

Chapter 18: The Linux System

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Content

- Linux history
- Design principles
- Kernel modules
- Process management
- Scheduling
- Memory management
- File systems
- Input and output
- Inter-process communication
- Network structure

Objectives



- To explore the history of the UNIX operating system from which Linux is derived and the principles which Linux is designed upon
- To examine the Linux process model and illustrate how Linux schedules processes and provides interprocess communication
- To look at **memory management** in Linux
- To explore how Linux implements file systems and manages I/O devices

History



- Linux is a modern, free operating system based on UNIX standards
- First developed as a small but self-contained kernel in 1991 by Linus Torvalds, with the major design goal of UNIX compatibility
- Its history has been one of collaboration by many users from all around the world, corresponding almost exclusively over the Internet
- It has been designed to run efficiently and reliably on common PC hardware, but also runs on a variety of other platforms
- The core Linux operating system kernel is entirely original, but it can run much existing free UNIX software, resulting in an entire UNIX-compatible operating system free from proprietary code
- Many, varying Linux Distributions including the kernel, applications, and management tools



The Linux Kernel

- Version 0.01 was released at May 1991
 - no networking
 - ran only on 80386-compatible Intel processors and on PC hardware
 - extremely limited device-drive support
 - supported only the Minix file system
- Linux 1.0 (March 1994) included these new features:
 - support UNIX's standard TCP/IP networking protocols
 - BSD-compatible socket interface for networking programming
 - device-driver support for running IP over an Ethernet
 - enhanced file system
 - support for a range of SCSI controllers for high-performance disk access
 - extra hardware support
- Version 1.2 (March 1995) was the final PC-only Linux kernel

Linux 2.0



- Version 2.0 was released in June 1996
 - support for multiple architectures, including a fully 64-bit native Alpha port
 - support for multiprocessor architectures
 - improved memory-management code
 - improved TCP/IP performance
 - support for internal kernel threads
 - standardized configuration interface
- 2.4 and 2.6 increased SMP support
 - added journaling file system
 - preemptive kernel
 - 64-bit memory support



The Linux System

- · Linux uses many free tools developed as part of
 - Berkeley's BSD operating system
 - socket interface
 - networking tools (e.g., traceroute...)
 - MIT's X Window System
 - Free Software Foundation's GNU project
 - bin-utilities, gcc, gnu libc...
- Linux used to developed by individual, now also big cooperators
 - IBM, Intel, Red hat, Marvell, Microsoft...
- Main Linux repository: <u>www.kernel.org</u>

Linux Distributions



- Standard, precompiled sets of packages, or distributions
 - include the basic Linux system
 - system installation and management utilities
 - ready-to-install packages of common UNIX tools
- Popular Linux distributions
 - Ubuntu, Fedora, Debian, Open Suse, ...
 - see <u>distrowatch.com</u>

Linux Licensing



- Linux kernel is distributed under GNU General Public License (GPL)
 - GPL is defined by the Free Software Foundation
- GPL implications:
 - anyone using Linux, or creating their own derivative of Linux, may not make the derived (public) product proprietary
 - software released under GPL may not be redistributed as binary-only
- LGPL: Lesser GPL
 - allow non-(L)GPL software to link to LGPL licensed software



Design Principles

- Linux is a multiuser, multitasking system
- Linux is UNIX compatible
 - its file system adheres to traditional UNIX semantics
 - it fully implements the standard UNIX networking model
 - its API adheres to the SVR4 UNIX semantics
 - it is POSIX-compliant
- Linux supports a wide variety of architectures
- Main design goals are speed, efficiency, and standardization



Components of a Linux System

system- management programs	user processes	user utility programs	compilers	
system shared libraries				
Linux kernel				
loadable kernel modules				

Kernel Modules



- · Kernel code that can be compiled, loaded, and unloaded independently
 - it allows a Linux system to be set up with standard minimal kernel
 - other components loaded as modules
 - typically to implement device drivers, file systems, or networking protocols
- Three components to Linux module support:
 - module management
 - load/unload the module
 - resolve symbols (similar to a linker)
 - driver registration
 - kernel define an interface, module implement the interface
 - module registers to the kernel, kernel maintain a list of loaded modules
 - conflict resolution
 - resource conflicts
- Tools to support kernel modules: Ismod, rmmod, modprobe

