12. Case Study II UNIX (Linux)

9th ed: Ch. 6, 18 10th ed: Ch. 5, 20

Objectives

- To examine memory management in Linux
- To explore how Linux implements file systems
- To understand how Linux manages I/O devices
- To understand how a shell works

- Physical memory
- Virtual memory
- File systems
- I/O
- Start of day

- Physical memory
 - Page allocation
 - Slab allocation
- Virtual memory
- File systems
- 1/0
- Start of day

Physical memory management

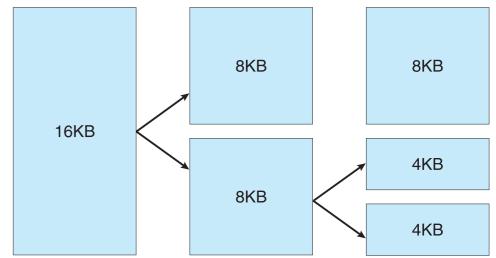
- Deals with allocation/freeing of pages, groups of pages, small blocks of memory
 - Additional mechanisms for handling virtual memory, memory mapped into the address space of running processes
- Splits memory into zones based on hardware characteristics
 - DMA, DMA32, NORMAL, HIGHMEM
- Architecture specific; e.g., x86_32
 - Some devices only address lower 16MB, so DMA must take place there

zone	physical memory
ZONE_DMA	< 16 MB
ZONE_NORMAL	16 896 MB
ZONE_HIGHMEM	> 896 MB

- HIGHMEM is memory not mapped into kernel space, all else is NORMAL
- Other systems have different constraints
 - E.g., some devices can only access first 4GB (even with 64 bit addresses)
 - x86_64 has (small) 16MB DMA zone for legacy devices, and the rest is ZONE_NORMAL

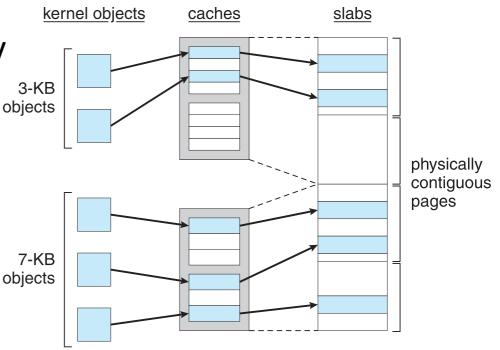
Physical page allocation

- Page allocator allocates and frees all physical pages
 - Can allocate ranges of physically-contiguous pages on request
- Uses a **buddy-heap algorithm** to track available physical pages
 - Each allocatable memory region is paired with an adjacent partner
 - Two allocated partner regions freed together are combined into a larger region
 - If no small free region exists to satisfy a small memory request, subdivide a larger free region into two pieces to satisfy the request



Slab allocation

- Allocation in the kernel occurs either
 - Statically, drivers reserve contiguous memory during system boot, or
 - Dynamically, via the page allocator
- Uses a **slab allocator** for kernel memory
- Using **page cache**, virtual memory system also manages physical memory
 - Kernel's main cache for files
 - Main mechanism for I/O to block devices
 - Stores entire pages of file contents for local and network file I/O



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Virtual memory

- Virtual memory system maintains each process' address space
 - Creates pages of virtual memory on demand
 - Manages loading of those pages from disk or swapping back out as required
- VM manager maintains two views of a process's address space
 - Logical view describes the layout of the address space, a set of non-overlapping regions, each representing a continuous, page-aligned subset of the address space
 - Physical view stored in the process' hardware page tables
- Virtual memory regions are characterized by
 - The **backing store**, which describes from where the pages for a region come; regions are usually backed by a file or by nothing (demand-zero memory)
 - The region's reaction to writes, either page sharing or copy-on-write
- Paging system uses page-out policy to decide which pages to move to and from backing store using the paging mechanism

Virtual memory creation

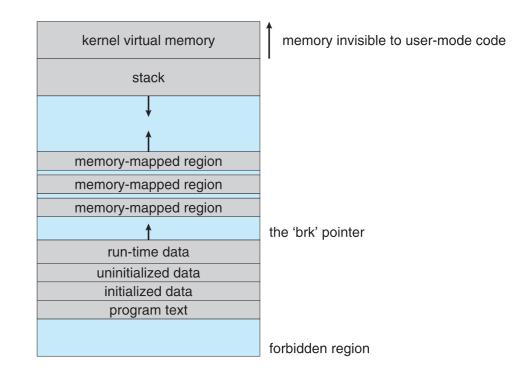
- The kernel creates a new virtual address space for two reasons
- A process runs a new program via *exec*
 - The existing process is given a new, completely empty virtual-address space
 - Program-loading routines populate the address space with virtual-memory regions

• A process creates a new process via fork

- New process is given a complete copy of the parent's virtual address space
- Kernel copies parent's VMA descriptors and creates a new set of page tables for the child
- Then copies parent's page tables into the child's, incrementing the reference count of each page covered
- Thus parent and child address spaces initially share the same physical pages of memory
- Kernel reserves a constant (architecture-dependent) area of two regions
 - **Static region** has page table references to every available physical page to ease logical-physical translation in kernel
 - Remainder is unreserved and PTEs can be pointed to any other area of memory

