Final Review

Spring 2019

Also see Midterm Review

CS370 Operating Systems

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Final

• Final: Comprehensive but more emphasis on the second half.
  – Lectures and HWs are included
• Mix of question types: Problem solving, True/False, Multiple choice, blanks etc.
• When is the final?
  • Course website: [Schedule]
  • https://registrar.colostate.edu/academic-resources/final-exams/
• Where? Here.
  • Seating: not in the usual place, not adjacent to usual neighbors/team members/friends. Random reseating.
  • Leave space
• Rules
  • Closed book/notes, no cheat sheets
  • Calculator permitted, no communication/programming capability
  • May not leave the room without permission
Today

• Finish Data centers
• HW6
• Poster sessions: Th 9:30-10:45, 12:30-1:45
• Volunteer:
  – Poster session set-up: Wed 12:00-1:00
  – Development project display session: Th 10:45-11:05 AM.
• Course evaluation form
• Later: Peer Reviews due 5/10
  – Optional Best Res/Devp Project vote 5/11
Resources

• You may find the review slides useful
  – Also see Midterm Review Slides on website
  – Possible questions not limited to Review Slides
• Links in Piazza post: study guide, glossary
• Quizzes, MT, assignments
• Textbook
Deadlock Prevention

– If any one of the conditions for deadlock (with reusable resources) is denied, deadlock is impossible.

– Restrain ways in which requests can be made
  • Mutual Exclusion - cannot deny (important)
  • Hold and Wait - guarantee that when a process requests a resource, it does not hold other resources.
  • No Preemption
    – If a process that is holding some resources requests another resource that cannot be immediately allocated to it, the process releases the resources currently being held.
  • Circular Wait
    – Impose a total ordering of all resource types.
Deadlock Avoidance

- Requires that the system has some additional apriori information available.
  - Simplest and most useful model requires that each process declare the maximum number of resources of each type that it may need.

- Computation of Safe State
  - When a process requests an available resource, system must decide if immediate allocation leaves the system in a safe state. Sequence \(<P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_n>\) is safe, if for each \(P_i\), the resources that \(P_i\) can still request can be satisfied by currently available resources + resources held by \(P_j\) with \(j<i\).
  - Safe state - no deadlocks, unsafe state - possibility of deadlocks
  - Avoidance - system will never reach unsafe state.
Example: 12 Tape drives available in the system

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Max need</th>
<th>Current need</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At T0:
- 3 drives available
- Safe sequence <P1, P0 , P2>

- **At time T0** the system is in a safe state
  - P1 can be given 2 tape drives
  - When P1 releases its resources; there are 5 drives
  - P0 uses 5 and subsequently releases them (# 10 now)
  - P2 can then proceed.
Algorithms for Deadlock Avoidance

- Resource allocation graph algorithm
  - only one instance of each resource type

- Banker’s algorithm
  - Used for multiple instances of each resource type.
  - Data structures required
    - Available, Max, Allocation, Need
  - Safety algorithm
  - resource request algorithm for a process.

Suppose $P_2$ requests $R_2$. Although $R_2$ is currently free, we cannot allocate it to $P_2$, since this action will create a cycle getting system is in an unsafe state. If $P_1$ requests $R_2$, and $P_2$ requests $R_1$, then a deadlock will occur.
Deadlock Detection

• Allow system to enter deadlock state
• Detection Algorithm
  – Single instance of each resource type
    – use wait-for graph
  – Multiple instances of each resource type
    – variation of banker’s algorithm
• Recovery Scheme
  • Process Termination
  • Resource Preemption
Binding of instructions and data to memory

- Address binding of instructions and data to memory addresses can happen at three different stages.
  - Compile time, Load time, Execution time
- Other techniques for better memory utilization
  - Dynamic Loading - Routine is not loaded until it is called.
  - Dynamic Linking - Linking postponed until execution time
  - Overlays - Keep in memory only those instructions and data that are needed at any given time
  - Swapping - A process can be swapped temporarily out of memory to a backing store and then brought back into memory for continued execution
- MMU - Memory Management Unit
  - Hardware device that maps virtual to physical address.
Dynamic Storage Allocation Problem

- How to satisfy a request of size n from a list of free holes.
  - First-fit
  - Best-fit
  - Worst-fit

- Fragmentation
  - External fragmentation
    - total memory space exists to satisfy a request, but it is not contiguous.
  - Internal fragmentation
    - allocated memory may be slightly larger than requested memory; this size difference is memory internal to a partition, but not being used.
  - Reduce external fragmentation by compaction
Page Table Implementation

- Page table is kept in main memory
  - Page-table base register (PTBR) points to the page table.
  - Page-table length register (PTLR) indicates the size of page table.
  
