

Linux Internals & Networking

System programming using Kernel interfaces

Team Emertxe



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Linux Internals & Networking

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- System Calls
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- Memory Management



Introduction

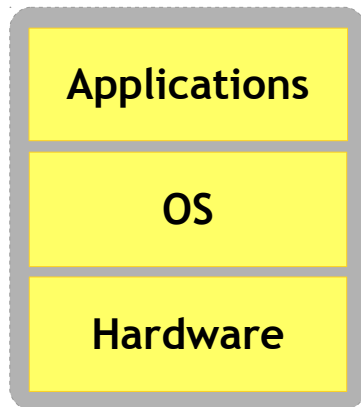
Introduction

Let us ponder ...



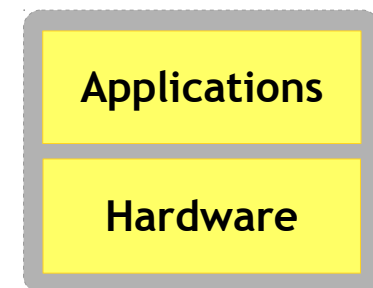
- What exactly is an Operating System (OS)?
- Why do we need OS?
- How would the OS would look like?
- Is it possible for a team of us (in the room) to create an OS of our own?
- Is it necessary to have an OS running in a Embedded System?
- Will the OS ever stop at all?

What is an OS



OS is an interface between application and hardware
Which abstracts H/W layer from user

Is it possible to make an embedded without OS.?

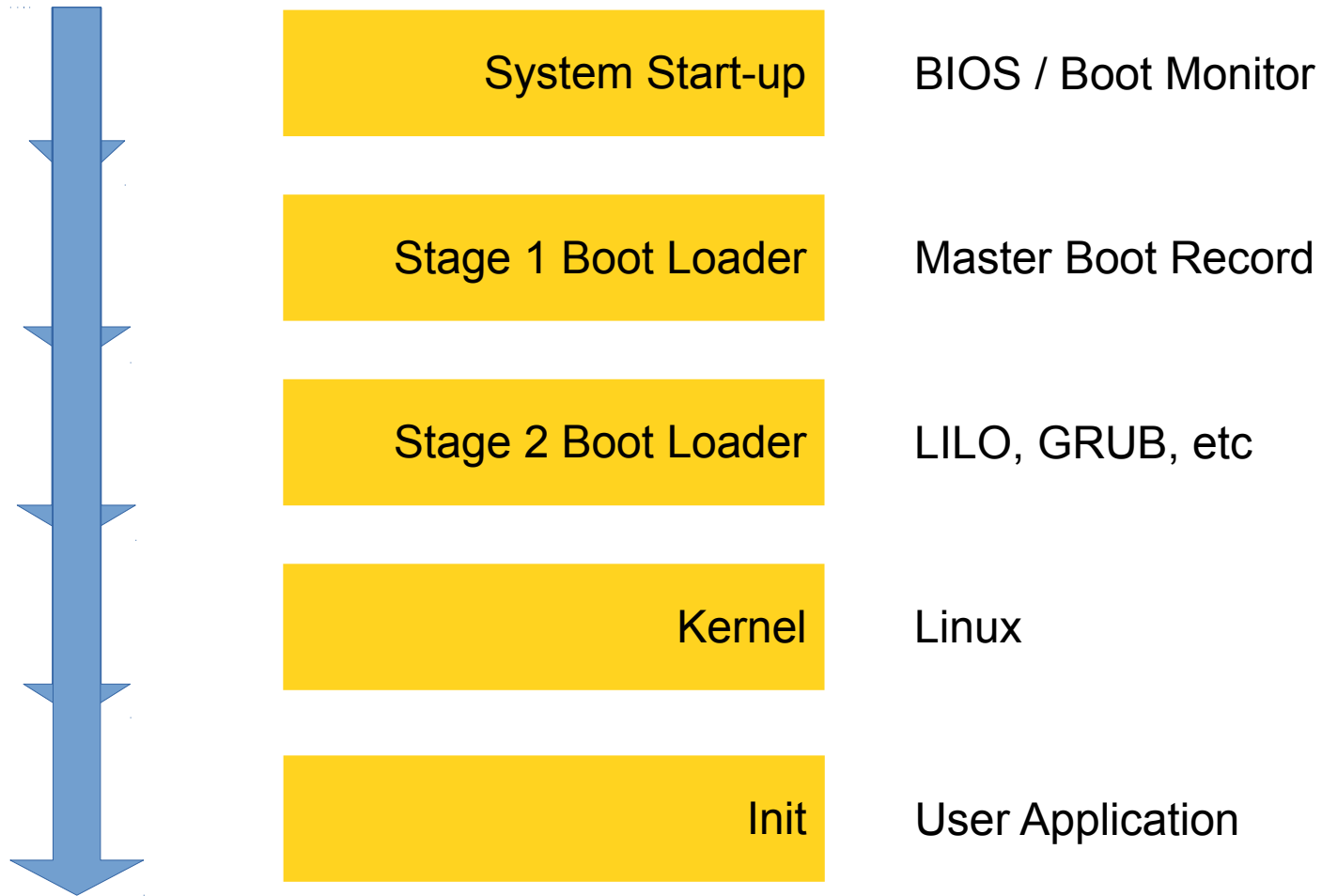


Why we need OS

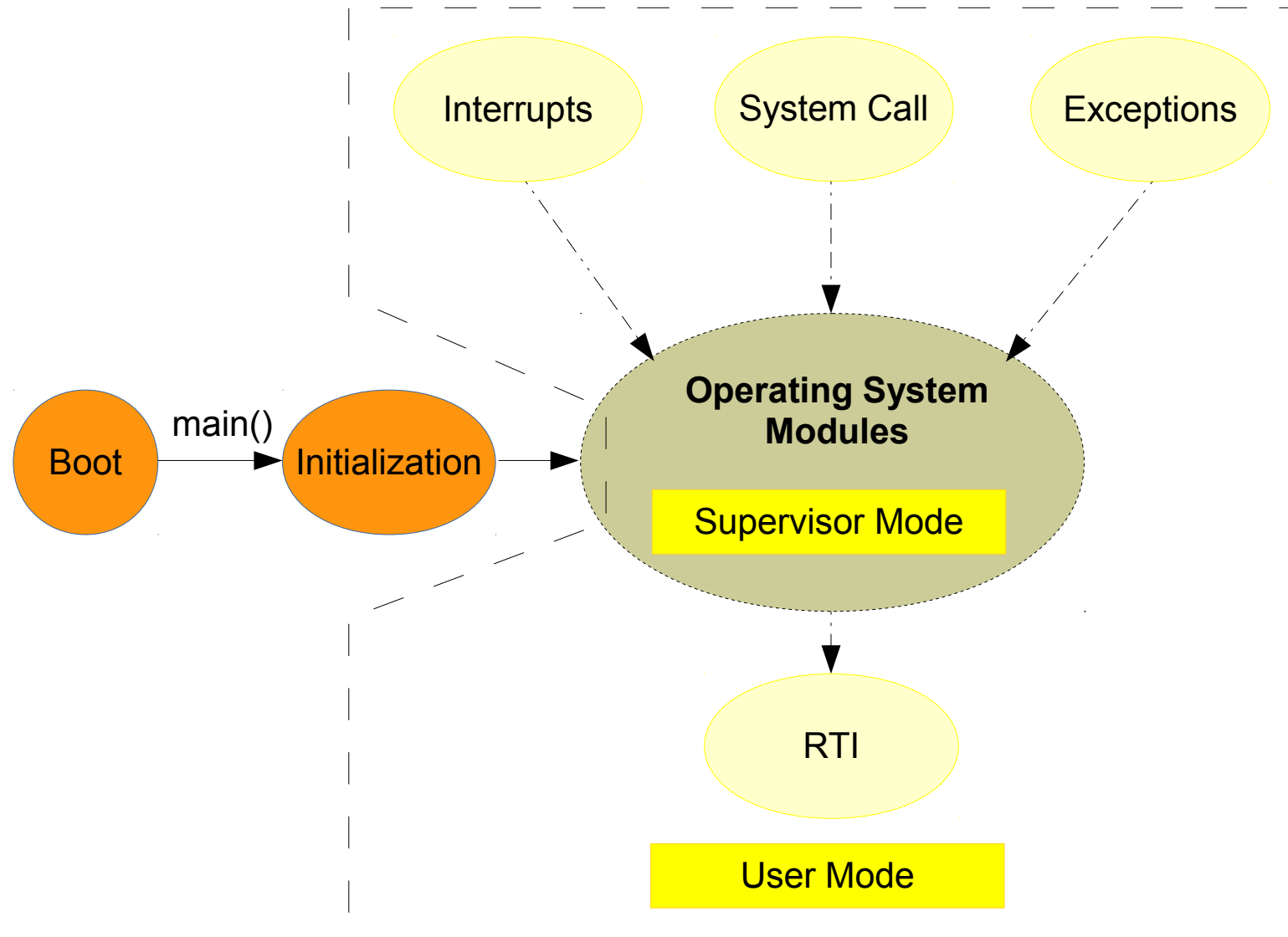
- Multitasking
- Multi user
- Scheduling
- Memory management
etc ...



Linux Booting Sequence



Control flow in OS



History



1940 - 1955

ENIAC, Mechanical switches, Mainframe computers

1955 - 1970

Concept OS, FORTRAN, IBM OS/360, Multiprogramming, Minicomputers.

1970 - 1980

UNIX, Microprocessors(intel), Personal computers age

1980 - 1990

First computer IBM 5150, DOS, Apple & Windows with GUI

1990 - NOW

Linux, ios, Android.....

Vertical

Horizontal

Vertical vs Horizontal



- Vertical
 - Hardware & Software made by same company
 - OS was integrated part of the Hardware
 - Applications were proprietary
- Horizontal
 - Hardware & Software made by different company
 - OS is an independent software, that can run on diversified set of hardware
 - Applications are developed by everybody (proprietary or open source)

Quiz

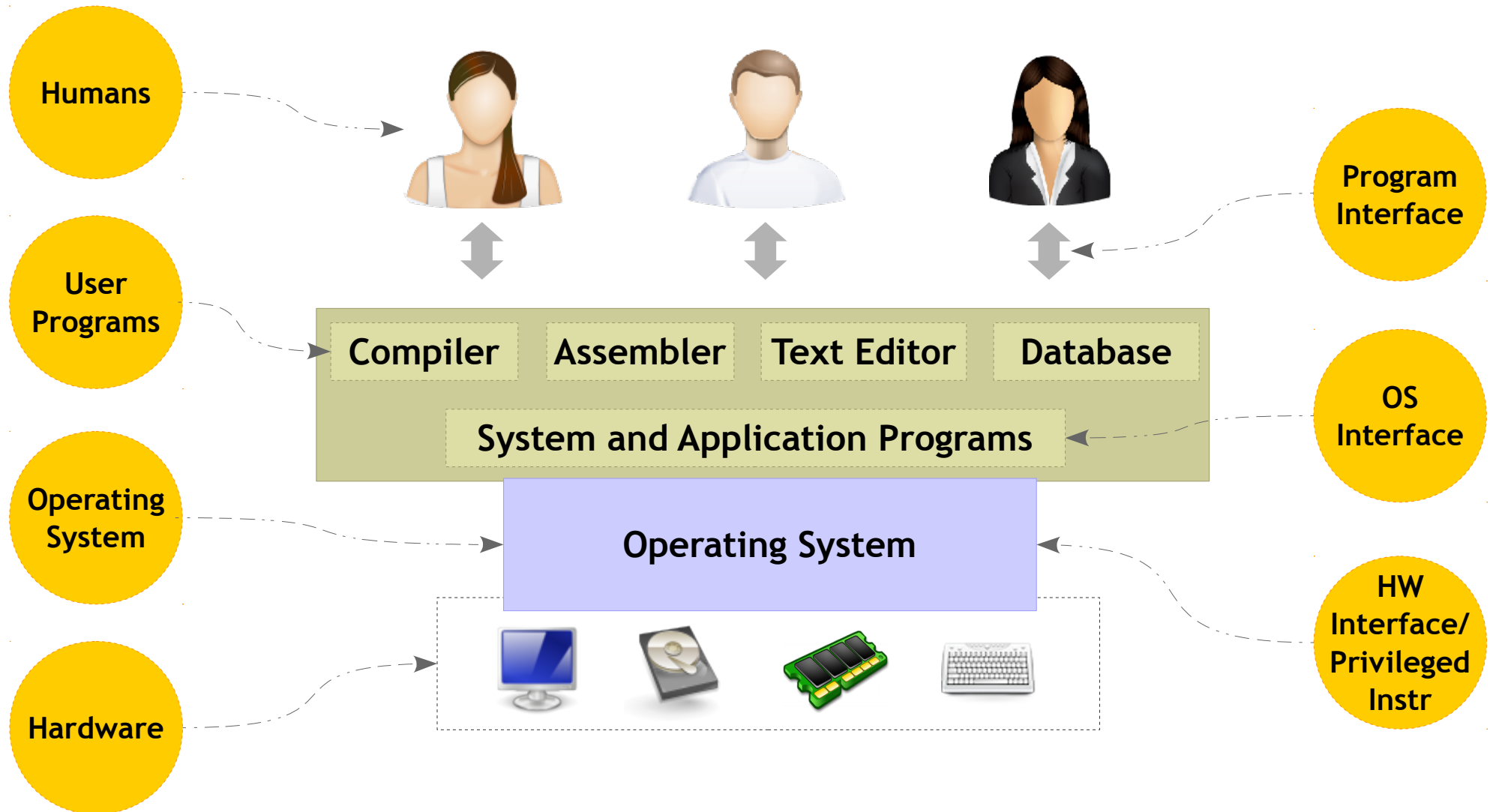


- How would the OS look like ?
 - a) H/W only
 - b) S/W only
 - c) S/W + H/W
- How big is OS ?



