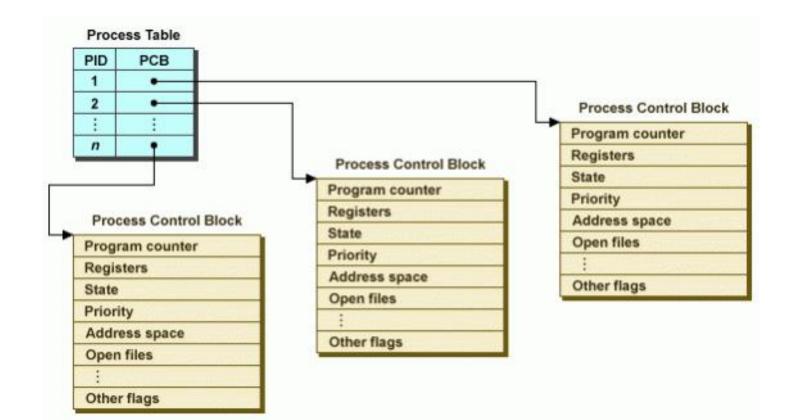
Process Management and Startup

Advanced Operating Systems and Virtualization Alessandro Pellegrini A.Y. 2018/2019

Process Control Block







Process Control Block

- This is struct task_struct in include/linux/sched.h
- One of the largest structures in the kernel (almost 600 LOCs)
- Relevant members are:
 - volatile long state
 - struct mm_struct *mm
 - struct mm_struct *active_mm
 - pid_t pid
 - pid_t tgid
 - struct fs_struct *fs
 - struct files_struct *files
 - struct signal_struct *sig
 - struct thread_struct thread /* CPU-specific state: TSS, FPU, CR2, perf events, ... */
 - int prio; /* to implement nice() */
 - unsigned long policy /* for scheduling */
 - int nr_cpus_allowed;
 - cpumask_t cpus_allowed;





The mm member

- mm points to a mm_struct defined in include/linux/mm_types.h
- mm_struct is used to manage the memory map of the process:
 - Virtual address of the page table (pgd member)
 - A pointer to a list of vm_area_struct records (mmap field)
- Each record tracks a user-level virtual memory area which is valid for the process
- active_mm is used to "steal" a mm when running in an anonymous process, and mm is set to NULL
- Non-anonymous processes have active_mm == mm





vm_area_struct

- Describes a Virtual Memory Area (VMA):
 - struct mm_struct *vm_mm: the address space the structure belongs to
 - unsigned long vm_start: the start address in vm_mm
 - unsigned long vm_end: the end address
 - pgprot_t vm_page_prot: access permissions of this VMA
 - const struct vm_operations_struct *vm_ops: operations to
 deal with this structure
 - struct mempolicy *vm_policy: the NUMA policy for this range of addresses
 - struct file *vm_file: pointer to a memory-mapped file
 - struct vm_area_struct *vm_next, *vm_prev: linked list of VM
 areas per task, sorted by address



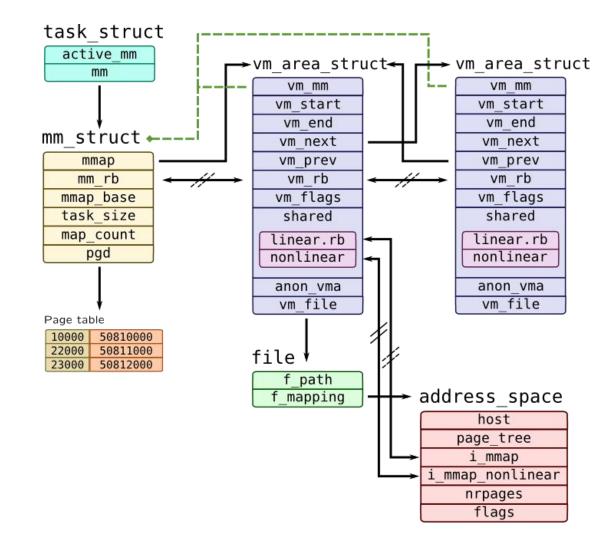


vm_operations_struct



};









execve()



ld.so

[text] [data] (([text] [data] (bash [text]	bash [data]		libc.so [text]	libc.so [data]			[stack]	
----------------------------------	----------------	----------------	--	-------------------	-------------------	--	--	---------	--

mmap()

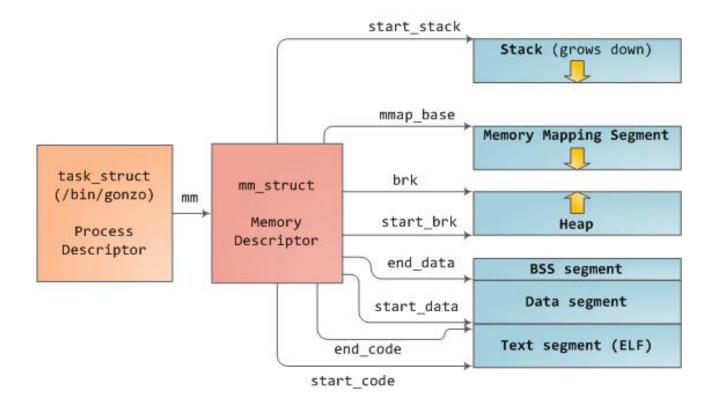
ſ	bash	bash [data]	libc.s	C.L.A.		[anon]		[stack]	
	[text]	[data]	[text	[data]					

brk()

bash [text]	bash [data]	[heap]	libc.so [text]	libc.so [data]		[anon]		[stack]	~
----------------	----------------	--------	-------------------	-------------------	--	--------	--	---------	---



