How Programs Are Managed



CS/COE 0449 Introduction to Systems Software

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(with content borrowed from Vinicius Petrucci and Jarrett Billingsley)

Spring 2019/2020

Where's the Lie?

And other operating systems questions.

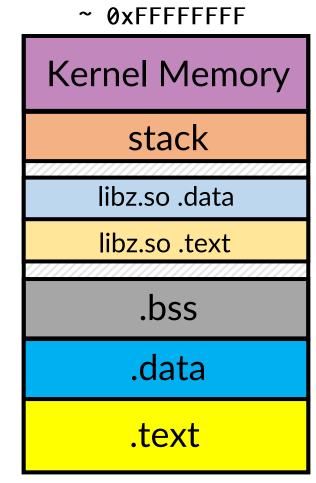


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On the last episode...

- Programs are loaded into memory by the operating system.
- They have to exist in memory before they can be executed.
- Programs go through a lot of trouble to have all their data/code in memory.



The Lie

- Programs are told that they are the only things running...
- The only things in memory...
- We know that this is not true!
- Operating Systems are big liars crafting illusions.



The Truth

- In reality, many programs can be running at the same time.
- Each program, when running, is typically called a **process**.
 - A multitasking OS is (a rather common) one that supports concurrent processes.
- The OS must handle switching from one process to another.
 - Which processes get to run?
 - What if you have more processes than CPUs?
 - When do you switch from one to another?
 - What if one is more urgent??

My process is one of method...

• A **process** is an abstraction representing a *single instance* of a program.

- An executable represents the initial state of a program and thus the process.
- A program can be instantiated multiple times, if needed.
- Each one would be a separate process... of the same program.
- Note: A *processor* is the hardware unit that executes a process. (makes sense!!)
- The Operating System defines what a process and its abstraction is.
 - There is an OS representation and metadata associated with a process.
 - The OS maintains two key <u>lies</u>:
 - The control flow (exclusive use of CPU): as defined by the code (this lecture)
 - The memory layout (exclusive use of memory): defined by executable/code (next lecture)
- We are focusing on the control flow, here.
 - How do we determine when a program runs? When does the lie... break down?

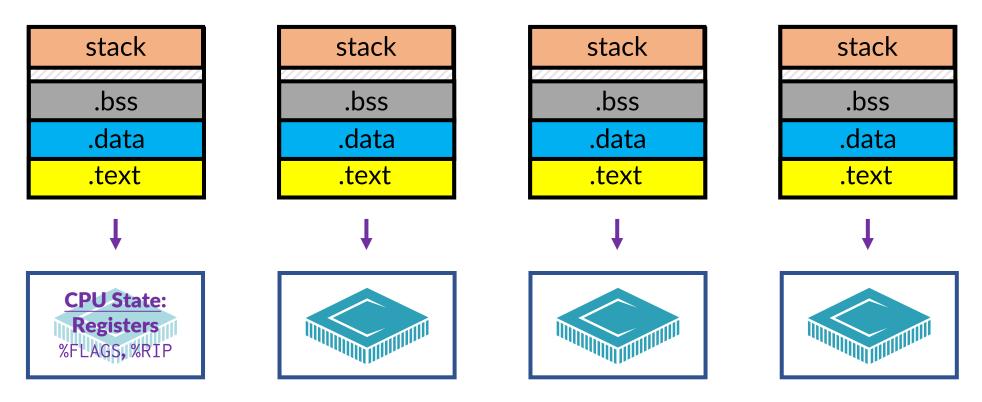
CPU Scheduling

Eeny Meeny Miney Moe

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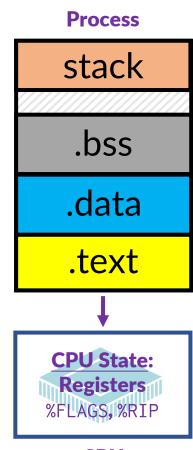
The Reality

- Let us say that we have a machine with four separate CPUs.
 - You could run four processes concurrently (at the same time) relatively easily.
 - What about the fifth?



