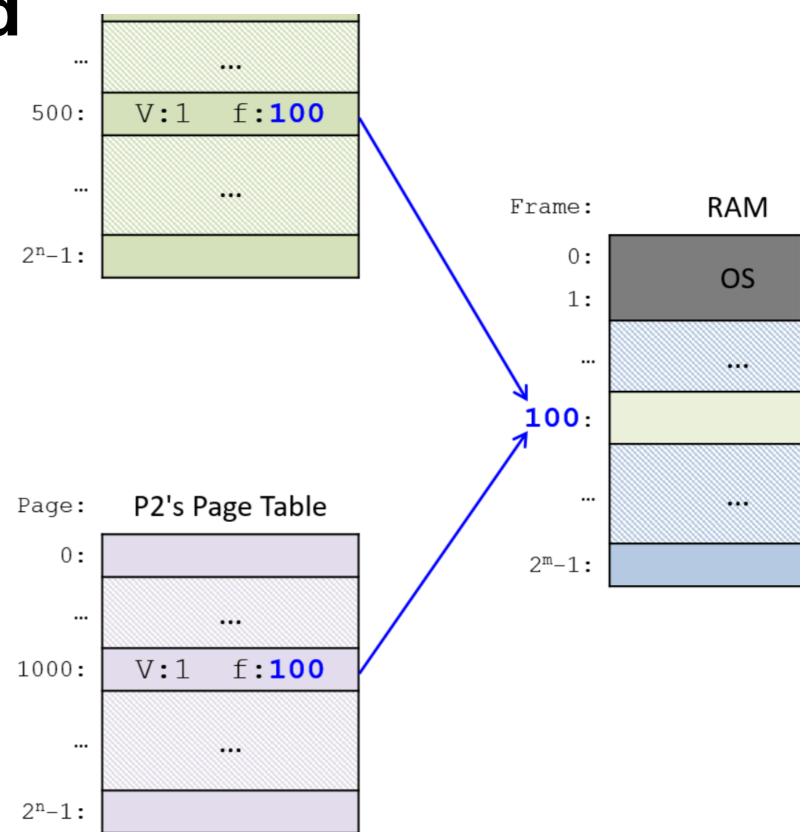
Sockets

- A socket is a two-way communication channel
- message passing is the only way in which processes on different computers can communicate



13.4.3. Shared Memory

 Entries in the page tables of two or more processes to map to the same physical frames





Ch13b