Introduction

Operating System



Introduction

Kernel Architecture



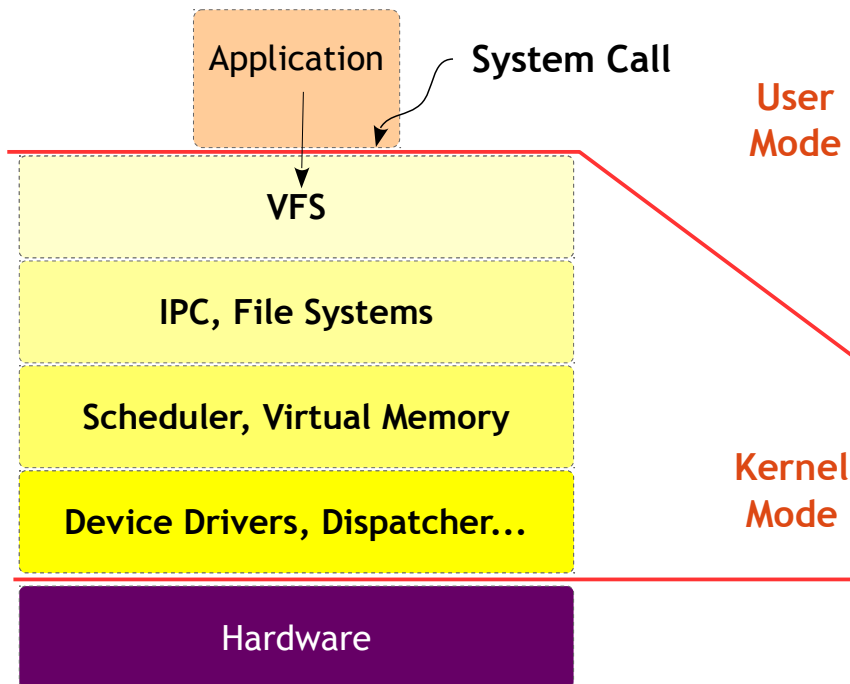
- Most older operating systems are monolithic, that is, the whole operating system is a single executable file that runs in 'kernel mode'
- This binary contains the process management, memory management, file system and the rest (Ex: UNIX)
- The alternative is a microkernel-based system, in which most of the OS runs as separate processes, mostly outside the kernel
- They communicate by message passing. The kernel's job is to handle the message passing, interrupt handling, low-level process management, and possibly the I/O (Ex: Mach)

Introduction

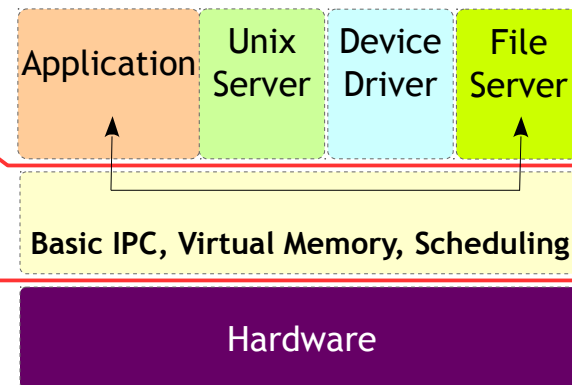
Kernel Architecture



Mionolithic Kernel
Based Operating System



Micro Kernel
Based Operating System



Introduction

Mono vs Micro



Monolithic kernel	Microolithic kernel
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Kernel size increases because kernel + kernel subsystems compiled as single binary• Difficult to extension or bug fixing,• Need to compile entire source code.• Bad maintainability• Faster, run as single binary• Communication between services is faster.• No crash recovery.• More secure• Eg: Windows, Linux etc	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Kernel size is small because kernel subsystems run as separate binaries.• Easily extensible and bug fixing.• Easily recover from crash• Slower due to complex message passing between services• Process management is complex• Communication is slow• Easily recoverable from crashing• Eg: MacOS, WinNT

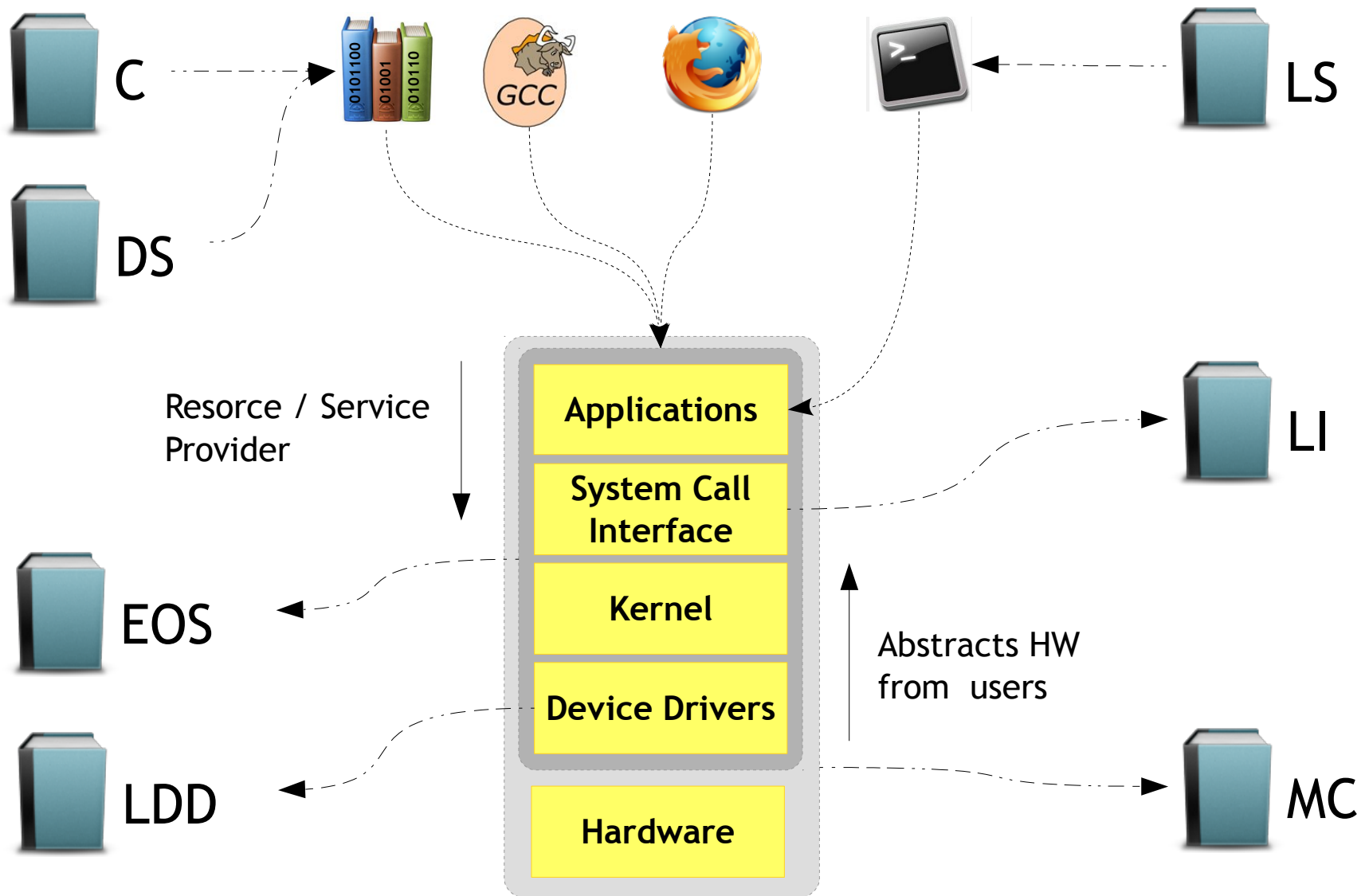
RTOS



- Real time means fast..?
- RTOS is an operating system that guarantees a certain capabilities within a specified time constraint.
- RTOS must also must able to respond predictably to unpredictable events
- We use RTOS in Aircraft, Nuclear reactor control systems where time is crucial.
- Eg: LynxOS, OSE, RTLinux, VxWorks, Windows CE

Transition to OS programming

Course & module view



Application vs OS



C	Algorithms, Syntax, Logic	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Preprocessor• Compiler• Assembler• Linker• Executable file (a.out)
OS	Memory segments, process, Threads Signals, IPC, Networking	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Executing a program• Loader

Application Programming

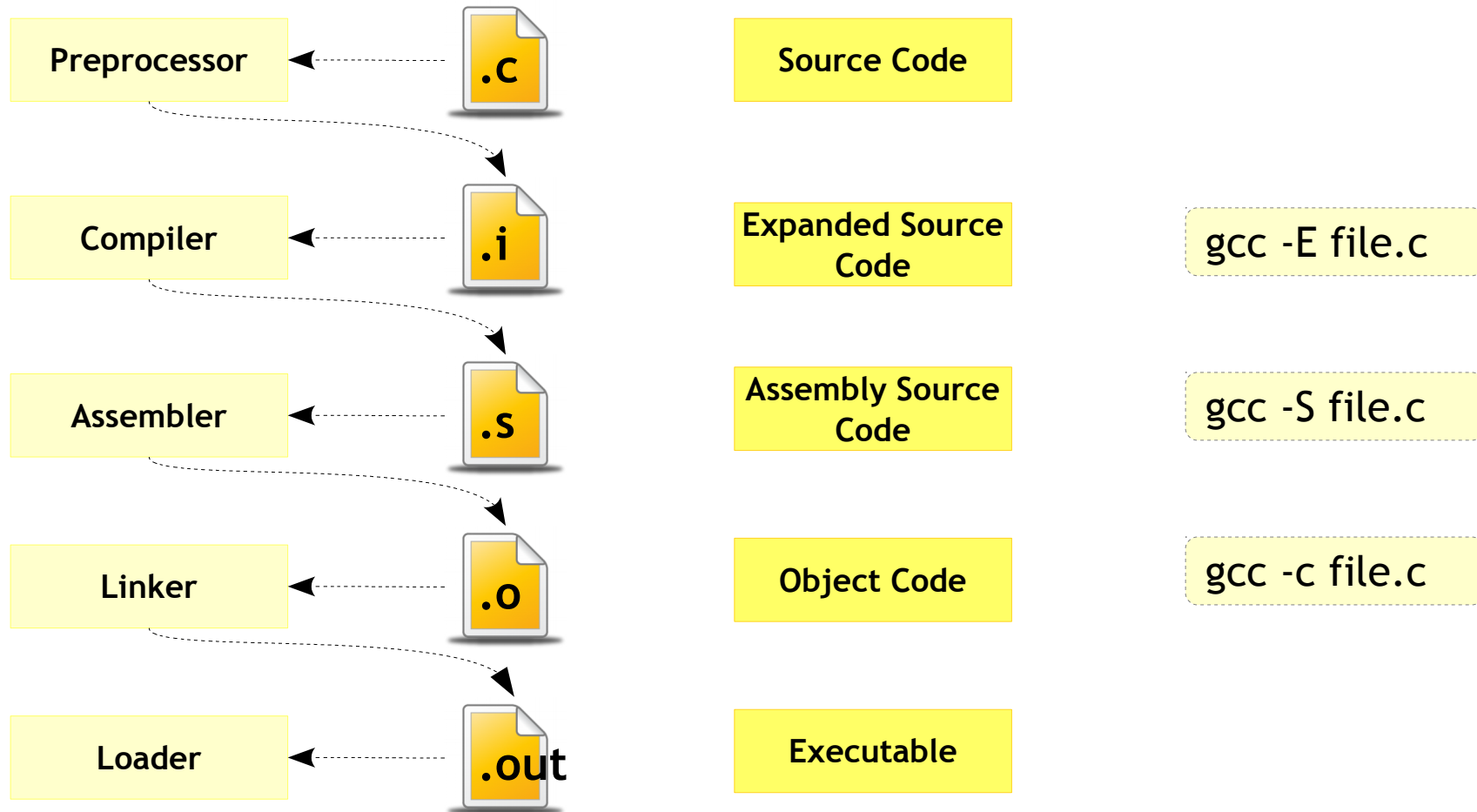
Compilation Stages



- **Preprocessor**
 - Expands header files
 - Substitute all macros
 - Remove all comments
 - Expands and all # directives
- **Compilation**
 - Convert to assembly level instructions
- **Assembly**
 - Convert to machine level instructions
 - Commonly called as object files
 - Create logical address
- **Linking**
 - Linking with libraries and other object files

Application Programming

Compilation Stages



`gcc -save-temps file.c` would generate all intermediate files

Application Programming

Linking - Static



- Static linking is the process of copying all library modules used in the program into the final executable image.
- This is performed by the linker and it is done as the last step of the compilation process.
- Its both faster and more portable, since it does not require the presence of the library on the system where it is run.
- Compiling two .o files also a type of static linking.