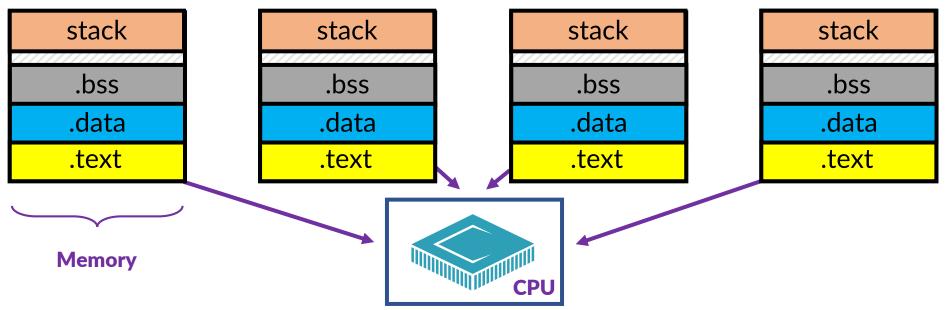
Multiplexing the CPU

- Truth be told, we often have fewer resources than needed.
 Sharing a common resource is called multiplexing.
- Now, consider a machine with a single CPU.
- We often want to run something in the foreground.
 Word processor, web browser, minesweeper... whatever.
- We still want some things running the background...
 - Music player, virus scanner, chat client.
- We need to switch from one process to another at particular times.
 - Yet... we have to keep the illusion that the program is uninterrupted...



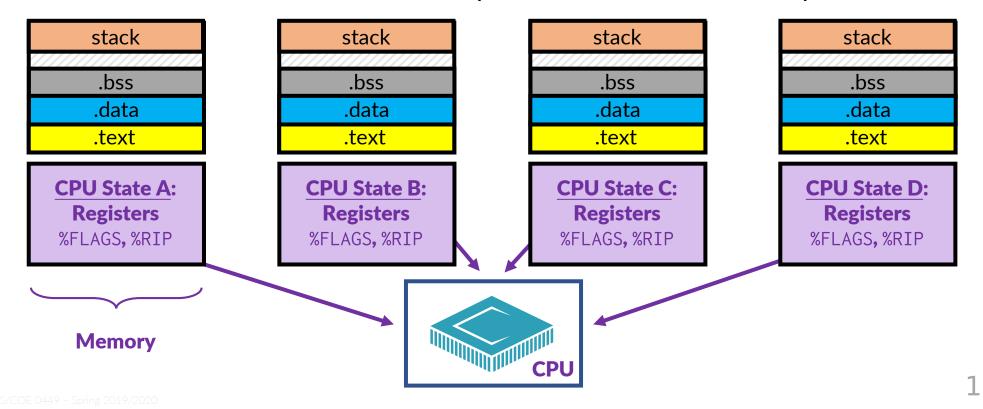
Naïve Campbell was great in The Craft (1996)

- One way is to run processes sequentially (the naïve solution)
 - When one process ends... run the next.
 - Yet that's not very *flexible*. (Stop your music player to open a PDF)
 - Humans are in the mix! We need computers to be useful to us.



The cruel passage of time

- To multiplex the CPU, we quickly switch from process to process.
- The OS retains/restores the state (context) of the process.
 The OS must store this as a form of process metadata in memory.

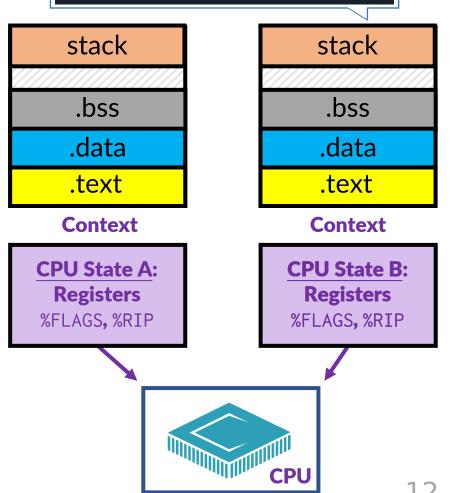


The Context Switch

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birdsrightsactivist @ProBirdRights · Aug 16, 2013 I am feel uncomfortable when we are not about me?