Running a program

- Kernel has function table for program loading
 - Supports multiple binary formats, commonly ELF
- ELF-format program has a header plus several page-aligned sections
 - Pages initially mapped into virtual memory, and then faulted in to physical memory
 - ELF loader reads header and maps sections of the file into separate VM regions
- Unless **statically** linked there will be symbols defined elsewhere



- Calling dynamic linker stubs trigger mapping of the link library into memory, resolving references
- Shared libraries typically compiled to position-independent code (PIC) so can be loaded anywhere

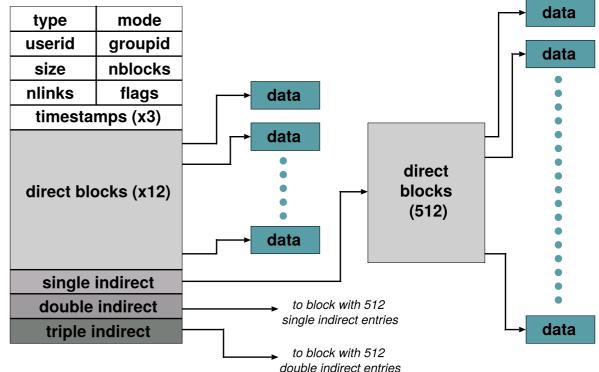
- Physical memory
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 - Implementation
 - Directories and links
 - Access control
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File systems

- To the user, Linux's file system appears as a hierarchical directory tree obeying UNIX semantics
 - Devices are represented by special files
 - **proc file system** doesn't store data but computes it on demand using inode number to identify the operation
- Kernel hides details, managing different file systems via the **virtual file system** (**VFS**), an abstraction layer with four components
 - The inode object structure represent an individual file
 - The file object represents an open file
 - The **superblock object** represents an entire file system
 - A dentry object represents an individual directory entry
- Then manipulate those objects via a set of operations on the objects, e.g., for files include
 - int (*open) (struct inode *, struct file *);
 - ssize_t (*read) (struct file *, char __user *, size_t, loff_t *);
 - ssize_t (*write) (struct file *, const char __user *, size_t, loff_t *);
 - int (*mmap) (struct file *, struct vm_area_struct *);

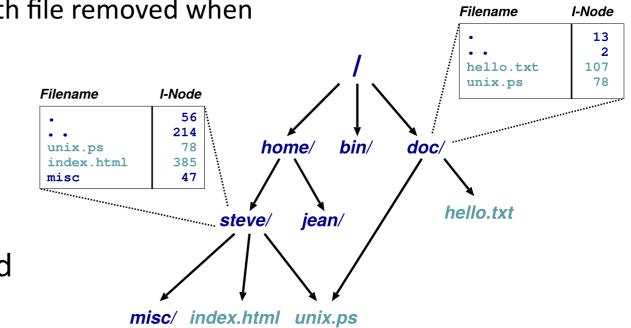
File system implementation

- UNIX file systems use **inodes** (index nodes) as FCBs
 - A **combined scheme**: the inode contains pointers to blocks, and pointers to pointers to blocks, and so on
- Alternatives include linked schemes where an index block points to blocks and ends with either a *null* or a pointer to the next index block



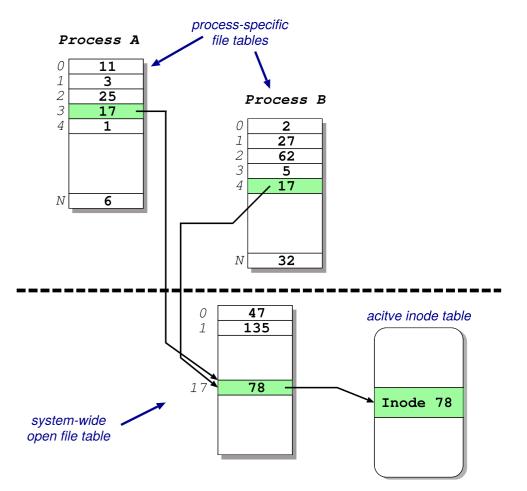
Directories and links

- Directory is just a file, itself pointed to by an inode, mapping filenames to inodes
- An instance of a file in a directory is a hardlink
 - Reference counted in the inode with file removed when reference count becomes zero
 - Directories cannot have more than one hardlink otherwise cycles might be created
- Alternatively, a softlink or symbolic-link is a normal file containing a filename, interpreted by the filesystem



In-memory tables

- Each process sees files as file descriptors
 - Index into a process-specific open file table
- Table entries point into a system-wide open file table
 - Multiple processes might operate on the same file, including deleting it
- System-wide table entries then point to in-memory **inode table**

