A review of Anderson's lectures

• Extract key points

Review

- Why study operating systems?
- What is an operating system?
- Principles of operating system design
- History of operating systems

Why study OS?

- Abstraction: OS is a wizard, providing illusion of infinite CPUs, infinite memory, single worldwide computing, etc.
- **System Design:** tradeoffs between performance and simplicity, crosscutting, putting functionality in hardware vs. software, etc.
- How computers work: "look under the hood" of computer systems



Just a software engineering problem?

• In some sense, OS is just a software engineering problem: how do you convert what the hardware gives you into something that the application programmers want?

Key questions in OS

- For any OS area (file systems, virtual memory, networking, CPU scheduling), begin by asking two questions:
 - what's the hardware interface? (the physical reality)
 - what's the application interface? (the nicer abstraction)

Same theme at higher levels

- what's the programming language (e.g. Java) interface? (the programming reality)
- what's the application interface? (the nicer abstraction)

Dual-mode operation

- when in the OS, can do anything (kernelmode)
- when in a user program, restricted to only touching that program's memory (usermode)
 - don't need boundary between kernel and application if system is dedicated to a single application.

Portable operating system

- want OS to be portable, so put in a layer that abstracts out differences between different hardware architectures.
- OS
 - portable OS layer
 - machine dependent OS layer





Lecture 2: Concurrency: Threads, Address Spaces and Processes

- OS has to coordinate all the activity on a machine -- multiple users, I/O interrupts, etc.
- How can it keep all these things straight?
- Answer: Decompose hard problem into simpler ones. Instead of dealing with everything going on at once, separate so deal with one at a time.

Processes

- **Process:** Operating system abstraction to represent what is needed to run a single program (this is the traditional UNIX definition)
- Formally, a process is a sequential stream of execution in its own address space.



Threads

- **Thread**: a sequential execution stream within a process (concurrency)
- Sometimes called: a "lightweight" process.
- Address space: all the state needed to run a program (literally, all the addresses that can be touched by the program).
- **Multithreading:** a single program made up of a number of different concurrent activities



Book

- Book talks about processes: when this
 - concerns concurrency, really talking about thread portion of a process; when this
 - concerns protection, really talking about address space portion of a process.

Lecture 3: Threads and Dispatching

- Each thread has illusion of its own CPU
 - Thread control block: one per thread execution state: registers, program counter, pointer to stack scheduling information, etc.

• Dispatching Loop (scheduler.cc)

- LOOP
 - Run thread
 - Save state (into thread control block)
 - Choose new thread to run
 - Load its state (into TCB) and loop

Running a thread

- Load its state (registers, PC, stackpointer) into the CPU, and do a jump.
- How does dispatcher get control back? Two ways:
 - Internal events: IO, other thread, yield
 - External events: Interrupts, timer



- Dispatcher keeps a list of ready threads -- how does it choose among them?
 - Zero ready threads -- dispatcher just loops
 - One ready thread -- easy.
 - More than one ready thread:
 - LIFO
 - FIFO
 - Priority queue

Thread states

- Each thread can be in one of three states:
 - Running -- has the CPU
 - Blocked -- waiting for I/O or synchronization with another thread
 - Ready to run -- on the ready list, waiting for the CPU

Lecture 4: Independent vs. cooperating threads

- **Independent threads**: No state shared with other threads Deterministic -- input state determines result, Reproducible, Scheduling order doesn't matter
- **Cooperating threads:** Shared state, Non-deterministic, Non-reproducible

Why allow cooperating threads?

- Why allow cooperating threads?
- Speedup
- **Modularity** chop large problem up into simpler pieces
- Need:
 - Atomic operation: operation always runs to completion, or not at all. Indivisible, can't be stopped in the middle.

Lecture 5: Synchronization: Too Much Milk

- **Synchronization:** using atomic operations to ensure cooperation between threads
- **Mutual exclusion:** ensuring that only one thread does a particular thing at a time. One thread doing it *excludes* the other, and vice versa.
- **Critical section:** piece of code that only one thread can execute at once. Only one thread at a time will get into the section of code.

Lecture 5

- Lock: prevents someone from doing something.
 - Lock before entering critical section, before accessing shared d a t a
 - unlock when leaving, after done accessing shared data
 - wait if locked
- Key idea -- all synchronization involves waiting.

Too Much Milk Summary

- Have hardware provide better (higher-level) primitives than atomic load and store.
- Use locks as atomic building block and solution becomes easy:
 - lock->Acquire();
 - if (nomilk) buy milk;
 - lock->Release();

Lecture 6: Implementing Mutual Exclusion

- High level atomic operations (API)
 locks, semaphores, monitors, send&receive
- Low level atomic operations (hardware)
 - load/store, interrupt disable, test&set

Lecture 7: Semaphores and Bounded Buffer

- Writing concurrent programs is hard because you need to worry about multiple concurrent activities writing the same memory; hard because ordering matters.
- Synchronization is a way of coordinating multiple concurrent activities that are using shared state. What are the right synchronization abstractions, to make it easy to build correct concurrent programs?

