The Process Model (1)

L41 Lecture 3

Dr Robert N. M. Watson

2019-2020

Reminder: last time

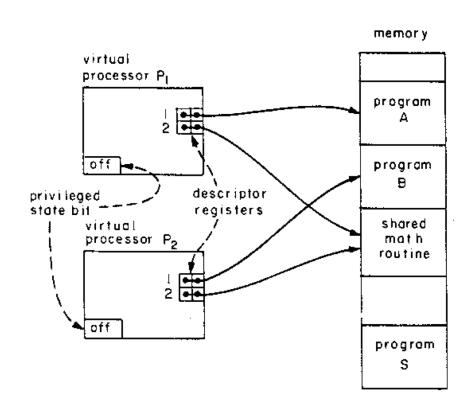
- What is an operating system?
- Operating systems research
- About the module
- Lab reports

- DTrace
- The probe effect
- The kernel: Just a C program?
- A little on kernel dynamics: How work happens

This time: The process model

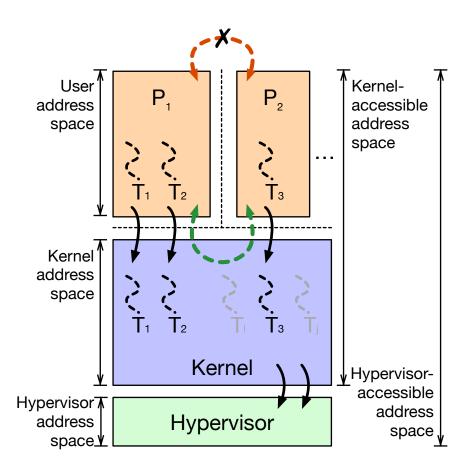
- The process model and its evolution
- Brutal (re, pre)-introduction to virtual memory
- Where do programs come from?
- Traps and system calls
- Reading for next time

The Process Model: 1970s foundations



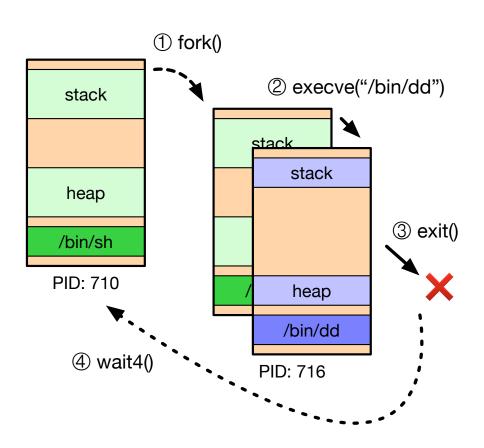
- Saltzer and Schroeder, The Protection of Information in Computer Systems, SOSP'73, October 1973. (CACM 1974)
- Multics process model
 - 'Program in execution'
 - Process isolation bridged by controlled communication via supervisor (kernel)
- Hardware foundations
 - Supervisor mode
 - Memory segmentation
 - Trap mechanism
- Hardware protection rings (Schroeder and Saltzer, 1972)

The process model: today



- 'Program in execution'
 - **Process** ≈ address space
 - Threads execute code
- Unit of resource accounting
 - Open files, memory, ...
- Kernel interaction via **traps**: system calls, page faults, ...
- Hardware foundations
 - Rings control MMU, I/O, etc.
 - Virtual addressing (MMU) to construct virtual address spaces
 - Trap mechanism
- Details vary little across {BSD, OS X, Linux, Windows, ...}
- Recently: OS-Application trust model inverted due to untrustworthy operating systems – e.g., Trustzone, SGX, ...