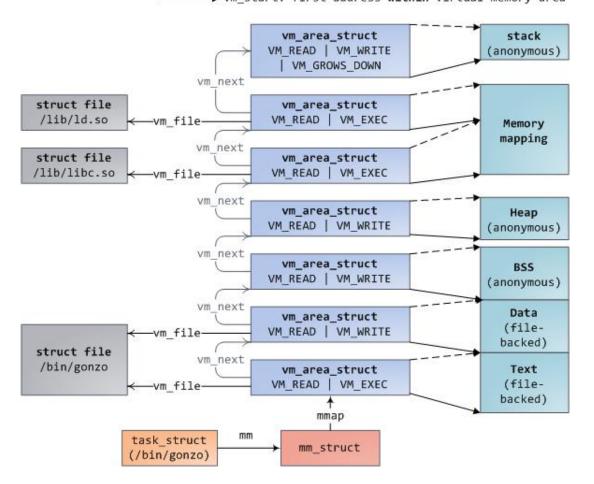








---- vm_end: first address outside virtual memory area
----- vm_start: first address within virtual memory area

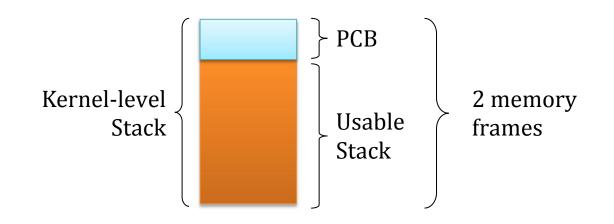






PCB Allocation up to 2.6

- PCBs can be dynamically allocated upon request
- The PCB is directly stored at the bottom of the kernel-level stack of the process which the PCB refers to

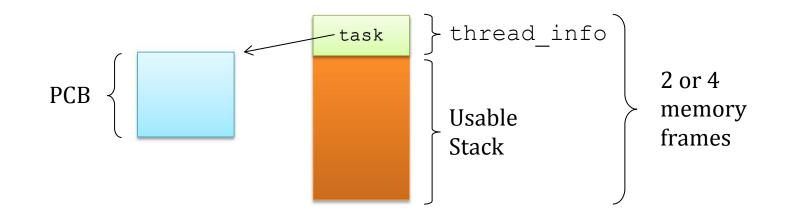






PCB Allocation since 2.6

- The PCB is moved outside of the kernel-level stack
- At the top, there is the thread_info data structure







union thread union

- This union is used to easily allocate thread_info at the base of the stack, independently of its size.
- It works as long as its size is smaller than the stack's
 - Of course, this is mandatory

```
union thread_union {
    struct thread_info thread_info;
    unsigned long stack[THREAD_SIZE/sizeof(long)];
```







struct thread info

- This is the organization of thread_info up to version 4.3.
- Later on, thread_info has been progressively deprived of most members on x86
 - Security implications of this struct on the stack have been severe

```
struct thread info {
                                              /* main task structure */
         struct task struct *task;
                                              /* execution domain */
         struct exec domain *exec domain;
                                               /* low level flags */
         u32
               flags;
                                               /* thread synchronous flags */
         u32
               status;
                                               /* current CPU */
         u32
                 cpu;
                                               saved preempt count;
         int
         mm segment t
                                               addr limit;
                                               *sysenter return;
         void user
         unsigned int
                                                sig on uaccess error:1;
         unsigned int
                                               uaccess err:1; /* uaccess failed */
```

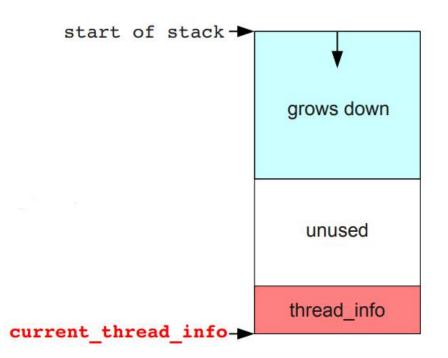


};



Virtually Mapped Kernel Stack

- Kernel-level stacks have always been the weak point in the system design
- This is quite small: you must be careful to avoid overflows
- Stack overflows (and also recursion overwrite) have been successfully used as attack vectors







struct thread info in 3.19.8

struct thread_info {

struct task_struct *task;

struct exec domain *exec domain;

__u32 flags;

u32 status;

____u32 cpu;

int preempt_count;

mm_segment_t addr_limit;

struct restart_block restart_block;

Has a function pointer!
 (triggered by syscall restart())
(can be overridden with userspace pointers)

U/K Boundary!

(affects, e.g., access ok())

(can write into kmem)



};



Virtually Mapped Kernel Stack

- When an overflow occurs, the Kernel is not easily able to detect it
- Even less able to counteract on it!

- Stacks are in the ZONE_NORMAL memory and are contiguous
- But access is done through the MMU via virtual addresses





Virtually Mapped Kernel Stack

- There is no need to have a physically contiguous stack, so stack was created relying on vmalloc()
- This introduced a 1.5 μs delay in process creation which was unacceptable
- A cache of kernel-level stacks getting memory from vmalloc() has been introduced
- This allows to introduce surrounding unmapped pages
- thread_info is moved off the stack
 - it's content is moved to the task_struct





current

- current always refers to the currently-scheduled process
 - It is therefore architecture-specific
- It returns the memory address of its PCB (evaluates to a pointer to the corresponding task_struct)
- On early versions, it was a macro current defined in include/asm-i386/current.h
- It performed computations based on the value of the stack pointer, by exploiting that the stack is aligned to the couple of pages/frames in memory
- Changing the stack's size requires re-aligning this macro





current

- When thread_info was introduced, masking the stack gived the address to task_struct
- To return the task_struct, the content of the task member of task_struct was returned
- Later, current has been mapped to the static __always_inline struct task_struct *get_current(void) function
- It returns the per-CPU variable current_task declared in arch/x86/kernel/cpu/common.c
- The scheduler updates the current_task variable when executing a context switch
- This is compliant with the fact that thread_info has left the stack





