# 12. Case Study II UNIX (Linux)

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# 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
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#### 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



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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 entyr 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 & backgrounds forked process



### 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 ls >&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

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