Goals for Today

• **Learning Objective:**
  • Your choice! Review whatever for final exam
  • ICES student feedback when we’re done

• **Announcements, etc:**
  • MP4 due **May 6th**
  • HW1 available! Due **May 8th**
    • Just an “appetizer” for the final exam
    • Multiple attempts allowed, but first attempt is graded
  • MP2.5 due **May 10th (UTC-11)**
    • Just finished my implementation; update to instructions coming this weekend.

**Reminder:** Please put away devices at the start of class
CS 423
Operating System Design: Final Exam Overview

Professor Adam Bates
Spring 2018
Final Exam Details

- May 9th, 7:00pm - 9:00pm
- You will have **2 hours**
- Scantron Multiple choice
- 30-40 Questions
  - Questions will be comparable to midterm
- **Openbook**: Textbooks, paper notes, printed sheets allowed. *No electronic devices permitted (or necessary)!*
- **Content**: All lecture and text material covered after the midterm content (i.e., starting with Virtualization, up to and including Distributed Filesystems)
Final Exam Content

• Virtualization (Emulation, Binary Translation…)
• File Systems (Disk Scheduling, Directories, Reliability…)
• Security (Access control, Encryption, Attacks, Reference monitors, Audit)
• Special Topics (Energy, Containers)
• Guest Lectures (e.g., Distributed FS)

Exam questions will not be explicitly cumulative, but I can’t guarantee that content from before the midterm won’t come up in some fashion.

• e.g., scheduling algorithms have come up repeatedly; be aware of how topics from the back half of the semester interrelate to the front half
Virtualization

- **Key Concepts:**
  - Different purposes for virtualization
  - Different virtualization layers
  - Emulation versus Binary Translation
  - Dynamic Binary Translation Challenges + Optimizations
  - Challenges of Process VMs
    - e.g., Emulating Target Architecture
  - Interpretation/Emulation versus Translation
What’s a virtual machine?

- Virtual machine is an entity that emulates a guest interface on top of a host machine
  - Language view:
    - Virtual machine = Entity that emulates an API (e.g., JAVA) on top of another
    - Virtualizing software = compiler/interpreter
  - Process view:
    - Machine = Entity that emulates an ABI on top of another
    - Virtualizing software = runtime
  - Operating system view:
    - Machine = Entity that emulates an ISA
    - Virtualizing software = virtual machine monitor (VMM)

Different views == who are we trying to fool??
Purpose of a VM

• Emulation
  – Create the illusion of having one type of machine on top of another

• Replication (/ Multiplexing)
  – Create the illusion of multiple independent smaller guest machines on top of one host machine (e.g., for security/isolation, or scalability/sharing)

• Optimization
  – Optimize a generic guest interface for one type of host
Writing an Emulator

- Problem: Emulate guest ISA on host ISA
- Create a simulator data structure to represent:
  - Guest memory
    - Guest stack
    - Guest heap
  - Guest registers
- Inspect each binary instruction (machine instruction or system call)
  - Update the data structures to reflect the effect of the instruction
Dynamic Binary Translation

1. Start with SPC
2. Look up SPC→TPC in map table
3. Hit in Table?
   - Yes: Branch to TPC and execute block
   - No: Translate new block and Store new SPC→TPC entry in table
4. Get SPC of next block
• Interpretation versus binary translation?
  – Interpretation:
    • no startup overhead
    • High overhead per instruction
  – Binary translation:
    • High startup overhead
    • Low overhead per instruction
  – Can we combine the best of both worlds?
    • Small program: Do interpretation
    • Large program: Do binary translation
File Systems

Key Concepts:
- Disk Scheduling
  - Concepts + Modern Implementations
- Data Layout on Disk
- File Allocation Strategies
  - Concepts + Modern Implementations
  - Locality
- Directory Structures
  - Representing Large Directories
- Reliability
  - Transaction Concept + Implementations
  - RAID
Which disk request is serviced first?
- FCFS
- Shortest seek time first
- Elevator (SCAN)
- C-SCAN (Circular SCAN)

A: Track.
B: Sector.
C: Sector of Track.
D: File

Disk Scheduling Decision — Given a series of access requests, on which track should the disk arm be placed next to maximize fairness, throughput, etc?
Linux I/O Schedulers

• What disk (I/O) schedulers are available in Linux?

```
$ cat /sys/block/sda/queue/scheduler
noop [deadline] cfq
```

• As of Linux 2.6.10, it is possible to change the I/O scheduler for a given block device on the fly!

