Processes (cont.): exec, wait, signal Computer Systems Programming, Fall 2025

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Poll Everywhere

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- How is penn-vector going?
 - I haven't started
 - I have read the spec
 - I've setup the container
 - I've started writing code
 - I've started writing code and I am pretty sure
 I understand what is going on
 - I'm done!

Administrivia

- First Assignment (HW00 penn-vector)
 - Released already!
 - "Due" This Friday 09/05
 - Extended to be due the same time as HW01 (Friday the 12th)
 - Mostly a C refresher
- Pre semester Survey
 - Anonymous
 - Short!
 - Due Friday the 5th
- OH Started Last week, Levine 612! Check out the Course Calendar!

Administrivia

- Second Assignment (HW01 penn-shredder)
 - Releases after today's lecture sometime tonight
 - Due <u>Friday Next week</u> 09/12
 - Intro to system calls, processes, etc.
 - Short Q&A and demo at end of class ©

- First Check-in
 - Was Due Today! (Extended until the 9th @ 1:45PM...)
 - Don't forget to do them!!!

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Administrivia

- Recitation starts this week on Thursday!
 - Look out for an announcement on Ed from the TAs with more information sometime soon.

Lecture Outline

- Processes & Fork Revisited
- * exec
- wait & process states
- Hardware interrupts
- Software signals
- Process States updated
- penn-shredder demo

Processes & Fork Summary

- Processes are instances of programs that:
 - Each have their own independent address space
 - Each process is scheduled by the OS
 - There is no way to guarantee the order processes are executed, without using some functions we have not talked about (yet),

- Processes are created by fork() system call
 - Only difference between processes is their process id and the return value from fork() each process gets

Revisting fork()

```
pid_t fork();
```

- Creates a new process (the "child") that is an exact clone* of the current process (the "parent")
- Fork returns the *pid of the child* in the parent, but *0 in the child*.
- The new process has a separate *virtual address space* from the parent

```
int main(){
   int x = 10;
   pid_t child = fork();
   if(child == 0) 10--;
   printf("This is the pid: %d\n", child);
```

Parent vs Child: Separate Address Space

```
int main(){

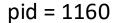
int main(){

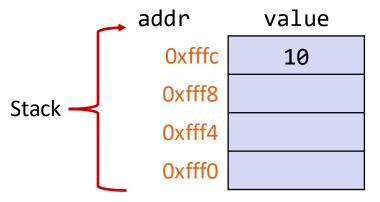
int x = 10;

pid_t child = fork();

if(child == 0) 10--;

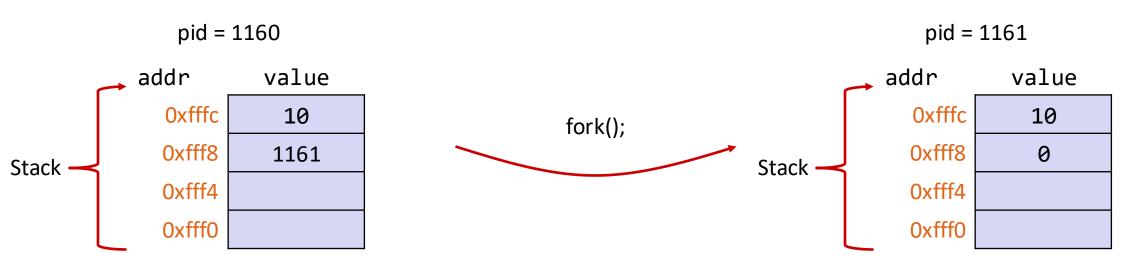
printf("This is the pid: %d\n", child);
}
```





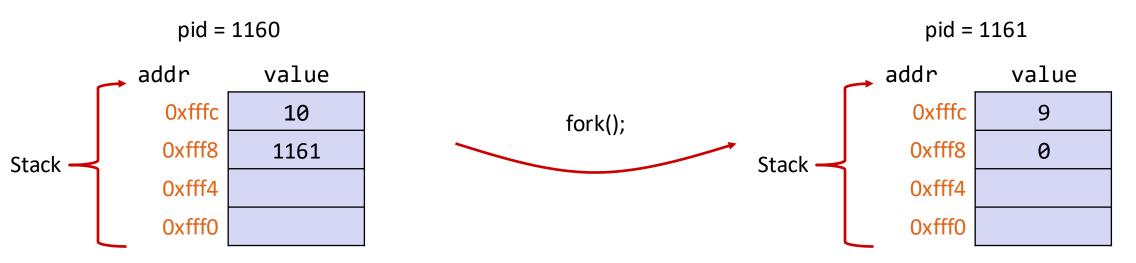
Parent vs Child: Separate Address Space

```
int main(){
    int x = 10;
    pid_t child = fork();
    if(child == 0) 10--;
    printf("This is the pid: %d\n", child);
}
```



Parent vs Child: Separate Address Space

```
int main(){
    int x = 10;
    pid_t child = fork();
    if(child == 0) 10--;
    printf("This is the pid: %d\n", child);
}
```



[root@eb681338c92b:~/workspace/codeplayground/lecture2# ./simple_fork]

This is the pid: 1198

This is the pid: 0

How many times is ":)" printed?

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
  for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++) {
    pid_t pid = fork();
    if(pid == 0) {
        printf(":)\n");
    }
}

return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}</pre>
```



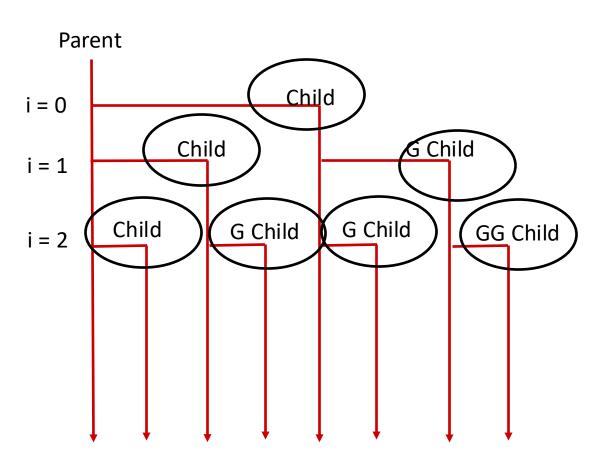
Poll Everywhere

How many times is ":)" printed?

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
  for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++) {
    pid_t pid = fork();
    if(pid == 0) {
        printf(":)\n");
    }
}

return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}</pre>
```

When will pid be equal to 0? Each time a new process is created!