- When an Operating System goes from one process to another, it performs a **context switch**.
- This swaps out the CPU state of one process for the next one to run.
- 1. Store registers (including stack pointer and program counter) to memory.
- 2. Determine next process to run.
- 3. Load those registers from memory. Switch memory space. (see next lecture: virtual memory)
- 4. Jump to old program counter. Go!



A deeper dive

• When we pause a process... we store the state of registers (context)

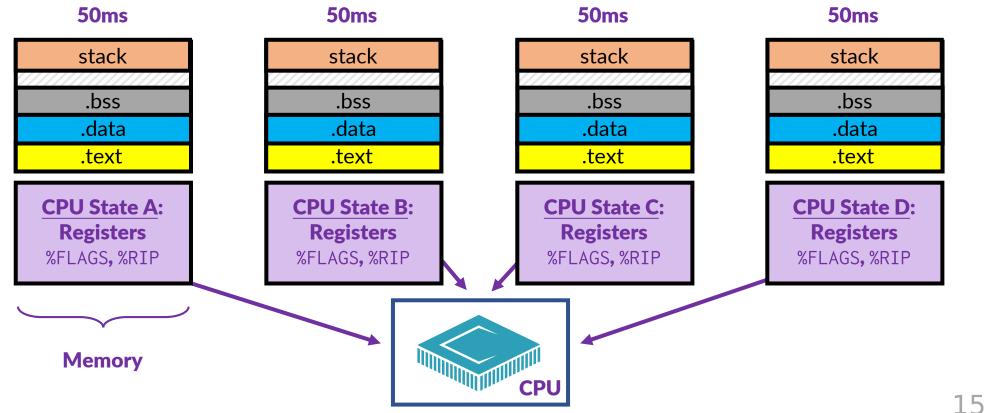
x86-64 (gas / AT&T syntax) – Process A	Context (A)	x86-64 (gas / AT&T syntax) – Process B
.data 0x1008 db: .asciz "Hello, world!\n"	%rax 0x0001 %rdi 0x0002	.data 0x1008 arr: .int 1, −2, 6, −1, 11
.text	%rsi 0x1008 %rdx 0x0000	.global _start
.global _start	%rip 0x0e40	.text _start:
_start: # write(2, db, 14)	•••••	<pre></pre>
► 0x0e33 mov \$1, %rax # syscall 1: write 0x0e34 mov \$2, %rdi # file 2 is stderr	CPU State	0x0e39 lea (%rbx, %rdi, 4), %rax 0x0e44 movl (%rax), %eax
0x0e35lea(db), %rsi# address of 'db'0x0e40mov\$14, %rdx# number of bytes0x0e44syscall# invoke OS	%rax 0x003c %rdi 0x0000	0x0e46 mov %rax, %rdi
<pre># exit(0) 0x0e48 mov \$60, %rax # syscall 60: exit</pre>	%rsi 0x1008 %rdx 0x000e	0x0e47 mov \$60, %rax # syscall 60: exit 0x0e48 syscall # invoke OS
0x0e49 xor %rdi, %rdi # return code 0 0x0e50 syscall # invoke OS	%rip 0x0e50	13

When is a good time to call you?

- When should a program pause and let another one go?
- When programs voluntarily pause, this is called **cooperative scheduling**.
 - They may give up control at convenient points such as system calls.
- We often do not expect this, so modern Operating Systems forcibly pause programs from time to time. Called preemptive scheduling.
 - Processes give up control when hardware interjects via an "interrupt"
 - How does this work?