Definition of Semaphores

- Semaphores are a kind of generalized lock, first defined by Dijkstra in the late 60's. Semaphores are the main synchronization primitive used in UNIX.
- ATOMIC operations
 - P = Down, waits for positive, decrements by 1
 - V = Up, increments by 1, waking up any waiting P



Motivation for monitors

- Semaphores are a huge step up; But problem with semaphores is that they are dual purpose. Used for both mutex and scheduling constraints.
- This makes the code hard to read, and hard to get right.

Monitors

- Idea in monitors is to separate these concerns:
 - use locks for mutual exclusion and
 - condition variables for scheduling constraints
- Monitor: a lock and zero or more condition variables for managing concurrent access to shared data

Lock

- Lock::Acquire -- wait until lock is free, then grab it
- Lock::Release -- unlock, wake up anyone waiting in Acquire

condition variables

- Key idea with condition variables: make it possible to go to sleep inside critical section, by **atomically** releasing lock at same time we go to sleep
- **Condition variable**: a queue of threads waiting for something **inside** a critical section

Difference between monitors and Java classes

From Solomon: processes.html: First, instead of marking a whole class as monitor, you have to remember to mark each method as synchronized. Every object is potentially a monitor. Second, there are no explicit condition variables. In effect, every monitor has exactly one anonymous condition variable. Instead of writing c.wait() or c.notify(), where c is a condition variable, you simply write wait() or notify()



Synchronized Queue

```
public synchronized Object
RemovFromQueue() {
  while ( is_empty())
    try {wait(); }
    catch(InterruptedException
        ex) {};
  //remove item from queue;
  return item;}
```

Summary Lecture 7 • Monitors represent the logic of the program -- wait if necessary, signal if change something so waiter might need to wake up.

Synchronization in Java

- Monitors
- Separate core behavior from synchronization behavior

Basic behavior

```
public class GroundCounter {
   protected long count_;
   protected GroundCounter(long c){
      count_ = c;
   }
   protected long value_(){return count_;}
   protected void inc_() { ++ count_;}
   protected void dec_() { -- count_;}
}
```

Synchronization using Subclassing

```
public class BoundedCounterC extends GroundCounter
implements BoundedCounter {
  public BoundedCounterC() { super(MIN); }
  public synchronized long value() { return value_();}
  public synchronized void inc() {
    while (value_() >= MAX)
       try {wait();} catch(InterruptedException ex){};
    inc_(); notifyAll();}
  public sychronized void dec() {
    while (value_() <= MIN)
       try {wait();} catch(InterruptedException ex) {};
    dec_(); notifyAll();}
  }
}
```



Advantage of separation

- Less tangling: separation of concerns.
- Can more easily use different synchronization policy; can use synchronization policy with other basic code.
- Avoids to mix variables used for synchronization with variables used for basic behavior.

Implementation rules

- For each condition that needs to be waited on, write a guarded wait loop.
- Ensure that every method causing state changes that affect the truth value of any waited-for condition invokes notifyAll to wake up any threads waiting for state changes.





Semaphores in Java

```
public final class CountingSemaphore {
    private int count_ = 0;
    public CountingSemaphore(int inC) {
        count_ = inC;}
    public void P() { // down
        while (count_ <= 0)
        try {wait();}
        catch (InterruptedException ex) {}
        --count_;}
    public void V() { // up
        ++count_; notify(); }
    }
} From: Concurrent Programming in Java by Doug Lea</pre>
```

Readers and Writers

```
public abstract class RW {
    protected int activeReaders_ = 0; //threads executing read_
    protected int activeWriters_ = 0; //always zero or one
    protected int waitingReaders_ = 0; //threads not yet in read_
    protected int waitingWriters_ = 0; // same for write_

    protected abstract void read_(); //implement in subclasses
    protected abstract void write_();//implement in subclasses
    public void read(){beforeRead(); read_();afterRead();}
    public void write(){beforeWrite(); write_();afterWrite();}
    protected boolean allowReader() {
        return waitingWriters_ == 0 && activeWriters_ == 0;}
    protected boolean allowWriter() {
        return activeReaders_==0 && activeWriters_ == 0;}
    }
}
```

From: Concurrent Programming in Java by Doug Lea

Readers and Writers

```
// continued: public abstract class RW {
  protected synchronized void beforeRead() {
    ++ waitingReaders_;
    while (!allowReader())
        try {wait();} catch (InterruptedException ex) {}
    -- waitingReaders_;
    ++ activeReaders_; }
    protected synchronized void afterRead() {
        --activeReaders_;
        notifyAll();}
```



Threads and locks

- Java associates a lock with every object. The lock is used to allow only one thread at a time to execute a region of protected code.
- The synchronized statement synchronized(e) {b} (1) locks a lock associated with the object returned by e and (2) after executing b, it unlocks the same lock.