  - Every data/instruction access requires 2 memory accesses.
    - One for page table, one for data/instruction
    - Two-memory access problem solved by use of special fast-lookup hardware cache (i.e. cache page table in registers)
      - associative registers or translation look-aside buffers (TLBs)
Effective Access Time

- Associative Lookup = $\varepsilon$ time unit
  - Can be < 10% of memory access time
- Hit ratio = $\alpha$
  - Hit ratio – percentage of times that a page number is found in the associative registers; ratio related to number of associative registers
- Consider $\alpha = 80\%$, $\varepsilon = 20$ns for TLB search, 100ns for memory access
- **Effective Access Time (EAT)**
  \[
  EAT = (100 + \varepsilon) \alpha + (200 + \varepsilon)(1 - \alpha)
  \]

  Consider $\alpha = 80\%$, $\varepsilon = 20$ns for TLB search, 100ns for memory access
  - $EAT = 0.80 \times 120 + 0.20 \times 220 = 140$ns
- Consider more realistic hit ratio -> $\alpha = 99\%$, $\varepsilon = 20$ns for TLB search, 100ns for memory access
  - $EAT = 0.99 \times 120 + 0.01 \times 220 = 121$ns
Paging Methods

- **Multilevel Paging**
  - Each level is a separate table in memory
  - Converting a logical address to a physical one may take 4 or more memory accesses.
  - Caching can help performance remain reasonable.

- **Hashed page table**

- **Inverted Page Tables**
  - One entry for each real page of memory. Entry consists of virtual address of page in real memory with information about process that owns page.

- **Shared Pages**
  - Code and data can be shared among processes. Reentrant (non self-modifying) code can be shared. Map them into pages with common page frame mappings
Virtual Memory

• Virtual Memory
  • Separation of user logical memory from physical memory.
  • Only *PART* of the program needs to be in memory for execution.
  • Logical address space can therefore be much larger than physical address space.
  • Need to allow pages to be swapped in and out.

• Virtual Memory can be implemented via
  – Paging
  – Segmentation
Demand Paging

- Bring a page into memory only when it is needed.
  - Less I/O needed
  - Less Memory needed
  - Faster response
  - More users

- The first reference to a page will trap to OS with a page fault.

- OS looks at another table to decide
  - Invalid reference - abort
  - Just not in memory.

**Page fault:**
1. Find free frame
2. Get page into frame via scheduled disk operation
3. Reset tables to indicate page now in memory
   Set validation bit = v
4. Restart the instruction that caused the page fault
Page Replacement Strategies

- The Principle of Optimality
  - Replace the page that will not be used again the farthest time into the future.
- Random Page Replacement
  - Choose a page randomly
- FIFO - First in First Out
  - Replace the page that has been in memory the longest.
- LRU - Least Recently Used
  - Replace the page that has not been used for the longest time.
  - LRU Approximation Algorithms - reference bit, second-chance etc.
- LFU - Least Frequently Used
  - Replace the page that is used least often.
- NUR - Not Used Recently
  - An approximation to LRU
- Working Set
  - Keep in memory those pages that the process is actively using
Least Recently Used (LRU) Algorithm

- Use past knowledge rather than future
- Replace page that has not been used in the most amount of time
- Associate time of last use with each page

Reference string

```
7 0 1 2 0 3 0 4 2 3 0 3 2 1 2 0 1 7 0 1
```

Page frames

```
7 7 7 2 2 4 4 4 0 1 1 1
0 0 0 0 0 0 3 3 3 3 0 0
1 1 1 3 3 2 2 2 2 2 2 7
```

- 12 faults – better than FIFO but worse than OPT
- Generally good algorithm and frequently used
- Approximate Implementations:
  - Counter implementation time of use field
  - Stack implementation
  - Reference bit
  - Second chance
Allocation of Frames