Application Programming

Linking - Static



- Create two files `file1.c` & `file2.c` with appropriate functions in them
- Compile them to create object files ("gcc -c fun1.c fun2.c"). It will create `fun1.o` and `fun2.o` files as output
- Create a static library by using ("ar rcs fun1.o fun2.o -o libstatic.a), with this you have completed creating your static library
- Create your main.c file by calling these two functions
- Perform a static linking (gcc main.c libstatic.a)
- This will generate your a.out, execute the program and observe the output

Note: ar - Archive command

r cs option - r(replace), c(create), s(write an object file into archive)

Application Programming

Linking - Dynamic



- It performs the linking process when programs are executed in the system.
- During dynamic linking the name of the shared library is placed in the final executable file.
- Actual linking takes place at run time when both executable file and library are placed in the memory.
- The main advantage to using dynamically linked libraries is that the size of executable programs is reduced
- To create a dynamic library (shared object file)

Application Programming

Linking - Dynamic



- Create two files file1.c & file2.c with appropriate functions in them
- Create a dynamic library (shared object) ("gcc -fPIC -shared fun1.c fun2.c -o libdynamic.so")
- Set the environmental variable LD_LIBRARY_PATH to the directory where this new *.so is located (ex:
`LD_LIBRARY_PATH="/home/LinuxInternals/DynamicLinking"`)
- Perform echo \$LD_LIBRARY_PATH and ensure this variable is set properly
- Execute export LD_LIBRARY_PATH to ensure this gets into the shell's environmental variables ecosystem
- Create your main.c file by calling these two functions
- Perform a dynamic linking ("gcc main.c -L . -ldynamic")
- This will generate your a.out, execute the program and observe the output

Note: fPIC option - Generating Position Independent Code (as it is dynamically linked)

Application Programming

Linking - Static vs Dynamic



Static

Dynamic

Executable Size



Loading Time



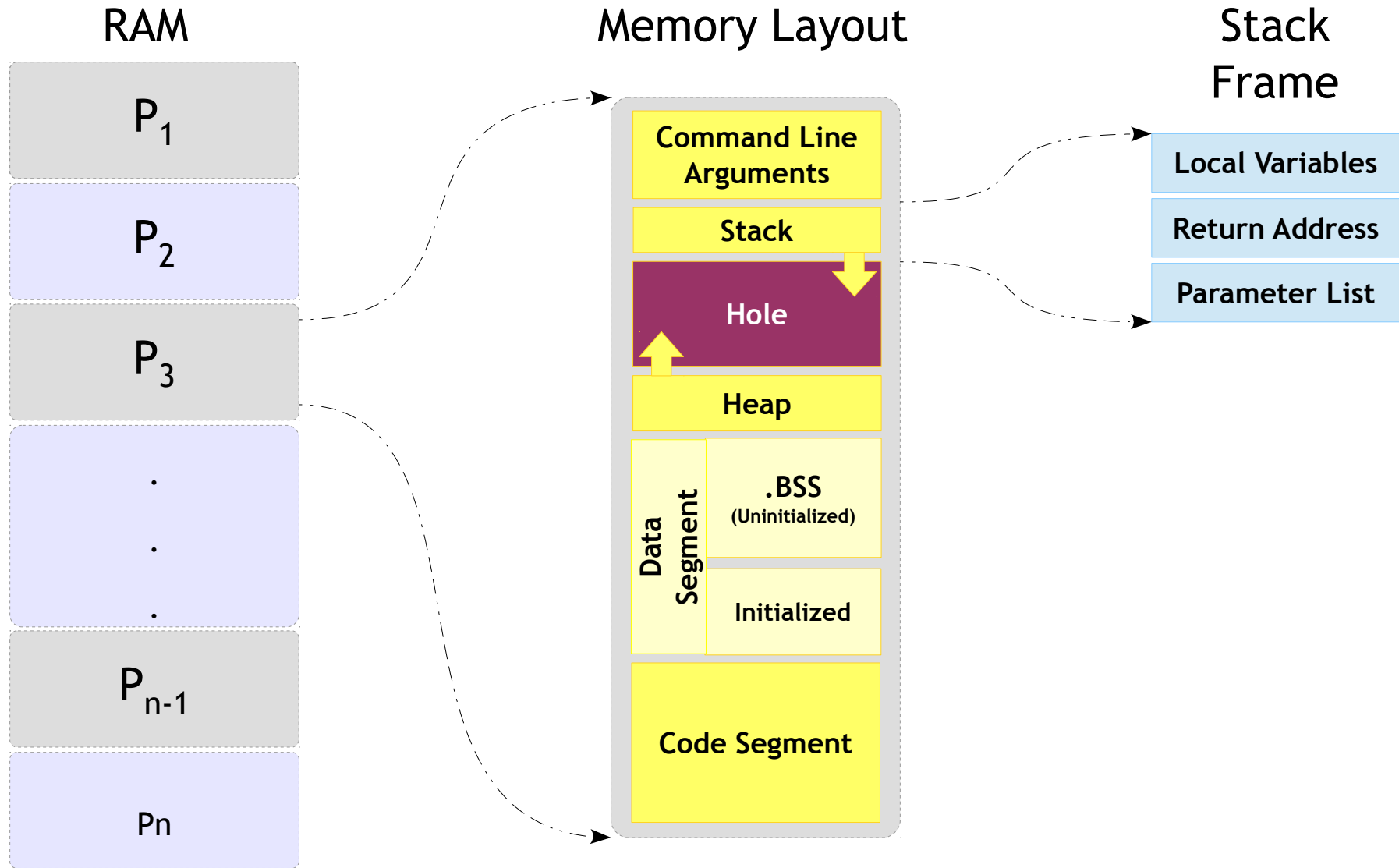
Memory Usage



No of Sys Calls



Executing a process



Quiz

- How a user defined function works?
- How a library function works?

Storage Classes



Storage Class	Scope	Lifetime	Memory Allocation
auto	Within the block / Function	Till the end of the block / function	Stack
register	Within the block / Function	Till the end of the block / function	Register
static local	Within the block / Function	Till the end of the program	Data Segment
static global	File	Till the end of the program	Data segment
extern	Program	Till the end of the program	Data segment

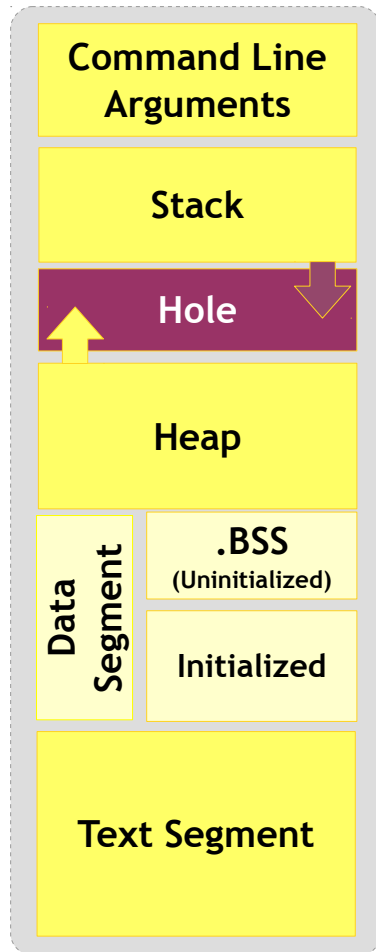
Hands-on



- Access a static variable from outside file.
- Access a global variable from outside file.
- Combination of both static and local.

Common errors

with various memory segments



Stack Overflow / Stack Smashing

- When ever process stack limit is over
Eg: Call a recursive function infinite times.
- When you trying to access array beyond limits.
Eg `int arr[5]; arr[100];`

Memory Leak

- When you never free memory after allocating.
Eventually process heap memory will run-out

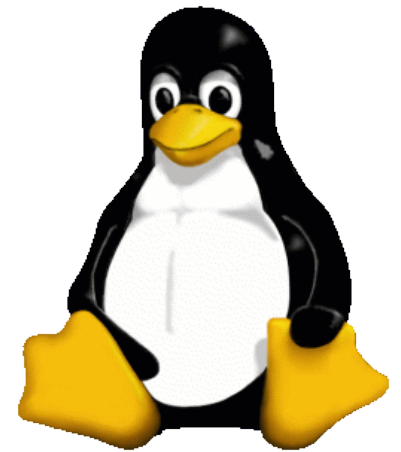
Segmentation Fault

When you try to change text segment, which is a read-only memory or try trying to access a memory beyond process memory limit (like NULL pointer)

Introduction

What is Linux?

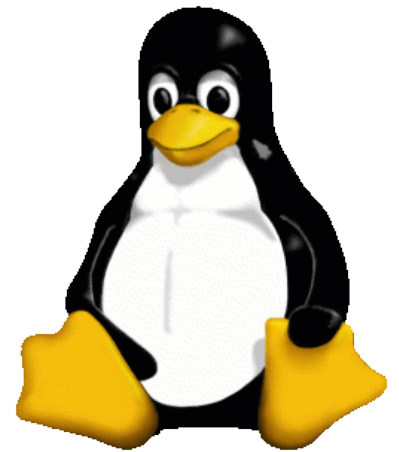
- Linux is a free and open source operating system that is causing a revolution in the computer world
- Originally created by Linus Torvalds with the assistance of developers called community
- This operating system in only a few short years is beginning to dominate markets worldwide



Introduction

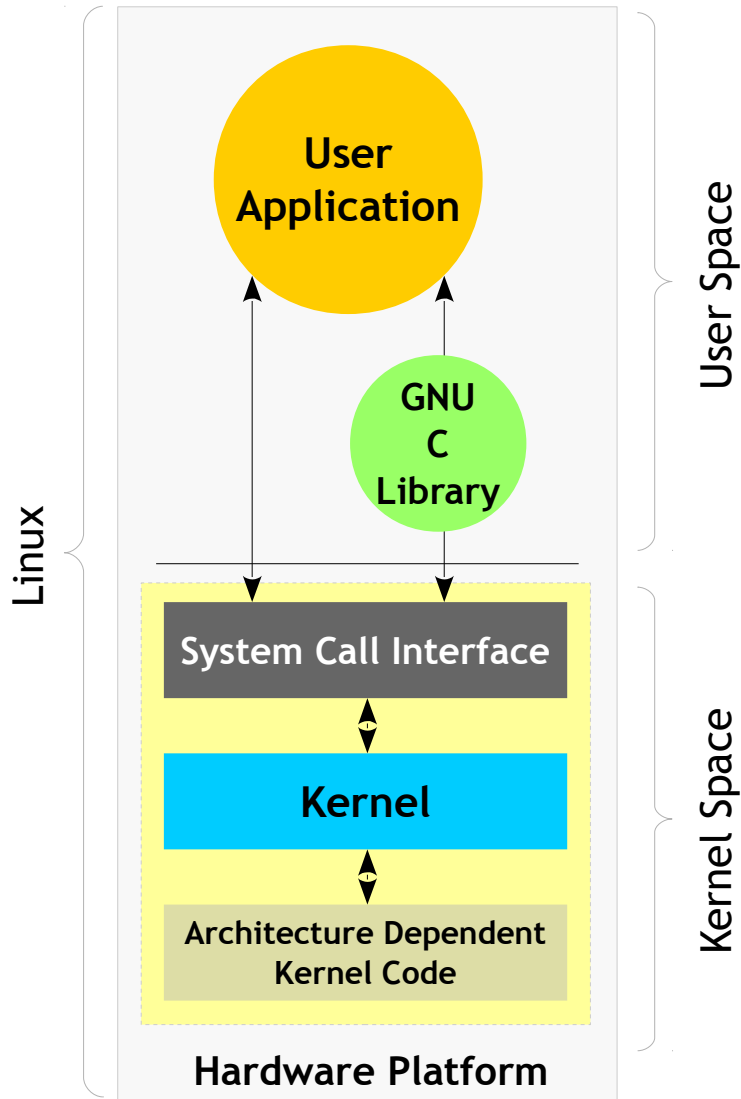
Why use Linux?

- Free & Open Source -GPL license, no cost
- Reliability -Build systems with 99.999% upstream
- Secure -Monolithic kernel offering high security
- Scalability -From mobile phone to stock market servers



Introduction

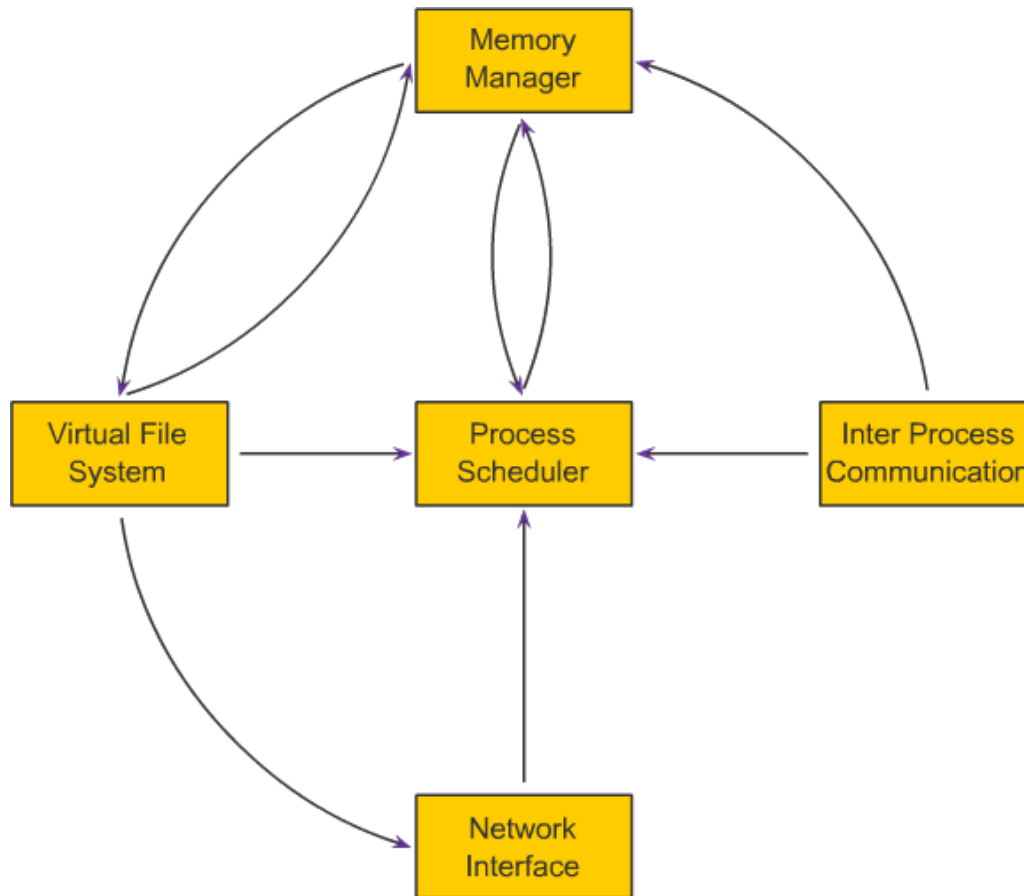
Linux Components



- **Hardware Controllers:** This subsystem is comprised of all the possible physical devices in a Linux installation - CPU, memory hardware, hard disks
- **Linux Kernel:** The kernel abstracts and mediates access to the hardware resources, including the CPU. A kernel is the core of the operating system
- **O/S Services:** These are services that are typically considered part of the operating system (e.g. windowing system, command shell)
- **User Applications:** The set of applications in use on a particular Linux system (e.g. web browser)

