Chapter I Introduction

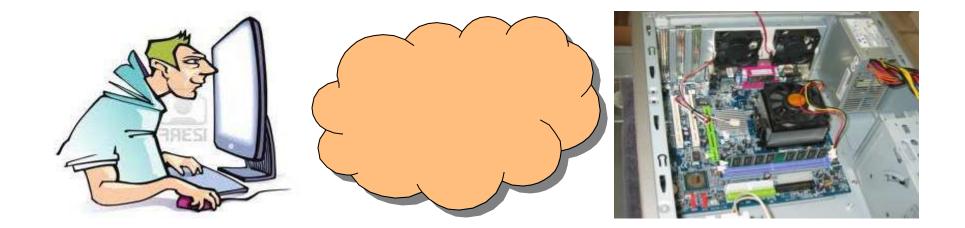
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Chapter Overview

- Defining operating systems
- Major functions of an OS
- Types of operating systems
- Unix
- Kernel organization

What is an operating system?

"What stands between the user and the bare machine"



A better definition

- The *basic* software required to operate a computer.
- Has a similar role to that of the conductor of an orchestra

Do not belong to OS

All user programs

- Compilers, spreadsheets, word processors, and so forth
- Most utility programs
 - mkdir is a user program calling mkdir()
- The command language interpreter
 - Anyone can write his/her Unix shell

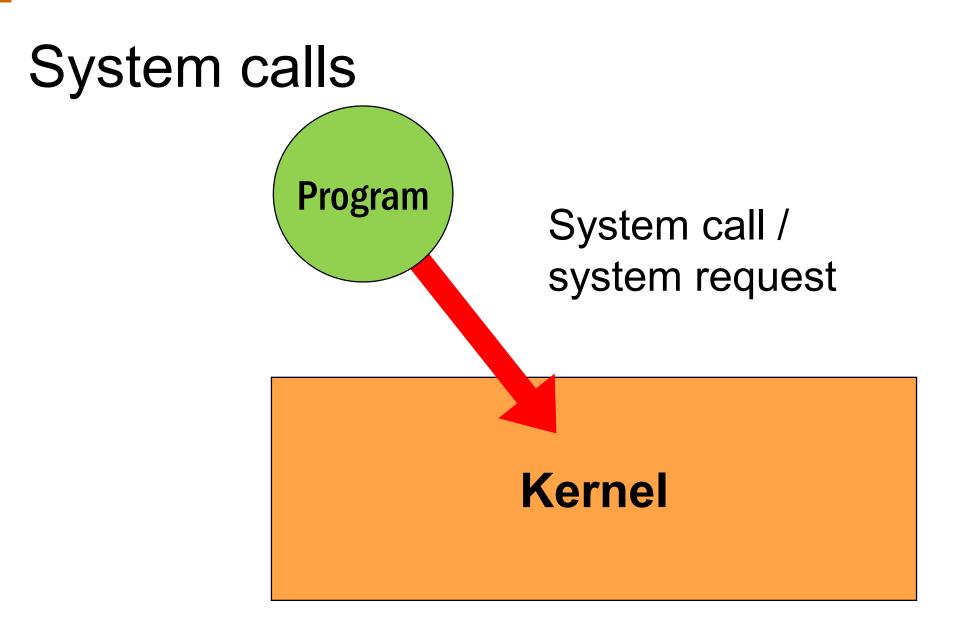
The Unix shells

- Unix has several shells
 - □ *sh* (the Bourne shell) is the original Unix shell
 - □ csh was developed at Berkeley by Bill Joy
 - ksh (the Korn shell) was developed by David Korn at AT&T Bell Laboratories
 - □ bash (the GNU Bourne-Again shell)

and the list is far from complete

The core of the OS

- Part that remains in main memory
- Controls the execution of all other programs.
- Known as the kernel
 - □ Also called *monitor*, *supervisor*, *executive*
- Other programs interact with it through system calls



A question

Who among you has already used system calls?

The answer

All of you

□ All I/O operations are performed through system calls

The four missions

Missions of an OS

- Four basic functions
 - □ To provide a better user interface
 - □ To manage the system resources
 - To protect users' programs and data
 - □ To let programs exchange information

A better user interface

- Accessing directly the hardware would be very cumbersome
- Must enter manually the code required to read into main memory each program
 - boot strapping

How it was done (I)



<u>PDP 8</u>

- Early 70's
- 12-bit machine4K RAM!

How it was done (II)

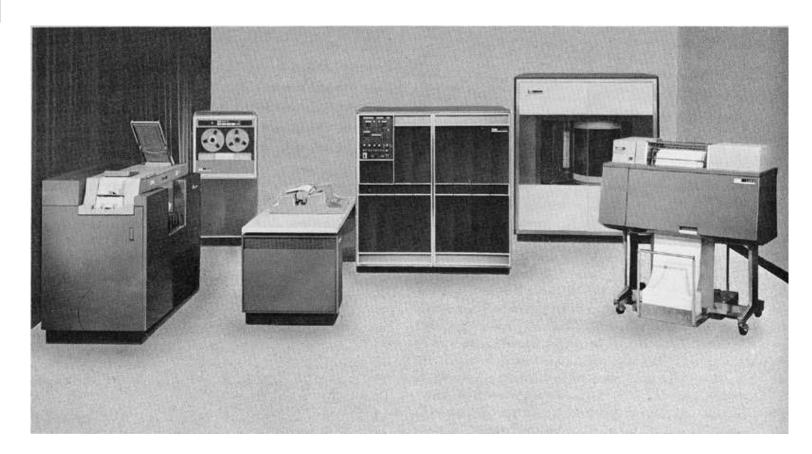


Toggle switches in front panel were used to enter the bootstrap code

Batch systems

- Allow users to submit a batches of requests to be processed in sequence
- Include a command language specifying what to do with the inputs
 - Compile
 - □Link edit
 - □ Execute and so forth

An IBM 1401



Interactive systems

- Came later
- Allow users to interact with the OS through their terminals:
- Include an *interactive* command language
 - □ Unix shells, Windows PowerShell
 - □ Can also be used to write scripts

Time sharing

- Lets several interactive users to access a single computer at the same time
- Standard solution when computers were expensive

Graphical user interfaces

- Called GUIs (pronounced goo-eys): Macintosh, Windows, X-Windows, Linux
 - □ Require a dedicated computer for each user
 - □ Pioneered at Xerox Palo Alto Research Center (Xerox PARC)
 - Popularized by the Macintosh
 - Dominated the market with MS Windows

The Xerox Alto



Xerox PARC (I)

- Founded by XEROX in 1970
- Invented
 - □ Laser printing
 - Ethernet
 - □ The GUI paradigm
 - Object-oriented programming (Smalltalk)

Xerox PARC (II)

- All their inventions were brought to market by other concerns
- Popular belief is that Xerox management blew it
- In reality
 - □ Alto workstations were very expensive
 - □ Smalltalk was very slow
 - □ Group was too small to deliver a full system

Smart phones

Convergence of trends
 Better cellular connectivity
 Cheaper LCD displays
 Solid-State Storage (SSD)
 Inexpensive wireless networks (WiFi)

History repeats itself

- First successful devices introduced by Apple
 iPod, iPhone, iPad, ...
 - First iPad was underpowered
- Competition soon grows
 Cheaper Android devices

With a difference!