– Single user case is simple
  – User is allocated any free frame
– Problem: Demand paging + multiprogramming
  • Each process needs minimum number of pages based on instruction set architecture.
  • Two major allocation schemes:
    – Fixed allocation - (1) equal allocation (2) Proportional allocation.
    – Priority allocation - May want to give high priority process more memory than low priority process.
  • Global vs local allocation
Working-Set Model

• $\Delta \equiv \text{working-set window} \equiv$ a fixed number of page references
  
  Example: 10,000 instructions

  page reference table

  \[ \ldots 2\ 6\ 1\ 5\ 7\ 7\ 7\ 5\ 1\ 6\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 4\ 3\ 4\ 3\ 4\ 4\ 4\ 1\ 3\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 4\ 4\ 3\ 4\ 4\ 4\ \ldots \]

  $\Delta$ $\Delta$

  \[
  WS(t_1) = \{1,2,5,6,7\} \\
  WS(t_2) = \{3,4\}
  \]

  \[\Delta = 10\]

• $WSS_i$ (working set of Process $P_i$) =
  total number of pages referenced in the most recent $\Delta$ (varies in time)
  – if $\Delta$ too small will not encompass entire locality
  – if $\Delta$ too large will encompass several localities
  – if $\Delta = \infty \Rightarrow$ will encompass entire program

• $D = \Sigma WSS_i \equiv$ total demand frames
  – Approximation of locality

• if $D > m \Rightarrow$ Thrashing

• Policy if $D > m$, then suspend or swap out one of the processes
File-System Implementation

– File System Structure
  • File System resides on secondary storage (disks). To improve I/O efficiency, I/O transfers between memory and disk are performed in blocks. Read/Write/Modify/Access each block on disk.
  • File System Mounting - File System must be mounted before it can be available to process on the system. The OS is given the name of the device and the mount point.

– Allocation Methods
– Free-Space Management
– Directory Implementation
– Efficiency and Performance, Recovery
Many file systems, sometimes several within an operating system

Each with its own format

- Linux has more than 40 types, with extended file system (1992) ext2 (1993), ext3 (2001), ext4 (2008);
  - plus distributed file systems
  - floppy, CD, DVD Blu-ray

- New ones still arriving – ZFS, GoogleFS, Oracle ASM, FUSE, xFAT
On-disk File-System Structures

1. Boot control block contains info needed by system to boot OS from that volume
   - Needed if volume contains OS, usually first block of volume

2. Volume control block (superblock UFS or master file table NTFS) contains volume details
   - Total # of blocks, # of free blocks, block size, free block pointers or array

3. Directory structure organizes the files
   - File Names and inode numbers UFS, master file table NTFS

4. Per-file File Control Block (FCB or “inode”) contains many details about the file
   - Indexed using inode number; permissions, size, dates UFS
   - master file table using relational DB structures NTFS
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>file permissions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>file dates (create, access, write)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>file owner, group, ACL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>file size</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>file data blocks or pointers to file data blocks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In-Memory File System Structures

- An in-memory **mount table** contains information about each mounted volume.
- An in-memory **directory-structure cache** holds the directory information of recently accessed directories.
- The **system-wide open-file table** contains a copy of the FCB of each open file, as well as other information.
- The **per-process open file table** contains a pointer to the appropriate entry in the system-wide open-file table.
- Plus buffers hold data blocks from secondary storage.

Open returns a file handle (file descriptor) for subsequent use.

- Data from read eventually copied to specified user process memory address.
Allocation of Disk Space

- Low level access methods depend upon the disk allocation scheme used to store file data
  - Contiguous Allocation
    - Each file occupies a set of contiguous blocks on the disk. Dynamic storage allocation problem. Files cannot grow.
  - Linked List Allocation
    - Each file is a linked list of disk blocks. Blocks may be scattered anywhere on the disk. Not suited for random access.
    - Variation - FILE ALLOCATION TABLE (FAT) mechanisms
  - Indexed Allocation
    - Brings all pointers together into the index block. Need index table. Can link blocks of indexes to form multilevel indexes.
Combined Scheme: UNIX UFS

4K bytes per block, 32-bit addresses

Volume block: Table with file names
Points to this

Inode (file control block)

