Notes

Operating Systems 2 Process Management

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Outline

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Process Descriptor

Every operating system stores all information about a single process in a process descriptor. In case of Linux it is a structure of the struct task_struct type, defined in the linux/sched.h header file. The structure is allocated by the slab allocator (See second laboratory instruction or wait until the 10th lecture for an explanation \sim) Its size is about 1.7 KiB. Some of the members of the structure are pointers to other structures, equally big or even bigger.

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Process Descriptor Descriptor Location

In the Linux kernel versions older than 2.6 the process descriptor had been relatively small, and it had been stored at the bottom of the process kernel stack. However, in the 2.6 it became so big that it would occupy too much space in the stack. Starting with this versions of the kernel, another structure of the struct thread_info type has replaced the process descriptor at the bottom of the stack, but this structure has a pointer to the descriptor (see Fig. 1). The thread_info, like the descriptor is allocated for each process, however it is much smaller than the descriptor, and it stores low-level data related to the process. For the definition of struct thread_info type for the x86 CPUs family see the Listing 1. It is taken from the asm/thread_info.h header file for the 4.8 version of the kernel.

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Figure 1: The Process Kernel Stack and The Process Descriptor

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Process Descriptor

The struct task_info Type Definition

- struct thread_info {
 struct task_struct *task; /* main task structure */
 __u32 flags; /* low level flags */
 __u32 status; /* thread synchronous flags */
 __u32 cpu; /* current CPU */
- };

Listing 1: The definition of struct thread_info for the x86 CPUs family

in kernel version 4.8

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Process Descriptor

The current macro

The kernel code that runs in the process context, particularly a system call, usually needs to quickly locate the descriptor of the process that activated it, because the descriptor stores all the data about that process. In CPUs of the RISC organization the address of the descriptor can be stored in one of the registers, but for CPUs of the CISC organization it has to be calculated on the fly, each time the kernel needs to access the descriptor. To this end kernel programmers created the current macro, that returns address of the current process descriptor. In this case the word "current" should be understood as "the one that activated the kernel code". The current macro calls the current_thread_info() function, which is processor family specific. The implementation of this function for the family of 32-bit Intel x86 CPUs is given in the Listing 2.

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Process Descriptor The current macro

movl \$-8192, %eax andl %esp, %eax

Listing 2: Part of the definition of the current_thread_info() function for the x86-32 CPUs family

In the line no. 1 the value -8192 is stored in the <code>eax</code> register, which is 32 bits wide. The number 8192 is the size of the stack (two pages, each of the size of 4096 bytes, which gives $2 \times 4096 = 8192$). In binary it is number, which means that in the two's complement it is represented as 111111111111111111111110000000000000. This value is used in the line no. 2of the function to mask out the thirteen least-significant bits of the stack pointer, stored in the ${\tt esp}$ register. The resulting value is the address of the bottom of the stack and also the address of the thread_info structure.

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After calculating the address of the thread_info structure the current macro needs only to return the value of the task field which stores the address of the current process descriptor:

current_thread_info()->task

The way of calculating the address of the current process descriptor explains why the process kernel stack has to be linked with the process descriptor.

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Process Descriptor The current macro

Starting with the version 4.9 of the kernel, the linkage between the process descriptor and its kernel stack is preserved only for some CPUs supported by the kernel. In case of the $x\delta c$ CPUs family, the pointer to the current process descriptor is defined as a so-called $\underbrace{}$ wave wave variable, or (in newer versions) as a member of a structure that is such a variable. Just as its name suggests, the per-cpu variable is created for each of the CPUs separately, which means that it is local to these CPUs. That is convenient in a case of multiprocessor computer systems¹. The current macro needs only to return the address stored in such a variable.

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Process Descriptor Process Identifier

Among data stored in the process descriptor is the process identifier (PID). This is a natural number that is assigned by the kernel to every process. The upper limit of this number is 32~767. This is because even the newest Linux kernel has to be backward compatible with its older versions and the original Unix. However, this limit can be changed by a privileged user, even when the kernel runs. The PID of the value 1 is assigned to a user process which is an ancestor of all other running processes. Historically this process is named $\verb"init",$ but in new est distributions of Linux it has been replaced by upstart or systemd. The identifier is stored in the member of the descriptor named pid of the type pid_t.

