# INF333 - Operating Systems Lecture II

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### **Course website**

burakarslan.com/inf333 ♂

### **Based On**

cs111.stanford.edu & cs212.stanford.edu & OSC-10 Slides &

A Gentle Introduction

### Memory (RAM)

- Fast, less space, more expensive
- Byte-addressable: can quickly access any byte of data by address, but not individual bits by address
- Not persistent: cannot store data between power-offs

### Storage

- Slower, more space, cheaper
- Sector-addressable: cannot read/write just one byte of data – can only read/write "sectors" of data at a time
- Persistent: stores data between power-offs

File systems are designed to work on hardware like hard disk drives or solid state drives

- ► They only understand sectors.
- This is the only api we are ever going to get:

```
void readSector(size_t sectorNumber, void *data);
void writeSector(size_t sectorNumber, const void *data);
```

.

#### But!

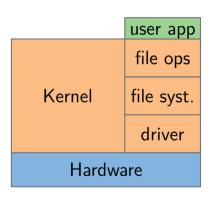
- We want files and folders and permissions and links ...
- We need a software layer that translates between file system primitives and sector operations

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#### But!

- ▶ We want files and folders and permissions and links ...
- We need a software layer that translates between file system primitives and sector operations
- ► This layer is called a **file system**.

- ► File systems translate file operations to sector operations
- ► They sit on top of protocols like SATA, USB, NVME etc.



File systems implement operations like:

- Creating a new file on disk
- Looking up the location of a file on disk
- ► Reading/editing all or part of an existing file from disk
  - e.g., sequential/random access creating folders on disk
- Getting the contents of folders on disk
- etc.

File systems are still a very active field.

Certainly not "a solved problem" though pretty mature implementations exist

Problems that file systems have to deal with:

#### **Space Management**

Fast access to files (maximize locality)

Sharing space between users

Efficient use of disk space

Naming How do users find files?

**Reliability** Information must survive OS crashes and hardware failures.

**Protection** Isolation between users, controlled sharing.

File systems also deal with two classes of data:

- Payload (contents of files)
- Metadata (file names, permissions, directory contents, etc.)

Since both are held in persistent storage, some blocks must store data other than file contents.

Many designs exist, some wildly different than others.

From here onwards, we will focus on native Linux filesystems

#### **Terminology**

A filesystem generally defines its own unit of data, a "block", that it reads/writes at a time.

**Sector** Hardware storage unit

**Block** Filesystem storage unit (1 or more sectors) – software abstraction related to storage

Page Kernel's I/O unit, another software abstraction related to I/O in general — be it RAM, block storage, pipes, etc.

**Terminology** 

Sector sizes are medium-dependent and sometimes customizable:

```
# nvme id-ns /dev/nvmeOn1 | grep lbads
lbaf 0 : ms:0 lbads:9 rp:0x2 (in use)
lbaf 1 : ms:0 lbads:12 rp:0x1
```

#### **Terminology**

Similarly, block sizes are fs-dependent and can be tuned <sup>1</sup>.

```
# xfs info /dev/nvme0n1p2
meta-data=/dev/nvme0n1p2 isize=512 agcount=4, agsize=7864320 blks
     sectsz=512 attr=2, projid32bit=1 crc=1 finobt=1, sparse=1
     rmapbt=1 reflink=1 bigtime=1 inobtcount=1 nrext64=0
                        bsize=4096 blocks=31457280, imaxpct=25
data
                        sunit=0
                                    swidth=0 blks
naming
       =version 2
                       bsize=4096 ascii-ci=0, ftype=1
                                   blocks=16384, version=2
        =internal log bsize=4096
log
                                    sunit=0 blks, lazy-count=1
                        sectsz=512
realtime =none
                        ext.sz=4096
                                    blocks=0. rtextents=0
```

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>It's very tricky to do so though! eg. XFS: Mount overrides sunit and swidth options *□* 

**Terminology** 

A page is the I/O unit of the kernel – it's the same everywhere.

```
$ getconf PAGESIZE
4096
```

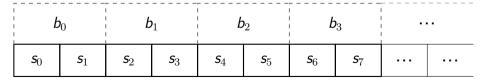
Changing it is a whole project:

- ► HugePages support in Linux

**Terminology** 

A correctly-tuned block size is an essential factor in the performance of storage systems.