More index blocks than can be addressed with 32-bit file pointer

Common: 12+3 Indirect block could contain 1024 pointers. Max file size: k.k.k.4k+
Free-Space Management

• File system maintains **free-space list** to track available blocks/clusters
  – (Using term “block” for simplicity)
• Approaches: i. Bit vector ii. Linked list iii. Grouping iv. Counting
• **Bit vector** or **bit map** (*n* blocks)

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>...</th>
<th>n-1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
```

\[
\text{bit}[i] = \begin{cases} 
1 & \Rightarrow \text{block}[i] \text{ free} \\
0 & \Rightarrow \text{block}[i] \text{ occupied} 
\end{cases}
\]

Block number calculation

\[
\text{(number of bits per word) } \times \text{(number of 0-value words)} + \text{ offset of first 1 bit}
\]

CPUs have instructions to return offset within word of first “1” bit
Hard Disk Performance

- **Average access time** = average seek time + average latency
  - For fastest disk 3ms + 2ms = 5ms
  - For slow disk 9ms + 5.56ms = 14.56ms

- **Average I/O time = average access time + (amount to transfer / transfer rate) + controller overhead**

- For example to transfer a 4KB block on a 7200 RPM disk with a 5ms average seek time, 1Gb/sec transfer rate with a .1ms controller overhead =
  - 5ms + 4.17ms + 0.1ms + transfer time
  - Transfer time = 4KB / 1Gb/s = 4x8K/G = 0.031 ms
  - Average I/O time for 4KB block = 9.27ms + .031ms = 9.301ms
Disk Scheduling

• Several algorithms exist to schedule the servicing of disk I/O requests
• The analysis is true for one or many platters
• We illustrate scheduling algorithms with a request queue (cylinders 0-199)

  98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67

Head pointer 53 (head is at cylinder 53)

• SCAN, C-SCAN, C-LOOK,
SCAN (Elevator) Algorithm

- The disk arm starts at one end of the disk, and moves toward the other end, servicing requests until it gets to the other end of the disk, where the head movement is reversed and servicing continues.
- But note that if requests are uniformly dense, largest density at other end of disk and those wait the longest

queue = 98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67
head starts at 53
**RAID Techniques**

- **Striping** uses multiple disks in parallel by splitting data: higher performance, no redundancy (ex. RAID 0)
- **Mirroring** keeps duplicate of each disk: higher reliability (ex. RAID 1)
- **Block parity: One Disk hold** parity block for other disks. A failed disk can be rebuilt using parity. Wear leveling if interleaved (RAID 5, double parity RAID 6).
- Ideas that did not work: Bit or byte level level striping (RAID 2, 3) Bit level Coding theory (RAID 2), dedicated parity disk (RAID 4).
- Nested Combinations:
  - RAID 01: Mirror RAID 0
  - RAID 10: Multiple RAID 1, striping
  - RAID 50: Multiple RAID 5, striping
  - others

Parity: allows rebuilding of a disk

| Not common: | RAID 2, 3, 4 |
| Most common: | RAID 5 |
Parity

• Parity block: Block1 xor block2 xor block3 ...

  10001101 block1
  01101100 block2
  11000110 block3

  ---------
  00100111 parity block (ensures even number of 1s)

• Can reconstruct any missing block from the others
Read Errors and RAID recovery

• Example: RAID 5
  – 10 one-TB disks, and 1 fails
  – Read remaining disks to reconstruct missing data

• Probability of an error in reading 9 TB disks = 
  \[10^{-15} \times (9 \text{ disks} \times 8 \text{ bits} \times 10^{12} \text{ bytes/disk})\]
  = 7.2% Thus recovery probability = 92.8%

• Even better:
  – RAID-6: two redundant disk blocks
  – Can work even in presence of one bad disk
  – Scrubbing: read disk sectors in background to find and fix latent errors
Hadoop: Core components

• Hadoop (originally): MapReduce + HDFS
  MapReduce: A programming framework for processing parallelizable problems across huge datasets using a large number of commodity machines.
  HDFS: A distributed file system designed to efficiently allocate data across multiple commodity machines, and provide self-healing functions when some of them go down

- Commodity machines: lower performance per machine, lower cost, perhaps lower reliability compared with special high performance machines.
- RAID (redundant array of inexpensive disks): using multiple disks in a single enclosure for achieving higher reliability and/or higher performance.