Introduction

Linux Kernel Subsystem



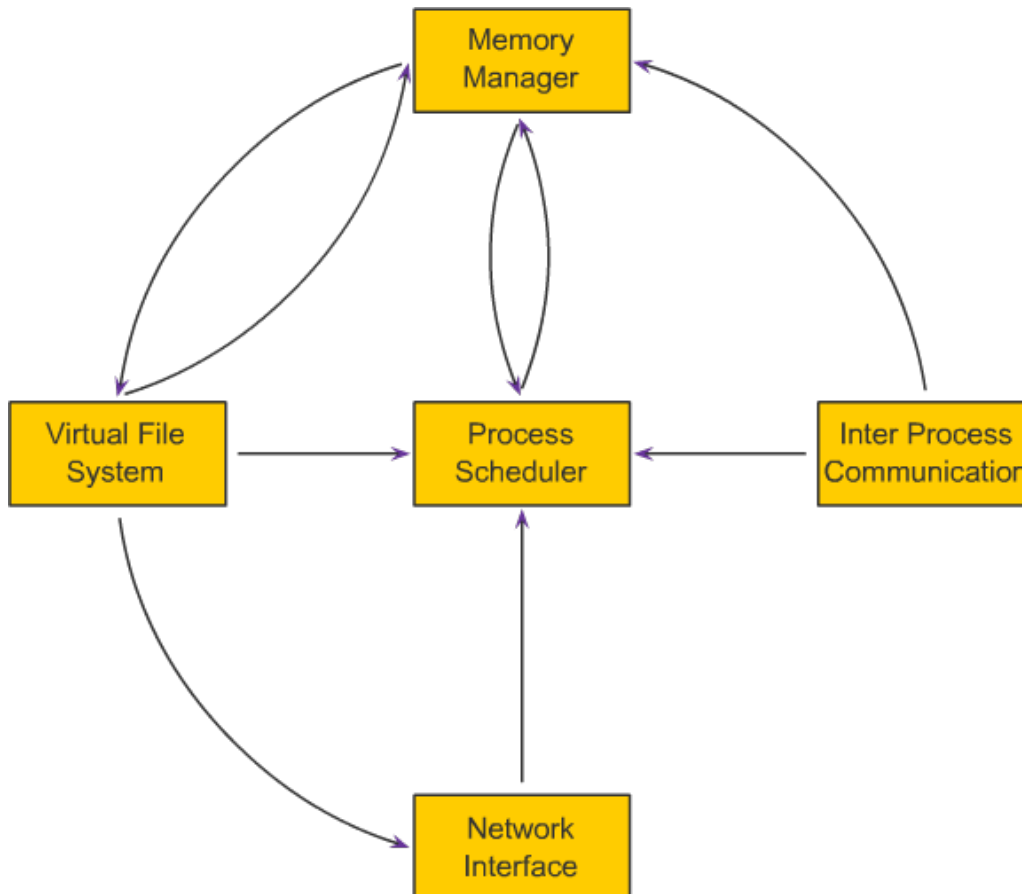
- **Process Scheduler (SCHED):**
 - To provide control, fair access of CPU to process, while interacting with HW on time
- **Memory Manager (MM):**
 - To access system memory securely and efficiently by multiple processes. Supports Virtual Memory in case of huge memory requirement
- **Virtual File System (VFS):**
 - Abstracts the details of the variety of hardware devices by presenting a common file interface to all devices

Introduction

Linux Kernel Subsystem

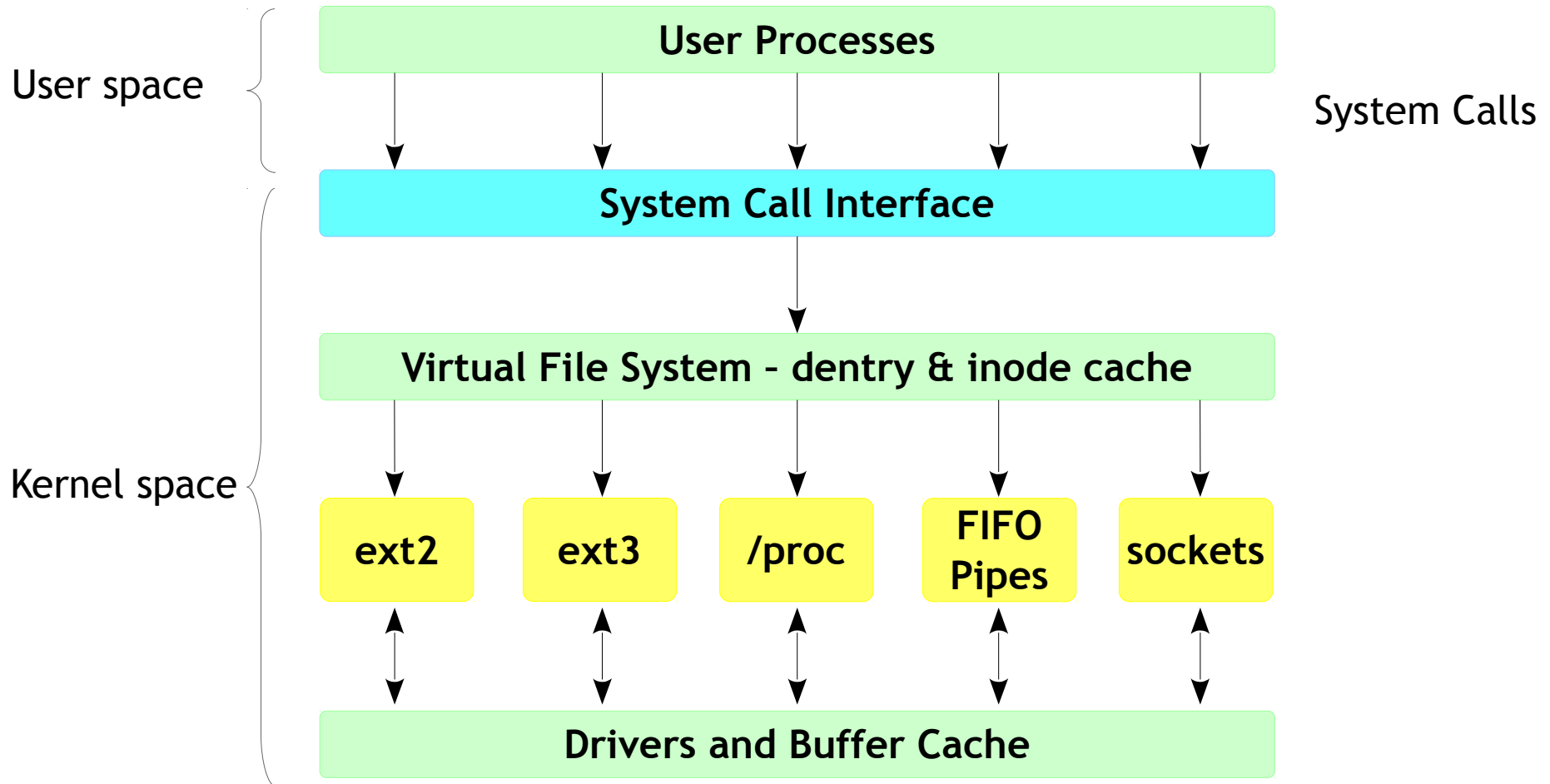


- Network Interface (NET):
 - provides access to several networking standards and a variety of network hardware
- Inter Process Communications (IPC):
 - supports several mechanisms for process-to-process communication on a single Linux system



Introduction

Virtual File System



Introduction

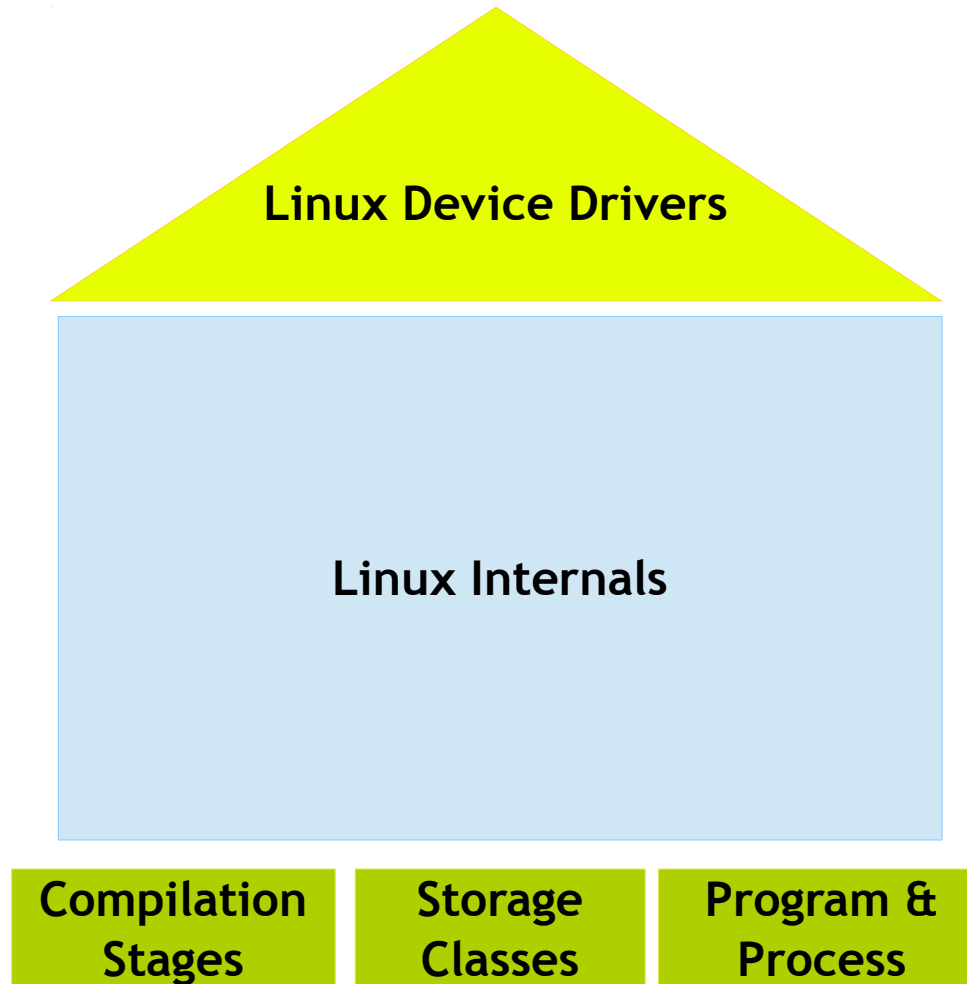
Virtual File System



- Presents the user with a unified interface, via the file-related system calls.
- The VFS interacts with file-systems which interact with the buffer cache, page-cache and block devices.
- Finally, the VFS supplies data structures such as the dcache, inodes cache and open files tables.
 - Allocate a free file descriptor.
 - Try to open the file.
 - On success, put the new 'struct file' in the fd table of the process. On error, free the allocated file descriptor.