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exec*()

- A family of functions that load in a new program for execution.
 - Replaces the currently running program while using the same process.
- Things that are newly initialized include
 - Stack
 - Heap
 - Data segments (i.e. globals)
 - Registers (Stack Pointer, Program Counter, Argument-Registers...)
 - Text Segment (This one should make sense!)
 - And more....

execve()

executes the program referred to by **file**.

- * const char *file
 - The file(path) of the executable to well, execute
- char* const argv[] (An array of char *s)
 - **argv**[0] MUST have the same contents as the file parameter
 - argv must have NULL as the last entry of the array
 - int main(int argc, char *argv[])

execve()

- - list of environment vars that become the environment of the exec'd program.
 - Not important for this course, learn more by doing `man environ`
 - Use this: char* const envp[] = {NULL};

Return Value

- If successful, there is no return value!
- On failure, execve returns -1

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Aside: The Exit Status

```
void exit(int status);
```

- Initiates the 'tear-down' of a process. "Graceful" exit.
- Generally called by main () when control falls off main or when main returns
- int status
 - EXIT SUCCESS or EXIT FAILURE
 - The exit status of a child is accessible by its parent process via wait() or waitpid()...

Typically used as follows:

```
execve(...);
exit(...); //shouldn't have reached this...
```

Exec Demo

- * See exec example.c
 - Brief code demo to see how exec works
 - What happens when we call exec?
 - What happens to allocated memory when we call exec?

Poll Everywhere

❖ In each of these, how often is ":) \n" printed? Assume functions don't fail

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
  char* envp[] = { NULL };
 pid t pid = fork();
 <u>if</u> (pid == 0) {
   // we are the child
   char* argv[] = {"/bin/echo", "hello", NULL};
   execve(argv[0], argv, envp);
  printf(":) \n");
 return EXIT SUCCESS;
```

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
  pid_t pid = fork();
  if (pid == 0) {
    // we are the child
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
  }
  printf(":) \n");
  return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

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```
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
 char* envp[] = { NULL };
 // fork a process to exec clang
 pid t clang pid = fork();
 if (clang pid == 0) {
  // we are the child
  char* clang argv[] = {"/bin/clang", "-o",
        "hello", "hello world.c", NULL);
  execve(clang_argv[0], clang_argv, envp);
  exit(EXIT FAILURE);
 // fork to run the compiled program
 pid_t hello_pid = fork();
 if (hello pid == 0) {
  // the process created by fork
  char* hello argv[] = {"./hello", NULL};
  execve(hello argv[0], hello argv, envp);
  exit(EXIT FAILURE);
 return EXIT SUCCESS;
```

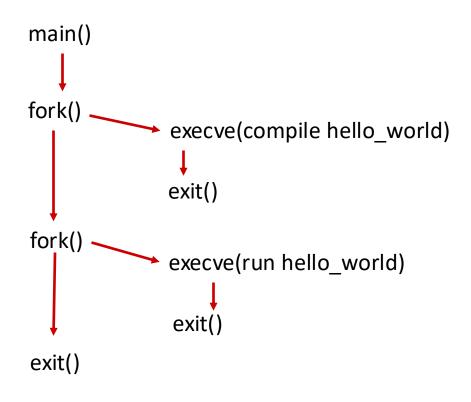
This code compiles, but doesn't do what we want. The program attempts to compile some code and then run it.

Why is this broken?

- Clang is a C compiler
- Assume exec'ing the compiler works (hello_world.c compiles)
- Assume we gave the correct args to exec in both cases

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Poll Everywhere



This code is broken. It compiles, but it doesn't do what we want. Why?

- Clang is a C compiler
- Assume it compiles
- Assume I gave the correct args to exec

Lecture Outline

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From the previous example:

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
  char* envp[] = { NULL };
  // fork a process to exec clang
  pid t clang pid = fork();
  if (clang pid == 0) {
   // we are the child
    char* clang argv[] = {"/bin/clang", "-o",
              "hello", "hello world.c", NULL);
    execve(clang argv[0], clang argv, envp);
    exit(EXIT FAILURE);
  // fork to run the compiled program
  pid t hello pid = fork();
  if (hello pid == 0) {
    // the process created by fork
    char* hello argv[] = {"./hello", NULL};
    execve(hello argv[0], hello argv, envp);
    exit(EXIT FAILURE);
  return EXIT SUCCESS;
                               broken_autograder.c
```

What do we need to happen for this to work correctly?

Waiting for Processes to Finish

```
pid_t wait(int *wstatus);
```

Calling process waits for any child process to change status to terminated.

- int *wstatus
 - Output parameter containing the status of the terminated child.
- Returns process ID of child who changed states for or -1 on error (e.g. no children to wait for)

