# Linux Case Study OPS Lecture 17, G53OPS/G52OSC

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## Linux Structure of the Linux Kernel

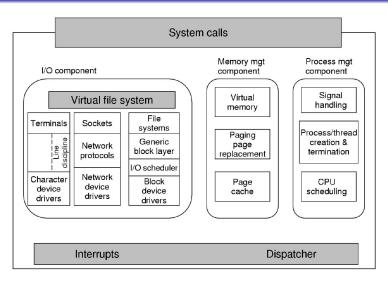


Figure: Structure of the Linux Kernel (Tanenbaum)

## Linux Process Creation in Linux

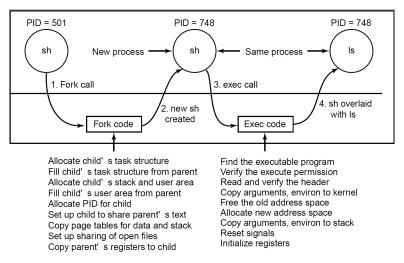


Figure: Process Creation in Linux (Tanenbaum)

## Linux Process Creation in Linux

- Two approaches exist for a parent process to create a child process
  - The traditional Unix approach using fork() and exec()
  - The Linux specific approach using clone () which blurs the boundaries between processes and threads by allowing fine grained control over memory, files, etc. and
- Processes and threads are both called tasks in Linux

#### Linux Processes in Linux

- The process table (containing task structures) is implemented as a doubly linked list with a mapping based on the PID
- A task structure in Linux is used for processes as well as threads, and includes:
  - They contain, e.g., process/thread scheduling information, open file table, memory information, registers, etc.
  - Some of this information is contained in separate structures to which the task structure holds a pointer

## Linux Thread Creation in Linux

- Traditionally, threads share resources (address space, global variables, files, etc.) with the process, but have their own program counter, registers, stack, states, and local variables
- In contrast to fork(), clone() allows fine grained control over which aspects the thread shares
  - This is possible because the process control block is based on several sub-blocks, e.g. for the file descriptors

Flag	Meaning when set	Meaning when cleared
CLONE_VM	Create a new thread	Create a new process
CLONE_FS	Share umask, root, and working dirs	Do not share them
CLONE_FILES	Share the file descriptors	Copy the file descriptors
CLONE_SIGHAND	Share the signal handler table	Copy the table
CLONE_PID	New thread gets old PID	New thread gets own PID
CLONE_PARENT	New thread has same parent as caller	New thread's parent is caller

Figure: Control flags for the clone call (Tanenbaum)

## Scheduling Process Scheduling in Linux

- Process scheduling has evolved over different versions of Linux to account for multiple processors / cores, processor affinity, and load balancing between cores
- Linux distinguishes between two types of tasks for scheduling:
  - Real time tasks (to be POSIX compliant), divided into:
    - Real time FIFO tasks
    - Real time Round Robin tasks
  - Time sharing tasks using a preemptive multitasking approach (variable in Windows)
- The most recent scheduling algorithm in Linux is the "completely fair scheduler" (CFS, before the 2.6 kernel, this was an O(1) scheduler)

#### Scheduling Real-Time Tasks

- Real time FIFO tasks have the highest priority and are scheduled using a FCFS approach, using preemption if a higher priority job shows up
- Real time round robin tasks are preemptable by clock interrupts and have a time slice associated with them
- Both approaches cannot guarantee hard deadlines

### Scheduling Time Sharing Tasks

- The CFS divides the CPU time between all processes
- If all N processes have the same priority:
  - They will be allocated a "time slice" equal to  $\frac{1}{N}$  times the available CPU time
  - I.e., if N equals 5, every process will receive 20% of the processor's time
- The length of the time slice and the "available CPU time" are based on the targeted latency (⇒ every process should run at least once during this interval)

### Process and Thread Scheduling

Process Scheduling in Linux: Time Sharing Tasks

- A weighting scheme is used to take different priorities into account
- If process have different priorities:
  - Every process *i* is allocated a **weight** *w<sub>i</sub>* that reflects its priority
  - The "time slice" allocated to process i is then **proportional to**  $\frac{w_i}{\sum\limits_{i\in N}w_j}$

### Process and Thread Scheduling

Process Scheduling in Linux: Time Sharing Tasks

- The tasks with the lowest amount of "used CPU time" are selected first
- If *N* is very large, the context switch time will be dominant, hence a lower bound on the "time slice" is imposed by the minimum granularity
  - A process's time slice can be no less than the minimum granularity (response time will deteriorate)