- Fewer transfer operations if larger
- But smaller files may read in more data than necessary



#### Terminology

An **inode** ("index node") is a data structure that describes a file-system object such as a file or a directory.

```
# stat /etc/passwd
File: /etc/passwd
Size: 2325 Blocks: 33 IO Block: 2560 regular file
Device: 0,25 Inode: 10004479 Links: 1
Access: (0644/-rw-r--r--) Uid: (0/root) Gid: (0/root)
Access: 2024-02-06 08:39:38.557196113 +0300
Modify: 2024-02-03 00:56:48.431922259 +0300
Change: 2024-02-03 00:56:48.431922259 +0300
Birth: 2024-02-03 00:56:48.431922259 +0300
```

#### Terminology

A **directory** is a list of inodes with their assigned names. The list includes an entry for itself (.), its parent (..), and each of its children.

```
# 1s -if /etc
67108993 . 67109039 inittab.d
128 .. 134462512 nanorc
134348929 pam.d 68298267 gentoo-release ...
201326721 gpm 203011796 protocols
67512281 subgid 67109044 .pwd.lock
```

. . .

**Terminology** 

#### **Discussion**

Can a file be retrieved by its inode?

**Terminology** 

#### **Discussion**

What happens when more than one directory contains an entry for the same inode?

#### **Terminology**

#### It's called a hard link:

```
$ echo foo > a
$ stat a
   File: a Size: 4
 Device: 0.32 Inode: 2646944 Links: 1
$ 1n a b
$ stat b
   File: b Size: 4
 Device: 0.32 Inode: 2646944 Links: 2
$ cat a
foo
$ echo bar > a
$ cat b
bar
$
```

**Terminology** 

#### **Discussion**

Creating hard links to directories is not allowed. Why do you think this is the case?

An inode is "scheduled for deletion" when its refcount reaches zero

- When a file is opened, it will remain on the fs until closed
- Deleting a file immediately after opening it is a nice way to implement temporary files on Linux.

### Remaining parts of the OS

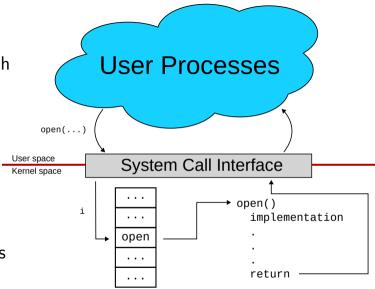
A not-so-gentle continuation

You can handle it now 😅

- Applications still need to work with the hardware to make progress
- ► OS supplies a well-defined **system call** interface
- ➤ For example: Apps normally don't write to storage directly, but to designated regions in the storage device sanctioned by the OS
- Uses system calls to (try to) obtain access to said addresses.

To open a file in a FS with the open() system call:

- App sets up the system call id and arguments and lets the kernel know
- The kernel executes the requested operation and returns the result



Closer look: printf()

```
$ cat lec01.c
#include <stdio.h>
int main(int argc, char **argv) {
  printf("Hello from %s!\n", argv[0]);
  return 0:
$ gcc -o lec01 lec01.c && ./lec01
Hello from lec01!
```

userspace printf() call in libc "Hello from %s!\n" "Hello from lec01!\n" write() syscall

kernelspace

Closer look: open()

- ► Applications "open" files (or devices) by name
- int open(char \*path, int flags, /\*int
  mode\*/...);
- Returns a file descriptor (fd) used for all I/O to files and file-like objects

#### **Error handling**

- ▶ What if open fails? Returns -1 (invalid fd)
- ► Most system calls return -1 on failure
  - Specific kind of error in global int errno
  - ▶ In retrospect, bad design decision for threads/modularity
- #include <sys/errno.h> for possible values
- perror function prints human-readable message
- ▶ Use the strace command <sup>2</sup> to log all the system calls that a process makes

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Linux-only but equivalents exist on all popular platforms