NOTE: VFS makes “Everything is file” in Linux

Summary



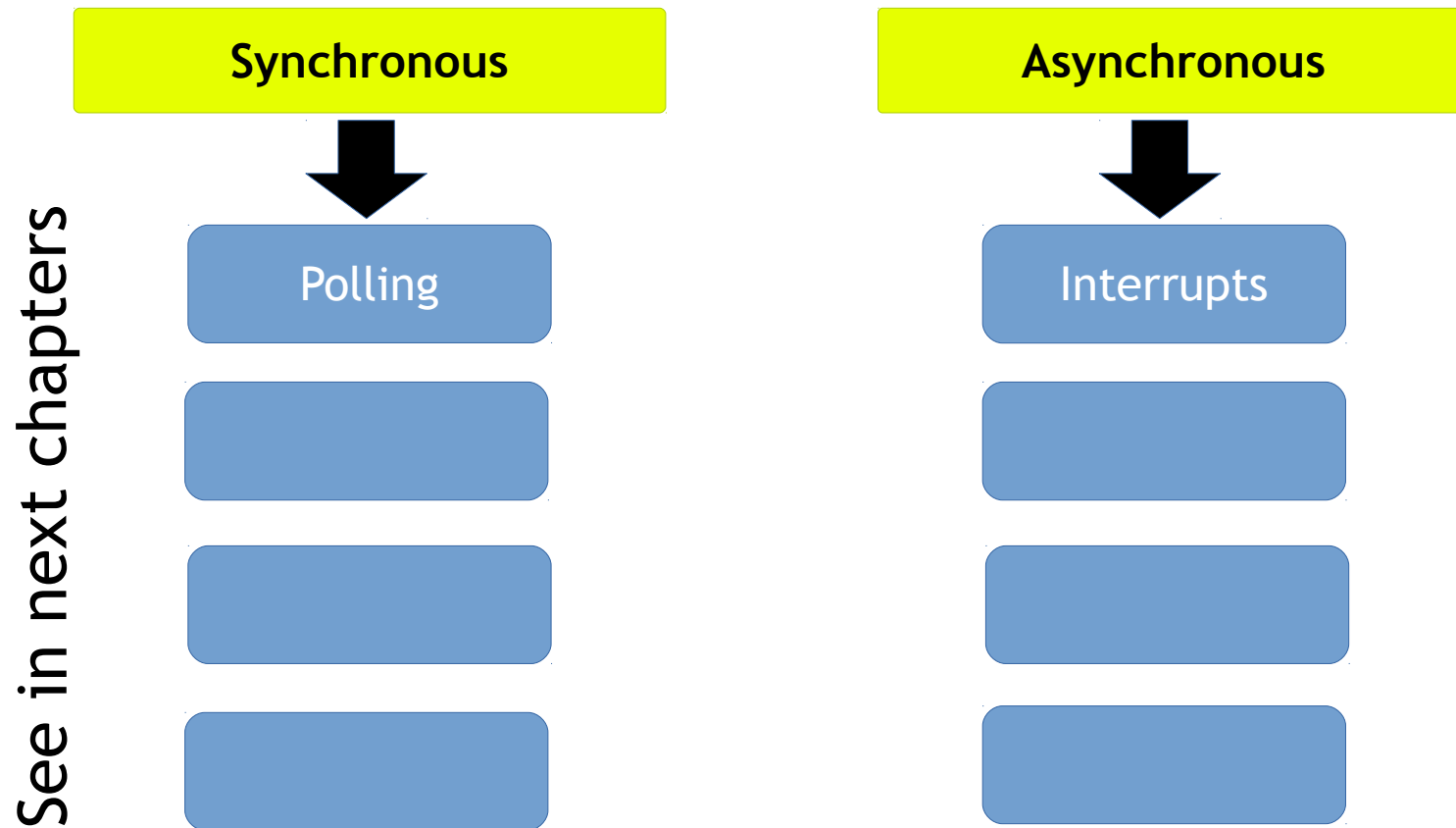
System Calls



Synchronous & Asynchronous



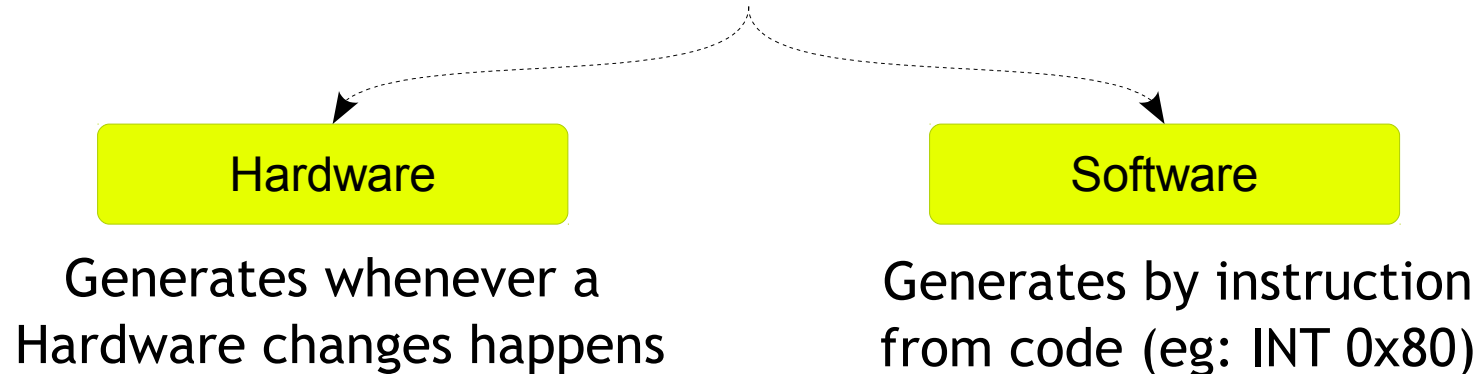
- Communications are two types



Interrupts



Interrupts



- Interrupt controller signals CPU that interrupt has occurred, passes interrupt number
- Basic program state saved
- Uses interrupt number to determine which handler to start
- CPU jumps to interrupt handler
- When interrupt done, program state reloaded and program resumes

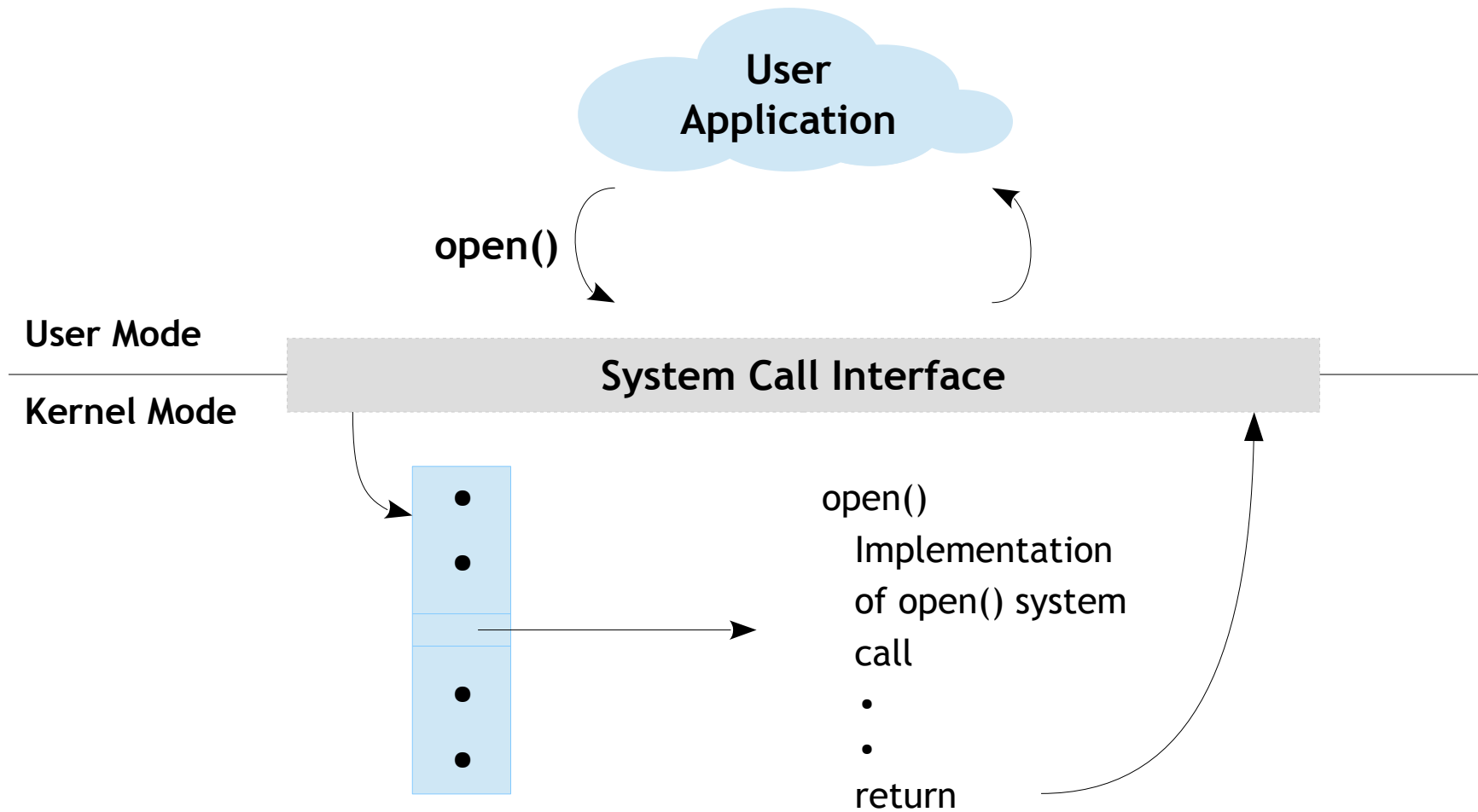
System calls



- A set of interfaces to interact with hardware devices such as the CPU, disks, and printers.
- Advantages:
 - Freeing users from studying low-level programming
 - It greatly increases system security
 - These interfaces make programs more portable

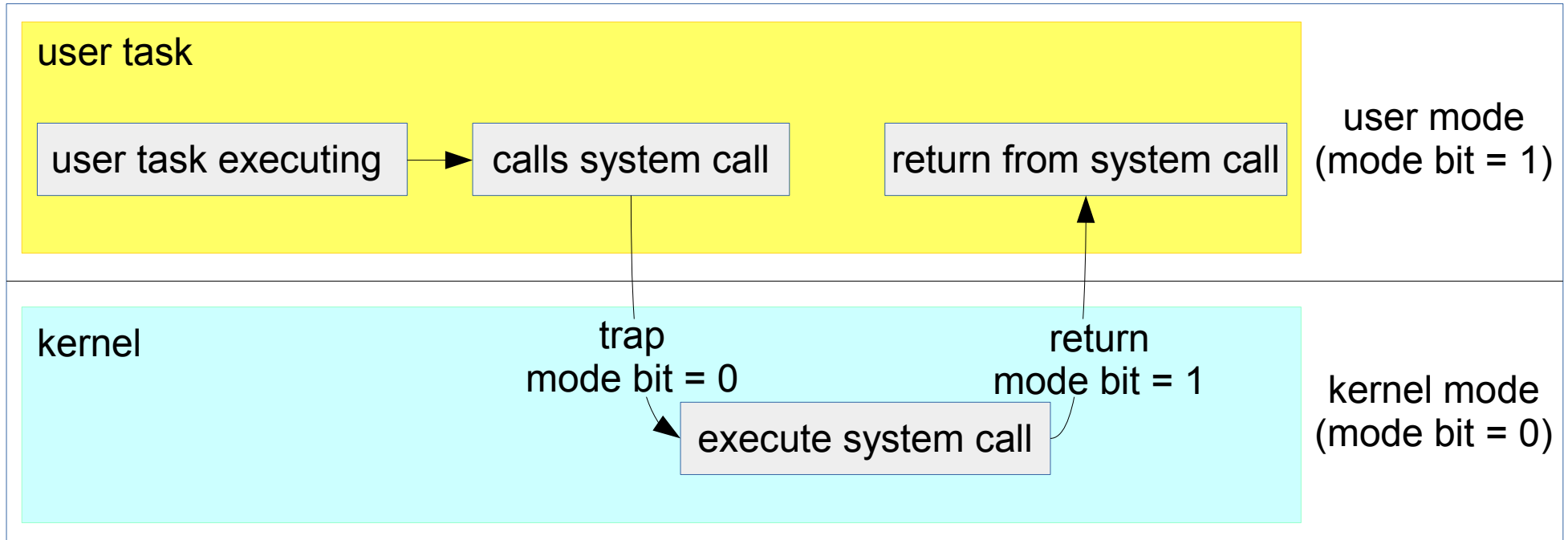
For a OS programmer, calling a system call is no different from a normal function call. But the way system call is executed is way different.

System calls



System Call

Calling Sequence



Logically the system call and regular interrupt follow the same flow of steps. The source (I/O device v/s user program) is very different for both of them. Since system call is generated by user program they are called as 'Soft interrupts' or 'Traps'

System Call

vs Library Function

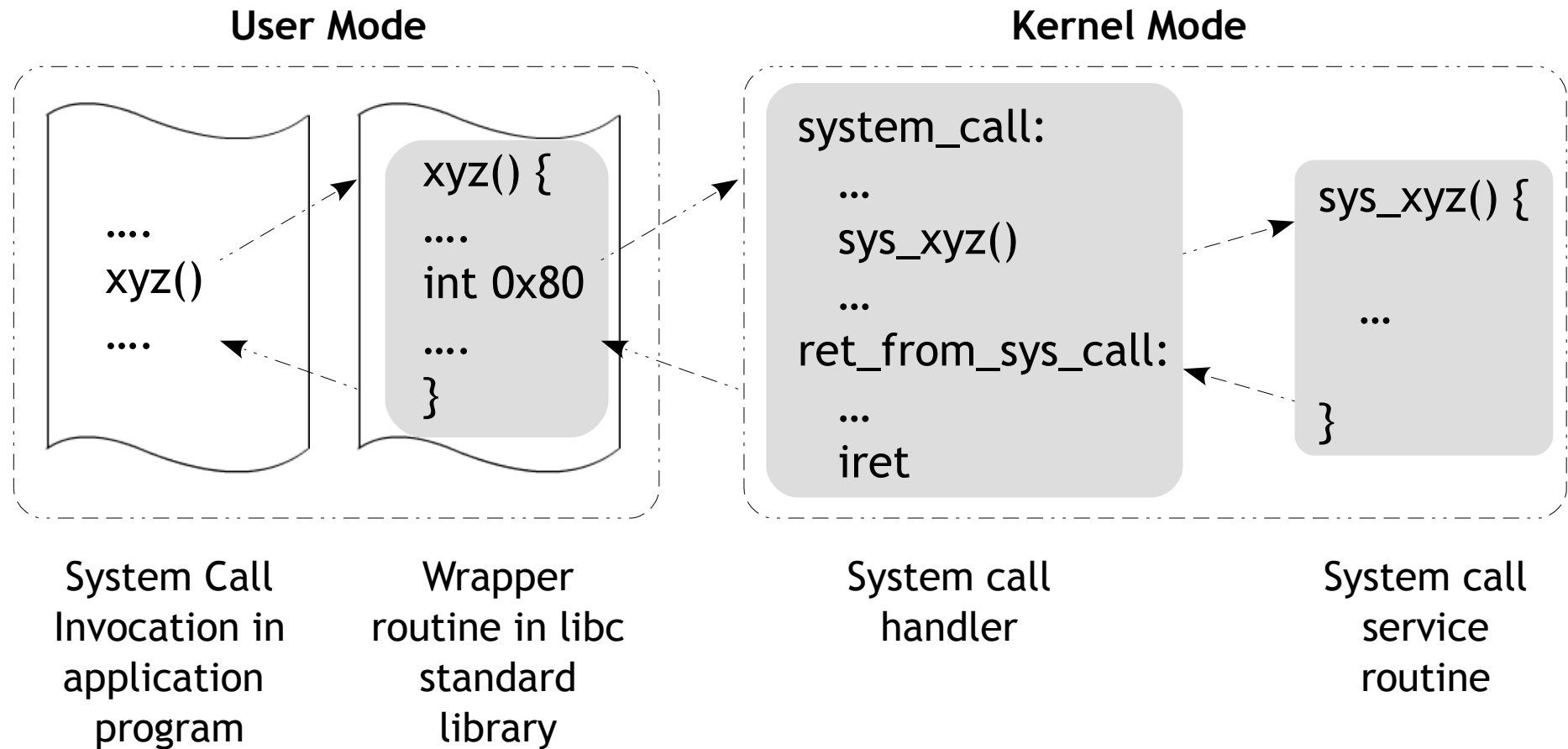


- A library function is an ordinary function that resides in a library external to your program. A call to a library function is just like any other function call
- A system call is implemented in the Linux kernel and a special procedure is required in to transfer the control to the kernel
- Usually, each system call has a corresponding wrapper routine, which defines the API that application programs should employ

- ✓ Understand the differences between:
 - Functions
 - Library functions
 - System calls
- ✓ From the programming perspective they all are nothing but simple C functions

System Call

Implementation



System Call

Example: `gettimeofday()`



- Gets the system's wall-clock time.
- It takes a pointer to a struct `timeval` variable. This structure represents a time, in seconds, split into two fields.
 - `tv_sec` field - integral number of seconds
 - `tv_usec` field - additional number of usecs

System Call

Example: `nanosleep()`



- A high-precision version of the standard UNIX sleep call
- Instead of sleeping an integral number of seconds, ***nanosleep*** takes as its argument a pointer to a ***struct timespec*** object, which can express time to nanosecond precision.
 - `tv_sec` field - integral number of seconds
 - `tv_nsec` field - additional number of nsecs

System Call

Example: Others

- open
- read
- write
- exit
- close
- wait
- waitpid
- getpid
- sync
- nice
- kill etc..