Accessing PCBs (up to 2.6.26)

• This function in include/linux/sched.h allows to retrieve the memory address of the PCB by passing the process/thread pid as input

```
static inline struct task_struct
*find_task_by_pid(int pid) {
  struct task_struct *p,
     **htable = &pidhash[pid_hashfn(pid)];
  for(p = *htable; p && p->pid != pid;
     p = p->pidhash_next) ;
```

return p;





Accessing PCBs (after 2.6.26)

- find_task_by_pid has been replaced:
 - struct task_struct
 *find_task_by_vpid(pid_t vpid)
- This is based on the notion of virtual pid
- It has to do with userspace namespaces, to allow processes in different namespaces to share the same pid numbers





Accessing PCBs (up to 4.14)

/* PID hash table linkage. */
struct task_struct *pidhash_next;
struct task struct **pidhash pprev;

- There is a hash defined as below in include/linux/sched.h
 - #define PIDHASH_SZ (4096 >> 2)
 - extern struct task_struct
 *pid hash[PIDHASH SZ];
 - #define pid_hashfn(x) ((((x) >> 8) ^ (x)) &
 (PIDHASH_SZ 1))





Accessing PCBs (currently)

- The hash data structure has been replaced by a *radix tree*
- PIDs are replaced with Integer IDs (idr)
- idr is the kernel-level library for the management of small integer ID numbers
- An idr is a sparse array mapping integer IDs onto arbitrary pointers
 - Look back at the data structures lecture





fork()/exec() Model

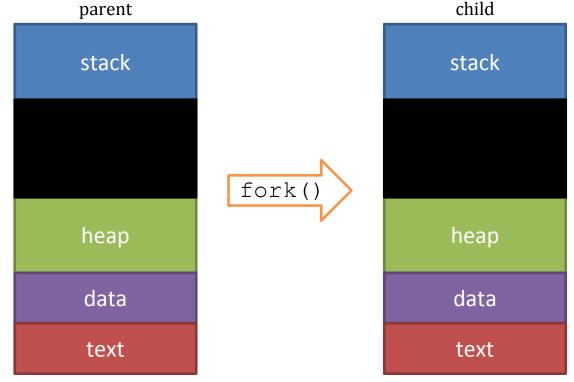
- To create a new process, a couple of fork() and exec*() calls should be issued
 - Unix worked mainly with multiprocessing (shared memory)
 - -fork() relies on COW
 - fork() followed by exec*() allows for fast creation of new processes, both for sharing memory view or not





fork()

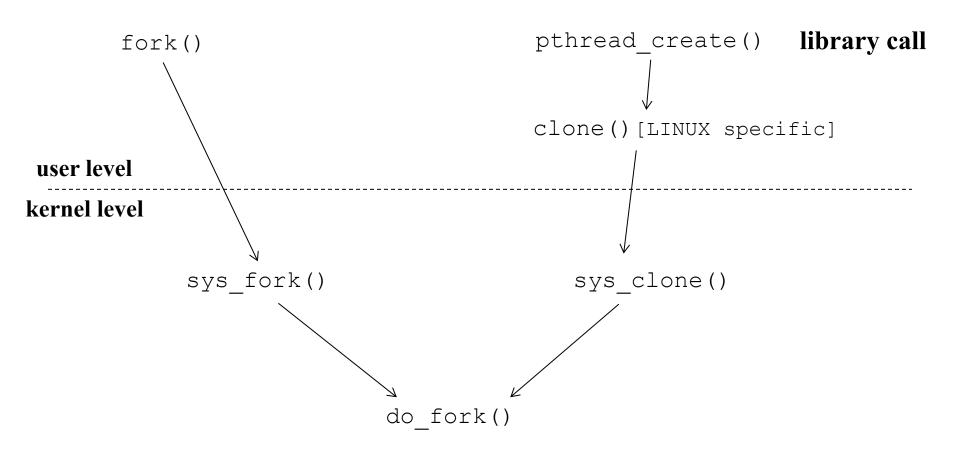
- This function creates a new process. The return value is zero in the child and the process-id number of the child in the parent, or -1 upon error.
- Both processes start executing from the *next instruction* to the fork() call.







Process and thread creation







Calling sys_clone() from Userspace

- When usign sys_clone (), we must allocate a new stack first
 - By convention, userspace memory is always allocated from userspace
 - Indeed, a thread of the same process share the same address space
- Also, TLS must be allocated in user space
 - This is architecture-dependent, thus the unsigned long type
- glibc offers a uniform function
 - The implementation of the syscall entry points is slightly different on every architecture





sys_fork() and sys_clone()

```
SYSCALL DEFINE0 (fork)
    return do fork(SIGCHLD, 0, 0, NULL, NULL, 0);
SYSCALL DEFINE5 (clone, unsigned long, clone flags,
     unsigned long, newsp, int user *,
     parent tidptr, int user \overline{*}, child tidptr,
     unsigned long, tls)
  return do fork(clone flags, newsp, 0,
                 parent tidptr, child tidptr, tls);
```





do_fork()

- Fresh PCB/kernel-stack allocation
- Copy/setup of PCB information/data structures
- What information is copied or inherited (namely shared into the original buffers) depends on the value of the flags passed as input to do_fork()
- Legit values for the flags are defined in include/linux/sched.h
 - CLONE_VM: set if VM is shared between processes
 - CLONE FS: set if fs info shared between processes
 - CLONE_FILES: set if open files shared between processes
 - CLONE_PID: set if pid shared
 - CLONE PARENT: set if we want to have the same parent as the cloner





do_fork() (5.0)

```
long do fork(unsigned long clone flags, unsigned long stack start,
             unsigned long stack size,
             int user *parent tidptr,
             int user *child tidptr,
             unsigned long tls)
    struct pid *pid;
    struct task struct *p;
    p = copy process (clone flags, stack start, stack size, child tidptr,
               NULL, trace, tls, NUMA NO NODE);
   pid = get task pid(p, PIDTYPE PID);
    wake up new task(p);
```