• How to enable a specific scheduler?

```
$ echo SCHEDNAME > /sys/block/DEV/queue/scheduler
```

  • SCHEDNAME = Desired I/O scheduler
  • DEV = device name (e.g., hda)
Disk layout in a typical file system:

- **Superblock** defines a file system
  - size of the file system
  - size of the file descriptor area
  - free list pointer, or pointer to bitmap
  - location of the file descriptor of the root directory
  - other meta-data such as permission and various times
- For reliability, replicate the superblock
Contiguous Allocation

- Request in advance for the size of the file
- Search bit map or linked list to locate a space
- File header
  - first sector in file
  - number of sectors

- Pros
  - Fast sequential access
  - Easy random access

- Cons
  - External fragmentation
  - Hard to grow files
Linked Files

- File header points to 1st block on disk
- Each block points to next
- Pros
  - Can grow files dynamically
  - Free list is similar to a file
- Cons
  - Random access: horrible
  - Unreliable: losing a block means losing the rest
Berkeley FFS / UNIX FS

Parent File descriptor table

Child File descriptor table

Unrelated process File descriptor table

Open file description

inode

Mode

Link Count

UID

GID

File size

Times

Address of first 10 disk blocks

Single Indirect

Double Indirect

Triple Indirect

File position R/W Pointer to inode

File position R/W Pointer to inode
How does FFS provide locality?

- Block group allocation
  - Block group is a set of nearby cylinders
  - Files in same directory located in same group
  - Subdirectories located in different block groups
- Inode table spread throughout disk
  - Inodes, bitmap near file blocks
- First fit allocation
  - Property: Small files may be a little fragmented, but large files will be contiguous
Acyclic Graph Structured Dir.'s
- Represent directory as a list of files
- Linear search to find filename
- Suitable for small directories
B Trees

- Logarithmic search to find filename
- Suitable for large directories

Search for Hash (foo.txt) = 0x30

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hash Number</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>File Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>foo.txt</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>music</td>
<td>871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>work</td>
<td>320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>code</td>
<td>219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bin</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>324</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Transaction Concept

- A transaction is a grouping of low-level operations that are related to a single logical operation

- Transactions are atomic — operations appear to happen as a group, or not at all (at logical level)
  - At physical level of course, only a single disk/flash write is atomic

- Transactions are durable — operations that complete stay completed
  - Future failures do not corrupt previously stored data

- (In-Progress) Transactions are isolated — other transactions cannot see the results of earlier transactions until they are committed

- Transactions exhibit consistency — sequential memory model
Logging File Systems

- Instead of modifying data structures on disk directly, write changes to a journal/log
  - Intention list: set of changes we intend to make
  - Log/Journal is append-only

- Once changes are on log, safe to apply changes to data structures on disk
  - Recovery can read log to see what changes were intended

- Once changes are copied, safe to remove log
What about NTFS?

- Improved Metadata support
  - Flexible 1KB storage for metadata and data
- Scalability Features
  - MFT is optimized for 4KB resident data
  - Extents: a middle ground between contiguous and non-contiguous allocation.
    - Block pointers cover runs of blocks
    - Similar approach in Linux (ext4)
- NTFS uses journalling for reliability
Master File Table

MFT Record (small file)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Std. Info.</th>
<th>File Name</th>
<th>Data (resident)</th>
<th>(free)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

NTFS
NTFS

MFT

MFT Record

Std. Info.  File Name  Data (nonresident)  (free)

Start  Length  Data Extent

Start  Length  Data Extent
What if file is too large to fit all extent pointers in one data cluster?

MFT

MFT Record (part 1)

Std. Info.    Attr.list    File Name    Data (nonresident)

MFT Record (part 2)

Std. Info.    Data (nonresident)    (free)
RAID

- multiple disks work cooperatively
- Improve reliability by storing redundant data
- **Striping (RAID 0)** improves performance with disk striping (use a group of disks as one storage unit)
- **Mirroring (RAID 1)** keeps duplicate of each disk
- Striped mirrors (RAID 1+0) or mirrored stripes (RAID 0+1) provides high performance and high reliability
- **Block interleaved parity (RAID 4, 5, 6)** uses much less redundancy
RAID Level 0

- Level 0 is **nonredundant** disk array
- Files are striped across disks, no redundant info
- High read throughput
- Best write throughput (no redundant info to write)
- Any disk failure results in data loss
**RAID Level 1**

- **Mirrored Disks**
- **Data is written to two places**
  - On failure, just use surviving disk (easy to rebuild)
- **On read, choose fastest to read**
  - Write performance is same as single drive, read performance is 2x better
- **Expensive (high space overhead)**
RAID 01 vs 10

In RAID01, a RAID0 subsystem becomes unusable if one disk goes down.