Process



Process



- Running instance of a program is called a **PROCESS**
- If you have two terminal windows showing on your screen, then you are probably running the same terminal program twice-you have two terminal processes
- Each terminal window is probably running a shell; each running shell is another process
- When you invoke a command from a shell, the corresponding program is executed in a new process
- The shell process resumes when that process complete

Process vs Program



- A program is a passive entity, such as file containing a list of instructions stored on a disk
- Process is a active entity, with a program counter specifying the next instruction to execute and a set of associated resources.
- A program becomes a process when an executable file is loaded into main memory

Factor	Process	Program
Storage	Dynamic Memory	Secondary Memory
State	Active	Passive

Process vs Program

Program

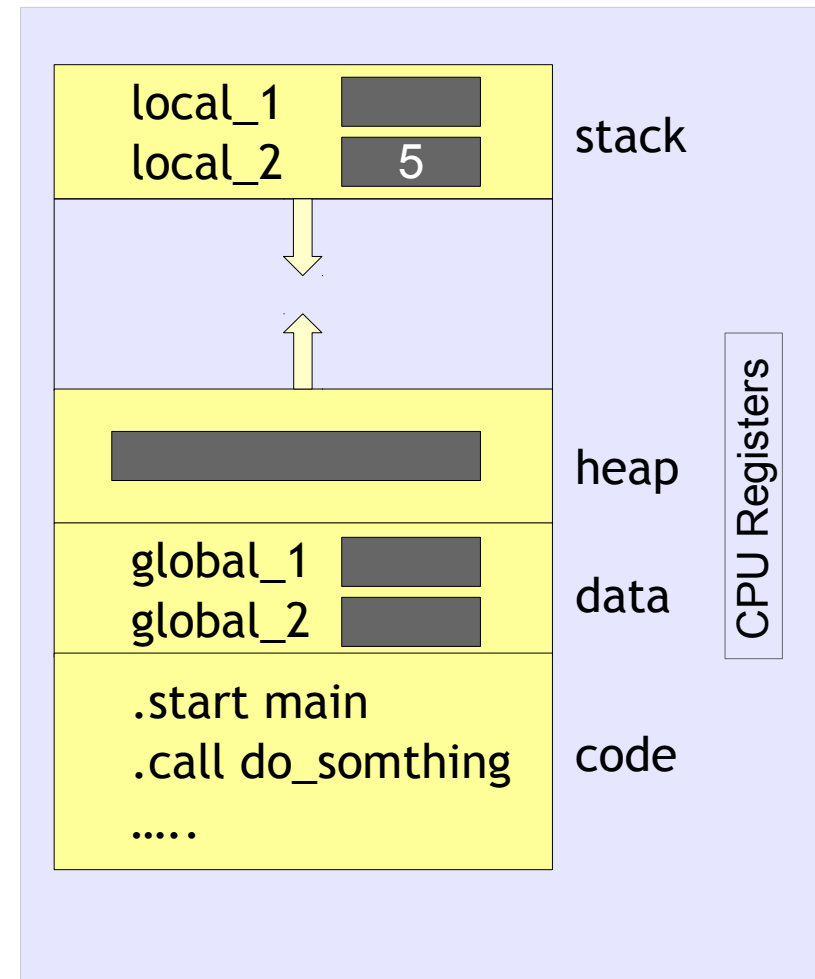
```
int global_1 = 0;
int global_2 = 0;

void do_somthing()
{
    int local_2 = 5;
    local_2 = local_2 + 1;
}

int main()
{
    char *local_1 = malloc(100);

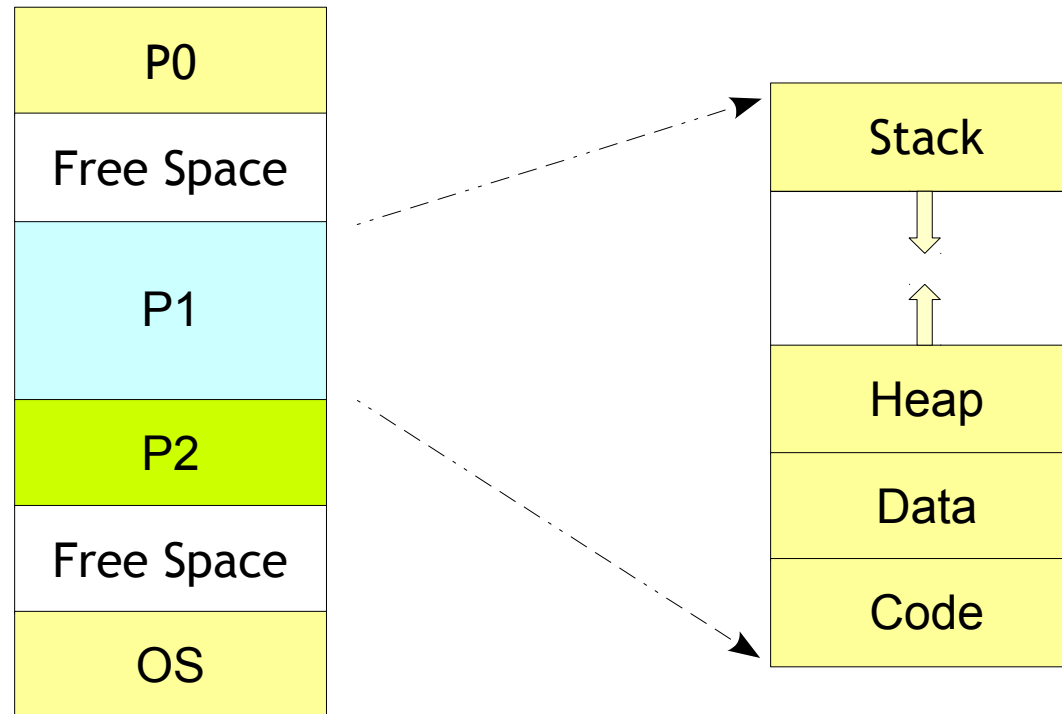
    do_somthing();
    ....
}
```

Task



Process

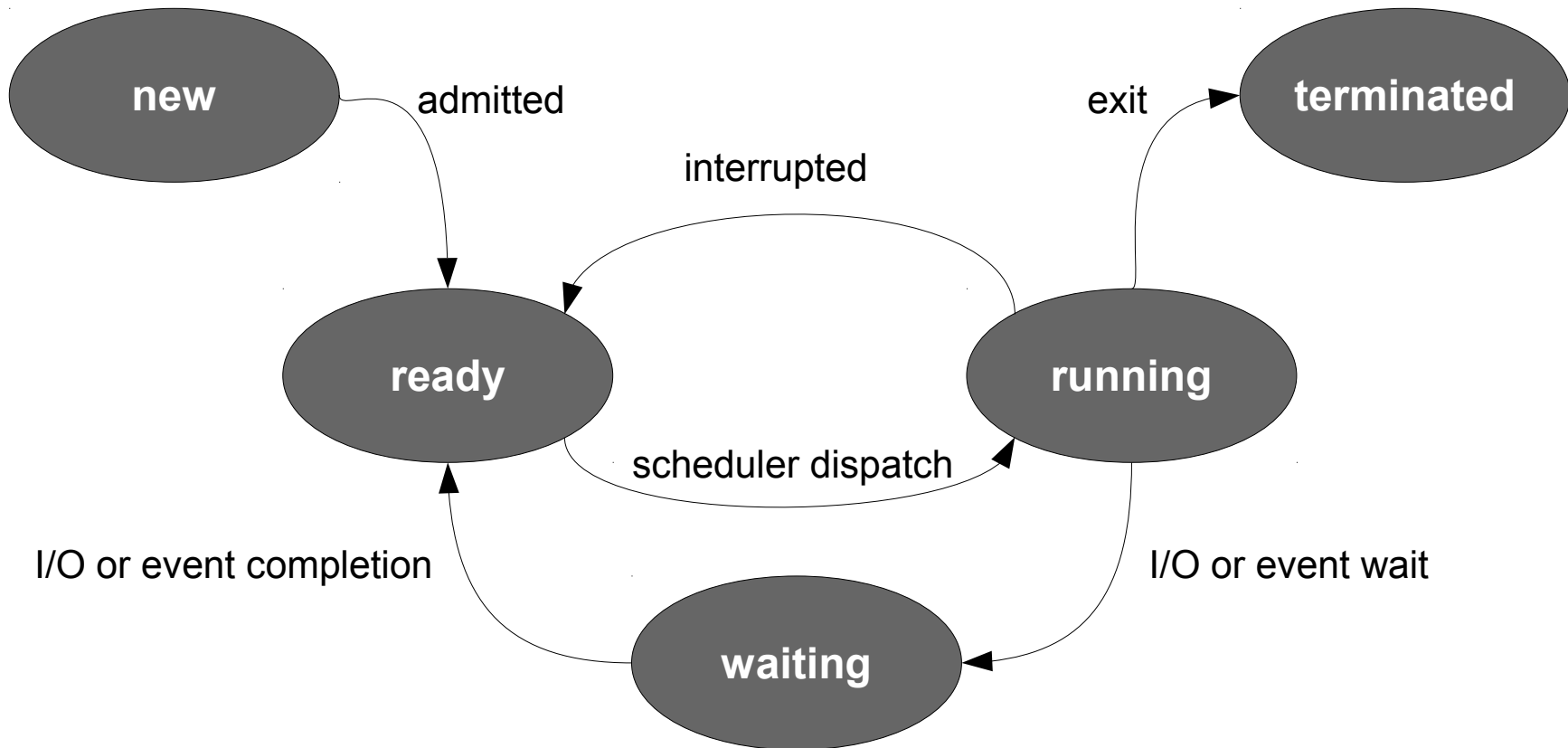
More processes in memory!



Each Process will have its own Code, Data, Heap and Stack

Process

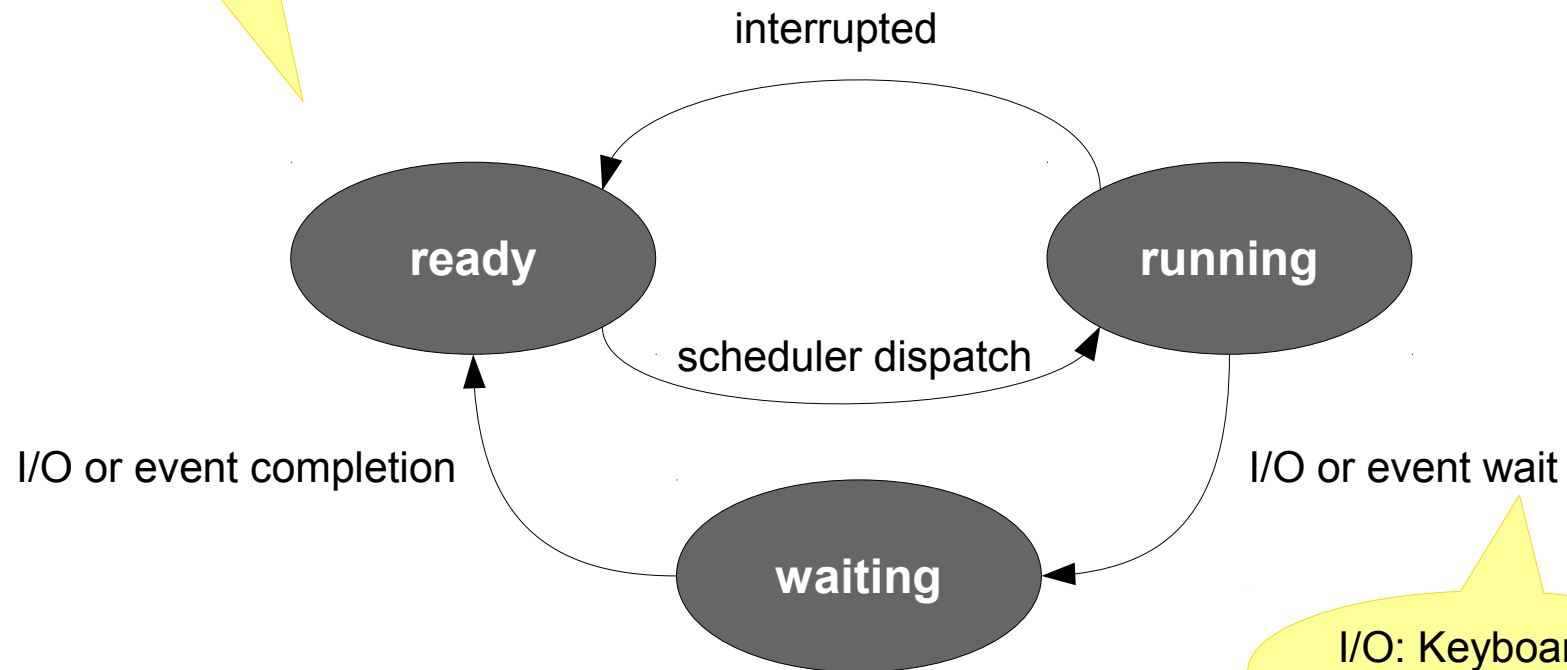
State Transition Diagram



Process State Transition Diagram



Priority
Round Robin
FCFS
Preemptive



I/O: Keyboard
Even: Signal

Process States



- A process goes through multiple states ever since it is created by the OS

State	Description
New	The process is being created
Running	Instructions are being executed
Waiting	The process is waiting for some event to occur
Ready	The process is waiting to be assigned to processor
Terminated	The process has finished execution