Process's Memory Image

- Process/program contains three segments:
  - Program text containing machine instructions produced by the compiler and is usually read only
  - Data segment containing storage for the program's variables containing initialised and uninitialised data and can vary in size (using the system call brk)
  - The stack segment, usually starting at the top of the address space
- Text segments can be **shared** between multiple processes running the same program

Process's Memory Image

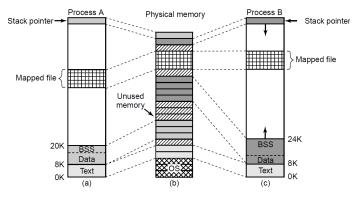


Figure: Page Replacement (Stallings)

Memory Zones in Linux

- Physical memory is divided into three zones:
  - ZONE\_DMA for DMA access of old legacy devices
  - ZONE NORMAL
  - ZONE HIGHMEM
- A memory map is maintained by the kernel to administer the use of physical memory

The Kernel Memory Map

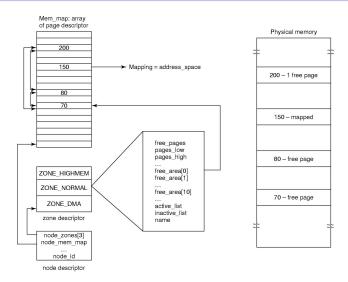


Figure: Memory Map in Linux

## Memory Management The Kernel Memory Map

- A page descriptor is maintained for every page frame containing a link to the virtual address space in which it is used, link pointers, and other fields
- A zone descriptor is maintained for every zone, containing information on the memory utilisation, page replacement bounds, an array (ordered by size) of linked lists of page descriptors for unused pages

### Linux

#### Overview: Structure of a Linux System

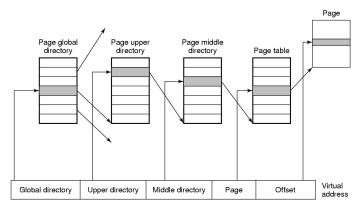


Figure: Linux's Four Level Page Table

## Memory Management The Page Allocator

- Physical memory is managed by the page allocator (one per zone) that allocates and frees physical pages using the buddy algorithm
- A request for memory is **rounded up** to the nearest power of 2, e.g. a request for 7 pages is rounded up to 8 (⇒ internal fragmentation)

The Page Allocator (Cont'ed)

- The buddy algorithm divides memory recursively until a contiguous chunk of the correct size is found (free lists in the zone descriptor are used to keep track of blocks)
- Free neighbouring blocks are merged

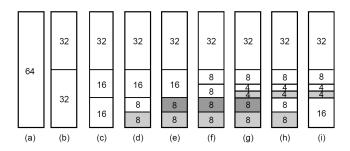


Figure: The Buddy Algorithm (Tanenbaum)

The Page Allocator

- Several memory management subsystems rely on the page allocator to manage their own memory:
  - kmalloc() for allocating arbitrary sized memory chunks in the kernel by splitting up individual pages
    - Separate data structure in the kernel are required to manage this
    - Memory is pinned (i.e., cannot be paged out) and must be freed explicitly
  - The slab allocator that carves smaller units out of one or multiple contiguous pages to store, e.g., to cache/store kernel data structures
  - The virtual memory manager

Swapping and Paging in Linux

- Linux uses a pure demand paging approach (i.e. no pre-paging or working sets)
- Pages reclaimed by the paging daemon can be:
  - Mapped to files on the disk, e.g. for text segments and memory mapped files
  - Mapped onto a swap file or swap partition (which is faster it avoids overhead, is contiguous, and uses a next fit algorithm)
- "Swapping" is implemented on a page granularity (i.e. paging and virtual memory are used)

Page Replacement in Linux

- Linux's page replacement algorithm is a modified version of the second chance clock algorithm:
  - Each pass of the clock reduces the age value
  - Each reference to a page increases the age value

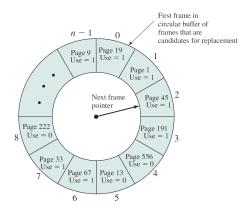


Figure: Memory Image (Tanenbaum)

Page Replacement in Linux

- Linux distinguishes between unreclaimable, swappable which must be re-written to the swap area, syncable which must be written to the disk, and discardable pages which can be reclaimed immediately
- Priority is given to reclaiming "easy" pages, e.g. discardable or not referenced pages
- The page daemon aims at keeping a good set of free pages available at all times

### Summary

Take-Home Message

- Processes, task structures, process creation, process scheduling in Linux
- Memory management, buddy algorithm, slab allocator, page replacement in Linux