}



copy_process()

- Copy process implements several checks on namespaces
- Pending signals are processed immediately in the parent process
- copy_creds(p, clone_flags);
- copy_files(clone_flags, p);
- copy_fs(clone_flags, p);
- copy_mm(clone_flags, p);
 dup_mm()

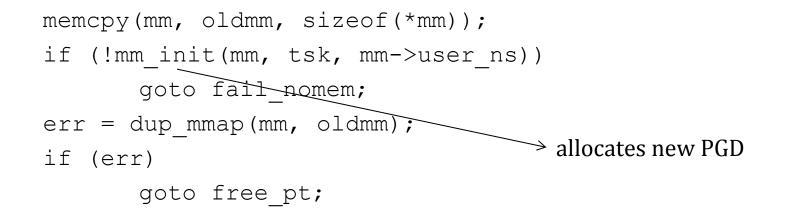




dup mm()

static struct mm_struct *dup_mm(struct task_struct *tsk)
{

```
struct mm_struct *mm, *oldmm = current->mm;
mm = allocate_mm();
```

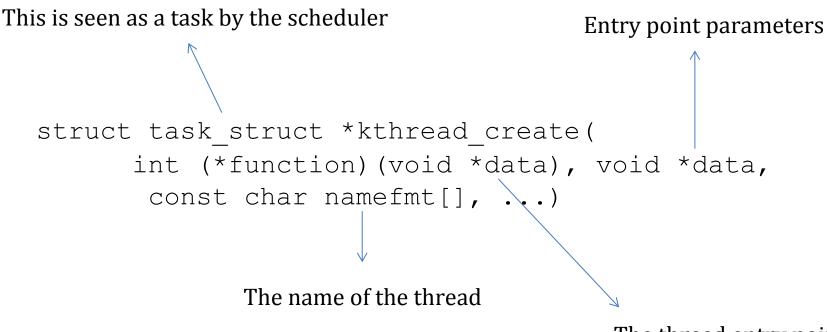


```
return mm;
```





Kernel Thread Creation API



The thread entry point

- Kthreads are stopped upon creation
- It must be activated with a call to wake_up_process()





kthread create on node()

```
struct task struct * kthread create on node(int (*threadfn)(void *data),
                          void *data, int node,
                          const char namefmt[],
                          va list args)
    struct task struct *task;
    struct kthread create info *create = kmalloc(sizeof(*create), GFP KERNEL);
    if (!create)
        return ERR PTR (-ENOMEM);
        create->threadfn = threadfn;
        create -> data = data;
        create->node = node;
        create->done = &done;
        spin lock(&kthread create lock);
        list add tail(&create->list, &kthread create list);
        spin unlock(&kthread create lock);
        wake up process(kthreadd task);
                                                   Kernel Thread Daemon
```





Signal Handlers Management

- Once a non-masked pending signal is found for a certain process, before returning control to it a proper stack is assembled
- Control is then returned to the signal handler

	FPSTA	TE						
	MAS	<						
	RESEF	RVED						
	&FPSTATE							
	CR2	j						
	OLDMA	SK						
	TRAPN	10						
	ERR							
CS	GS	FS						
	EFLAG	ŝS						
	RIP							
	RSP							
	RAX							
	RDX			l				
	RBX	23. 						
	RBP							
	RSI							
RDI								
R15								
R8								
SS_SIZE								
SS_FLAGS								
	SS_S	2						
	UC_LI	3002539						
	UC_FLA	1.5.07.0						
SAVE	D RIP = S		IURN	L				
	saved r	op						





Out of Memory (OOM) Killer

- Implemented in mm/oom_kill.c
- This module is activated (if enabled) when the system runs out of memory
- There are three possible actions:
 Kill a random task (bad)
 - Let the system crash (worse)
 - Try to be smart at picking the process to kill
- The OOM Killer picks a "good" process and kills it in order to reclaim available memory





Out of Memory (OOM) Killer

- Entry point of the system is out_of_memory()
- It tries to select the "best" process checking for different conditions:
 - If a process has a pending SIGKILL or is exiting, this is automatically picked (check done by task_will_free_mem())
 - Otherwise, it issues a call to select_bad_process() which will return a process to be killed
 - The picked process is then killed
 - If no process is found, a panic () is raised





select_bad_process()

- This iterates over all available processes calling oom_evaluate_task() on them, until a killable process is found
- Unkillable tasks (i.e., kernel threads) are skipped
- oom_badness() implements the heuristic to pick the process to be killed
 - it computes the "score" associated with each process, the higher the score the higher the probability of getting killed





oom_badness()

- A score of zero is given if:
 - the task is unkillable
 - the mm field is NULL
 - if the process is in the middle of a fork
- The score is then computed proportionally to the RAM, swap, and pagetable usage:





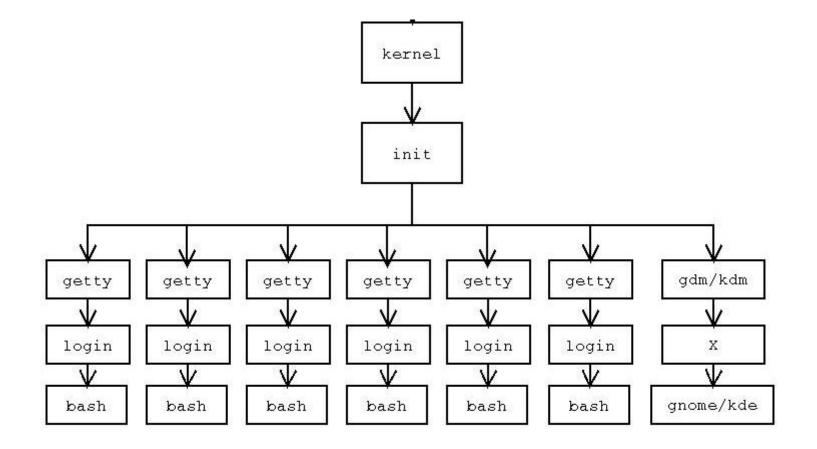
How a Program is Started?