The UNIX process life cycle



• fork()

- Child inherits address space and other properties
- Program prepares process for new binary (e.g., stdio)
- Copy-on-Write (COW)

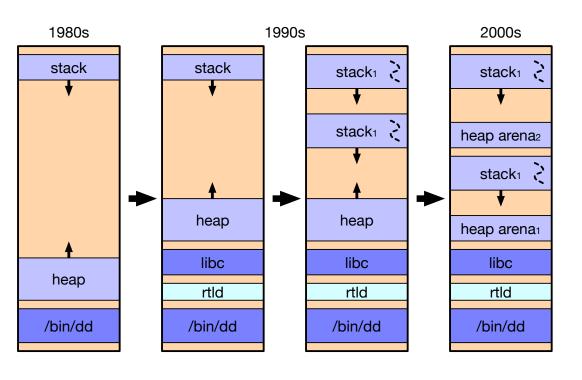
execve()

 Kernel replaces address space, loads new binary, starts execution

exit()

- Process can terminate self (or be terminated)
- wait4() (et al)
 - Parent can await exit status
- NB: posix_spawn()?

Evolution of the process model



- 1980s: Code, heap, and stack
- 1990s: Dynamic linking, threading
- 2000s: Scalable memory allocators implement multiple arenas (e.g., as in jemalloc)
- Co-evolution with virtual memory (VM) research
 - Acetta, et al: Mach microkernel (1986)
 - Nararro, et al: Superpages (2002)

Process address space: dd(1)

Inspect dd process address space with procstat -v

```
root@beaglebone:/data # procstat -v 734
 PID
          START
                       END PRT
                              RES PRES REF SHD FLAG TP PATH
 734
         0x8000
                   0xd000 r-x
                                             0 CN-- vn /bin/dd
                                             0 ---- df
 734
        0x14000
                   0x16000 rw- 2 2 1
 734 0x20014000 0x20031000 r-x 29 32 31 14 CN-- vn /libexec/ld-elf.so.1
                                            0 C--- vn /libexec/ld-elf.so.1
 734 0x20038000 0x20039000 rw-
                                       1 0 ---- df
 734 0x20039000 0x20052000 rw-
 734 0x20100000 0x2025f000 r-x 351 360 31
                                            14 CN-- vn /lib/libc.so.7
 734 0x2025f000 0x20266000 ---
                                          1 0 ---- df
                                      0 1 0 C--- vn /lib/libc.so.7
 734 0x20266000 0x2026e000 rw-
                                 7 533 2 0 ---- df
 734 0x2026e000 0x20285000 rw-
                                             0 --S- df
 734 0x20400000 0x20c00000 rw-
                                    533
                               526
 734 0xbffe0000 0xc0000000 rwx
                                              0 ---D df
```