- To manage tasks:
 - OS kernel must have a clear picture of what each task is doing.
 - Task's priority
 - Whether it is running on the CPU or blocked on some event
 - What address space has been assigned to it
 - Which files it is allowed to address, and so on.
- Usually the OS maintains a structure whose fields contain all the information related to a single task

Process

Descriptor



Pointer	Process State
Process ID	
Program Counter	
Registers	
Memory Limits	
List of Open Files	
•	
•	
•	
•	
•	
•	

- Information associated with each process.
- Process state
- Program counter
- CPU registers
- CPU scheduling information
- Memory-management information
- I/O status information

Process

Descriptor - State Field



- State field of the process descriptor describes the state of process.
- The possible states are:

State	Description
TASK_RUNNING	Task running or runnable
TASK_INTERRUPTIBLE	process can be interrupted while sleeping
TASK_UNINTERRUPTIBLE	process can't be interrupted while sleeping
TASK_STOPPED	process execution stopped
TASK_ZOMBIE	parent is not issuing wait()

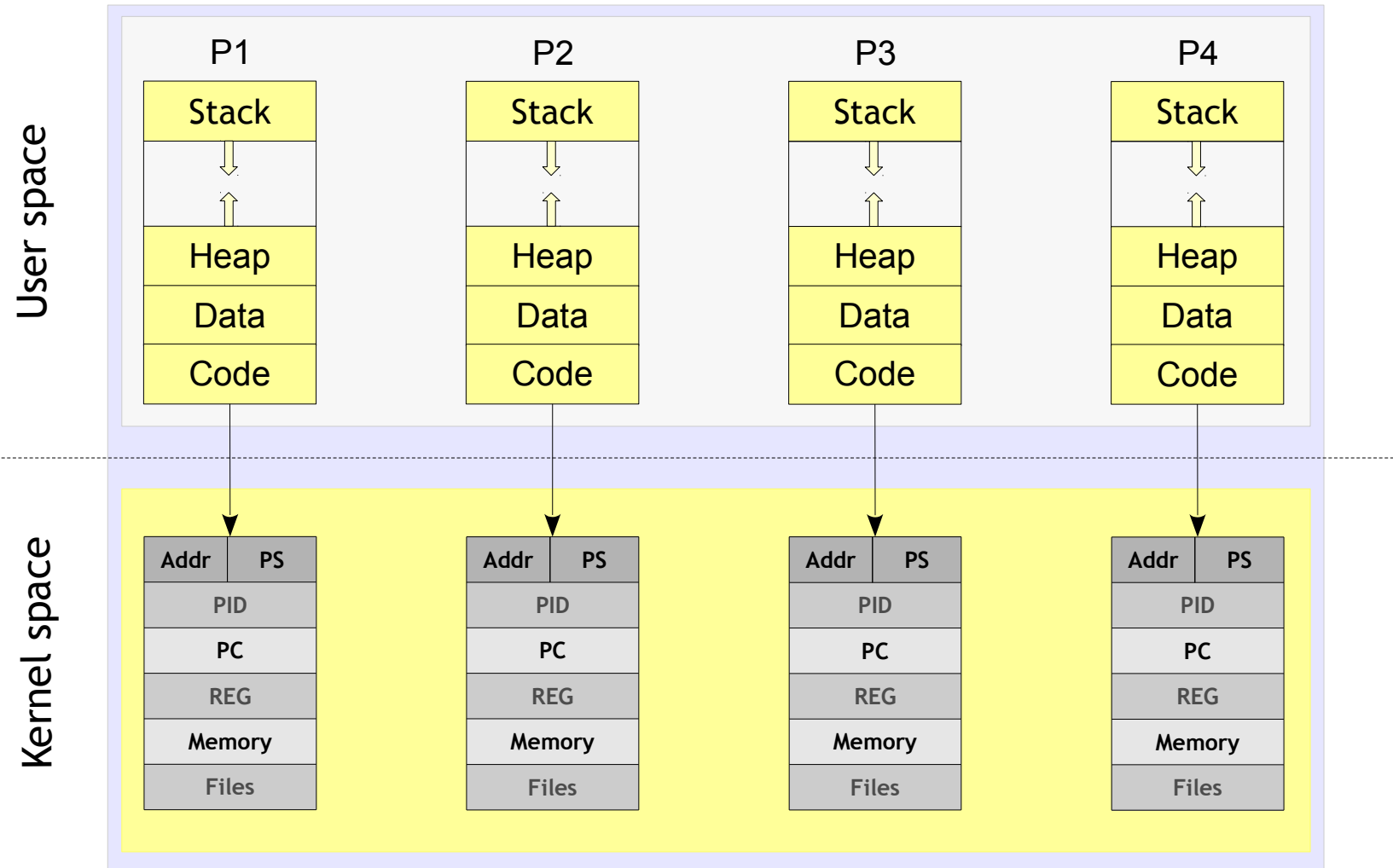
Process

Descriptor - ID



- Each process in a Linux system is identified by its unique process ID, sometimes referred to as PID
- Process IDs are numbers that are assigned sequentially by Linux as new processes are created
- Every process also has a parent process except the special init process
- Processes in a Linux system can be thought of as arranged in a tree, with the init process at its root
- The parent process ID or PPID, is simply the process ID of the process's parent

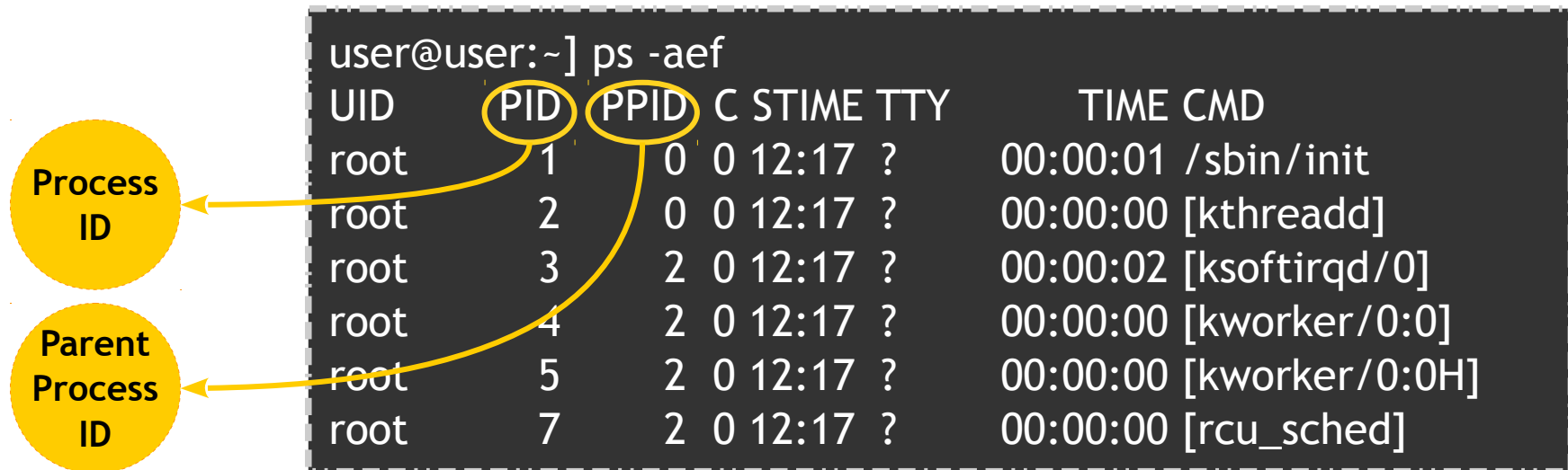
Process Schedule



Process

Active Processes

- The `ps` command displays the processes that are running on your system
- By default, invoking `ps` displays the processes controlled by the terminal or terminal window in which `ps` is invoked
- For example (Executed as “`ps -aef`”):



```
user@user:~] ps -aef
```

UID	PID	PPID	C	STIME	TTY	TIME	CMD
root	1	0	0	12:17	?	00:00:01	/sbin/init
root	2	0	0	12:17	?	00:00:00	[kthreadd]
root	3	2	0	12:17	?	00:00:02	[ksoftirqd/0]
root	4	2	0	12:17	?	00:00:00	[kworker/0:0]
root	5	2	0	12:17	?	00:00:00	[kworker/0:0H]
root	7	2	0	12:17	?	00:00:00	[rcu_sched]

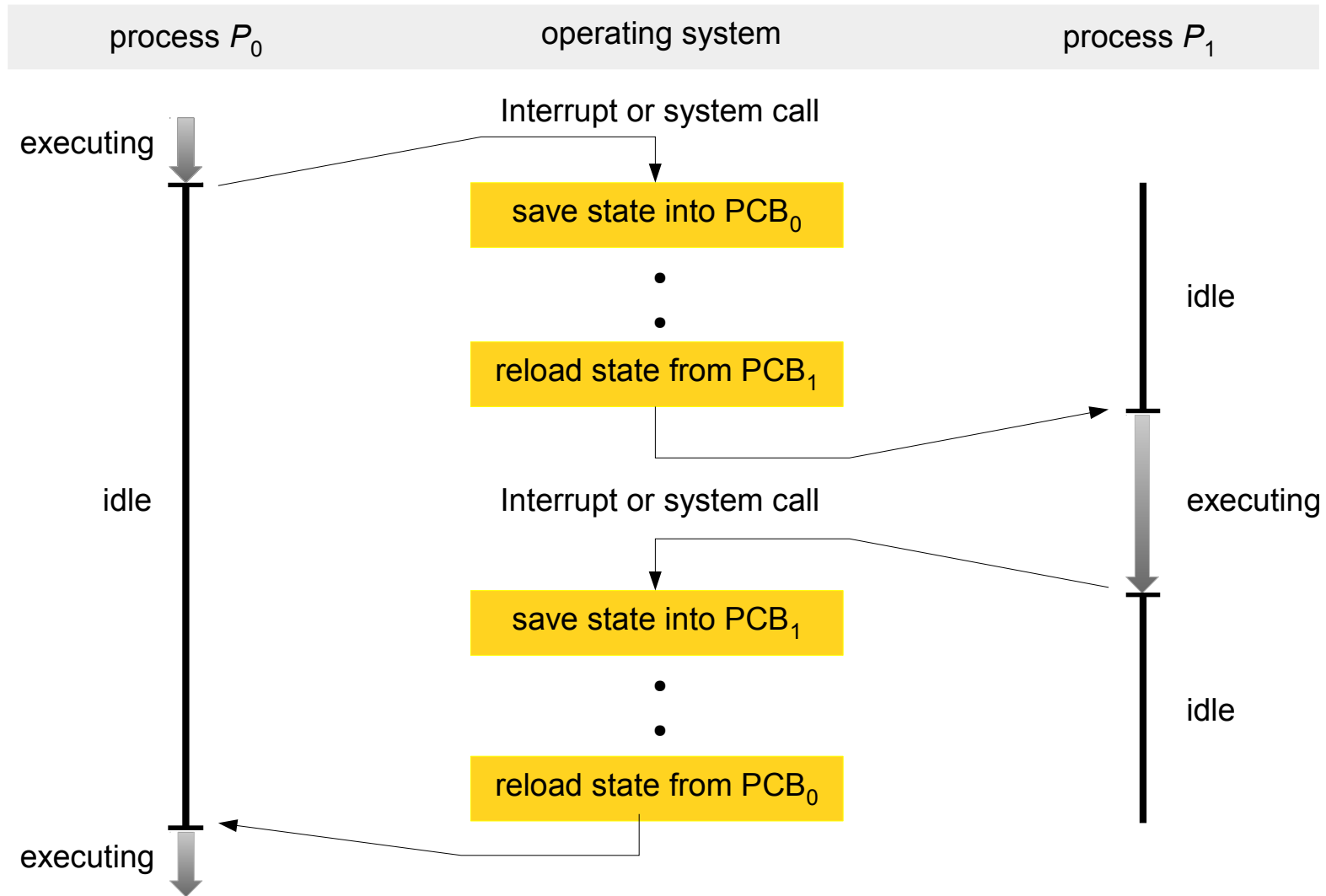
Process

Context Switching



- Switching the CPU to another task requires saving the state of the old task and loading the saved state for the new task
- The time wasted to switch from one task to another without any disturbance is called context switch or scheduling jitter
- After scheduling the new process gets hold of the processor for its execution

Context Switching



Process Creation



- Two common methods are used for creating new process
- Using `system()`: Relatively simple but should be used sparingly because it is inefficient and has considerably security risks
- Using `fork()` and `exec()`: More complex but provides greater flexibility, speed, and security

Process

Creation - system()



- It creates a sub-process running the standard shell
- Hands the command to that shell for execution
- Because the system function uses a shell to invoke your command, it's subject to the features and limitations of the system shell
- The system function in the standard C library is used to execute a command from within a program
- Much as if the command has been typed into a shell

Process

Creation - fork()



- fork makes a child process that is an exact copy of its parent process
- When a program calls fork, a duplicate process, called the child process, is created
- The parent process continues executing the program from the point that fork was called
- The child process, too, executes the same program from the same place
- All the statements after the call to fork will be executed twice, once, by the parent process and once by the child process