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Process Descriptor Process State

Any running process changes its state. Inside the kernel the current state of the process is described by a special constant, also called a flag, whose value is stored in the state field of the process descriptor. The number, the usage and the names of the flags changed in the history of kernel development, but the most important ones are the following:

- TASK_RUNNING describes a process that is either active or ready to run; the kernel doesn't differentiate between those two types of processes,
- TASK_INTERRUPTIBLE the process is waiting for some event to happen; in the Linux terminology it sleeps or it is blocked; it can be awaken (unblocked) by the awaited event or by any signal,
- TASK_UNINTERRUPTIBLE the process is waiting for some event and it can be awaken only by the event; the state is rarely used, because it prevents aborting the process,

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¹In the OS2 course, we assume that the words *multiprocessor* and *multicore* mean the same. The computer system with only one CPU that has only one core will be called a uniprocessor system.

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TASK_KILLABLE the process is waiting for an event; it can be awaken by the event or any signal that causes its abortion; those signals are called *fatal signals*,

TASK_STOPPED the process has been stopped by a signal,

TASK_TRACED the process is being debugged.

There is also a separated field in the process descriptor for storing the state of an exited process. The member is called exit_state and can store values of the following flags:

EXIT_ZOMBIE the process exited, but awaits for its parent process to invoke the wait4() system call; there are still the kernel stack and descriptor in the RAM that belong to the process,

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Process Descriptor Process State

> EXIT_DEAD the process has exited, its parent called the wait4() system call, but kernel hasn't finished removing the process yet; it is used for informing the kernel code running on other CPUs

> > that the process is already being removed.

The state of the current process can be changed with the use of the set_current_state() function. To change the state of any process the set_task_state() function can be applied.

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Process Family

In Linux the user processes are related to one another. Those connections create a *process family tree*. Each process has a parent, with the exception of the init process (or upstart or systemd), which is the ancestor of all other processes. Every process can have *children*. The direct children of the process are called *siblings*.

Those family connections are mapped in the process descriptor. For example, the address of the descriptor of the process parent is stored in the **parent** field of its descriptor. The **children** field is a list of pointers to descriptors of the process children (if they exist). The following code gets the descriptor of the current process parent:

struct task_struct *task = current->parent;

This one could be applied for traversing the list of its children: struct task_struct *task;
struct list_head *list;

list_for_each(list, ¤t->children) {
 task = list_entry(list, struct task_struct, sibling);

}

Listing 3: Kernel code for traversing the list of children

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Process Family

The code from the Listing 3 uses the API of generic implementation of list created by the kernel developers. For explanations see the 3^{rd} laboratory instruction. Descriptors of all user processes are connected in a circular doubly linked list. The first element of the list is the descriptor of the init process (or its newest replacements). To traverse the list the for_each_process(task) macro can be applied (see the 3^{rd} laboratory instruction for details). The macro next_task(task) returns the address of the next process descriptor in the list and the prev_task(task) returns the address of the previous process descriptor in the list. The kernel has also an array called pidhash, that stores pointers to descriptor of all processes. The array has 32 768 elements which means that its indices has the same values as all possible PIDs of processes. The array allows the kernel to quickly obtain the descriptor of any process, provided its PID is known.

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Just like any other Unix-like operating system, Linux allows the user processes the create a new process (a child) by calling the fork() or vfork() function. There is also a Linux-specific function that can be applied for creating a new process. It is called clone(). Linux uses the *copy-on-write* (*COW*) technique to allow the child and the parent to share their address spaces as long as it is possible. If any of the processes starts modifying data, then and only then the address spaces are separated. The parent and the child get their own data segments, but they still share the text (code) segment, which is read-only. The family of the exec() functions allows the process to execute a different program than its parent. Regardless which user-space function is used for creating a new process in Linux, the clone() system call is invoked, which calls the do_fork() kernel function, which in turn invokes the copy_process() function.

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Process Creation

The $copy_process()$ function performs the following tasks:

- creates for the new process the kernel stack and the descriptor,
 verifies if the new process won't exceed the limit of the number of
- processes for the current user (the owner of the parent process), 3. sets the state of the new process to TASK_UNINTERRUPTIBLE,
- 4. sets the process flags, obtains a PID for the process,
- 5. depending on the arguments passed to the invocation of the clone() it copies from parent or creates anew structures for managing resources and handling signals,
- 6. returns pointer to the descriptor of the new process.