r: read C: Copy-on-write

w: write D: Downward growth

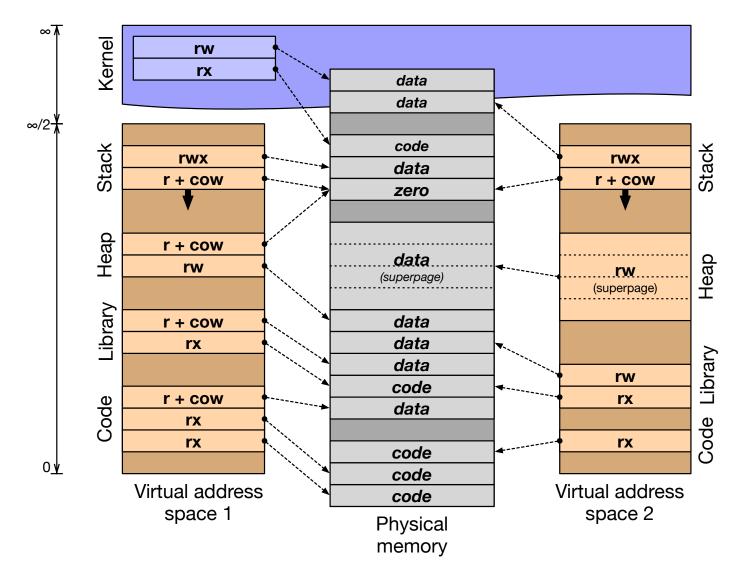
x: execute S: Superpage

ELF binaries

- UNIX: Executable and Linkable Format (ELF)
- Mac OS X/iOS: Mach-O; Windows: PE/COFF; same ideas
- Inspect dd ELF program header using objdump -p:

```
Program Header:
0x70000001 off 0x0000469c vaddr 0x0000c69c paddr 0x0000c69c align 2**2
        filesz 0x00000158 memsz 0x00000158 flags r--
   PHDR off
               0x00000034 vaddr 0x00008034 paddr 0x00008034 align 2**2
         filesz 0x000000e0 memsz 0x000000e0 flags r-x
  INTERP off 0x00000114 vaddr 0x00008114 paddr 0x00008114 align 2**0
         filesz 0x00000015 memsz 0x00000015 flags r--
    LOAD off 0x00000000 vaddr 0x00008000 paddr 0x00008000 align 2**15
         filesz 0x000047f8 memsz 0x000047f8 flags r-x
               0x000047f8 vaddr 0x000147f8 paddr 0x000147f8 align 2**15
    LOAD off
        filesz 0x000001b8 memsz 0x00001020 flags rw-
 DYNAMIC off
               0x00004804 vaddr 0x00014804 paddr 0x00014804 align 2**2
        filesz 0x000000f0 memsz 0x000000f0 flags rw-
   NOTE off
               0x0000012c vaddr 0x0000812c paddr 0x0000812c align 2**2
         filesz 0x0000004c memsz 0x0000004c flags r--
```

Virtual memory (quick but painful primer)



Virtual memory (quick but painful primer)

Memory Management Unit (MMU)

- Transforms virtual addresses into physical addresses
- Memory is laid out in **virtual pages** (4K, 2M, 1G, ...)
- Control available only to the supervisor (historically)
- Software handles failures (e.g., store to read-only page) via traps

Page tables

- SW-managed page tables provide virtual-physical mappings
- Access permissions, page attributes (e.g., caching), dirty bit
- Various configurations + traps implement BSS, COW, sharing, ...

Translation Look-aside Buffer (TLB)

- Hardware cache of entries avoid walking pagetables
- Content Addressable Memory (CAM); 48? 1024? entries
- TLB tags: entries global or for a specific address-space ID (ASID)
- Software- vs. hardware-managed TLBs

Hypervisors and IOMMUs:

• I/O performs direct memory access (DMA) via virtual addres space

Role of the run-time linker (rtld)

- Static linking: program, libraries linked into one binary
 - Process address space laid out (and fixed) at compile time
- Dynamic linking: program, libraries in separate binaries
 - Shared libraries avoid code duplication, conserving memory
 - Shared libraries allow different update cycles, ABI ownership
 - Program binaries contain a list of their library dependencies
 - The run-time linker (rtld) loads and links libraries
 - Also used for plug-ins via dlopen(), dlsym()
- Three separate but related activities:
 - Load: Load ELF segments at suitable virtual addresses
 - Relocate: Rewrite position-dependent code to load address
 - Resolve symbols: Rewrite inline/PLT addresses to other code

Role of the run-time linker (rtld)

```
root@beaglebone:~ # ldd /bin/dd
/bin/dd:
    libc.so.7 => /lib/libc.so.7 (0x20100000)
```

- When the execve system call starts the new program:
 - ELF binaries name their interpreter in ELF metadata
 - Kernel maps rtld and the application binary into memory
 - Userspace starts execution in rtld
 - rtld loads and links dynamic libraries, runs constructors
 - rtld calls main()
- Optimisations:
 - Lazy binding: don't resolve all function symbols at load time
 - Prelinking: relocate, link in advance of execution
 - Difference is invisible but surprising to many programmers

Arguments and ELF auxiliary arguments

C-program arguments are argc, argv[], and envv[]:

```
root@beaglebone:/data # procstat -c 716
PID COMM ARGS
716 dd dd if=/dev/zero of=/dev/null bs=1m
```