- We all know how to compile a program:
 - -gcc program.c -o program
- We all know how to launch the compiled program:
 - ./program
- The question is: why does all this work?
- What is the *convention* used between kernel and user space?





In the beginning, there was init







Starting a Program from bash

```
static int execute_disk_command (char *command, int
pipe_in, int pipe_out, int async, struct fd_bitmap
*fds_to_close) {
    pid_t pid;
    mid_______
```

```
pid = make_child (command, async);
```

```
if (pid == 0) {
    shell_execve (command, args, export_env);
```





Starting a Program from bash

pid_t make_child (char *command, int async_p) {
 pid_t pid;
 int forksleep;

```
start_pipeline();
```





Starting a Program from bash

```
int shell execve (char *command, char **args, char **env) {
 execve (command, args, env);
 READ SAMPLE BUF (command, sample, sample len);
  if (sample len == 0)
    return (EXECUTION SUCCESS);
  if (sample len > 0) {
    if (sample len > 2 && sample[0] == '#' && sample[1] == '!')
      return (execute shell script(sample, sample len, command, args, env));
    else if (check binary file (sample, sample len)) {
      internal error ( ("%s: cannot execute binary file"), command);
      return (\overline{E}X BINAR\overline{Y} FILE);
  longjmp(subshell top level, 1);
```





exec*()

- exec*() changes the program file that an existing process is running:
 - It first wipes out the memory state of the calling process
 - It then goes to the filesystem to find the program file requested
 - It copies this file into the program's memory and initializes register state, including the PC
 - It doesn't alter most of the other fields in the PCB
 - the process calling exec*() (the child copy of the shell, in this case) can, e.g., change the open files





struct linux_binprm

```
struct linux_binprm {
    char buf[BINPRM_BUF_SIZE];
    struct page *page[MAX_ARG_PAGES];
    unsigned long p; /* current top of mem */
    int sh_bang;
    struct file* file;
    int e_uid, e_gid;
    kernel_cap_t_cap_inheritable, cap_permitted,
cap_effective;
    int argc, envc;
    char *filename; /* Name of binary */
    unsigned long loader, exec;
};
```





do execve()

```
int do execve(char *filename, char **argv, char **envp, struct pt regs
*reqs) {
    struct linux binprm bprm;
    struct file *file;
    int retval;
    int i;
    file = open exec(filename);
    retval = PTR ERR(file);
    if (IS ERR(file))
        return retval;
   bprm.p = PAGE SIZE*MAX ARG PAGES-sizeof(void *);
   memset(bprm.page, 0, MAX ARG PAGES*sizeof(bprm.page[0]));
    bprm.file = file;
    bprm.filename = filename;
    bprm.sh bang = 0;
    bprm.loader = 0;
    bprm.exec = 0;
    if ((bprm.argc = count(argv, bprm.p / sizeof(void *))) < 0) {</pre>
        allow write access(file);
        fput(file);
        return bprm.argc;
    }
```





do execve()

```
if ((bprm.envc = count(envp, bprm.p / sizeof(void *))) < 0) {
    allow write access(file);
    fput(file);
    return bprm.envc;
}
retval = prepare binprm(&bprm);
if (retval < 0)
    goto out;
retval = copy strings kernel(1, &bprm.filename, &bprm);
if (retval < \overline{0})
    qoto out;
bprm.exec = bprm.p;
retval = copy strings(bprm.envc, envp, &bprm);
if (retval < \overline{0})
    qoto out;
retval = copy strings(bprm.argc, argv, &bprm);
if (retval < 0)
    qoto out;
retval = search binary handler(&bprm,regs);
if (retval >= 0\overline{)}
    /* execve success */
    return retval;
```





do_execve()





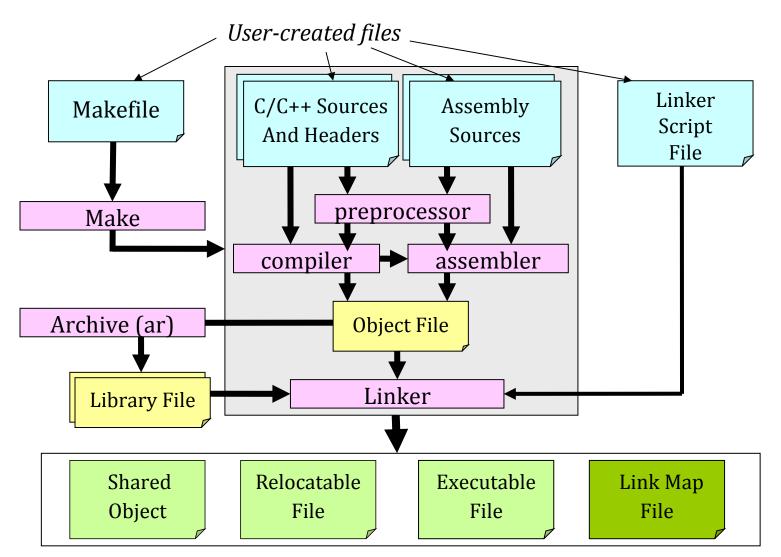
search_binary_handler()

- search_binary_handler():
 - Scans a list of binary file handlers registered in the kernel;
 - If no handler is able to recognize the image format, syscall returs the ENOEXEC error ("Exec Format Error");
- In fs/binfmt_elf.c:
 - -load_elf_binary():
 - Load image file to memory using mmap;
 - Reads the program header and sets permissions accordingly
 - elf_ex = *((struct elfhdr *)bprm->buf);