Apple did not "steal" the concept from anyone
 iPods, iPhones, iPads were an instant success
 Reasonably priced

Two models

 Apple:
 Closed ecosystem (walled garden)

> Strict controls on app market

Missing featuresNo file system

Android:
 Just the opposite

□ Lax controls on app market

Can access Linux/Android shell

Is a walled garden the paradise?



Summary

Six major steps

□ Bare bone machine

□ Batch systems

□ Timesharing

□ Personal computer

□ Personal computer with GUI

□ Smart phone/tablet

File systems

- Let users create and delete files without having to worry about disk allocation
 - Users lose the ability to specify how their files are stored on the disk
 - □ Database designers prefer to bypass the file system
- Some file systems tolerate disk failures (RAID)

Managing system resources

- **Focus of the remainder of the course**
- Not an easy task
 - □ Enormous gap between CPU speeds and disk access times

The memory hierarchy (I)

Level	Device	Access Time
1	Fastest registers (2 GHz)	0.5 ns
2	Main memory	10-70 ns
3	Secondary storage (flash)	35-100 µs
4	Secondary storage (disk)	3-12 ms
5	Mass storage (off line)	a few s

The memory hierarchy (II)

To make sense of these numbers, let us consider an analogy

Writing a paper (I)

Level	Resource	Access Time
1	Open book on desk	1 s
2	Book on desk	
3	Book in UH library	
4	Book in another library	
5	Book very far away	

Writing a paper (II)

Level	Resource	Access Time
1	Open book on desk	1s
2	Book on desk	20-140 s
3	Book in UH library	
4	Book in another library	
5	Book very far away	

Writing a paper (III)

Level	Resource	Access Time
1	Open book on desk	1s
2	Book on desk	20-140s
3	Book in UH library	20-55h
4	Book in another library	
5	Book very far away	

Writing a paper (IV)

Level	Resource	Access Time
1	Open book on desk	1 s
2	Book on desk	20-140 s
3	Book in UH library	20-55 h
4	Book in another library	70-277 days
5	Book very far away	

Writing a paper (V)

Level	Resource	Access Time
1	Open book on desk	1 s
2	Book on desk	20s-140 s
3	Book in UH library	20-55 h
4	Book in another library	70-277 days
5	Book very far away	> 63 years

Will the problem go away?

- New storage technologies
 Cheaper than main memory
 Faster than disk drives
- Flash drives
- Optane memory

Flash drives

Offspring of EEPROM memories

Fast reads

□ Block-level

Slower writes

□ Whole page of data must be erased then rewritten

Can only go through a finite number of program /erase cycles

Optane memory

- Byte-addressable non-volatile memory (BNVM)
- Simpler design
 - Bits are stored as resistivity levels of a secret alloy
 No transistors (≠ SRAM and DRAM)
- Faster than flash
 - □ 100-300 ns
- Dropped by Intel last year

Optimizing disk accesses

Two main techniques

□ Making disk accesses more efficient

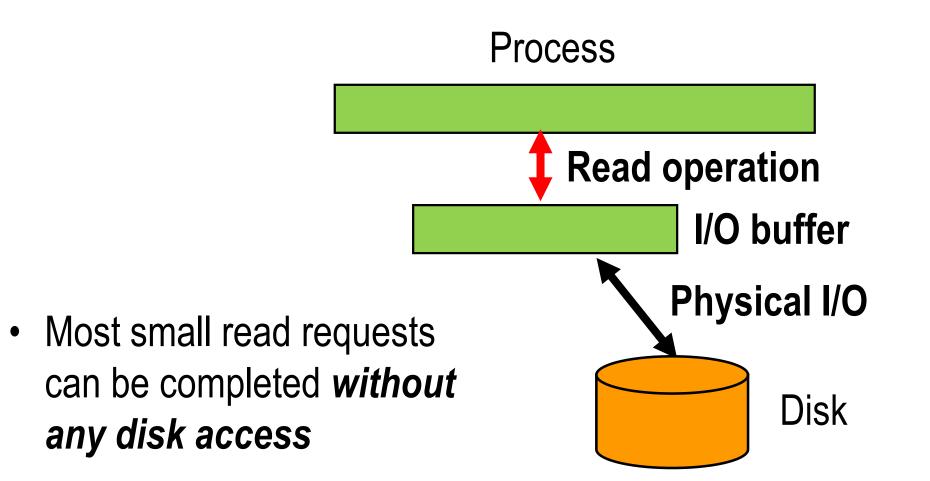
□ Doing something else while waiting for an I/O operation

• Not very different from what we are doing in our every day's lives

Optimizing read accesses (I)

- When we shop in a market that's far away from our home, we plan ahead and buy food for several days
- The OS will read as many bytes as it can during each disk access
 - □ In practice, entire blocks (4KB or more)
 - Blocks are stored in the I/O buffer

Optimizing read accesses (II)



Optimizing read accesses (III)

- Buffered reads work quite well
 Most systems use it
- Major limitation
 - □ Cannot read *too much ahead* of the program
 - Could end bringing into main memory data that would never be used

Optimizing read accesses (IV)

Can also keep in a buffer recently accessed blocks hoping they will be accessed again

Caching

- Works very well because we keep accessing again and again the data we are working with
- Caching is a fundamental technique of OS and database design

Optimizing write accesses (I)

- If we live far away from a library, we wait until we have several books to return before making the trip
- The OS will *delay writes* for a few seconds then write an entire block
 - Since most writes are sequential, most small writes will not require any disk access

Optimizing write accesses (II)

- Delayed writes work quite well
 Most systems use it
- Major drawback
 - □ We will *lose data* if the system or the program crashes
 - After the program issued a write but
 - Before the data were saved to disk
 - □ Unless we use NVRAM

Doing something else

- When we order something on the web, we do not remain idle until the goods are delivered
- The OS can implement *multiprogramming* and let the CPU run another program while a program waits for an I/O

Advantages (I)

- Multiprogramming is very important in business applications
 Many of these applications use the peripherals much more than the CPU
 - For a long time the CPU was the most expensive component of a computer
 - □ *Multiprogramming* was invented to keep the CPU busy

Advantages (II)

- Multiprogramming made *time-sharing* possible
- Multiprogramming lets your PC run several applications at the same time
 - □ MS Word and MS Outlook

Multiprogramming (I)

- Multiprogramming lets the CPU divide its time among different tasks:
 - One tenth of a second on a program, then another tenth of a second on another one and so forth
- Each core of your CPU will still be working on one single task at any given time

Multiprogramming (II)

- The CPU does not waste any time waiting for the completion of I/O operations
- From time to time, the OS will need to regain control of the CPU
 Because a task has exhausted its fair share of the CPU time
 Because something else needs to be done.
- This is done through *interrupts*.