The run-time linker also accepts arguments from the kernel:

```
root@beaglebone:/data # procstat -x 716
  PID COMM
                        AUXV
                                          VALUE
  716 dd
                                          0x8034
                        AT PHDR
  716 dd
                        AT PHENT
                                          32
  716 dd
                        AT PHNUM
  716 dd
                        AT PAGESZ
                                          4096
  716 dd
                        AT FLAGS
  716 dd
                        AT ENTRY
                                          0x8cc8
  716 dd
                        AT_BASE
                                          0x20014000
  716 dd
                        AT EXECPATH
                                          0xbfffffc4
  716 dd
                        AT OSRELDATE
                                          1100062
  716 dd
                        AT NCPUS
                                          0xbfffff9c
  716 dd
                        AT PAGESIZES
  716 dd
                        AT PAGESIZESLEN
```

Traps and system calls

- Asymmetric domain transition, trap, shifts control to kernel
 - Asynchronous traps: e.g., timer, peripheral interrupts, Inter-Processor Interrupts (IPIs)
 - Synchronous traps: e.g., system calls, divide-by-zero, page faults
- \$pc to interrupt vector: dedicated OS code to handle trap
- Key challenge: kernel must gain control safely, securely

RISC	User \$pc saved, handler \$pc installed, control coprocessor (MMU,) Kernel address space becomes available for fetch/load/store
	Reserved registers in ABI (\$k0, \$k1) or banking (\$pc, \$sp,) Software must save other state (i.e., other registers)
CISC	HW saves context to in-memory trap frame (variably sized?)

- User context switch:
 - (1) trap to kernel, (2) save register context; (3) optionally change address space, (4) restore another register context; (5) trap return

Break

The Process Model (2)

L41 Lecture 4

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The process model (2)

- More on traps and system calls
 - Synchrony and asynchrony
 - Security and reliability
 - Kernel work in system calls and traps
- Virtual memory support for the process model

System calls

- User processes request kernel services via system calls:
 - Traps that model function-call semantics; e.g.,
 - open() opens a file and returns a file descriptor
 - fork() creates a new process
- System calls appear to be library functions (e.g., libc)
 - 1. Function triggers trap to transfer control to the kernel
 - 2. System-call arguments copied into kernel
 - 3. Kernel implements service
 - 4. System-call return values copied out of kernel
 - 5. Kernel returns from trap to next user instruction
- Some quirks relative to normal APIs; e.g.,
 - C return values via normal ABI calling convention...
 - ... But also per-thread errno to report error conditions
 - ... EINTR: for some calls, work got interrupted, try again

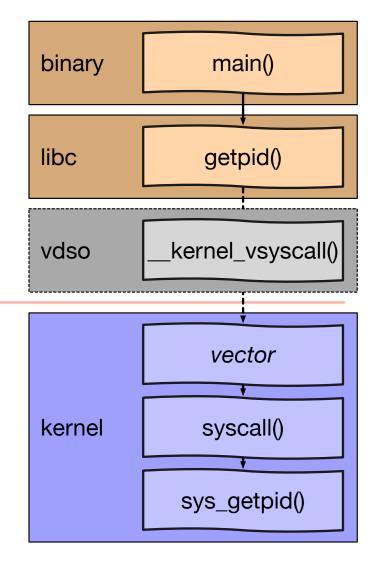
System-call synchrony

- Most syscalls behave like synchronous C functions
 - Calls with arguments (by value or by reference)
 - Return values (an integer/pointer or by reference)
 - Caller regains control when the work is complete; e.g.,
 - getpid() retrieves the process ID via a return value
 - read() reads data from a file: on return, data in buffer
- Except .. some syscalls manipulate control flow or process thread/life cycle; e.g.:
 - _exit() never returns
 - fork() returns ... twice
 - pthread_create() creates a new thread
 - setucontext() rewrites thread register state

System-call asynchrony

- Synchronous calls can perform asynchronous work
 - Some work may not be complete on return; e.g.,
 - write() writes data to a file .. to disk .. eventually
 - Caller can re-use buffer immediately (copy semantics)
 - mmap() maps a file but doesn't load data
 - Caller traps on access, triggering I/O (demand paging)
 - Copy semantics mean that user program can be unaware of asynchrony (... sort of)
- Some syscalls have asynchronous call semantics
 - aio_write() requests an asynchronous write
 - aio_return()/aio_error() collect results later
 - Caller must wait to re-use buffer (shared semantics)