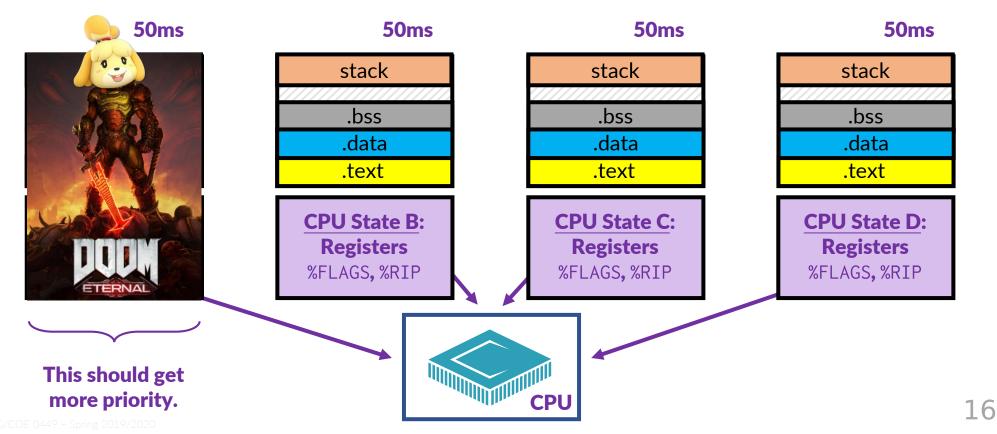
Round Robin Scheduling

- One method is to just cycle through each process each for equal time.
 - This is an element of "fairness" ... each gets equal stake.

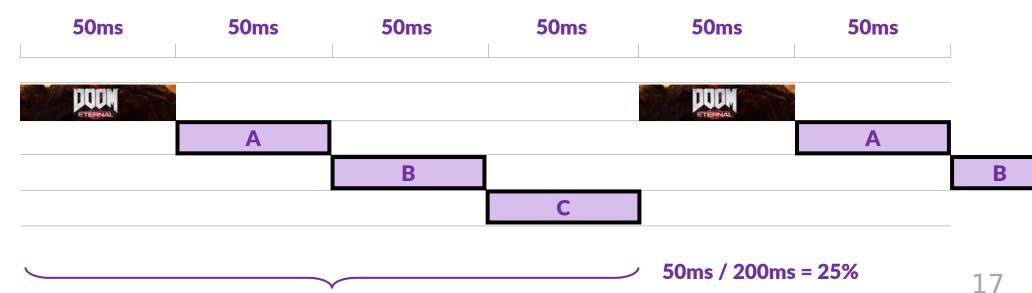


Problems with "fairness"

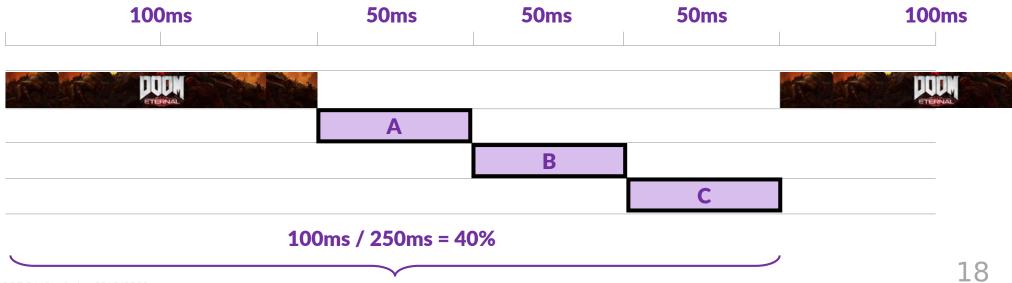
- Let's say I want to play Meternal
 - In round-robin, I give the video game 25% of my resources.