Interrupts (I)

- Request to interrupt the flow of execution the CPU
- Detected by the CPU hardware
 - □ After it has executed the current instruction
 - □ **Before** it starts the next instruction.

A very schematic view (I)

```
A very basic CPU would execute the following loop:
forever {
fetch_instruction();
decode_instruction();
execute_instruction();
}
```

Pipelining makes things more complicated
And CBL much factor!

```
□ And CPU much faster!
```

A very schematic view (II)

We add an extra step:

```
forever {
    check_for_interrupts();
    fetch_instruction();
    decode_instruction();
    execute_instruction();
}
```

Interrupts (II)

- When an interrupt occurs:
 - a. The *current state of the CPU* (program counter, program status word, contents of registers, and so forth) is saved, normally on the top of a stack
 - b. A new CPU state is fetched

Interrupts (III)

- New state includes a new hardware-defined value for the program counter
 - □ Cannot "hijack" interrupts
- Process is totally transparent to the task being interrupted
 A process *never* knows whether it has been interrupted or not

Types of interrupts (I)

I/O completion interrupts

□ Notify the OS that an I/O operation has completed,

Timer interrupts

Notify the OS that a task has exceeded its quantum of core time

Types of interrupts (II)

Traps

Notify the OS of a program error (division by zero, illegal op code, illegal operand address, ...) or a hardware failure

System calls

Notify OS that the running task wants to submit a request to the OS

A surprising discovery

Programs do interrupt themselves!

Context switches

- Each interrupt will result into two context switches:
 One when the running task is interrupted
 Another when it regains the CPU
- Context switches are not cheap
- The overhead of any simple system call is two context switches



Prioritizing interrupts (I)

- Interrupt requests may occur while the system is processing another interrupt
- All interrupts are not equally urgent (as it is also in real life
 - □ Some are more urgent than other
 - □ Also true in real life

Prioritizing interrupts (II)

- The best solution is to prioritize interrupts and assign to each source of interrupts a priority level
 - New interrupt requests will be allowed to interrupt lower-priority interrupts but will have to wait for the completion of all other interrupts
- Solution is known as vectorized interrupts.

Example from real life

- Let us try to prioritize
 - □ Phone is ringing
 - □ Washer signals end of cycle
 - Dark smoke is coming out of the kitchen

□ ...

With vectorized interrupts, a phone call will never interrupt another phone call

The solution

Smoke in the kitchen

Phone is ringing

End of washer cycle

More low-priority stuff

Disabling Interrupts

- We can *disable* interrupts
- OS does it before performing short critical tasks that cannot be interrupted
 - □ Works only for single-threaded kernels
- User tasks *must* be prevented from doing it
 Too dangerous

DMA

Disk I/O poses a special problem CPU will have to transfer large quantities of data between the disk controller's buffer and the main memory

Direct memory access (DMA) allows the disk controller to read data from and write data to main memory without any CPU intervention

□ Controller "steals" memory cycles from CPU

Protecting users' data (I)

- Unless we have an isolated single-user system, we must prevent users from
 - □ Accessing
 - Deleting
 - Modifying
 - without authorization other people's programs and data

Protecting users' data (II)

Two aspects

Protecting user's files on disk

□ Preventing programs from interfering with each other

Two solutions

Dual-mode CPUs

Memory protection

Historical Considerations

- Earlier operating systems for personal computers did not have any protection
 - □ They were single-user machines
 - □ They typically ran one program at a time
- Windows 2000, Windows XP, Vista and MacOS X are protected

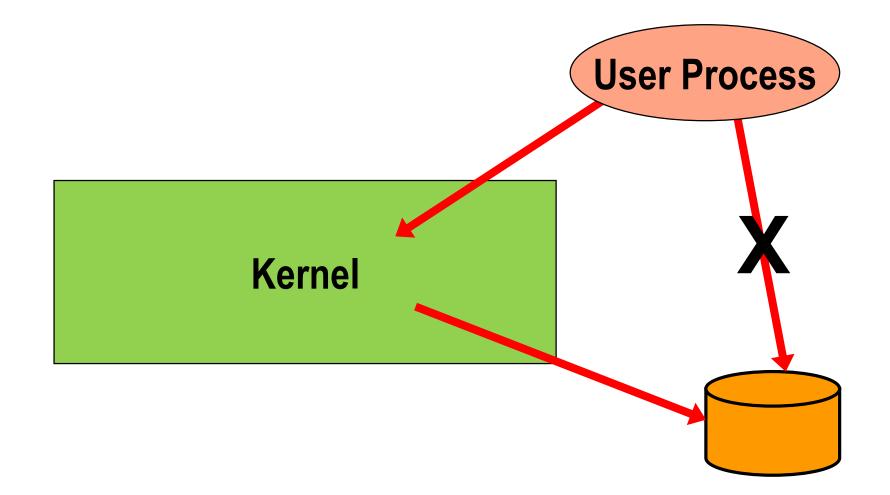
Protecting users' files

- Key idea is to prevent users' programs from directly accessing the disk
- Will require I/O operations to be performed by the kernel
- Make them *privileged instructions*
 - □ Only the kernel can execute

Privileged instructions

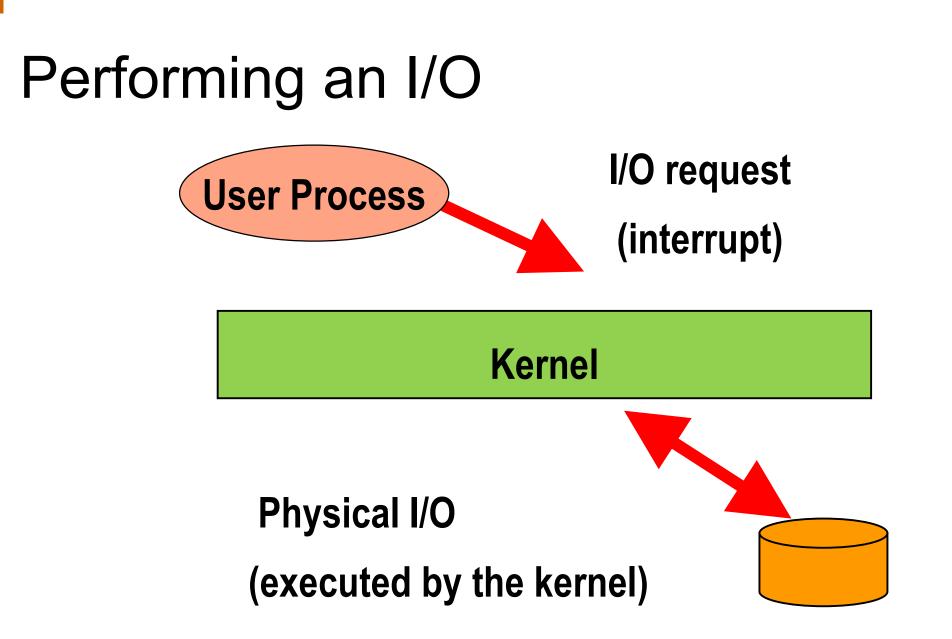
- Require a *dual-mode CPU*
- Two CPU modes
 - Description of the second state of the seco
 - Allows CPU to execute all instructions
 - User mode
 - Allows CPU to execute only safe unprivileged instructions
- State of CPU is determined by a special bit