```
int main(){
  pid_t pid = fork();
  if(pid == 0){
    //....
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
  }
  int status;
  pid_t wpid = wait(&status);
  // do something with status
}
```

Execution Blocking

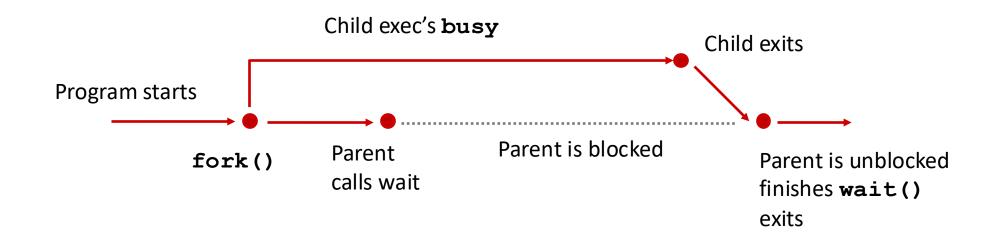
- When a process calls wait() and there is a process to wait on, the calling process blocks
- If a process blocks or is blocking it is not scheduled for execution.
 - It is not run until some condition "unblocks" it
 - For wait(), it unblocks once there is a status update in a child

Fixed code from broken_autograder.c

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
  char* envp[] = { NULL };
 // fork a process to exec clang
  pid t clang pid = fork();
  if (clang pid == 0) {
   // we are the child
    char* clang argv[] = {"/bin/clang", "-o",
              "hello", "hello_world.c", NULL};
    execve(clang_argv[0], clang_argv, envp);
    exit(EXIT FAILURE);
  wait(NULL); // should error check, not enough slide space :(
  // fork to run the compiled program
  pid_t hello_pid = fork();
  if (hello_pid == 0) {
   // the process created by fork
    char* hello_argv[] = {"./hello", NULL};
    execve(hello_argv[0], hello_argv, envp);
    exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
  return EXIT SUCCESS;
                                                                              autograder.c
```

Demo: wait_example

- * See wait example.c
 - Brief demo to see how a process blocks when it calls wait()
 - Makes use of fork(), execve(), and wait()
- Execution timeline:



discuss

Can a child finish before parent calls wait?

What if the child finishes first?

- In the timeline I drew, the parent called wait before the child executed.
 - In our example, it is extremely likely this happens if the child is calling sleep 10,./busy, etc.
 - What happens if the child finishes before the parent calls wait?
 - Will the parent not see the child finish?

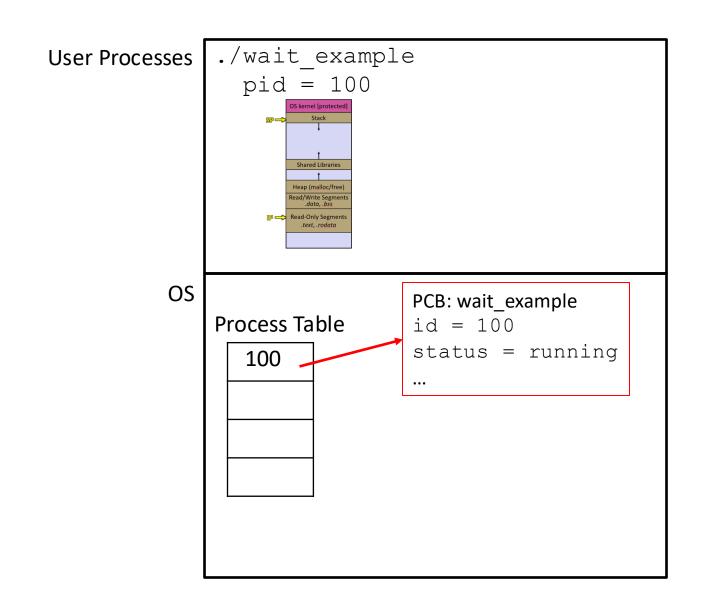
Process Tables & Process Control Blocks

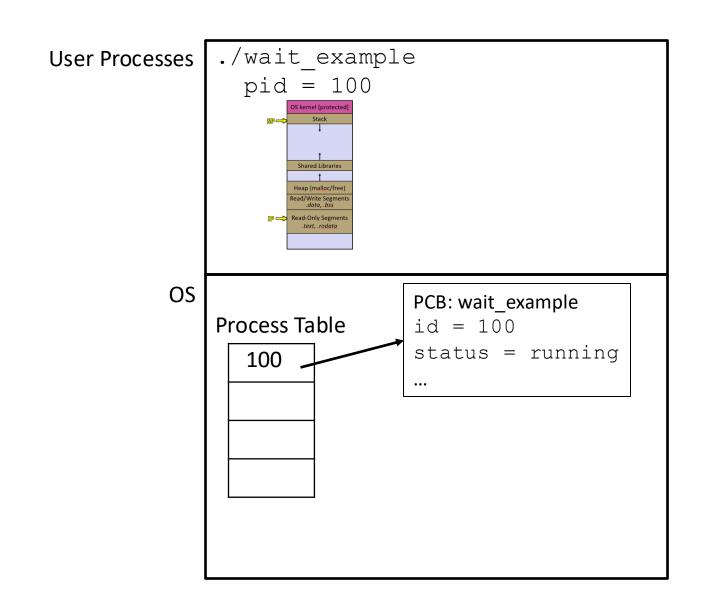
- The OS maintains a table of all processes that aren't "completely done"
- ❖ Each process in this table has a <u>p</u>rocess <u>c</u>ontrol <u>b</u>lock (PCB) to hold information about it.
- * A PCB can contain:
 - Process ID
 - Parent Process ID
 - Child process IDs
 - Process Group ID
 - Status (e.g. running/zombie/etc)
 - Other things (file descriptors, register values, etc)