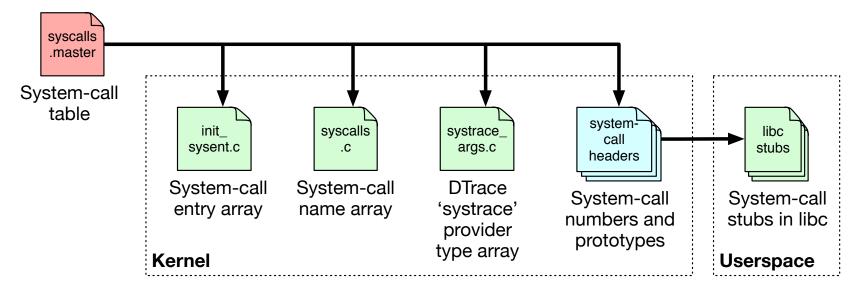
System-call invocation



- libc system-call stubs provide linkable symbols
- Inline system-call instructions or dynamic implementations
 - Linux vdso
 - Xen hypercall page
- Machine-dependent trap vector
- Machine-independent function syscall()
 - Prologue (e.g., breakpoints, tracing)
 - Actual service invoked
 - Epilogue (e.g., tracing, signal delivery)

System-call table: syscalls.master

```
STD
                          { int access(char *path, int amode); }
33
   AUE ACCESS
                          { int chflags(const char *path, u_long flags); }
34 AUE CHFLAGS
                  STD
                          { int fchflags(int fd, u_long flags); }
   AUE FCHFLAGS
                  STD
                  STD
                          { int sync(void); }
36 AUE_SYNC
                          { int kill(int pid, int signum); }
37 AUE_KILL
                  STD
                          { int stat(char *path, struct ostat *ub); }
38
   AUE STAT
                  COMPAT
```



NB: If this looks like RPC stub generation .. that's because it is.

Security and reliability (1)

- User-kernel interface is a key Trusted Computing Base (TCB) surface
 - Minimum software required for the system to be secure
- Foundational security goal: isolation
 - Used to implement integrity, confidentiality, availability
 - Limit scope of system-call effects on global state
 - Enforce access control on all operations (e.g., MAC, DAC)
 - Accountability mechanisms (e.g., event auditing)

Security and reliability (2)

- System calls perform work on behalf of user code
 - Kernel thread operations implement system call/trap
- Unforgeable credential tied to each process/thread
 - Authorises use of kernel services and objects
 - Resources (e.g., CPU, memory) billed to the thread
 - Explicit checks in system-call implementation
 - Credentials may be cached to authorise asynchronous work (e.g., TCP sockets, NFS block I/O)
- Kernel must be robust to user-thread misbehaviour
 - Handle failures gracefully: terminate process, not kernel
 - Avoid priority inversions, unbounded resource allocation, etc.

Security and reliability (3)

- Confidentiality is both difficult and expensive
 - Explicitly zero memory before re-use between processes
 - Prevent kernel-user data leaks (e.g., in struct padding)
 - Correct implementation of process model via rings, VM
 - Covert channels, side channels
- User code is the adversary may try to break access control or isolation
 - Kernel must carefully enforce all access-control rules
 - System-call arguments, return values are data, not code
 - Extreme care with user-originated pointers, operations

Security and reliability (4)

- What if a user process passes a kernel pointer to system call?
 - System-call arguments must be processed with rights of user code
 - E.g., prohibit read() from storing via kernel pointer, which might (e.g.,) overwrite in-kernel credentials
 - Explicit copyin(), copyout() routines check pointer validity, copy data safely
- Kernel dereferences user pointer by accident
 - Kernel bugs could cause kernel to access user memory "by mistake", inappropriately trusting user code or data
 - Kernel NULL-pointer vulnerabilities
 - Intel Supervisor Mode Access Prevent (SMAP), Supervisor Mode Execute Prevention (SMEP)
 - ARM Privileged eXecute Never (PXN)