In RAID10, a RAID1 subsystem remains usable because there is a mirrored copy of the data.
Security

• Key Concepts:
  • Least Privilege
  • Encryption — have a High-level / Block Box comprehension. You won’t need to prove RSA.
  • Authentication + Passwords
  • Case studies on failed application security
  • Access Control
    • e.g., DAC, Capabilities, Bell-LaPadula
  • Cryptography versus Access Control
  • Reference Monitors, LSM, SELinux
  • Auditing systems
How to study for security?

- No corresponding chapter in textbook!?!?
- We won’t be straying far from the lectures/slides
  - Google + Wikipedia concepts if you need further clarification (just evaluate credibility of sources).
Principle of Least Privilege

• Grant each principal the least permission possible for them to do their assigned work
  • Minimize code running inside kernel
  • Minimize code running as sysadmin
• Practical challenge: hard to know
  • what permissions are needed in advance
  • what permissions should be granted
    • Ex: to smartphone apps
    • Ex: to servers
Symmetric Key (DES, IDEA)

- Single key (symmetric) is shared between parties, kept secret from everyone else
  - Ciphertext = \((M)^K\); Plaintext = \(M = (((M)^K)^K)^K\)
  - if \(K\) kept secret, then both parties know \(M\) is authentic and secret
Public Key (RSA, PGP)

Keys come in pairs: public and private
- $M = ((M)^K_{\text{public}})^K_{\text{private}}$
- Ensures secrecy: can only be read by receiver
2-Factor Authentication

- Can be difficult for people to remember encryption keys and passwords
- Instead, store $K$-private inside a chip
  - Use challenge-response to authenticate smartcard
  - Use PIN to prove user has smartcard

\[ \text{challenge: } x \]
\[ \text{response: } (x+1)^{\text{K-private}} \]
• Observation: Programs have *a lot* of control over how their virtual memory works.

• Attack #1: Trap-To-User Bit Exploit

Trap-To-User: Alert me if this 2nd page is accessed!

• Attack #2: Exploit timing side-channel

Processing time for password check was proportional to the number of correct characters at the front of the attacker’s guess.
• Thompson’s Takeaway: You can’t fully trust code that you didn’t write yourself!

• Presented as a thought experiment during Thompson’s Turing Award Lecture. Didn’t really happen… we think??

• Hard to re-secure a machine after penetration. How do you know you’ve removed all the backdoors?

• It’s hard to detect that a machine has been penetrated

• Any system with bugs is vulnerable
  • and all systems have bugs
Access Mask defines permissions for User, Group, and Other

```chmod u=rwx,g=rx,o=r myfile```

```chmod 754 myfile```

4 stands for "read",
2 stands for "write",
1 stands for "execute", and
0 stands for "no permission."
Problems?

• What might go wrong with DAC or Capabilities?
  • Security is left to the discretion of subjects
  • Impossible to guarantee security of system
  • Security of system changes over time.

• Solution?
  • Mandatory Access Control: Operating system constrains the ability of subjects (even owners) to perform operations on objects according to a system-wide security policy.
Bell-LaPadula Model

- A multi-level security model that provides strong confidentiality guarantees.
- Formalizes Classified Information
- State machine (Lattice) specifies permissible actions
SELinux

- Designed by the NSA
- A more flexible solution than MLS
- SELinux Policies are comprised of 3 components:
  - **Labeling State** defines security contexts for every file (object) and user (subject).
  - **Protection State** defines the permitted <subject,object,operation> tuples.
  - **Transition State** permits ways for subjects and objects to move between security contexts.
- Enforcement mechanism designed to satisfy reference monitor concept
LSM Architecture

- Linux Kernel modified in 5 ways:
  - Opaque security fields added to certain kernel data structures
  - Security hook function calls inserted at various points with the kernel code
  - A generic security system call added
  - Function to allow modules to register and unregistered as security modules
  - Move capabilities logic into an optional security module
Cool. But how do we implement these models in an operating system?
How Linux Audit Works

- Auditing hooks around the kernel intercept system calls and records the relevant context
  - Where are audit hooks placed relative to security hooks?
- The auditd daemon ingests kernel events via a netlink socket and writes the audit reports to disk/network.
- Various command line utilities take care of displaying, querying, and archiving the audit trail.
Linux Audit Framework

Application

audit filter

syscall

syscall return

auditd

netlink

Logs

User-space

Kernel

syscall processing

kaudited

Syscall processing

1

2

3

4

?+1

>–
**Special Topics**

- **Key Concepts for Energy:**
  - Power and Energy
  - ACPI
  - Dynamic Voltage Scaling (or, when to reduce Volt/Freq)
  - Relationship between Scheduling and Energy
  - Relationship between Multiprocessing and Energy

- **Key Concepts for Containers:**
  - Compare Virtual Hypervisors to Containers
  - Role of Kernel Namespaces
  - Role of chroot
  - Role of groups