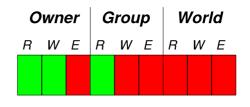


Access control

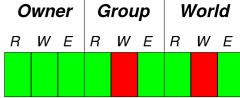
- Every object uses same mechanism: unique numeric identifiers
 - User ID (UID) identifies single user (set of rights)
 - Group ID (GID) identifies a group (rights held by one or more users)
- Processes have a single UID but one or more GIDs
 - Process UID matches object UID, then process has user/owner rights
 - Else if a process GID matches an object GID, then process has group rights
 - Else process has world rights
- Object has protection mask indicating R/W/X for user/group/world
 - Root UID process has automatic rights to everything
- Rights can be passed by forwarding fds down a local network socket
 - E.g., Print server is passed a descriptor for the file to be printed, avoiding the need for it to have rights to read any other of the user's files

File access control

- Access control information held in each inode
 - Three bits for each of owner, group and world
 - For files, read, write execute
 - For directories, read entry, write entry, traverse directory
- Also have *setuid* and *setgid* bits:
 - Normally processes inherit permissions of invoking user
 - setuid/setgid allow user to "become" someone else when running a given program
- E.g. an assessment application might have
 - A sit-exam application owned by the examiner with permissions 0711 plus setuid
 - A *test-scores* file also owned by the examiner but with permissions 0600







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Input/Output

- Device-oriented file system accesses disk storage via two caches:
 - The page cache caches data, unified with the virtual memory system
 - The **buffer cache** caches metadata separately, indexed by physical disk block
- Three classes of device:
 - Block devices allow random access to independent, fixed size blocks of data
 - **Character devices** include most other devices, not needing the functionality of regular files
 - Network devices are interfaced via the kernel's networking subsystem

Buffer cache

- Maintain copies of some parts of disk in memory for speed
- Reading then involves
 - Locate relevant blocks from inode
 - Check if in buffer cache
 - If not, read from disk into buffer cache memory
 - Return data from buffer cache
- Writing is the same except final step updates the version in the cache
 - "Typically" prevents majority (around 85%) of implied disk transfers
 - But at risk of losing data while the update is only in the buffer cache
- Must periodically (30 seconds) flush dirty buffers to disk
 - Can cache metadata too but what problems can that cause?

Device types

- Block devices provide the main interface to system's disk devices
 - Block buffer cache acts as a pool of buffers for active I/O and as a cache for completed I/O
 - Request manager handles reading/writing of buffer contents to/from block device driver using Completely Fair Queueing (CFQ)
- Character devices do not offer random access, with driver just passing on request directly
 - Main exception are **terminal devices** where **line discipline** is responsible for interpreting information from device
 - Eg., **tty discipline** glues *stdin/stdout* onto terminal data/output streams
- Network structure complex with socket interface, protocol drivers, network device drivers
 - Also firewall management, filtering, marking etc

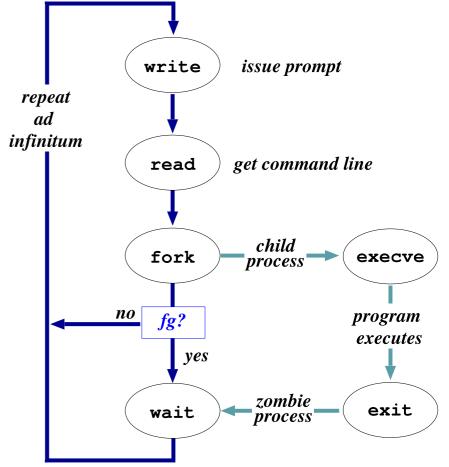
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 - Shell operation
 - Standard I/O

UNIX start of day

- Kernel (/vmunix) loaded from disk and executed, mounting root filesystem
 - Bootloader required to read from the disk
 - First process (PID=1), traditionally /etc/init, is hand-crafted
- Proceeds by reading */etc/inittab* and, for each entry:
 - Opens terminal special file, e.g. /dev/tty0, duplicates the resulting fd twice, and forks an /etc/tty process
- Each tty process then:
 - Initialises the terminal, outputs the string login: & waits for input
 - On receiving input, execve /bin/login
- */bin/login* then
 - Outputs the string **password:** & waits for input
 - On receiving input, hash it and check against entry in */etc/passwd*
 - If match, set the UID & GID, and *execve* the indicated shell
- When the shell exits, the parent *init* resurrects the */etc/tty* process which goes again

Shell operation

- Just another process needn't understand commands, just files
 - Using CWD avoids need for fully qualified pathnames
- Command line parsing can be complex
 - Wildcard expansion (globbing)
 - Tilde (~) processing
 - Conventionally trailing & put forked process into the background



Standard I/O

- Every process has three fds on creation:
 - stdin from which to read input
 - **stdout** to which output is sent
 - **stderr** to which diagnostics are sent
- Inherited from parent but can be **redirected** to/from a file, e.g.,

Is >listing.txt Is >&listing.txt sh <commands.sh

- Consider: *ls >temp.txt; wc <temp.txt >results*
 - Pipeline is better, e.g. *ls | wc >results*
- Unix command lines can become very complex e.g., with many filters
 - Redirection can cause some buffering subtleties

Summary

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