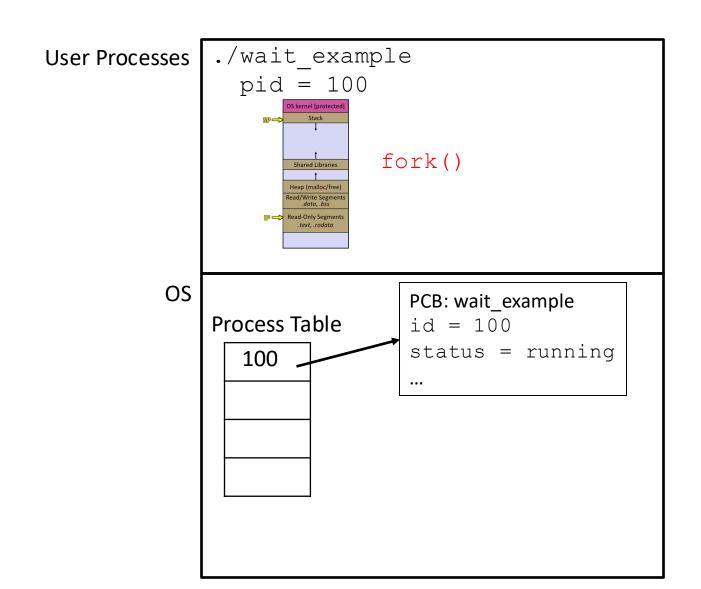
Zombie Process

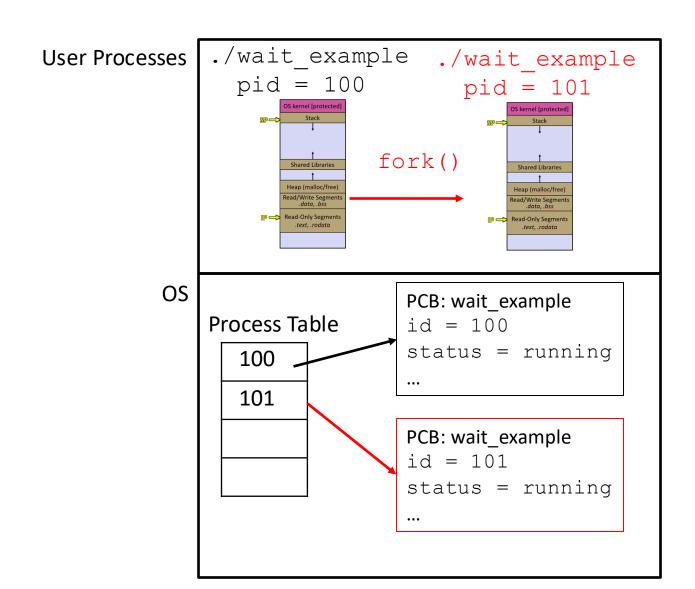
- Answer: processes that are terminated become "zombies"
 - Zombie processes deallocate their address space, don't run anymore
 - still "exists", has a PCB still, so that a parent can check its status one final time
 - If the parent call's wait(), the zombie becomes "reaped" all information related to it has been freed (No more PCB entry)

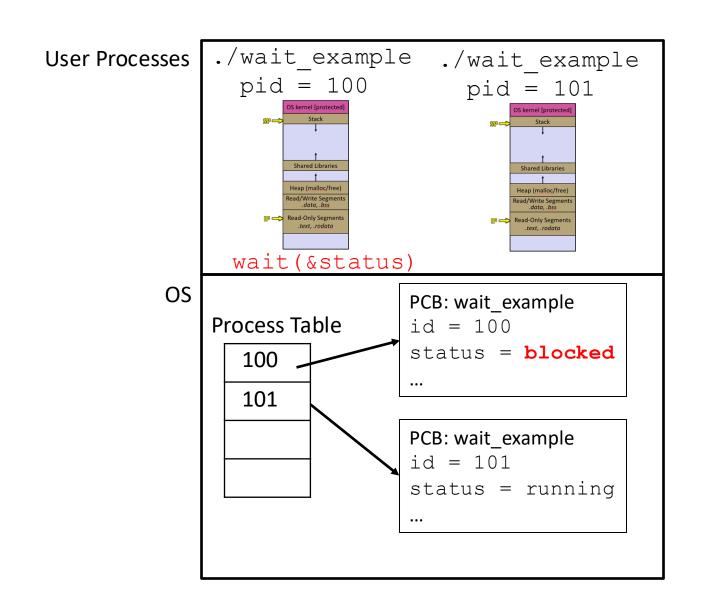
User Processes	
OS	D T. I. I.
	Process Table