System-call entry — syscallenter

cred_update_thread sv_fetch_syscall_args ktrsyscall ptracestop IN_CAPABILITY_MODE syscall_thread_enter systrace_probe_func AUDIT_SYSCALL_ENTER sa->callp->sy_call AUDIT_SYSCALL_EXIT systrace_probe_func syscall_thread_exit sv_set_syscall_retval Update thread cred from process
ABI-specific copyin() of arguments
ktrace syscall entry
ptrace syscall entry breakpoint
Capsicum capability-mode check
Thread drain barrier (module unload)
DTrace system-call entry probe
Security event auditing

System-call implementation! Woo!

Security event auditing
DTrace system-call return probe
Thread drain barrier (module unload)
ABI-specific return value

That's a lot of tracing hooks – why so many?

getauid: return process audit ID

```
int
sys_getauid(struct thread *td, struct getauid_args *uap)
{
    int error;

    if (jailed(td->td_ucred))
        return (ENOSYS);
    error = priv_check(td, PRIV_AUDIT_GETAUDIT);
    if (error)
        return (error);
    return (copyout(&td->td_ucred->cr_audit.ai_auid, uap->auid, sizeof(td->td_ucred->cr_audit.ai_auid)));
}
```

- Current thread pointer, system-call argument structure
 - Security: lightweight virtualisation, privilege check
 - Copy value to user address space can't write to it directly!
 - No explicit synchronisation as fields are thread-local
- Does it matter how fresh the credential pointer is?

System-call return — syscallret

userret

- **™→** KTRUSERRET
- g_waitidle
- → addupc_task
- → sched_userret

p_throttled
ktrsysret
ptracestop
thread_suspend_check
P_PPWAIT

Complicated things, like signals ktrace syscall return
Wait for disk probing to complete

wait for disk probing to complete

System-time profiling charge

Scheduler adjusts priorities

... various debugging assertions...

racct resource throttling

Kernel tracing: syscall return

ptrace syscall return breakpoint

Single-threading check

vfork wait

- That is a lot of stuff that largely never happens
- The trick is making all of this nothing fast e.g., via perthread flags and globals that remain in the data cache

System calls in practice: dd (1)

```
# time dd if=/dev/zero of=/dev/null bs=10m count=1 status=none
0.000u 0.396s 0:00.39 100.0% 25+170k 0+0io 0pf+0w
```

```
syscall:::entry /execname == "dd"/ {
        self->start = timestamp;
        self->insyscall = 1;
syscall:::return /execname == "dd" && self->insyscall != 0/ {
        length = timestamp - self->start;
        @syscall time[probefunc] = sum(length);
        @totaltime = sum(length);
        self->insyscall = 0;
END {
        printa(@syscall_time);
        printa(@totaltime);
```

System calls in practice: dd (2)

```
# time dd if=/dev/zero of=/dev/null bs=10m count=1 status=none 0.000u 0.396s 0:00.39 100.0% 25+170k 0+0io 0pf+0w
```

```
sysarch
                                                                     7645
issetugid
                                                                     8900
lseek
                                                                     9571
sigaction
                                                                    11122
clock_gettime
                                                                    12142
ioctl
                                                                    14116
write
                                                                    29445
readlink
                                                                    49062
                                                                    50743
access
sigprocmask
                                                                    83953
fstat
                                                                   113850
                                                                   154841
munmap
close
                                                                   176638
lstat
                                                                   453835
openat
                                                                   562472
read
                                                                   697051
                                                                   770581
mmap
        3205967
```

NB: ≈3.2ms total – but time(1) reports 396ms system time?