All disk/SSD accesses must go through the kernel



Switching between states

- User mode will be the default mode for all programs
 Only the kernel can run in supervisor mode
- Switching from user mode to supervisor mode is done through an interrupt
 - Safe because the jump address is at a well-defined location in main memory



An analogy (I)

Most UH libraries are open stacks

- Anyone can consult books in the stacks and bring them to checkout
- National libraries and the Library of Congress have closed stack collections
 - □ Users fill a request for a specific document
 - □ A librarian will bring the document to the circulation desk

An analogy (II)

Open stack collections

Let users browse the collections

□ Users can misplace or vandalize books

Closed stack collections

□ Much slower access

□ Much safer

More trouble

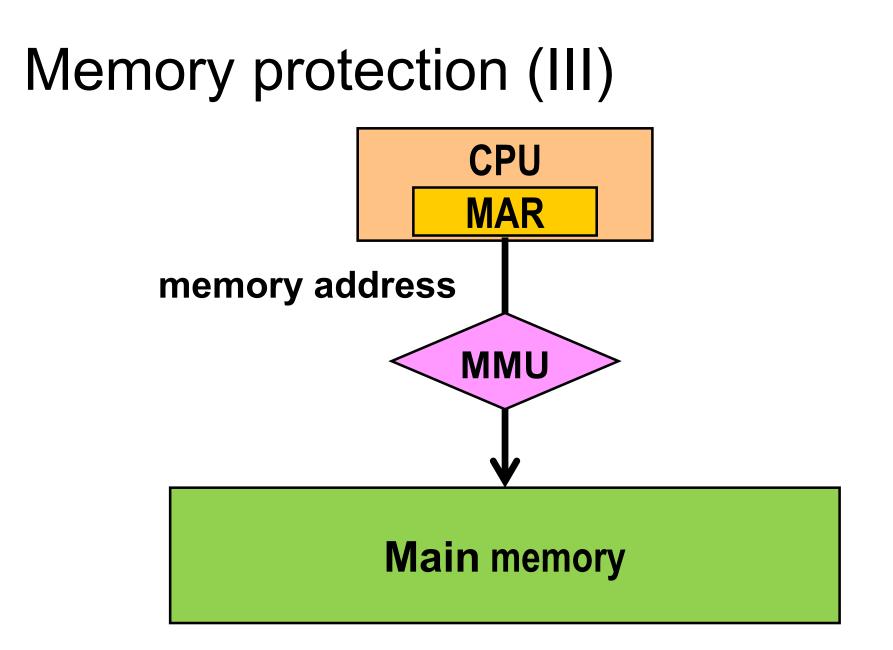
- Having a dual-mode CPU is *not enough* to protect user's files
- Must also prevent rogue users from tampering with the kernel
 Same as a rogue customer bribing a librarian in order to steal books
- Done through *memory protection*

Memory protection (I)

- Prevents programs from accessing any memory location outside their own address space
- Requires special *memory protection hardware Memory Management Unit* (MMU)
- Memory protection hardware
 - □ Checks *every* reference issued by program
 - □ Generates an interrupt when it detects a protection violation

Memory protection (II)

- Has additional advantages:
 - Prevents programs from corrupting address spaces of other programs
 - Prevents programs from crashing the kernel
 - Not true for device drivers which are inside the kernel
- Required part of any multiprogramming system



Even more trouble

- Having both a dual-mode CPU and memory protection is not enough to protect user's files
- Must also prevent rogue users from booting the system with a doctored kernel
 - **Example:**
 - Can run Linux from a "live" CD Linux
 - Linux will read all NTFS files ignoring all restrictions set up by Windows

Inter-process communication

- Has become very important over the last thirty years
- Two techniques
 - □ Message passing
 - General but not very easy to use
 - □ Shared memory
 - Less general, easier to use but requires inter-process synchronization

ANOTHER VIEW

- Arpaci-Dusseau & Arpaci-Dusseau
 Focus on services provided by OSes
- Three themes
 - □ Virtualization
 - □ Concurrency
 - Persistence

Virtualization

- The process abstraction
- Virtualizing the CPU:
 Process scheduling
- Virtualizing the memory:Memory management

Concurrency

- Threads
- Locks
- Semaphores

We will cover threads in the chapter on processes because they are essential to the client-server model

Persistence

The file system

Types of operating systems

Overview

- Already discussed:
 - □ Batch systems
 - □ Time-sharing systems
- Will now introduce
 - □ Real-Time systems
 - Operating systems for multiprocessors
 - Distributed systems

Real-time systems

- Designed for applications with strict real-time constraints :
 - Process control
 - Guidance systems
 - Most multimedia applications
- Must guarantee that critical tasks will *always* be performed within a specific time frame.

Hard RT systems

- Must guarantee that all deadlines will always be met
- Any failure could have catastrophic consequences:
 The reactor could overheat and explode
 - □ The rocket could be lost

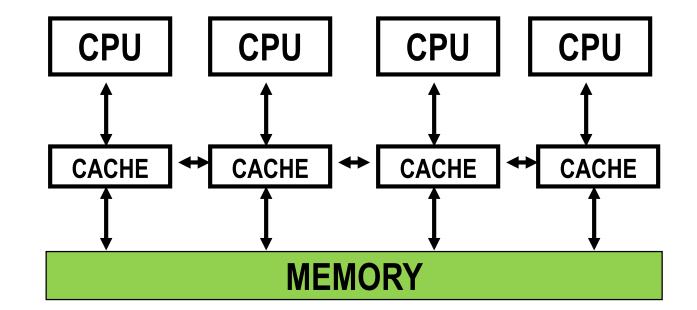
Soft RT systems

Guarantee that most deadlines will be met
 A DVD decoder that miss a deadline will spoil our viewing pleasure for a fraction of a second

Observations

- Hard RT applications normally run on special RT OSes
- Soft RT applications can run on a regular OS
 If the OS supports them
- Interactive and time-sharing systems are *not* RT systems
 They attempt to provide a fast response time but do not try to meet specific deadlines