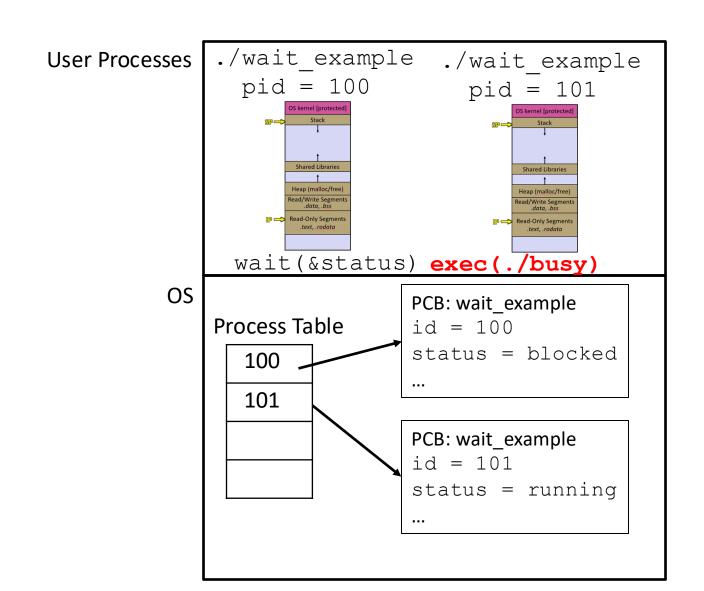


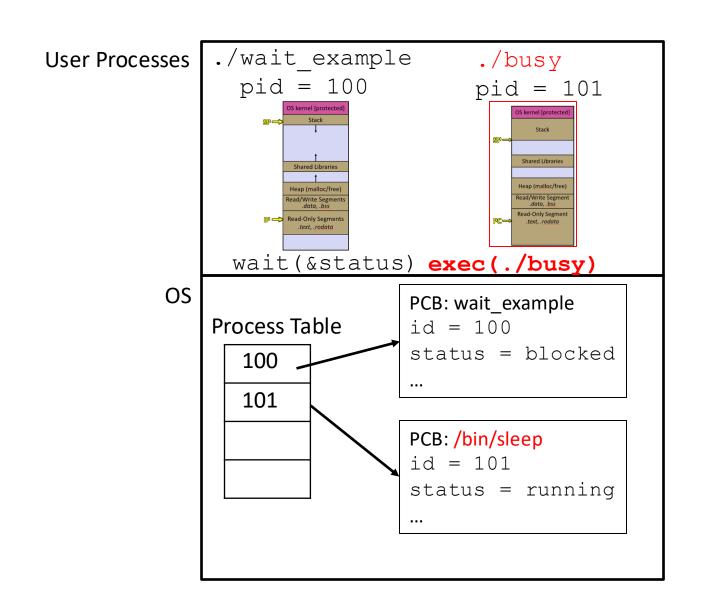




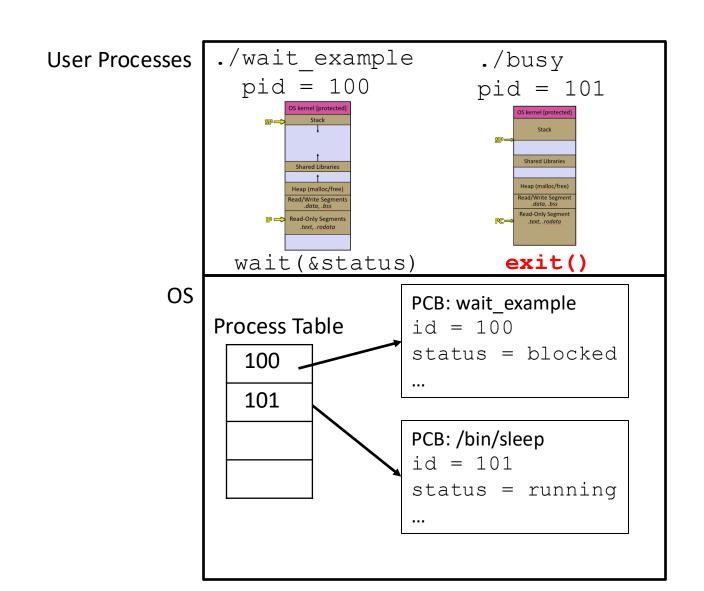


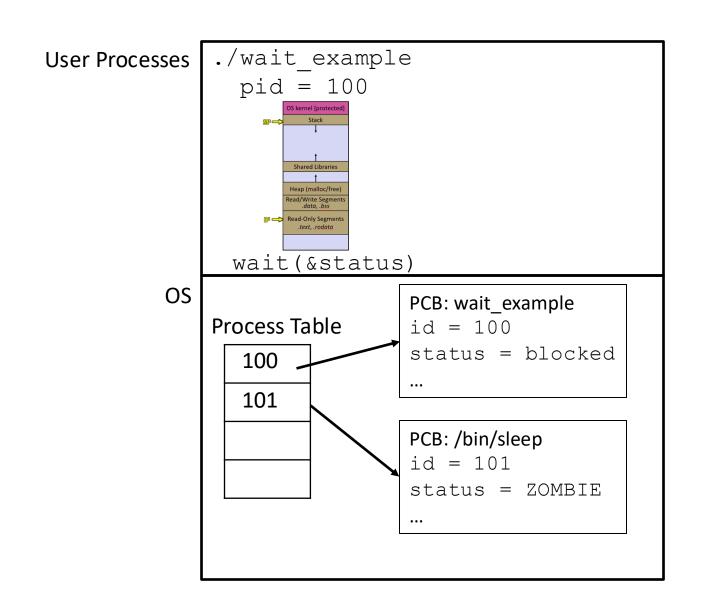


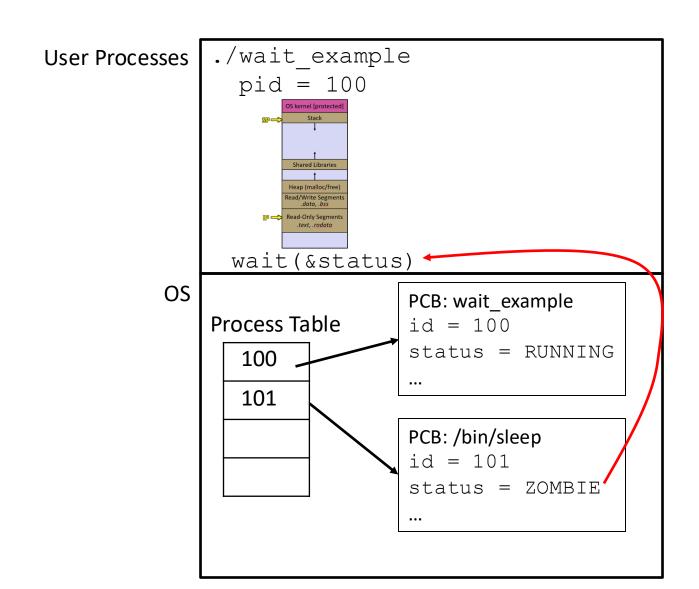


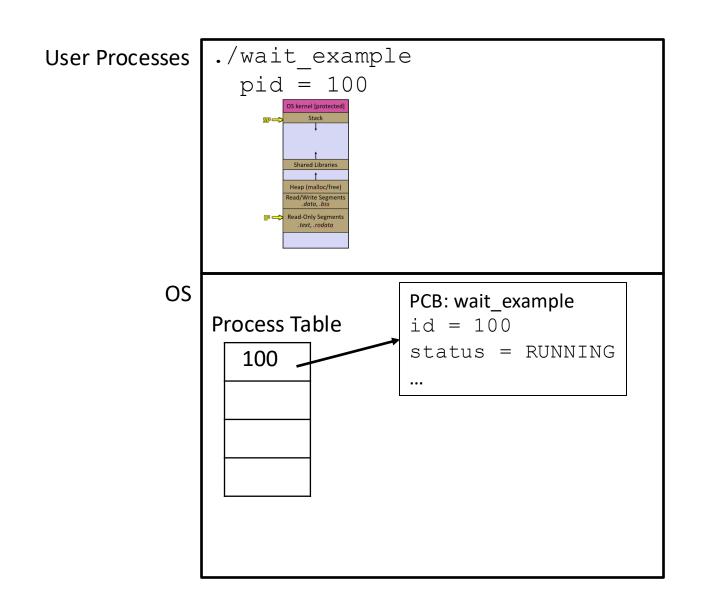


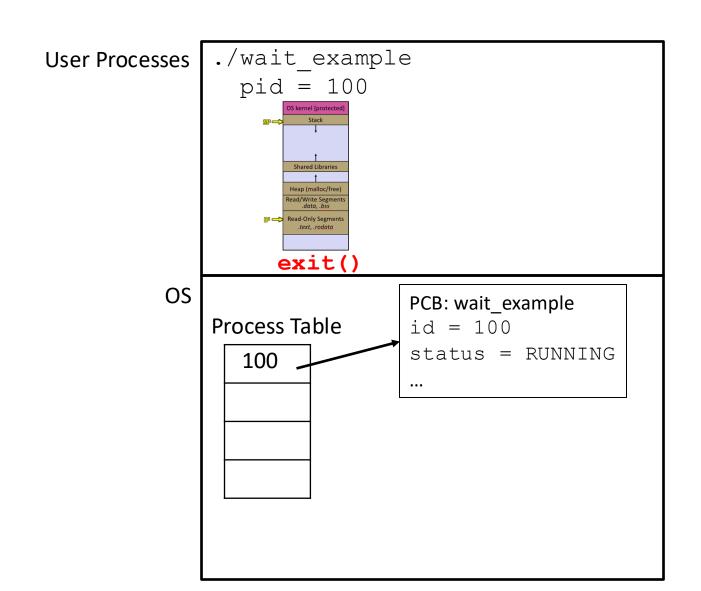
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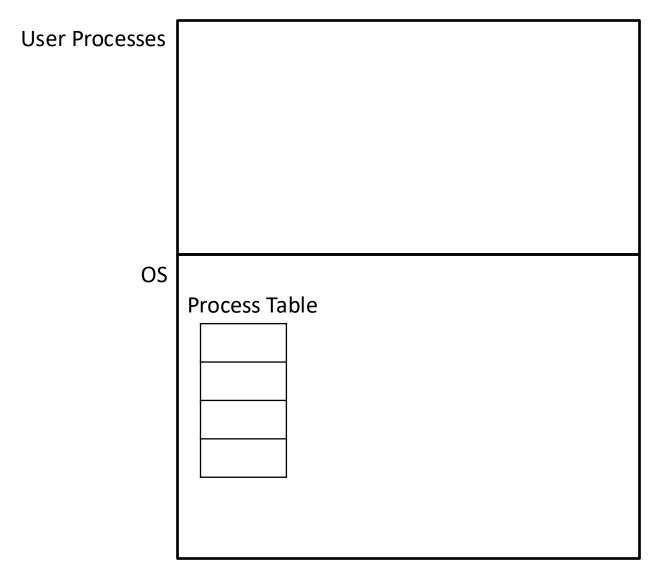












./wait_example
Is reaped by its
parent. In our
example, that is the
terminal shell

Demo: state_example

- * See state_example.c
 - Brief code demo to see the various states of a process
 - Running
 - Zombie
 - Terminated
 - Makes use of sleep(), wait() and exit()!
 - Aside: sleep() takes in an integer number of seconds and blocks till those seconds have passed

But wait(), it gets better.

```
pid_t waitpid(pid_t pid, int *wstatus, int options);
```

pid_t pid

- The pid of the child we are waiting for.
- If pid is -1, then we wait for any child process!

int *wstatus

Same as wait()

• int options

- A set of bitwise-or'd flags to indicate behavior of waitpid!
- · Setting options to 0 makes waitpid return when a child has terminated.
- Returns process ID of child who was waited for or -1 on error

wait() status

- * status output from wait() can be passed to a macro to see what changed
- * | WIFEXITED () | true iff the child exited nomrally
- ❖ WIFSIGNALED () true iff the child was signaled to exit
- ❖ WIFSTOPPED () true iff the child stopped
- * **WIFCONTINUED**() true iff child continued

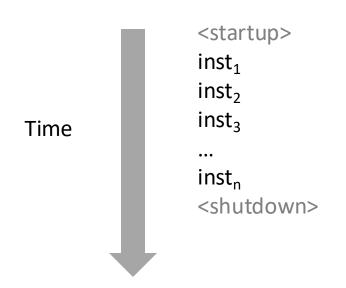
Lecture Outline

- * exec
- wait & process states
- Hardware interrupts
- Software signals
- Process States updated
- penn-shredder demo

Control Flow

- Processors do only one thing:
 - From startup to shutdown, a CPU simply reads and executes (interprets) a sequence of instructions, one at a time
 - This sequence is the CPU's control flow (or flow of control)

Physical control flow



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Poll Everywhere

The bge instruction is being executed for the first time, which instruction is executed next?