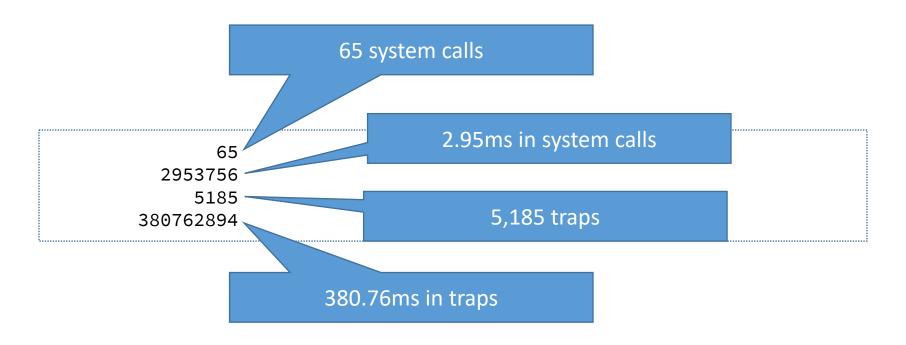
Traps in practice: dd (1)

```
syscall:::entry /execname == "dd"/ {
        @syscalls = count();
        self->insyscall = 1;
        self->start = timestamp;
}
syscall:::return /execname == "dd" && self->insyscall != 0/ {
        length = timestamp - self->start; @syscall time = sum(length);
        self->insyscall = 0;
}
fbt::trap:entry /execname == "dd" && self->insyscall == 0/ {
        @traps = count(); self->start = timestamp;
}
fbt::trap:return /execname == "dd" && self->insyscall == 0/ {
        length = timestamp - self->start; @trap_time = sum(length);
}
END {
        printa(@syscalls); printa(@syscall_time);
        printa(@traps); printa(@trap_time);
```

NB: trap() FBT probes are machine-dependent and these examples are from x86_64. On ARMv7, use **fbt::abort handler:{entry,return}**.

Traps in practice: dd (2)

time dd if=/dev/zero of=/dev/null bs=10m count=1 status=none
0.000u 0.396s 0:00.39 100.0% 25+170k 0+0io 0pf+0w



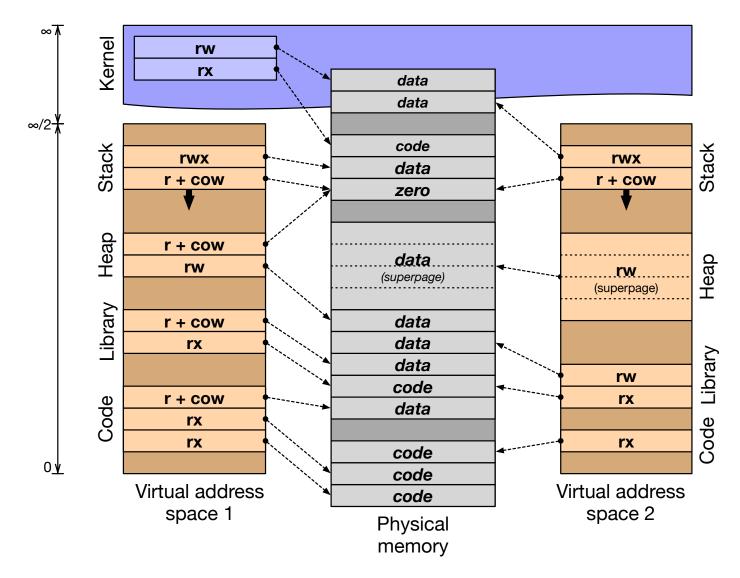
- 65 system calls at ≈3ms; 5,185 traps at ≈381ms!
- But which traps?

traps in practice: dd (3)

```
profile-997 /execname == "dd"/ { @traces[stack()] = count(); }
              kernel`PHYS TO VM PAGE+0x1
              kernel`trap+0x4ea
              kernel`0xfffffff80e018e2
              kernel`vm_map_lookup_done+0x1
              kernel`trap+0x4ea
              kernel `0xfffffff80e018e2
              kernel`pagezero+0x10
              kernel`trap+0x4ea
              kernel `0xfffffff80e018e2
              346
```

- A sizeable fraction of time is spent in pagezero: on-demand zeroing of previously untouched pages
- Ironically (?), the kernel is demand filling pages with zeroes only to copyout () zeroes to it from /dev/zero