Multiprocessor operating systems



Designed for *multiprocessor architectures* Several processors share the same memory

Leader/follower multiprocessing

- Single copy of OS runs on a dedicated core/processor
 Leader (previously called *master*)
- Other cores/processors can only run applications
 Followers (previously called *slaves*)
- Major advantage is *simplicity*

Requires few changes

Major disadvantage is *lack of scalability* Single copy of OS can become a *bottleneck*

Symmetric multiprocessing

- Any core/processor can perform all functions
 There can be multiple copies of the OS running in parallel
- Must prevent them from interfering with each other
 Disabling interrupts will not work
 Must add *locks* to all critical sections

The state of the art

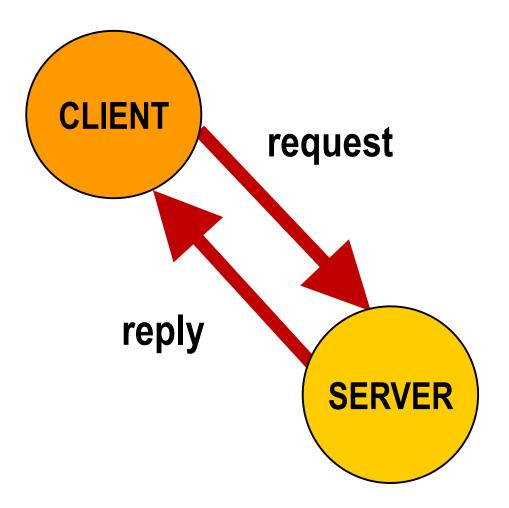
- Most computers now have *multicore CPUs* Sole practical way to increase CPU power
- Many have powerful GPUs
 - □ Highly parallel
- Using multicore architectures in an effective way is a huge challenge

Distributed systems

- Integrated networks of computers
 Workstations sharing common resources (file servers, printers, ...)
- Current trend is to leave systems very loosely coupled
 Each computer has its own OS

Client /Server Model

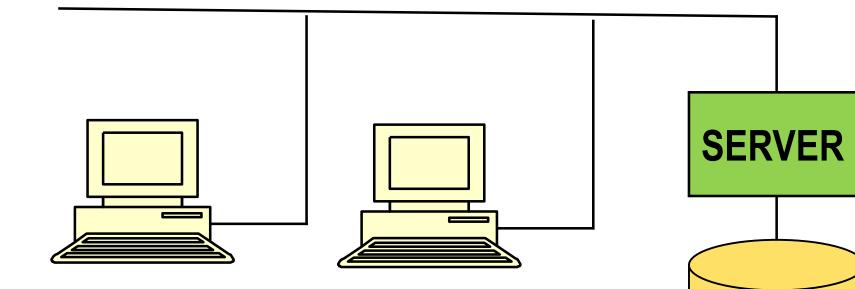
- Servers wait for requests from clients and process them
 File servers
 - □ Print servers
 - Authentication servers



A typical sequential server

```
for (;;){
  //wait for request
  get_request(...);
  // process it
  process_request(...);
  // send reply
  send_reply(...);
} // forever
```

Network file system

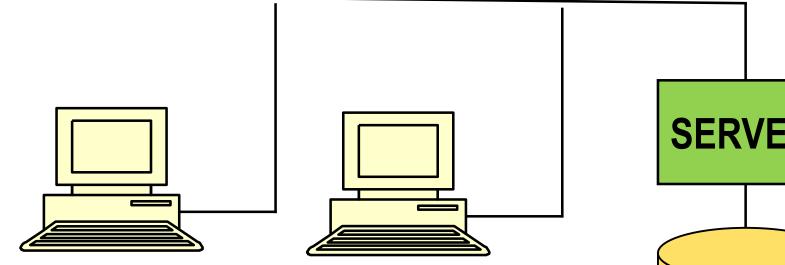


Lets several workstations share files stored on a common file server

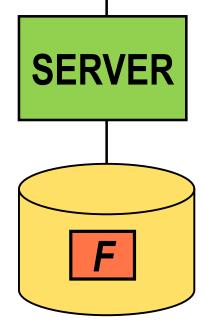
Performance Issues

- Response time is the main issue
 Network latency is now added to disk latency
- Will attempt to mask these two latencies
 Extensive *client caching*
 - Works very well

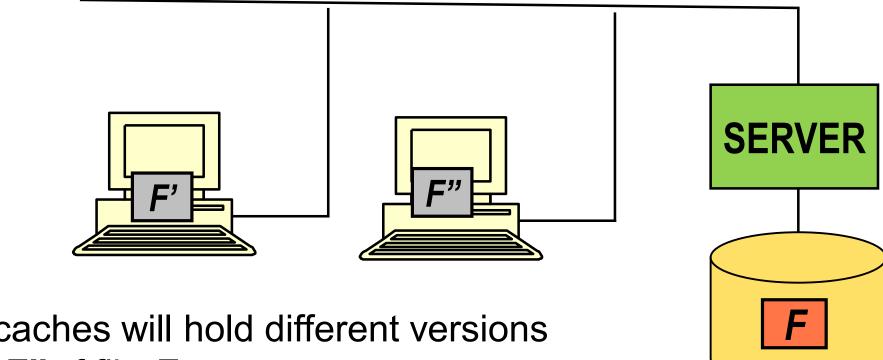
File consistency issues (I)



What happens if a file *F* is simultaneously modified on two distinct workstations?



File consistency issues (II)



Client caches will hold different versions *F*' and *F*'' of file *F*

File Consistency Issues (III)

- Maintaining file consistency is a very important issue in distributed/networked file system design
- Different systems use different approaches
 NFS from Sun Microsystems
 AFS/Coda from CMU

□ ...

Other distributed systems issues

Authenticating users

□ A problem in open networks

- Making distributed systems as *reliable* as stand-alone systems
 Replication of data and services
- Keeping the clocks of the machines more or less synchronized.

Unix and Linux

Unix (I)

- Started at Bell Labs in the early 70's as an attempt to build a sophisticated time-sharing system on a very small minicomputer.
- First OS to be almost entirely written in C
- Ported to the VAX architecture in the late 70's at U. C. Berkeley:
 - Added virtual memory and networking

The fathers of Unix



Ken Thompson and Denis Ritchie

Unix (II)

Became the standard operating systems for *workstations* Selected by Sun Microsystems

- Became less popular because
 - □ Too many variants
 - Berkeley BSD, ATT System V, ...
 - PCs displaced workstations
 - Windows is easier to use
 - Especially by newbies!