- Round-Robin schedulers are fair; then we tweak to meet expectations.
 How might we add a sense of "priority" to the scheduler?
- Let's look at a visualization of how processes are currently scheduled with a round-robin scheme: (Doom gets only 25% of resources!) 🙁



- Round-Robin schedulers are fair; then we tweak to meet expectations.
 - How might we add a sense of "priority" to the scheduler?
- We could give some tasks a longer quantum.
 - A quantum is the amount of time a task is guaranteed to run.



- Round-Robin schedulers are fair; then we tweak to meet expectations.
 How might we add a sense of "priority" to the scheduler?
- We could increase the chance a specific task is scheduled.
 - Round-robin + priority: two queues, switch back and forth and round-robin within them.

50ms	50ms	50ms	50ms	50ms	50ms	
DUDN		ETERNAL		DODN		POC
	Α					
			В			
					С	

- Round-Robin schedulers are fair; then we tweak to meet expectations.
 How might we add a sense of "priority" to the scheduler?
- We can then always do some sort of combination.
 - Hybrid approaches do seem very alluring. Hmm. The power of trade-offs.



Ideal circumstances: Human perception

• The reality: (very quickly switching)

100ms	50ms	100ms	50ms



• The illusion: (an ideal: perceived concurrency... no delay noticed)

100ms	50ms		100ms			50ms	
FILENAL		ETERNAL	Star Start		PODM		DOD
				Α			
						В	

There is no optimal.

- Like many of the topics in this course, <u>there is no possible "best"</u>.
 - That is, there is no way to perfectly schedule general processes.
- Consider: It would be very lovely to schedule a process that handles some user input, like a button press or a network request.
 - Perfect situation: the OS schedules the task that handles the button immediately before the button is pressed. What luck!
- However: You do not know when that button will be pressed.
 - Maybe it is a sensor, like for detecting a fire!
 - FIRE SEEMS IMPORTANT!! ... and yet.
- Moral of the story: humans being users make things very hard.

Again, it is not magic.

- But... wait... how does hardware *stop* a program?
 - For instance, when the quantum is up, how does the OS get control and perform the context switch?
- Ah, the hardware has support for "being rude" which is called an interrupt.
 - A programmable mechanism for asynchronously calling a function when a particular type of error or signal is noticed.
- Let's take a look.

INTERRUPTS

It's rude... but necessary.

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How rude

- An interrupt is an exceptional state that diverts execution from its normal flow.
 - When issued by hardware, sometimes referred to as a hardware exception
 - For instance, a hardware timer or external event caused by a sensor.
 - When caused by a user process, sometimes referred to as a software trap
 - Divide-by-zero error, some floating-point exceptions, system calls.

We have seen these before!

- System calls are a type of interrupt (software trap).
- This is an intentional interrupt caused by a specific program instruction.
 - The program is "interrupted" while the OS performs a task.
- We have also encountered them in our failures.
 - Segmentation / Protection / Page Faults are also interrupts. (trap? exception?)
 - These are (usually) unintentional interrupts caused by a generic instruction.

Here are some typical UNIX/Linux system calls:

Number	Name	Description
0×00	read	Reads bytes from an open file.
0x01	write	Writes bytes to an open file.
0x02	open	Opens a file and returns the file handle.
0x03	close	Closes an open file.
0x04	stat	Returns metadata about a file.
0x57	fork	Spawns a copy of the current process.
0x59	execve	Loads and then executes a program.

- System calls: predictable, intentional interrupts at specific instructions.
 - Interrupts occurring at specific instructions are synchronous interrupts.

- In x86-64, the program pauses at a syscall instruction, then resumes at the following instruction when the OS finishes the task
 - (... and the OS calls the sysret instruction)

• Let's take a deeper look.