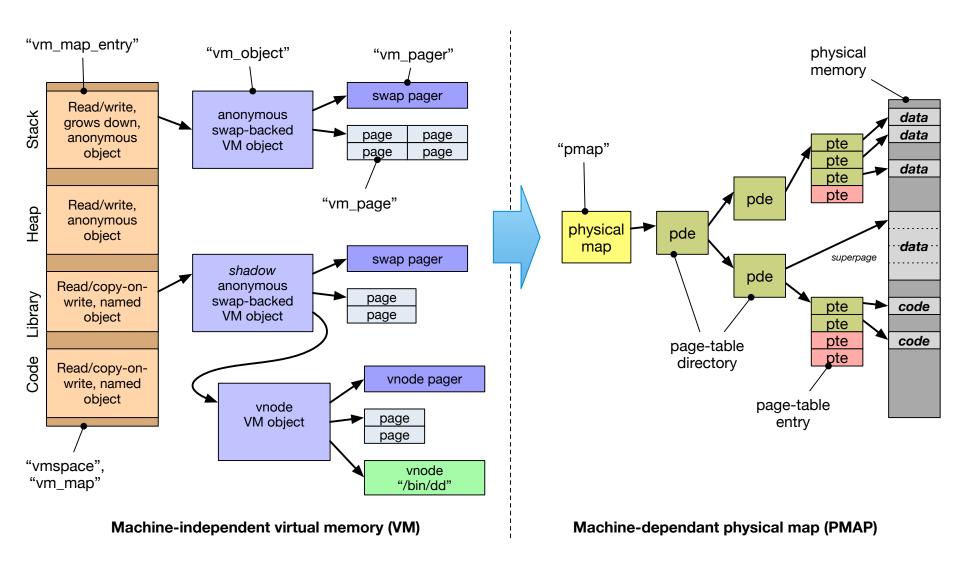
Virtual memory (quick, painful)



So: back to Virtual Memory (VM)

- The process model's isolation guarantees incur real expense
- The VM subsystem works quite hard to avoid expense
 - Shared memory, copy-on-write, page flipping
 - Background page zeroing
 - Superpages to improve TLB efficiency
- VM avoids work, but also manages memory footprint
 - Memory as a cache of secondary storage (files, swap)
 - Demand paging vs. I/O clustering
 - LRU / preemptive swapping to maintain free-page pool
 - Recently: memory compression and deduplication
- These ideas were known before Mach, but...
 - Acetta, et al. impose principled design, turn them into an art form
 - Provide a model beyond V→P mappings in page tables
 - And ideas such as the message-passing—shared-memory duality

Kernel programmer view of VM



Mach VM in other operating systems

- Mach: VM mappings, objects, pages, etc., are first-class kernel services exposed via system calls
- In two directly derived systems, quite different stories:

Mac OS X	Although not a microkernel, Mach's VM/IPC Application Programming Interfaces (APIs) are available to user programs, and widely used for IPC, debugging,
FreeBSD	Mach VM is used as a foundation for UNIX APIs, but is available for use only as a Kernel Programming Interface (KPI)

- In FreeBSD, Mach is used:
 - To efficiently implement UNIX's fork() and execve()
 - For memory-management APIs e.g., mmap() and mprotect()
 - By VM-optimised IPC e.g., pipe() and sendfile()
 - By the filesystem to implement a merged VM-buffer cache
 - By device drivers that manage memory in interesting ways (e.g., GPU drivers mapping pages into user processes)
 - By a set of VM worker threads, such as the page daemon, swapper, syncer, and page-zeroing thread

For next time

- Review ideas from the first lab report
- Lab 2: DTrace and IPC
 - Explore Inter-Process Communication (IPC) performance
 - Leads into Lab 3: microarchitectural counters to explain IPC performance

- McKusick, et al: Chapter 6 (Memory Management)
- Optional: Anderson, et al, on Scheduler Activations
 - (Exercise: where can we find scheduler-activation-based concurrent programming models today?)
- Ellard and Seltzer 2003