Compiling Process







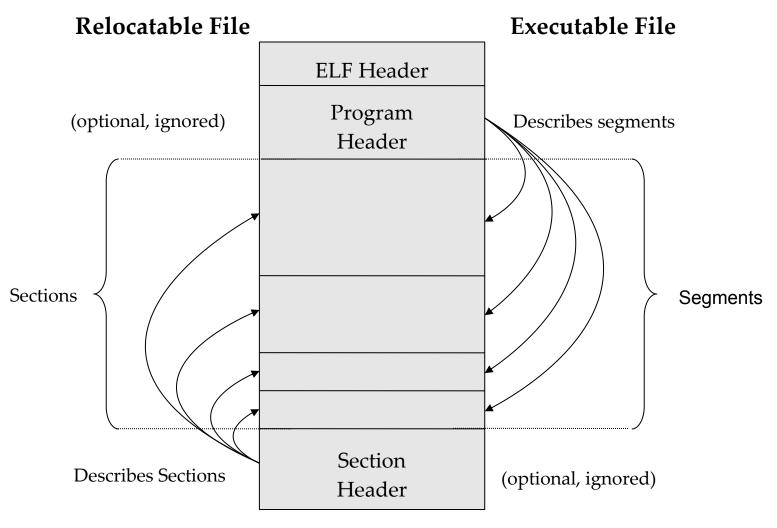
ELF Types of Files

- ELF defines the format of binary executables. There are four different categories:
 - *Relocatable* (Created by compilers and assemblers. Must be processed by the linker before being run).
 - *Executable* (All symbols are resolved, except for shared libraries' symbols, which are resolved at runtime).
 - Shared object (A library which is shared by different programs, contains all the symbols' information used by the linker, and the code to be executed at runtime).
 - *Core file* (a core dump).
- ELF files have a twofold nature
 - Compilers, assemblers and linkers handle them as a set of logical sections;
 - The system loader handles them as a set of segments.





ELF File's Structure







Relocatable File

- A **relocatable file** or a **shared object** is a collection of sections
- Each section contains a single kind of information, such as executable code, read-only data, read/write data, relocation entries, or symbols.
- Each symbol's address is defined in relation to the section which contains it.
 - For example, a function's entry point is defined in relation to the section of the program which contains it.





Section Header

```
typedef struct {
 Elf32 Word
                           /* Section name (string tbl index) */
               sh name;
 Elf32 Word
               sh type;
                          /* Section type */
               sh flags; /* Section flags */
 Elf32 Word
 Elf32 Addr
               sh addr; /* Section virtual addr at execution */
 Elf32 Off
               sh offset; /* Section file offset */
 Elf32 Word
               sh size; /* Section size in bytes */
 Elf32 Word
               sh link; /* Link to another section */
 Elf32 Word
               sh info; /* Additional section information */
 Elf32 Word
               sh addralign; /* Section alignment */
 Elf32 Word
               sh entsize; /* Entry size if section holds table */
} Elf32 Shdr;
```





Types and Flags in Section Header

PROGBITS: The section contains the program content (code, data, debug information).

NOBITS: Same as PROGBITS, yet with a null size.

- SYMTAB and DYNSYM: The section contains a symbol table.
- STRTAB: The section contains a string table.
- REL and RELA: The section contains relocation information.
- DYNAMIC and HASH: The section contains dynamic linking information.

WRITE: The section contains runtime-writeable data.

- ALLOC: The section occupies memory at runtime.
- EXECINSTR: The section contains executable machine instructions.





Some Sections

- .text: contains program's instructions
 - Type: PROGBITS
 - Flags: ALLOC + EXECINSTR
- .data: contains preinitialized read/write data
 - Type: PROGBITS
 - Flags: ALLOC + WRITE
- .rodata: contains preinitialized read-only data
 - Type: PROGBITS
 - Flags: ALLOC
- .bss: contains uninitialized data. Will be set to zero at startup.
 - Type: NOBITS
 - Flags: ALLOC + WRITE





Executable Files

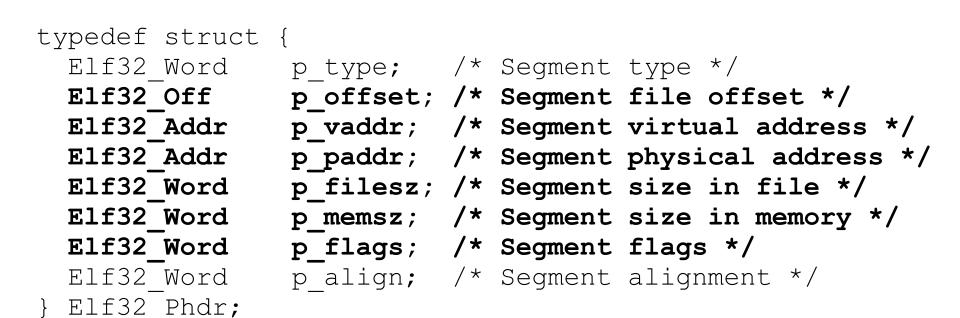
- Usually, an executable file has only few segments:
 - A read-only segment for code.
 - A read-only segment for read-only data.
 A read/write segment for other data.
- Any section marked with flag ALLOCATE is packed in the proper segment, so that the operating system is able to map the file to memory with few operations.

- If .data and .bss sections are present, they are placed within the same read/write segment.