Unix Today

- Several *free versions* exist (FreeBSD, Linux):
 Free access to source code
 - Ideal platform for OS research
- Apple OS X runs on the top of an updated version of BSD
- Android runs on top of a heavily customized Linux kernel
- Chrome runs on top of a vanilla Linux OS

A Rapid Tour

- Unix kernel is the core of the system and handles the system calls
- Unix has several shells: sh, csh, ksh, bash
- On-line command manual:

🗆 man xyz

displays manual page for command xyz

□man 2 xyz

displays manual page for system call xyz(...)

Most Lasting Impact

- First OS that
 - □ Run efficiently on very different platforms
 - □ Had its source code made available to its users
- File system inspired most more recent OSes
- Remains the best platform for OS research

Kernel organizations

Three basic organizations

Monolithic kernels:

□ The default

Layered kernels:

□ A great idea that did not work

Microkernels:

Hurt by the high cost of context switches

Monolithic kernels

- No particular organization
 - □ All kernel functions share the same address space
 - □ This includes *device drivers* and other *kernel extensions*

Fastest

Lack of internal organization makes the kernel hard to manage, extend, and debug

MS-DOS

Resident System Program

MS-DOS Device Drivers

BIOS Device Drivers

The BIOS

- Basic Input-Output System
- Stored on a chip
 First ROM, now EEPROM
- Takes control of CPU when system is turned on
 - Identifies system components
 - □ Initiates booting of operating system
- Also provides low-level I/O access routines

The "curse"

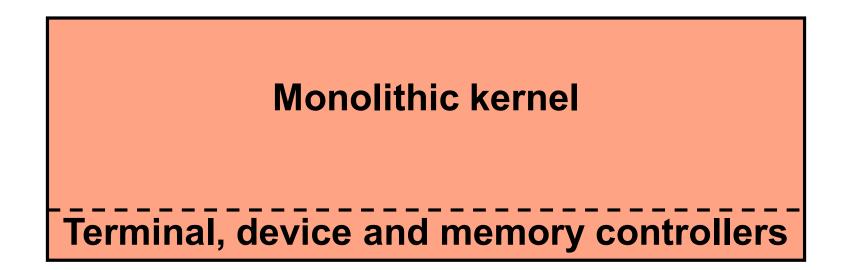
- Hardware lacked dual mode and hardware memory protection
 - Nothing prevented application programs from accessing directly the BIOS
 - Program accessing disk files through BIOS I/O routines assumed a given disk organization
 - Changing it became impossible

Its impact

For a long time, Microsoft could not make radical changes to its FAT-16 disk organization

Windows XP and all modern operating systems prevent user programs from bypassing the kernel.

Unix



Monolithic kernel contains everything that is *not device-specific* including file system, networking code, and so forth.

Layered kernel

- Proposed by Edsger Dijkstra
- Implemented as a hierarchy of layers:
- Each layer defines a new data object
 - □ Hiding from the higher layers some functions of the lower layers
 - □ Providing some new functionality

THE operating system kernel

(named after Dutch initials of T. U. Eindhoven)

User programs

Buffering for I/O devices

Operator console device driver

Memory management

CPU scheduling

Hardware

Limitations

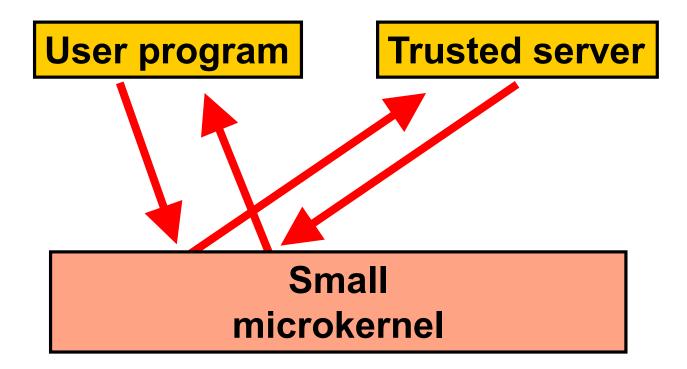
- Layered design works extremely well for *networking code* Each layer offers its own functionality
- Much less successful for kernel design
 - □ No clear ordering of layers
 - Memory management uses file system features and vice versa



Microkernels

- A reaction against "bloated" monolithic kernels
 Hard to manage, extend, debug and secure
- Key idea is making kernel smaller by delegating non-essential tasks to trusted user-level servers
 - □ Same idea as **subcontracting**
- Microkernel keeps doing what cannot be delegated:
 Security, short-term scheduling, …

How it works (I)



How it works (II)

Microkernel

- Receives request from user program
- Decides to forward it to a user-level server
- □ Waits for reply for server
- □ Forwards it to user program
- Trusted servers run outside the kernel
 Cannot execute privileged instructions

Advantages

Kernel is smaller, easier to secure and manage

- Servers run outside of the kernel
 - Cannot crash the kernel
 - Much easier to extend kernel functionality
 - Adding new servers
 - Adding an NTFS server to Unix microkernel

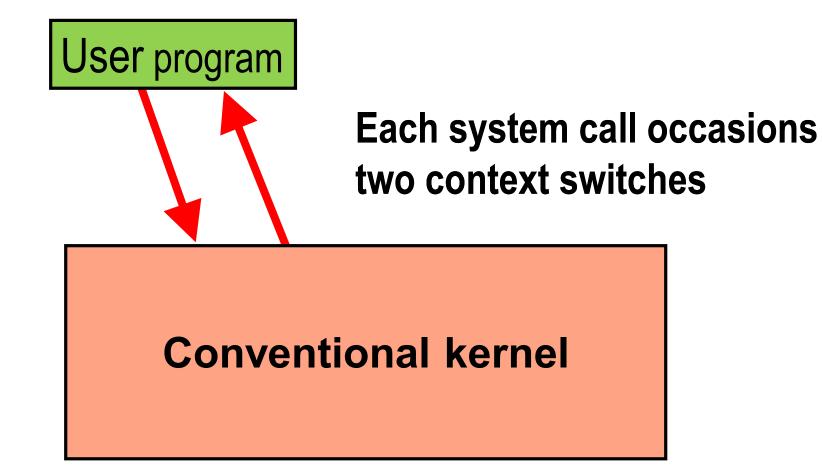
Major disadvantage

Too slow

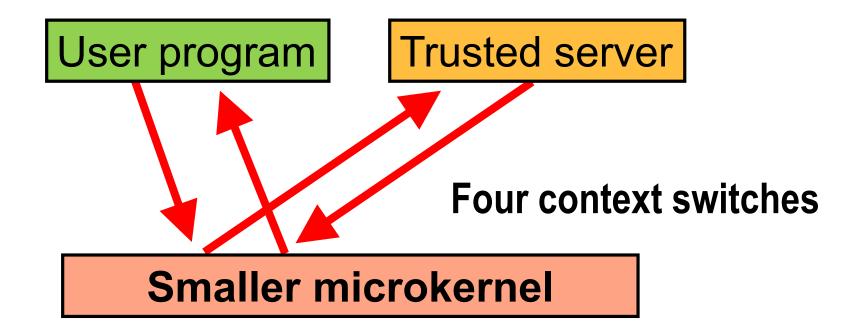
Four context switches instead of two

- Speed remains an essential concern
- We don't like to trade speed for safety (or anything else)