Threads and locks

- Code in one synchronized method may make selfcalls to another synchronized method in the same object without blocking.
- Similarly for calls on other objects for which the current thread has obtained and not yet released a lock.
- Synchronization is retained when calling an unsynchronized method from a synchronized one.



Threads and locks

- Only one thread at a time is permitted to lay claim on a lock, and moreover a thread may acquire the same lock multiple times and doesn't relinquish ownership of it until a matching number of unlock actions have been performed.
- An unlock action by a thread T on a lock L may occur only if the number of preceding unlock actions by T on L is strictly less than the number of preceding lock action by T on L. (unlock only what it owns)















Law of Demeter Principle

- Each unit should only use a limited set of other units: only units "closely" related to the current unit.
- "Each unit should only talk to its friends." "Don't talk to strangers."
- Main Motivation: Control information overload. We can only keep a limited set of items in short-term memory.











Lecture 9: Concurrency Conclusion

- Every major operating system built since 1985 has provided threads -- Mach, OS/2, NT (Microsoft), Solaris (new OS from SUN), OSF (DEC Alphas). Why? Makes it easier to write concurrent programs, from Web servers, to databases, to embedded systems.
- Moral: threads are cheap, but they're not free.



Solutions to Deadlock

- Detect deadlock and fix
- scan graph of threads and resources
- detect cycles
- fix them // this is the hard part!
 - Shoot thread, force it to give up resources.
 - Roll back actions of deadlocked threads (transactions)



- Preventing deadlock
 - Need to get rid of one of the four conditions
 - Banker's algorithm:(request can be granted if some sequential ordering of threads is deadlock free)

Lecture 11: CPU Scheduling

• Scheduling Policy Goals:

- Minimize response time
- Maximize throughput: operations (or jobs) per second
- Fair: share CPU among users in some equitable way

Scheduling Policies

- FIFO
- Round Robin
- STCF: shortest time to completion first.
- **SRTCF**: shortest remaining time to completion first. Preemptive version of STCF
- Multilevel feedback
- Lottery scheduling (for fairness)

Multilevel Feedback Queue

- A process can move between the various queues; aging can be implemented this way.
- Multilevel-feedback-queue scheduler defined by the following parameters:
 - number of queues
 - scheduling algorithm for each queue
 - method used to determine when to upgrade a process
 - method used to determine when to demote a process
 - method used to determine which queue a process will enter when that process needs service

Lecture 12: Protection: Kernel and Address Spaces

- How is protection implemented?
- Hardware support:
 - address translation
 - dual mode operation: kernel vs. user mode

Lecture 13: Address Translation

- Paging
- Allocate physical memory in terms of fixed size chunks of memory, or **pages**.
- allows use of a bitmap.
- Operating system controls mapping: any page of virtual memory can go anywhere in physical memory.

Lecture 14: Caching and TLBs

• **Cache**: copy that can be accessed more quickly than original. Idea is: make frequent case efficient, infrequent path doesn't matter as much. Caching is a fundamental concept used in lots of places in computer systems. It underlies many of the techniques that are used today to make computers go fast

Caching

• Translation Buffer, Translation Lookaside Buffer:

- hardware table of frequently used translations, to avoid havingto go through page table lookup in common case.
- Thrashing: cache contents tossed out even if still needed

Writes

- Two options:
 - write-through: update immediately sent through to next level in memory hierarchy
 - write-back: (delayed write-through) update kept until item is replaced from cache, then sent to next level.

Localities

- **Temporal locality**: will reference same locations as accessed in the recent past
- **Spatial locality**: will reference locations near those accessed in the recent past
- When does caching break down?
 - Whenever programs don't exhibit enough spatial or temporal locality















Problem with synchronization code: it is tangled with component code

```
class BoundedBuffer {
  Object[] array;
  int putPtr = 0, takePtr = 0;
  int usedSlots = 0;
  BoundedBuffer(int capacity){
    array = new Object[capacity];
  }
}
```



Solution: tease apart basics and synchronization

- write core behavior of buffer
- write coordinator which deals with synchronization
- use weaver which combines them together
- simpler code
- replace synchronized, wait, notify and notifyall by coordinators











Some courses in Software Engineering Track

- Adaptive Object-Oriented Software Development (COM 3360)
- Object-Oriented Design (COM 3230, Professor Lorenz)
- Component-Based Programming (COM 3240, Professor Lorenz)

The End

- Nothing lasts ...
- Everything arises and passes away

Hoping to see you in COM3360