After the copy_process() exits the control returns to the do_fork() function, which eventually awakes and runs the child process.

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Process Creation

User-Space Threads

Linux allows user-space processes to create threads, but unlike other operating systems it doesn't have any subsystems dedicated to handling those threads. For Linux, a user-space thread is just a user-process that always shares majority of its resources, most notably the address space, with other processes (its parent and, potentially, siblings). To create a userspace thread the clone() system call has to be invoked with following arguments:

clone(CLONE_VM|CLONE_FS|CLONE_FILES|CLONE_SIGHAND,0);
while the fork() function calls clone() like this:

clone(SIGCHLD,0);

and the vfork() function like this: clone(CLONE_VFORK|CLONE_VM|SIGCHLD,0);

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Arguments for the clone() System Calls

There are defined several flags in the linux/sched.h header file that serve as arguments for the clone() system call:

CLONE_FILES parent and child share open files,

CLONE_FS parent and child share file system data,

 $\tt CLONE_IDLETASK$ set PID of the child to 0 (it will be an idle task),

CLONE_NEWNS create a new namespace for the child, CLONE_PARENT the child grandparent will become its parent,

CLONE_PTRACE continue tracing the child,

CLONE_SETTID write the TID (Thread Identifier) back to the user-space,

CLONE_SETTLS create a new TLS (Thread Local Storage) for the child, CLONE_SIGHAND parent and child share signal handling,

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Kernel-Space Threads

The kernel also can create its threads. Examples of such threads are *ksoftirqd* and *kworker*. Kernel threads don't have their own address spaces, they share it with the rest of the kernel. The code of the thread is implemented as a function that usually runs a loop. Most of the kernel threads exit when the system is shutdown or rebooted or the kernel module where they are implemented is unloaded form the kernel. A single kernel thread can be created with the use of the kernel_thread() function. In the 2.6.1 kernel version a patch by Rusty Russell was added that introduces a more convenient API for managing kernel threads.

CLONE_SYSVSEM parent and child share System V SEM_UNDO semantics, CLONE_THREAD parent and child belong to the same group of threads, CLONE_VFORK the parent will sleep until the child wakes it (the child has been created via vfork() function call), CLONE_UNTRACED prevents setting the CLONE_PTRACE flag for the child,

CLONE_STOP start the child in the TASK_STOPPED state, CLONE_CHILD_CLEARTID clear the TID for the child, CLONE_CHILD_SETTID set the TID for the child, CLONE_PARENT_SETTID set the TID for the parent, CLONE_VM parent and child share address space.

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Process Creation Kernel-Space Threads

The API consists of following functions and macros:

- kthread_run() creates and activates the new kernel thread,
- kthread_stop() sends a signal to the kernel thread suggesting that it should terminate,
- kthread_should_stop() is a function invoked inside the kernel thread and used as a condition in the thread's main loop that checks if the thread should terminate,

kthread_bind() assigns the thread to one or more CPUs.

More detailed description of the ${\mbox{\scriptsize API}}$ is available in the 5^{th} laboratory instruction.

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Process Termination

The process terminates by calling directly or indirectly the <code>exit()</code> function which invokes the <code>_exit()</code> system call. The system call then calls the do_exit() function. The latter is responsible for releasing most of the kernel data structures related to the process and messaging the parent process that its child has terminated. Only the process descriptor and kernel stack are left in the computer memory. Those structures are freed by the release_task() function called by the wait4() system call. The function decrements the counter of processes belonging to the user, removes the process descriptor from the pidhash array, from the list of traced processes (if the process descriptor and the thread_info structure.

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If the parent of the exited process terminated before its child, the process would stuck in the zombie state. In this case the exited process is *adopted* by the init process (or its replacements) or by a process that belongs to the same group as the parent of the exited process. The adoption is performed by the forget_original_parent() function invoked by the do_exit() function. The former checks the list of processes and the list of traced processes to find the new parent.

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The End

Questions

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Thank You for Your attention!

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