6.033 Computer System Engineering Spring 2009

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6.033 Lecture 5: Operating System Organization Plan for next few lectures general topic: modularity just talked about one module per computer (c/s) more details on net-based c/s later in course now: modules within one computer L5: o/s organization -- tools for enforced modularity L6: concurrency L7: threads o/s interesting design artifact in itself O/S Goals multiplexing: one computer, many programs cooperation: help programs interact / communicate / share data protection (bugs, privacy) portability (hide h/w differences and e.g. amt of RAM) performance (improve, and don't get in the way) Key techniques to achieve those goals? virtualization abstraction Virtualization computer has h/w resources a few CPUs, one mem system, one disk, one net i/f, one display but you want to run many programs (X, editor, compiler, browser, &c) idea: give each program a set of "virtual" resources as if it had its own computer CPU, memory Virtualization example: CPU multiplex one CPU among many programs so each program thinks it has a dedicated CPU give the CPU to each in turn for 1/n-th of the time h/w timer that interrupts 100 times/second save registers of current program (CPU registers) load previously-saved registers of another program continue transparent to the programs! much more to say about this in the next few lectures some systems virtualize all h/w "virtual machine monitors" give each subsystem (program?) a complete virtual computer precisely mimic complete hardware interface early IBM operating systems shared computer this way one computer, many VMs each user can run their own o/s VMWare, Parallels on Mac, Microsoft Virtual PC virtualization by itself makes cooperation hard compiler wants to see editor's output not so easy if each thinks it has a dedicated virtual disk Abstraction abstraction: virtualize but change interface

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change interfaces to allow sharing, cooperation, portability
Abstraction examples:
  really "abstract virtual resources"
  disk -> file system
  display -> window system
  cpu -> only "safe" instrs, e.g. no access to MMU, clock, &c
  ??? -> pipes
What does an abstraction look like?
  usually presented to programmer as set of "system calls"
  see slide (15.ppt)
  you're familiar with FS from UNIX paper
  chdir asks the kernel to change dir
  rest of code reads a file
  system call looks like procedure, we'll see it's different internally
main() {
  int fd, n;
  char buf[512];
  chdir("/usr/rtm");
  fd = open("quiz.txt", 0);
  n = read(fd, buf, 512);
  write(1, buf, n);
  close(fd);
}
How to manage / implement abstractions?
  how to enforce modularity?
    e.g. want prog to use FS *only* via system calls
  mechanism: kernel vs user
  [diagram: kernel, programs, disk, &c]
 kernel can do anything it likes to h/w
  user program can *only* directly use own memory, nothing else
    asks kernel to do things via system calls
  w/ this arrangement, enforcement more clear, two pieces:
    keep programs inside their own address spaces
    control transfers between user and kernel
enforcing address space boundaries
  use per-program pagemap to prohibit writes outside address space
    kernel switches pagemaps as it switches programs
    that's how o/s protects one program from another
  program's address space split
    kernel in high addresses
    user in low addresses
  PTEs have two sets of access flags: KR, KW, UR, UW
    all pages have KR, KW
    only user pages have UR, UW
    convenient: lets kernel directly use user memory, to impl sys calls
CPU has a "supervisor mode" flag
  if on, Kx PTE flags apply, modify MMU, talk to devices
  if off, Ux PTE flags, no devices
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need to ensure supervisor mode = on only when exec kernel code
orderly transfer from user to kernel
  1. set supervisor flag
  2. switch address spaces
  3. jmp into kernel
  and prevent user from jumping just anywhere in kernel
  and can't trust/user user stack
  can't trust anything user provides, e.g. syscall arguments
system call mechanics
 App:
    chdir("/usr/rtm")
      R0 <- 12 (syscall number)
      R1 <- addr of "/usr/rtm"
      SYSCALL
  SYSCALL instruction:
    save user program state (PC, SP)
    set supervisor mode flag
    jump to kernel syscall handler (fixed location)
  Kernel syscall handler:
    save user registers in per-program table
    set SP to kernel stack
    call sys_chdir(), an ordinary C function
    . . .
    restore user registers
    SYSRET
  SYSRET instruction:
    clear supervisor mode flag
    restore user PC, SP
    continue process execution
this is procedure call with enforced modularity
  though only protects kernel from user program
  user program can do only two things
   use just its own memory
    or jump into kernel, but then kernel is in charge
  SYSCALL combines setting of supervisor mode and jumping to known location
   would be a disaster to let user program specify target
how to use kernel's enforced modularity?
 how to arrange module boundaries for system services?
  two main camps: microkernel vs monolithic
the microkernel vision
  implement main o/s abstractions as user-space servers
   FS, net, windows/graphics
  apps, servers interact with messages
  kernel provides minimum to support servers
    inter-process communication (messages / RPC)
   processes -- address space + running program
  most interaction via messages
    only two main system calls: send() and recv()
why are microkernels attractive?
  elegant, simple
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direct support for client/server kernel is small, fewer bugs kernel can be optimized to do one thing well (messages) hard modularity among different servers, vs bugs uniform port scheme -> uniform security plan control access by giving (or not giving) port access rights easier to distribute (messages allows services on other hosts) where did this idea go? implementations were slow around 1990 -- e.g. Mach many messages, esp if you have many servers tended to end up with a few huge servers, so little modularity win the message idea was influential, e.g. Apple's OSX monolithic kernels -- the (so far) winning design it's too much of a pain to separate lots of servers easier and more efficient to have one big program what's in the Linux kernel? FDs processes FS disk term net cache drivers alloc enet disk RAM CPU MMU complex: 300+ sys calls, not just two+ as in microkernel much of complexity hidden beneath uniform interfaces -- 00 style e.g. all storage devices look the same to the file system USB flash key, hard disk all network hardware looks the same to network code so not as complex as it looks why have monolithic kernels mostly won vs microkernels? tradition, advantages of microkernels are subtle efficiency: procedure call or mem refs rather than messages efficiency: better algorithms via integration among modules balance between file system cache and amt of mem for processes easy to add microkernel-style messaging, user-level servers X, sshd, DNS, apache, database, printer what doesn't work so well in [monolithic?] kernels? device drivers are buggy, cause crashes lots of rules e.g. for user pointers passed as arguments tricky bug-prone programming environment bad at shared resource management (mem, disk) compiler uses lots of mem -> laptop unuseable backup program uses disk -> laptop unuseable (so I don't back up...) modularity is soft for resource management

Summary

o/s virtualizes for sharing/multiplexing
abstracts for portability and cooperation
provides enforced modularity in two useful ways:
 program / kernel
 program / program
supports two kinds of c/s: program -> kernel, program -> program
next: specific techniques for client/server on single computer