HDFS Architecture

- **HDFS Block size**: 64-128 MB  ext4: 4KB
- **HDFS file size**: “Big”
- Single HDFS FS cluster can span many nodes possibly geographically distributed.
  - datacenters-racks-blades
- **Node**: system with CPU and memory

**Metadata** (corresponding to superblocks, Inodes)
- **Name Node**: metadata, where blocks are physically located

**Data (files blocks)**
- **Data Nodes**: hold blocks of files (files are distributed)
HDFS Architecture

http://a4academics.com/images/hadoop/Hadoop-Architecture-Read-Write.jpg
HDFS Fault-tolerance

- Disks use error detecting codes to detect corruption.
- Individual node/rack may fail.
- **Data Nodes (on slave nodes):**
  - data is replicated. Default is 3 times. Keep a copy far away.
  - Send periodic heartbeat (I’m OK) to Name Nodes. Perhaps once every 10 minutes.
  - Name node creates another copy if no heartbeat.
HDFS Fault-tolerance

Name Node (on master node) Protection:

• Transaction log for file deletes/adds, etc (only metadata recorded). Creation of more replica blocks when necessary after a DataNode failure

• Standby name node: namespace backup
  – In the event of a failover, the Standby will ensure that it has read all of the edits from the Journal Nodes and then promotes itself to the Active state
  – Implementation/delay version dependent

Name Node metadata is in RAM as well as checkpointed on disk.
On disk the state is stored in two files:
• fsimage: Snapshot of file system metadata
• editlog: Changes since last snapshot
Implementation of VMMs

- **Type 1 hypervisors** - Operating-system-like software built to provide virtualization. Runs on ‘bare metal’.
  - Including VMware ESX, Joyent SmartOS, and Citrix XenServer
- Also includes general-purpose operating systems that provide standard functions as well as VMM functions
  - Including Microsoft Windows Server with HyperV and RedHat Linux with KVM
- **Type 2 hypervisors** - Applications that run on standard operating systems but provide VMM features to guest operating systems
  - Including VMware Workstation and Fusion, Parallels Desktop, and Oracle VirtualBox
Memory mapping:

- On a bare metal machine:
  - VPN -> PPN

- VMM: Real physical memory (*machine memory*) is shared by the OSs. Need to map PPN of each VM to MPN (Shadow page table)
  - PPN -> MPN

- Where is this done?
  - In Full virtualization?
  - In Para virtualization?
Live Migration

- Migration from source VMM to target VMM
  - Source establishes a connection with the target
  - Target creates a new guest
  - Source sends all read-only memory pages to target
  - Source starts sending all read-write pages
  - Source VMM freezes guest, sends final stuff,
  - Once target acknowledge
Linux Containers and Docker

- Linux containers (LXC) are “lightweight” VMs
- Comparison between LXC/docker and VM

- Containers provide “OS-level Virtualization” vs “hardware level”.
- Containers can be deployed in seconds.
- Very little overhead during execution, just like Type 1.
Microservices Characteristics

• Many smaller (fine grained), clearly scoped services
  – Single Responsibility Principle
  – Independently Managed

• Clear ownership for each service
  – Typically need/adopt the “DevOps” model

• 100s of MicroServices
  – Need a Service Metadata Registry (Discovery Service)

• May be replicated as needed

• A microservice can be updated without interruption
User has a variable need for capacity. User can choose among

Fixed resources: Private data center
- Under-provisioning when demand is too high, or
- Provisioning for peak

Variable resources:
- Use more or less depending on demand
- Public Cloud has elastic capacity (i.e. way more than what the user needs)
- User can get exactly the capacity from the Cloud that is actually needed

Why does this work for the provider?
- Varying demand is statistically smoothed out over many users, their peaks may occur at different times
- Prices set low for low overall demand periods
Instance types/Service/Management models

Instance types
• On-Demand instances
• Spot Instances
• Reserved Instances
• Dedicated Hosts

Service models
• IaaS: Infrastructure as a Service
• PaaS: Platform as a Service
• SaaS: Software as a Service

Cloud Management models
• Public clouds
• Private clouds
• Hybrid clouds:

AWS datacenters is divided into regions and zones

Global Amazon Web Services (AWS) Infrastructure