A conventional kernel



A microkernel



Mach

- Designed in mid 80's to replace Unix kernel
- New kernel with different system calls
 Unix system calls are routed to an *emulation server*
- Emulation server was designed to run in user space
 Slowed down the system
 - Server ended inside the kernel

MINIX 3

- MINIX 1 was designed for teaching OS internals
 Predates Linux
- Now aimed at high reliability (embedded) applications
 More willing to trade space for reliability
- Runs on x86 and ARM processors
- Compatible with NetBSD

MINIX 3 microkernel

- "Tiny" (12,700 lines) microkernel
 Handles *interrupts* and *message* passing
 Only code running in kernel mode
- Other OS functions are handled by *isolated*, *protected*, *user-mode* processes
 Each device driver is a separate user-mode process
 System automatically restarts *crashed drivers*

Modular kernels

- Linux, Windows
- Modules are object files whose contents can be linked to—and unlinked from—the kernel at any time
 - □ Run inside the kernel address space
 - □ Used to add to the kernel **device drivers** for new devices

Advantages of modular kernels

Extensibility:

Can add new features the kernel

In many cases, the process is completely transparent to the user

Lack of performance penalty:

Modules run in the kernel address space

Their disadvantages

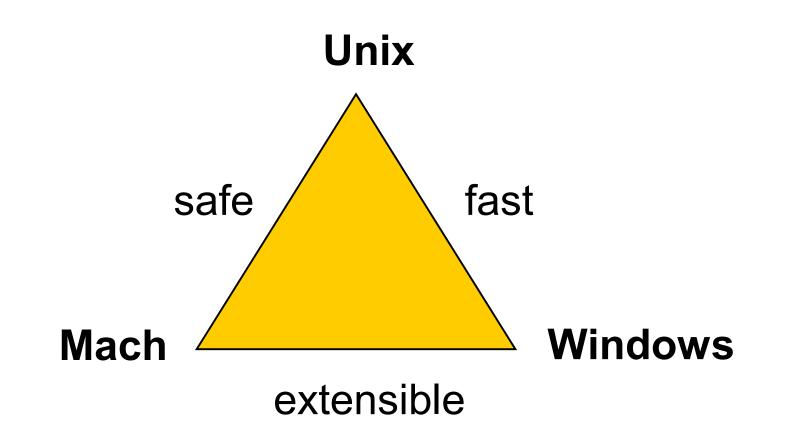
Lower reliability

A bad module can corrupt the whole kernel and crash the system.

Serious problem

- □ Many device drivers are poorly written
- Device drivers account for 85% of reported failures of Windows XP

Current state of the art



Why?

- Unix has a monolithic kernel (which makes it fast) and does not allow extensions (which makes it both safe and non-extensible)
- Windows has a monolithic kernel (which makes it fast) and allows extensions (which makes it both extensible and unsafe)
- Mach allows extensions in user space (which makes it extensible, safe and slow)

Virtual machines

The main idea

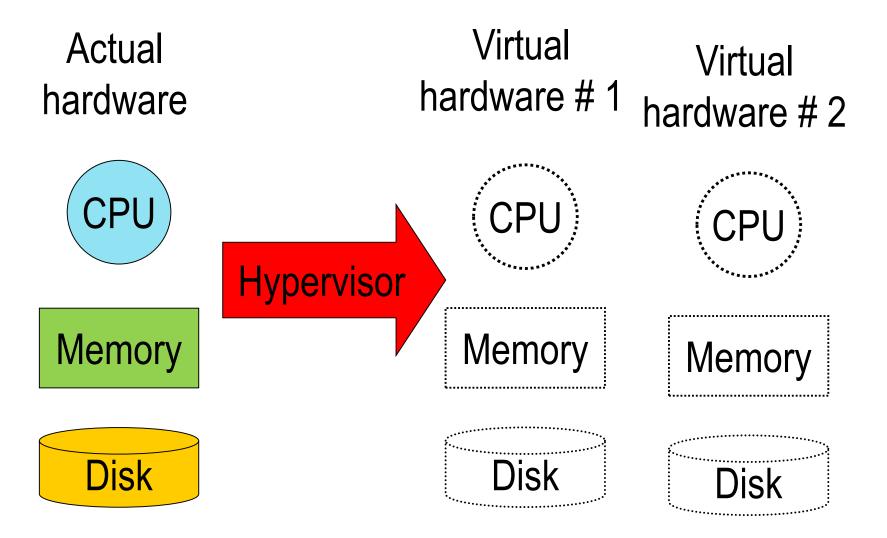
- Let different operating systems run at the same time on a single computer
 - □ Windows, Linux and Mac OS
 - □ A real-time OS and a conventional OS
 - □ A production OS and a new OS being tested

How it is done

A hypervisor /VM monitor defines two or more virtual machines
 Each virtual machine has

- Its own virtual CPU
- Its own virtual physical memory
- Its own virtual disk(s)
- Can also install VM on top of a *host OS VMware, Virtual Box, Parallels, QEMU*