- * A. bge
- * B. add
- * C. sub
- * D.
- ♦ E. I'm not sure

```
t0, 5 # load immediate 5 into t0
      li
      li
            t1, 2 # load immediate 2 into t1
      li
            t2, 0 # load immediate 0 into t2
.LOOP
      add t2, t2, 1 \# t2 = t2 + 1
      sub t0, t0, t1 \# t0 = t0 - t1
      bge t0, x0, .LOOP # GOTO .loop if t0 > 0
.END
      i .END
                        # GOTO .END
                        # (infinite loop)
```

Altering the Control Flow

- Up to now: two mechanisms for changing control flow:
 - Jumps and branches
 - Call and return

React to changes in *program state*

- Insufficient for a useful system:
 Difficult to react to changes in system state
 - Data arrives from a disk or a network adapter
 - Instruction divides by zero
 - User hits Ctrl-C at the keyboard
 - System timer expires
- System needs mechanisms for "exceptional control flow"

- Exists at all levels of a computer system
- Low level mechanisms

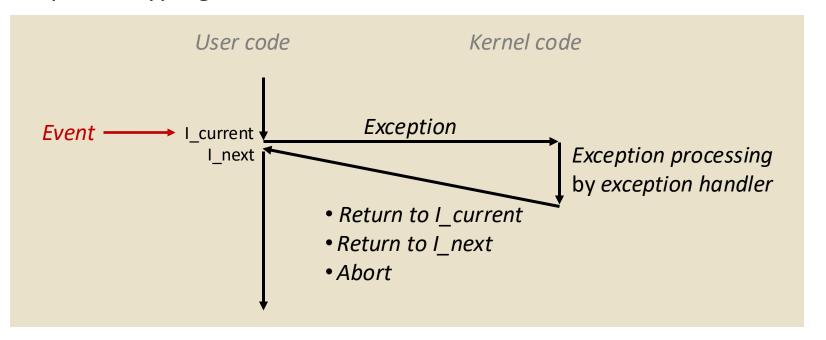
What we will be looking at today

- 1. Hardware Interrupts
 - Change in control flow in response to a system event (i.e., change in system state)
 - Implemented using combination of hardware and OS software
- Higher level mechanisms
 - 2. Process context switch
 - Implemented by OS software and hardware timer
 - 3. Signals
 - Implemented by OS software

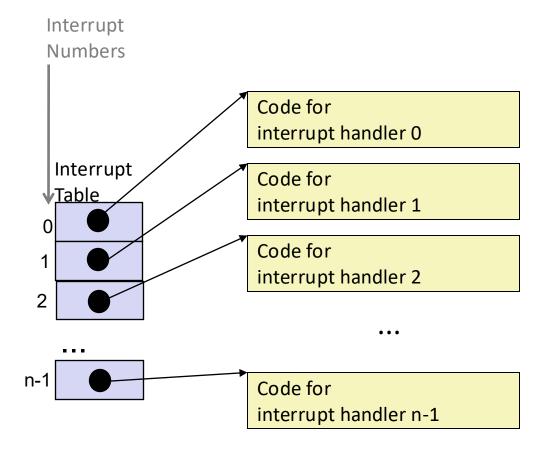
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Interrupts

- An Interrupt is a transfer of control to the OS kernel in response to some event (i.e., change in processor state)
 - Kernel is the memory-resident part of the OS
 - Examples of events: Divide by 0, arithmetic overflow, page fault, I/O request completes, typing Ctrl-C



Interrupt Tables



- Each type of event has a unique number k
- k = index into table (a.k.a. interrupt vector)
- Handler k is called each time interrupt k occurs

Asynchronous Interrupts

- Caused by events external to the processor
 - Indicated by setting the processor's interrupt pin
 - Handler returns to "next" instruction

Examples:

- Timer interrupt
 - Every few ms, an external timer chip triggers an interrupt
 - Used by the kernel to take back control from user programs
- I/O interrupt from external device
 - Hitting Ctrl-C at the keyboard
 - Arrival of a packet from a network
 - Arrival of data from a disk

Synchronous Interrupts

Caused by events that occur as a result of executing an instruction:

Traps

FUN FACT: the terminology and definitions aren't fully agreed upon. Many people may use these interchangeably

- Intentional
- Examples: **system calls**, breakpoint traps, special instructions
- Returns control to "next" instruction

Faults

- Unintentional but theoretically recoverable
- Examples: page faults (recoverable), protection faults (recoverable sometimes), floating point exceptions
- Either re-executes faulting ("current") instruction or aborts

Aborts

- Unintentional and unrecoverable
- Examples: illegal instruction, parity error, machine check
- Aborts current program

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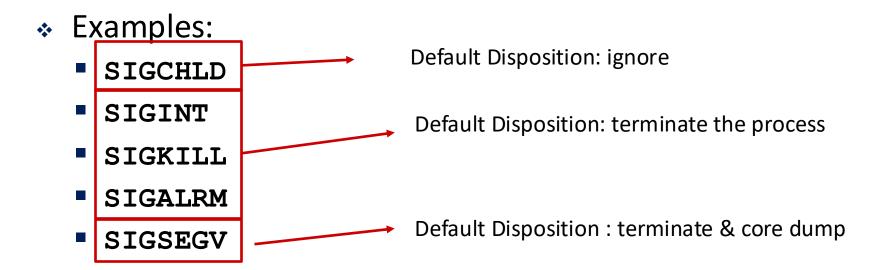
Signals

- A Process can be interrupted with various types of signals
 - This interruption can occur in the middle of most code
- Each signal type has a different meaning, number associated with it, and a way it is handled

- These are different from an interrupt, but similar idea
 - signals are "higher level" and apply to a process. The kernel / some process will deliver the signal.
 - Interrupts are lower level mechanisms that cause the hardware to poke the kernel and respond
 - Some interrupts lead to a signal being sent (CTRL + C on keyboard -> SIGINT)

Signals

- A Process can be interrupted with various types of signals
 - This interruption can occur in the middle of most code
- Each signal type has a different meaning, number associated with it, and a way it is handled (disposition)



sigaction()