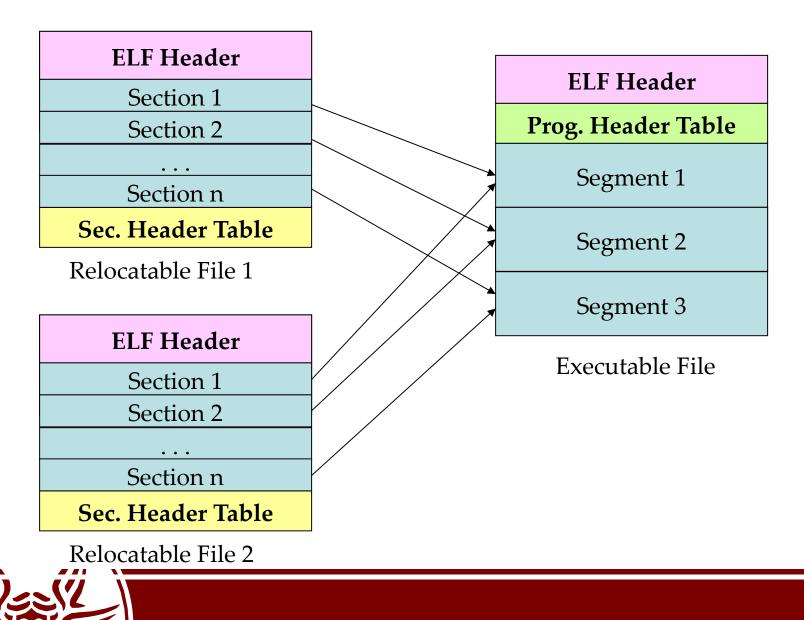
Program Header







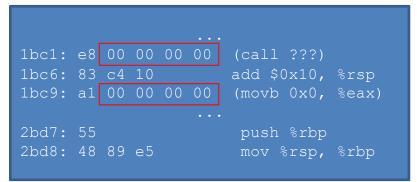
Linker's Role



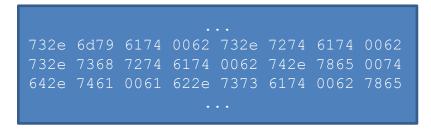


Static Relocation Data Structures

text section



data section



string table



symbol table

name	value	sec
1	2bd7	text
5	812f	data

.text.rela table

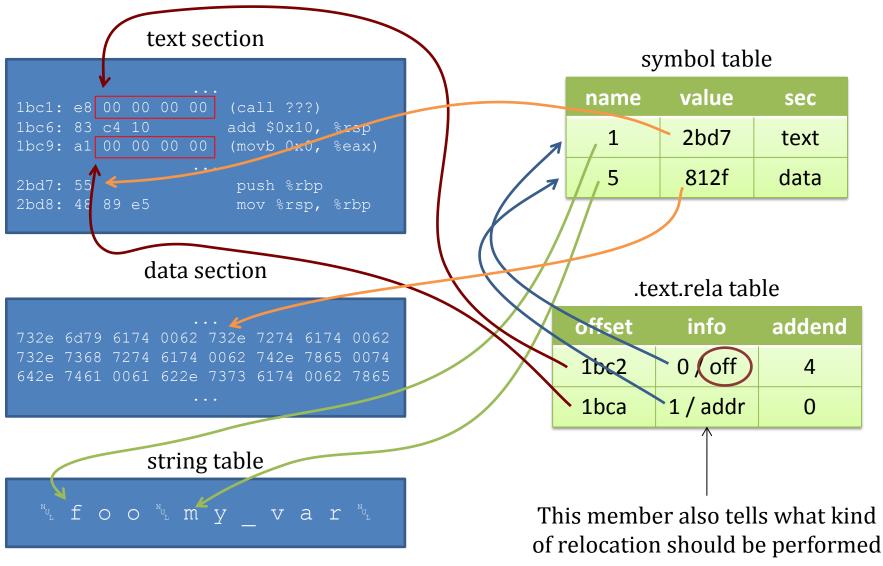
offset	info	addend
1bc2	0 / off	4
1bca	1 / addr	0

This member also tells what kind of relocation should be performed





Static Relocation Data Structures







Symbols Visibility

- *weak* symbols:
 - More modules can have a symbol with the same name of a weak one;
 - The declared entity cannot be overloaded by other modules;
 - It is useful for libraries which want to avoid conflicts with user programs.
- gcc version 4.0 gives the command line option

 fvisibility:
 - *default*: normal behaviour, the symbol is seen by other modules;
 - *hidden*: two declarations of an object refer the same object only if they are in the same shared object;
 - *internal*: an entity declared in a module cannot be referenced even by pointer;
 - *protected*: the symbol is weak;





Symbols Visibility

int variable ___attribute__ ((visibility ("hidden")));

#pragma GCC visibility push(hidden)
int variable;

int increment(void) {
 return ++variable;
}
#pragma GCC visibility pop





Entry Point for the Program

- main() is not the actual entry point for the program
- glibc inserts auxiliary functions
 The actual entry point is called _start
- The Kernel starts the dynamic linker which is stored in the .interp section of the program (usually /lib/ld-linux.so.2)
- If no dynamic linker is specified, control is given at address specified in e_entry





Dynamic Linker

- Initialization steps:
 - Self initialization
 - Loading Shared Libraries
 - Resolving remaining relocations
 - Transfer control to the application
- The most important data structures which are filled are:
 - Procedure Linkage Table (PLT), used to call functions whose address isn't known at link time
 - Global Offsets Table (GOT), similarly used to resolve addresses of data/functions





Dynamic Relocation Data Structures

- .dynsym: a minimal symbol table used by the dynamic linker when performing relocations
- .hash: a hash table that is used to quickly locate a given symbol in the .dynsym, usually in one or two tries.
- .dynstr: string table related to the symbols stored in .dynsym
- These tables are used to populate the GOT table
- This table is populate upon need (*lazy binding*)