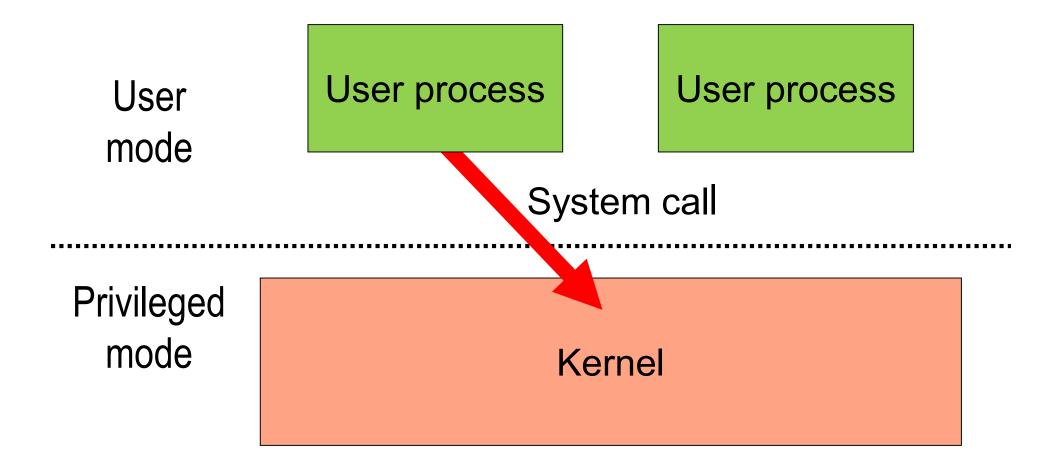
The virtualization process



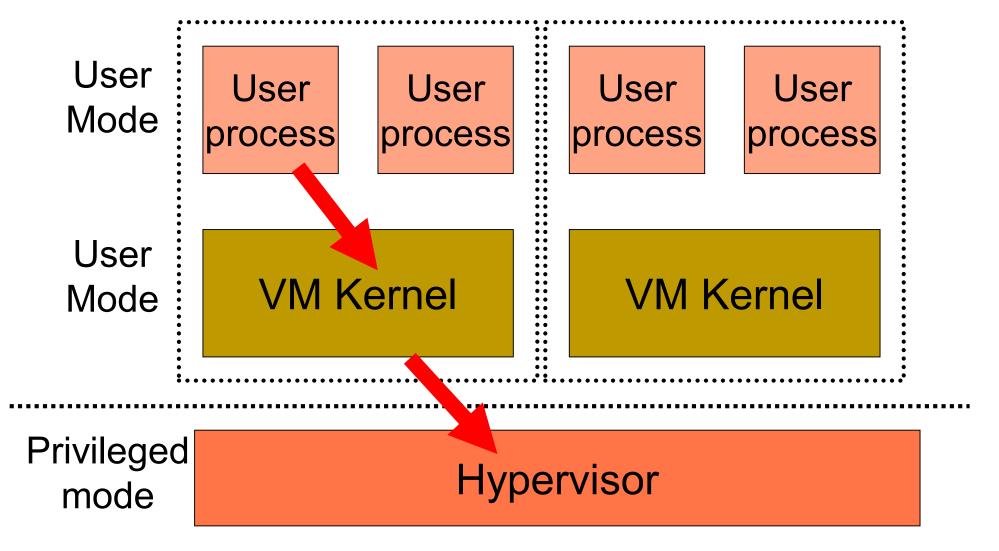
Reminder

- In a conventional OS,
 - Kernel executes in *privileged/supervisor mode*
 - Can do virtually everything
 - □ User processes execute in *user mode*
 - Cannot modify their page tables
 - Cannot execute privileged instructions

A conventional architecture



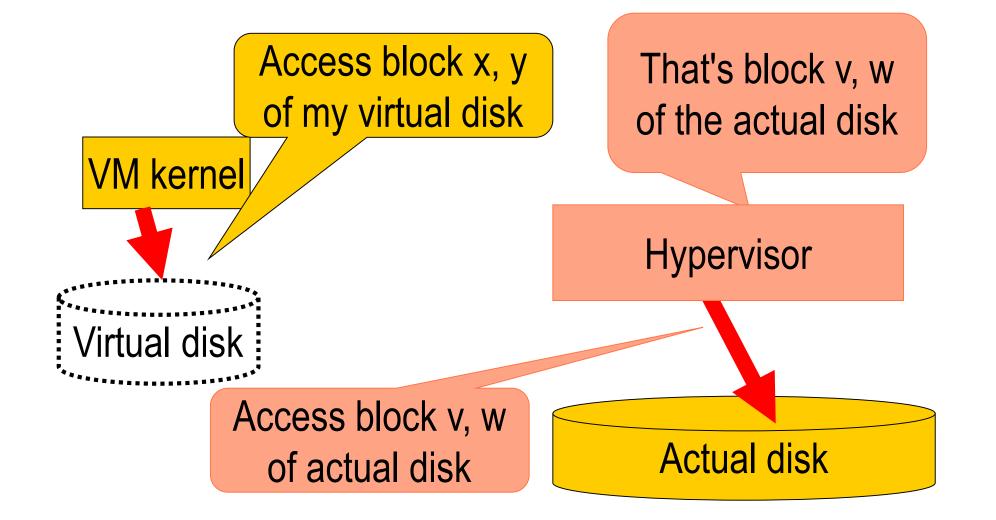
Two virtual machines



Explanations (II)

- Whenever the kernel of a VM issues a privileged instruction, an interrupt occurs
 - The hypervisor takes control and do the physical equivalent of what the VM attempted to do:
 - Must convert virtual RAM addresses into physical RAM addresses
 - Must convert virtual disk block addresses into physical block addresses

Translating a block address



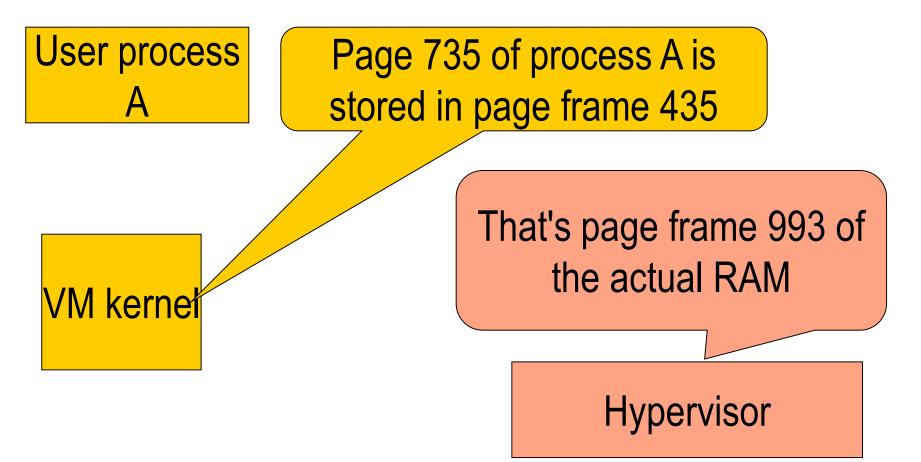
Handling I/Os

- Difficult task because
 - □ Wide variety of devices
 - □ Some devices may be shared among several VMs
 - Printers
 - Shared disk partition
 - Want to let Linux and Windows access the same files

Virtual Memory Issues

- Each VM kernel manages its own memory
 - Its page tables map program virtual addresses into what it believes to be physical addresses

The dilemma



Nastiest Issue

- The whole VM approach assumes that a kernel executing in user mode will behave exactly like a kernel executing in privileged mode except that privileged instructions will be trapped
- Not true for all architectures!
 Intel x86 Pop flags (POPF) instruction

The Virtual Box Solution

- VMware pioneered the approach
- Code Scanning and Analysis Manager (CSAM)

Scans privileged code recursively before its first execution to identify problematic instructions

□ Calls the Patch Manager (PATM) to perform *in-situ* patching

The Xen solution

Modify the guest kernel to eliminate badly behaving instructions such as POPF

Paravirtualization

- □ Faster but less flexible
 - Requires open-source kernel

User programs are not affected Only the kernel

Containers

Each VM runs its own copy of the kernel
 Takes memory space

- Containers provide isolated user-space instances that share the same kernel
 - Less overhead
 - Less flexibility
- Docker, LYXC