- You can change how a certain signal is handled
- int signum -> is the signal
- Uses the struct sigaction type to specify which signal handler to run and other options for how the signal should be handled
- Returns previous handler & behavior for that signal through the old output parameter
- You can not change the disposition of SIG KILL and SIG STOP.

struct sigaction

Has 5 different fields to specify the behaviour of how a signal should be handled. For today, we only care about sa_handler and sa_flags

```
struct sigaction {
  void    (*sa_handler)(int);
  void    (*sa_sigaction)(int, siginfo_t *, void *);
  sigset_t    sa_mask;
  int         sa_flags;
  void    (*sa_restorer)(void);
};
```

struct sigaction

```
struct sigaction {
  void     (*sa_handler)(int);
  int     sa_flags;
  ...
};
```

- Set sa_handler equal to the signal handler we want to use
 - Set sa handler to SIG IGN to set disposition to IGNORE
 - Set sa handler to SIG DFL for default disposition
- In this class: set sa_flags to SA_RESTART
 - This makes it so that certain system calls are automatically restart/continue if they are interrupted by a signal. (wanna see the list? man 7 signal ©)

Signal handlers

- typedef void (*sighandler_t)(int);
- A function that takes in as parameter, the signal number that raised this handler. Return type is void
- Is <u>automatically</u> called when your process is interrupted by a signal
- Can manipulate global state
- If you change signal behavior within the handler, it will be undone when you return
- Signal handlers set by a process will be retained in any children that are created (think about why?)

Demo ctrlc.c

- * See ctrlc.c
 - Brief code demo to see how to use a signal handler
 - Blocks the ctrl + c signal: SIGINT
 - Note: will have to terminate the process with the kill command in the terminal, use ps -u to fine the process id

alarm()

unsigned int alarm(unsigned int seconds);

 Delivers the SIGALRM signal to the calling process after the specified number of seconds

- Default SIGALRM disposition: terminate the process
- How to cancel alarms?
 - I leave this as an exercise for you: try reading the man pages
- HINT FOR OPTIONAL CHALLENGE: What is the default behavior of SIGALRM?
 Can you take advantage of the default behavior?

discuss

- Finish this program
- After 15 seconds, print a message and then exit
- Can't use the sleep() function, must use alarm()

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
   alarm(15U);
   return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

Currently: program calls alarm then immediately exits

Demo no_sleep.c

- * See no_sleep.c
 - "Sleeps" for 10 seconds without sleeping, using alarm
 - Brief code demo to see how to use a signal handler & alarm
 - Signal handler manipulates global state

```
int kill(pid_t pid, int sig);
```

- System call that sends a signal to a process (has a somewhat dramatic name).
- * pid_t pid
 - Specifies the process to send the signal to
- * int sig
 - The signal to forward!
- If for some reason kill() is not recognized and you #include everything you need: Put this at the top of your penn-shredder.c file (before #includes) to use kill()

```
#define _POSIX_C_SOURCE 1
```

Non blocking wait w/ waitpid()

```
* pid_t waitpid(pid_t pid, int *wstatus, int options);
```

- Our first option! WNOHANG
- WNOHANG makes waitpid immediately return
 - Either: there is no update in a child's state or there was.
- You must check the return value of waitpid
- WITH THIS OPTION WAITPID Returns process ID of child who was waited for or -1 on error or 0 if there are no updates in children processes

Demo impatient.c

- * See impatient.c
 - Parent forks a child, checks if it finishes every second for 5 seconds, if child doesn't finish send SIGKILL

- In penn-shredder waitpid() IS NOT ALLOWED so don't copy this. ⓒ
- Plus, using sleep() AND alarm() together can cause issues because on some systems, sleep uses alarm, go figure.

SIGCHLD handler

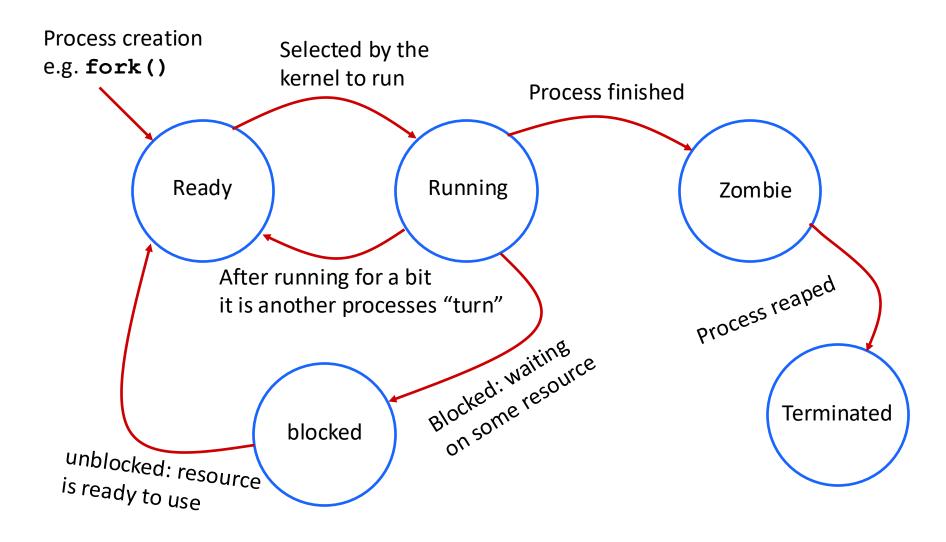
- Whenever a child process updates, a SIGCHLD signal is received, and by default ignored.
- You can write a signal handler for SIGCHLD, and use that to help handle children update statuses: allowing the parent process to do other things instead of calling wait() or waitpid()

Relevant for proj2: penn-shell

Lecture Outline

- Processes & Fork Refresher
- * exec
- wait & process states
- Hardware interrupts
- Software signals
- Process States updated
- penn-shredder demo

Process State Lifetime



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