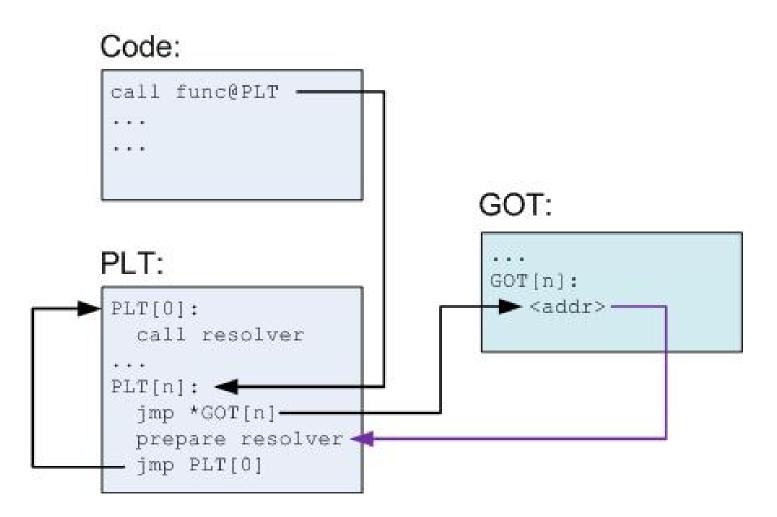
Steps to populate the tables

- The first PLT entry is special
- Other entries are identical, one for each function needing resolution.
 - A jump to a location which is specified in a corresponding GOT entry
 - Preparation of arguments for a *resolver* routine
 - Call to the resolver routine, which resides in the first entry of the PLT
- The first PLT entry is a call to the *resolver* located in the dynamic loader itself





GOT and PLT after library loading







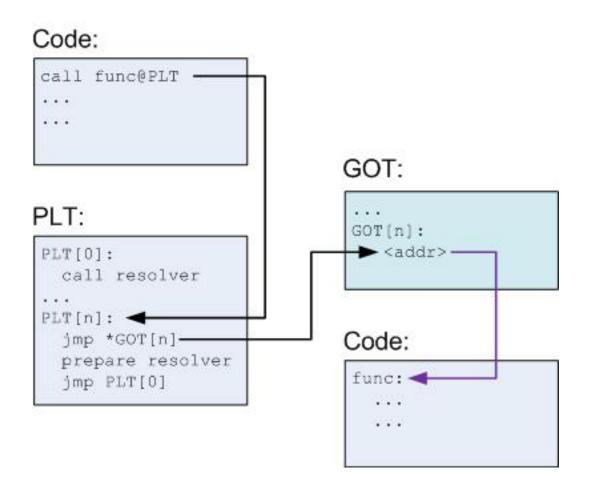
Steps to populate the tables

- When func is called for the first time:
 - PLT[n] is called, and jumps to the address pointed
 to it in GOT[n]
 - This address points into PLT[n] itself, to the preparation of arguments for the resolver.
 - The resolver is then called, by jumping to PLT[0]
 - The resolver performs resolution of the actual address of func, places its actual address into GOT[n] and calls func.





GOT and PLT after first call to func

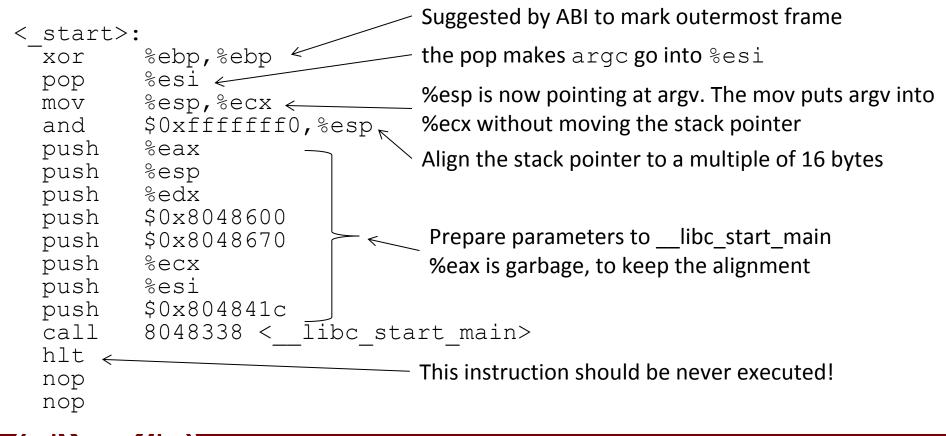






Initial steps of the Program's Life

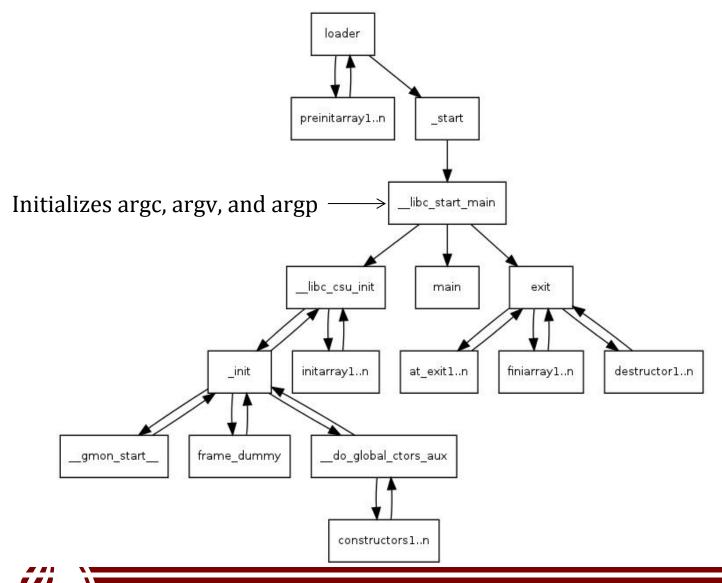
- So far the dynamic linker has loaded the shared libraries in memory
- GOT is populated when the program requires certain functions
- Then, the dynamic linker calls _start







Userspace Life of a Program





Stack Layout at Program Startup