Hello, Hello World

x86-64 (gas / AT&T syntax) - Application .data db: .asciz "Hello, world!\n" .text .global _start start: # write(2, db, 14) \$1, %rax # system call 1 is write mov \$2, %rdi # file handle 2 is stderr mov (db), %rsi # address of string lea \$14, %rdx # number of bytes mov # invoke OS to print syscall A jump to the kernel # exit(0) \$60, %rax # system call 60 is exit mov %rdi, %rdi # we want return code 0 xor syscall # invoke OS to exit

x86-64 (gas / AT&T syntax) - Kernel (main OS program)

```
open: # (syscall 0)
  # Open implementation
  # ... use %rdi, rsi, etc
  retq
write: # (syscall 1)
  # Write implementation
  # ... use %rdi, rsi, etc
  retq
```

```
# system call jump table (array of function pointers)
syscalls: .word open, write # ... etc
```

Tick tock tick tock merrily sings the clock

- A hardware timer can preempt (forcibly pause) a program at any time.
 - Interrupts that occur at any instruction are asynchronous interrupts.
- In a preemptive operating system, a hardware timer is used to give a maximum bound to how long a process runs.
 - Your operating system programs the timer such that it sends a signal at a regular interval.
 - Your operating system has a function that is called when such a signal is read.
 - That function will respond by invoking the scheduler and pausing the current task and resuming or starting another.
- Let's look at the basic procedure an OS uses to program an interrupt.

Programming interruption

- On most hardware, there is a programmable table somewhere in memory that, when written to, defines where code exist to handle each interrupt.
- Every possible interrupt is given a number. Segmentation faults might be interrupt 10. Timers might be interrupt 0. Et cetera.
- When an interrupt occurs, based on its interrupt number, the corresponding entry in a lookup table called an interrupt vector table or an interrupt descriptor table would be used to determine where in the kernel to jump.

The Interrupt Table

#	Value	Description	•
00	0xffff8010	Divide by zero	
01	0xffff8014	Overflow	•
02	0xffff8020	Double Fault	
03	0xffff8040	General Protection Fault	
04	0xffff8066	Page Fault	
07	0xffff8080	Stack Fault	
06	0xffff80a8	Alignment Error	•
•••			
32	0xffff81e8	Timer Signal	
33	0xffff81fc	Network Device Signal	
34	0xffff8218	Audio Device Signal	

• The interrupt table is a simple table.

Fun Fact: It is often located at address 0x0 in memory!

- So, operating system kernels can't exactly always treat zero as an invalid address...
- When a process triggers a listed interrupt or external hardware sends a signal to the interrupt controller...
 - the CPU jumps to the given address.

Ah! There art thee ol' interrupt!

• Let's take a look at interrupt handling...

```
x86-64 (gas / AT&T syntax) – Process B
         .data
  0x1008 arr: .int 1, -2, 6, -1, 11
         .global _start
         .text
         start:
✤ 0x0e33
           lea (arr), %rbx
  0x0e38
          mov $3, %rdi
          lea (%rbx, %rdi, 4), %rax
♦ 0x0e39
  0x0e44
           movl (%rax), %eax
  0x0e46
           mov %rax, %rdi
  0x0e47
                             # syscall 60: exit
                  $60, %rax
           mov
                              # invoke OS
  0x0e48
           svscall
```

Context (A) %rax %rdi %rsi %rdx %rip **CPU State** %rax 0x0001 %rdi 0x0002 %rsi 0x1008 %rdx 0x0000 %rip 0x0e40

.....

x86-64 (gas / AT&T syntax) - Kernel
 _timer_handler:
 @xffff81e8 call save_cpu
 @xffff81ed call schedule
 @xffff81ee call restore_cpu
 @xffff81f3 iret

- An interrupt is the likely cause of our prior interruption.
- The interrupt handler is the code that handles context switching and scheduling

Overview

Interrupts can be categorized in several ways:

- They can occur outside of our program:
- They can occur on an instruction in our program: soft
- They can occur at any time:
- They can occur at specific times:

hardware exceptions software trap asynchronous interrupts synchronous interrupts

• Interrupts are what allow operating systems to function!

- When you press a key on your keyboard.
- When you receive a packet on the network.
- When your sound card wants the next second of audio.
- When you divide by zero...
 - To then mercilessly murder your process.