Process Management



- Linux process management follows the Unix model:
 - fork system call creates a new process
 - a new program is run after a call to **execve**
- Process control block contains all the information about the process
 - process's identity
 - process environment
 - process context

Process Identity



- Process ID (PID): the unique identifier for the process
- Credentials: each process has an associated UID and group IDs
 - determine the process's rights to access system resources and files.
- **Personality**: the ABI the process conforms to
 - Linux supports ABIs of different flavors of UNIX (e.g., BSD)
 - personality selects the ABI used by the process
 - not traditionally found on UNIX systems

Process Environment



- Environment is inherited from its parent
 - argument vector lists the command-line arguments used to it
 - conventionally starts with the program name
 - environment vector is a list of "NAME=VALUE" pairs
 - associates named environment variables with arbitrary textual values
 - e.g., PATH="/usr/bin;...."
- Environment variables can be used to pass data among processes
- Environment variables can be set per-process

Process Context

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- (Constantly changing) state of a running program at any point in time.
 - many context information: resources, scheduling, files, accounting...
 - scheduling context is the most important part of the process context
 - file table is an array of pointers to kernel file structures.
 - when making file I/O, processes refer to files by their index into this table
 - **signal-handler** defines the routine to be called upon some events
 - virtual memory defines the process's address space

Processes and Threads



- Linux uses the same internal representation for processes and threads
 - a thread is a new process sharing the same address space as its parent.
- A distinction is made when a new thread is created by clone
 - **clone** allows fine-grained control over what is shared between two threads
 - fork creates a new process with its own entirely new process context

Scheduling



- Allocate CPU time to different tasks within an operating system
 - Linux supports both user processes and kernel tasks
 - kernel tasks may be requested by a running process, or executes internally on behalf of a device driver



Memory Management



- Linux's physical MM system deals with allocating and freeing:
 - pages, groups of pages, and small blocks of memory
- Memory is split into 3 different **zones** due to hardware characteristics
- Two major types of allocator:
 - page allocator allocates physical pages using buddy algorithm
 - many data structure needs whole pages (e.g., driver buffers)
 - **slab allocator** allocates memory in smaller sizes (kernel objects)



Memory Zones

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



Page Allocator (Buddy System)



Slab Allocator





Virtual Memory



- VM maintains address space of each process
- Linux VM supports many different feature
 - demand paging, swapping, copy-on-write, memory mapped files...
- Linux keeps track of every physical page (struct page)
 - each physical frame has an associated struct page
 - keep struct page at minimal to avoid waste of memory



Executing and Loading User Programs

- Linux can load many different executable file formats
 - ELF, a.out...
 - ELF is the most command format
 - ELF file has a header followed by several page-aligned sections
- Binary files are loaded into memory using demand paging



Memory Layout for ELF Programs



File Systems



- To the user, Linux's file system is a hierarchical directory tree
- Internally, Linux kernel use the **virtual file system** (VFS)
 - Linux supports many many file systems
 - Ext2, Ext3, Ext4, Btrfs, NTFS, FAT/FAT32, ...
- Linux also supports synthetic file systems, such as the **/proc** file system
 - /proc does not store data, file content is computed on demand
 - /proc provides many statistics about the kernel



Ext2fs Block-Allocation (Bitmap)



STATE STATE

Input and Output

- Linux device I/O uses two types of cache:
 - data is cached in the page cache
 - unified cache with the virtual memory system
 - metadata is cached in the buffer cache
 - a separate cache indexed by the physical disk block
- Linux splits all devices into three classes:
 - **block devices** allow random access to independent, fixed size blocks of data
 - character devices include most other devices
 - they don't need to support the functionality of regular files
 - **network devices** are interfaced via the kernel's networking subsystem



Device-Driver Block Structure



Inter-process Communication



- Linux informs processes that an event has occurred via signals
 - there is a limited number of signals
 - signals cannot carry information, only the fact that a signal has occurred
- Linux supports SVR4 IPC
 - pipe, shared memory, synchronization...

Network Structure



- Networking is a key area of functionality for Linux.
 - it supports the standard Internet protocols for UNIX to UNIX communications
 - It also implements protocols native to non-UNIX operating systems
 - e.g., Apple talk, IPX (Novell), Netbios
- Internally, Linux networking is implemented by three layers of software:
 - socket interface
 - protocol drivers
 - network device drivers

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