### **File Descriptors**

### A file descriptor is a simple integer that is:

- Inherited by processes when one process spawns another,
- ▶ By convention, descriptors 0, 1, and 2 have special meaning:
  - ▶ 0 "standard input" (stdin in ANSI C)
  - ▶ 1 "standard output" (stdout, printf in ANSI C)
  - ▶ 2 "standard error" (stderr, perror in ANSI C)
  - Normally all three attached to terminal

### **File Descriptors**

```
type.c
```

```
void
typefile (char *filename)
 int fd, nread;
 char buf[1024];
 fd = open (filename, O RDONLY);
 if (fd == -1) {
   perror (filename);
   return:
 while ((nread = read (fd, buf, sizeof (buf))) > 0)
   write (1, buf, nread):
 close (fd);
```

**Example: CPU preemption** 

This is a way to implement preemptive scheduling:

- ► Kernel programs timer to interrupt every 10 ms.
  - This is called a **tick**. <sup>3</sup>
- Kernel sets interrupt vector back to kernel
  - Regains control whenever interval timer fires
  - User code is not allowed to do so
- ► Result: No process can monopolize the CPU

 $<sup>^3</sup>$ lt's popular yet suboptimal way: See "(Nearly) full tickless operation in [Linux] 3.10"  $_{\text{\tiny CP}}$ 

**Example: CPU preemption** 

This is technique doesn't protect against:

- ► A malicious user constantly starting new processes
- A malicious user constantly allocating memory

### Possible solutions:

- Yell at the guy who's doing it (no, seriously)
- Remove that app from the play store
- Enforce per-user resource limits

**Address translation** 

Goal:

Protect memory of one program from actions of another

#### Address translation

#### Definitions:

- Address space: all memory locations a program can name
- Virtual address: addresses in process' address space
- Physical address: address of real memory
- ► Translation: map virtual to physical addresses

#### Address translation

- Translation done on every load, store, and instruction fetch
  - Modern CPUs do this in hardware for speed
- ▶ Idea: If you can't name it, you can't touch it
  - Ensure one process' translations don't include any other process' memory

#### More memory protection

- CPU allows kernel-only virtual addresses
  - Kernel typically part of all address spaces,
     e.g., to handle system call in same address space
  - But must ensure apps can't touch kernel memory
- CPU lets OS disable (invalidate) particular virtual addresses
  - Catch and halt buggy program that makes wild accesses
  - Make virtual memory seem bigger than physical (e.g., bring a page in from disk only when accessed)

More memory protection

- CPU enforced read-only virtual addresses useful
  - ► E.g., allows sharing of code pages between processes
  - Plus many other optimizations
- CPU enforced execute disable of VAs
  - Makes certain code injection attacks harder

Different system contexts I

At any point, a CPU (core) is in one of several contexts:

- User-level CPU in user mode running application
- ▶ Kernel process context i.e., running kernel code on behalf of a particular process
  - ► E.g., performing system call, handling exception (memory fault, numeric exception, etc.)
  - Or executing a kernel-only process (e.g., network file server)

#### Different system contexts II

- Kernel code not associated with a process
  - ► Timer interrupt (hardclock)
  - Device interrupt
  - "Softirqs", "Tasklets" (Linux-specific terms)
- Context switch code change which process is running
  - Requires changing the current address space
- ► Idle nothing to do (bzero pages, put CPU in low-power state)

**Transitions between contexts** 

#### CPU context transitions:

- ightharpoonup User ightharpoonup kernel process context: syscall, page fault, ...
- ► User/process context → interrupt handler: hardware
- ▶ Process context → user/context switch: return
- ▶ Process context → context switch: sleep
- ▶ Context switch → user/process context

Resource allocation & performance

Multitasking permits higher resource utilization.

### Simple example:

- Process downloading large file mostly waits for network
- You play a game while downloading the file
- Higher CPU utilization than if just downloading

**Transitions between contexts** 

Complexity arises with cost of switching:

Example: Say disk 1,000 times slower than memory:

- ▶ 1 GiB memory in machine
- ▶ 2 Processes want to run, each use 1 GiB
- Can switch processes by swapping them out to disk
- ► Faster to run one at a time than keep context switching