Process

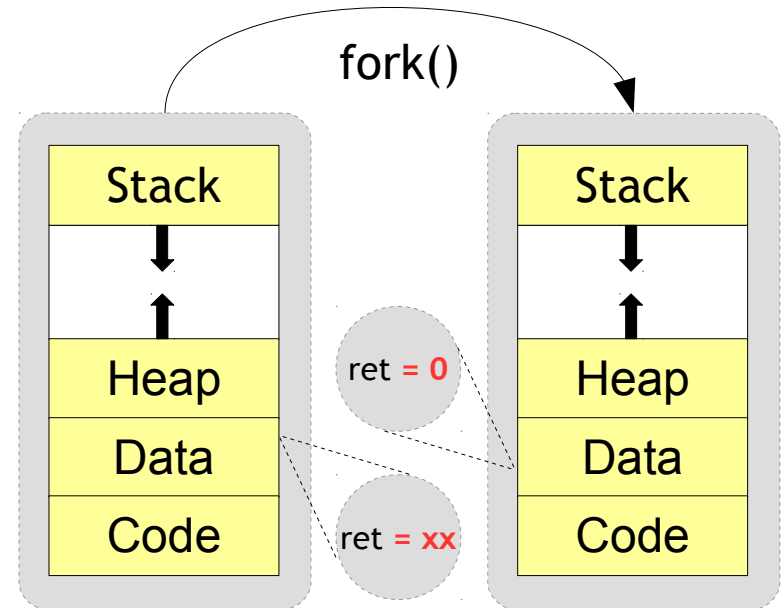
Creation - fork()

- The execution context for the child process is a copy of parent's context at the time of the call

```
int child_pid;
int child_status;

int main()
{
    int ret;

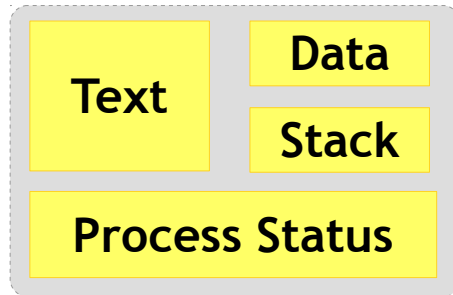
    ret = fork();
    switch (ret)
    {
        case -1:
            perror("fork");
            exit(1);
        case 0:
            <code for child process>
            exit(0);
        default:
            <code for parent process>
            wait(&child_status);
    }
}
```



Process

fork() - The Flow

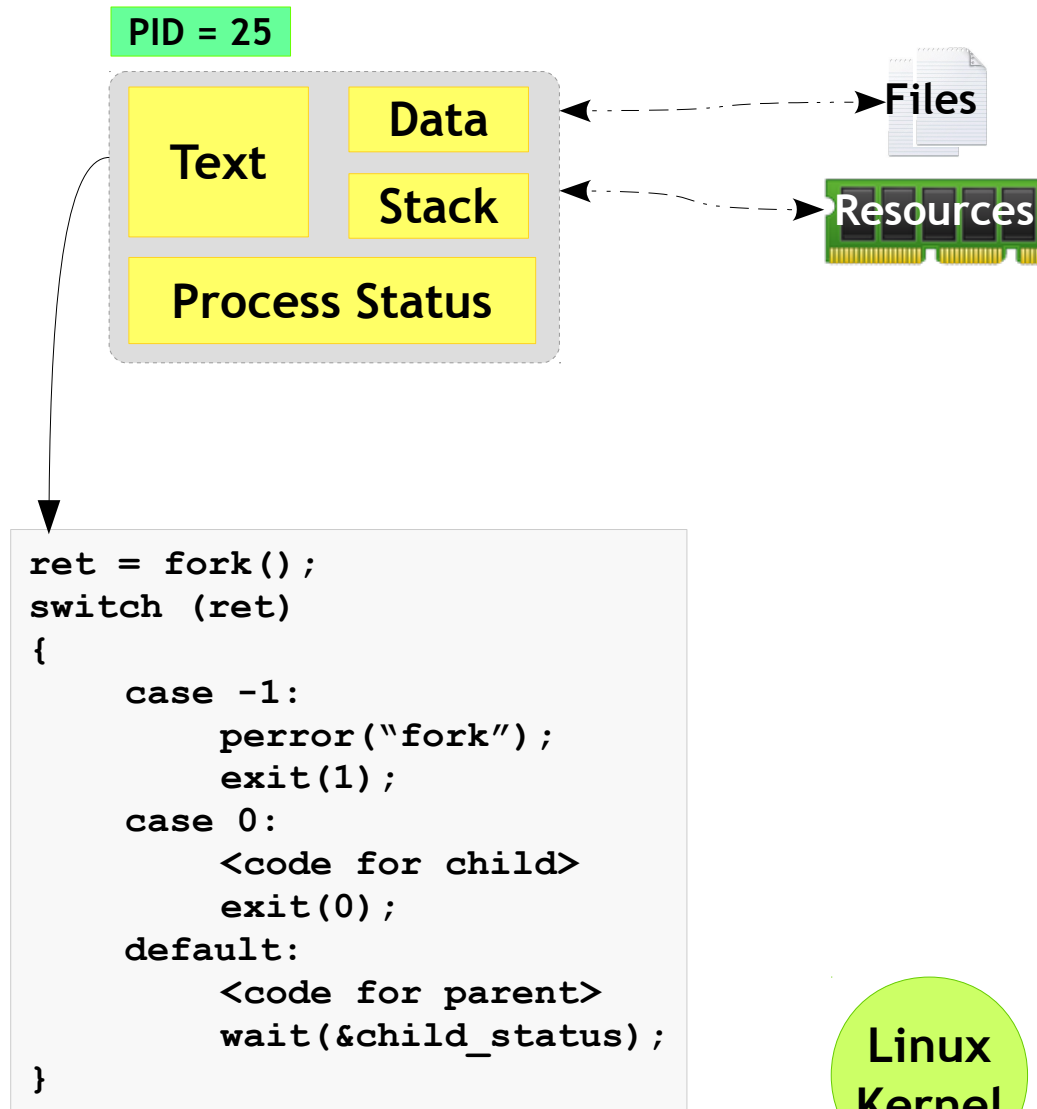
PID = 25



Linux
Kernel

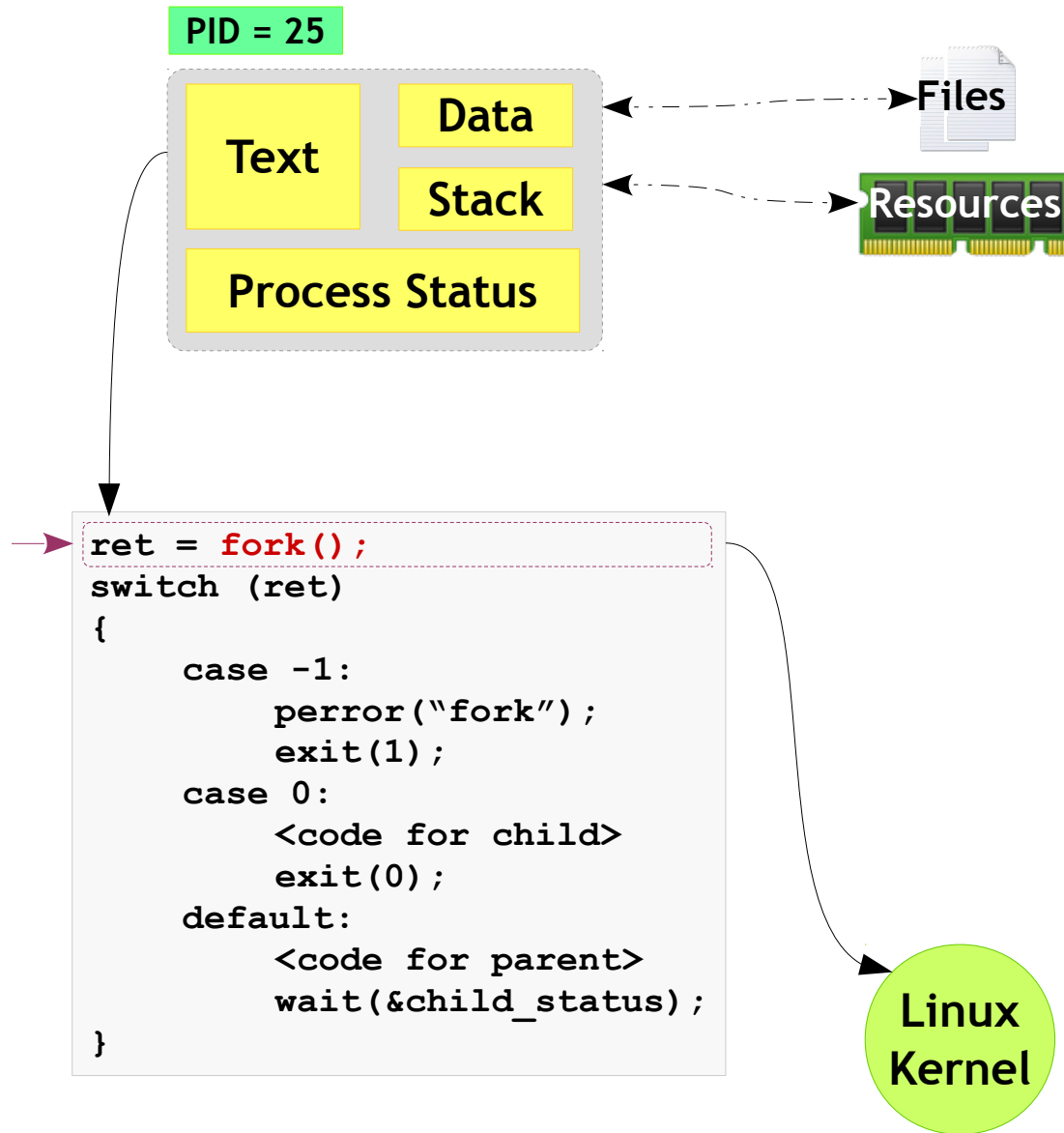
Process

fork() - The Flow



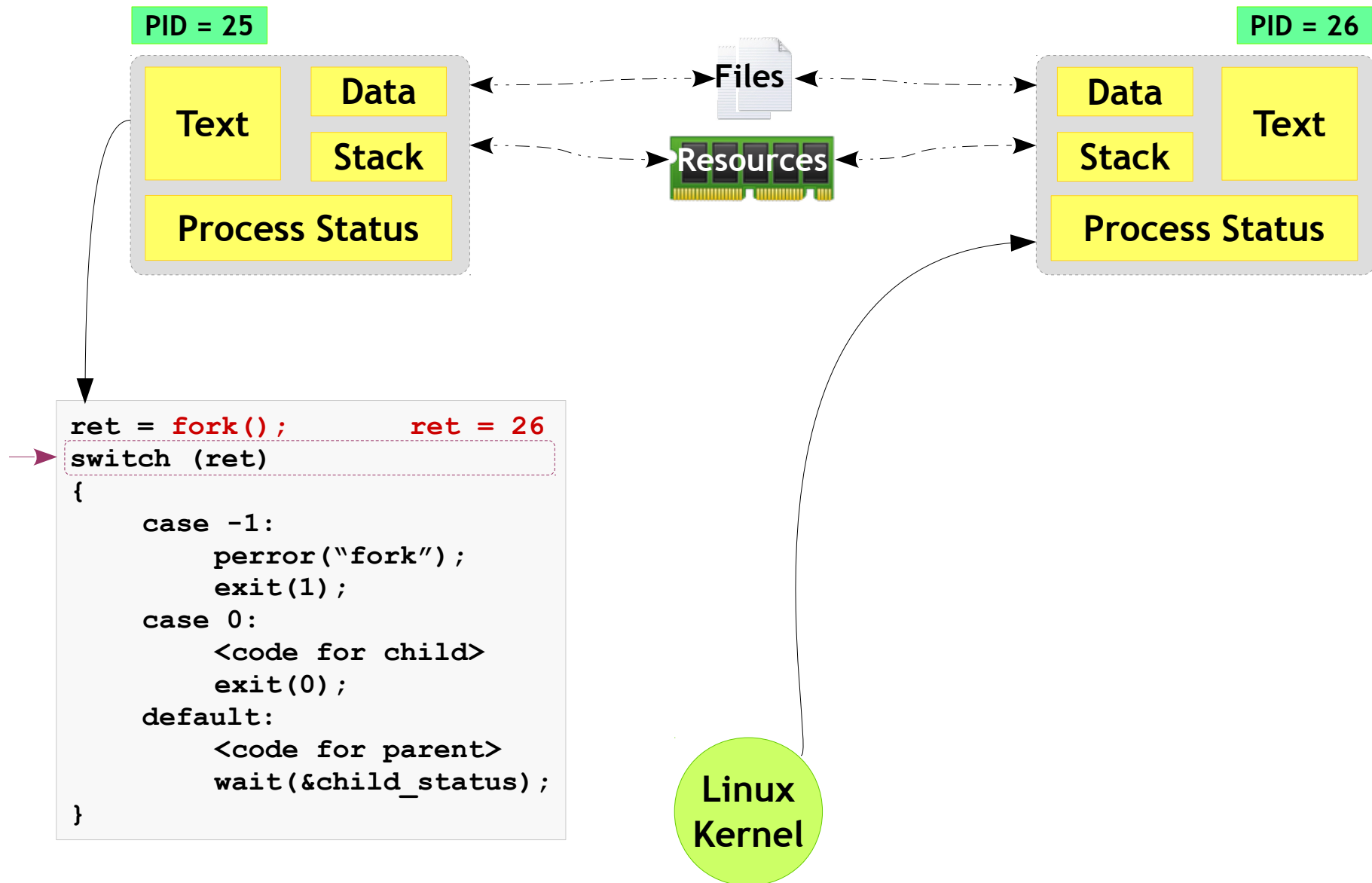
Process

fork() - The Flow



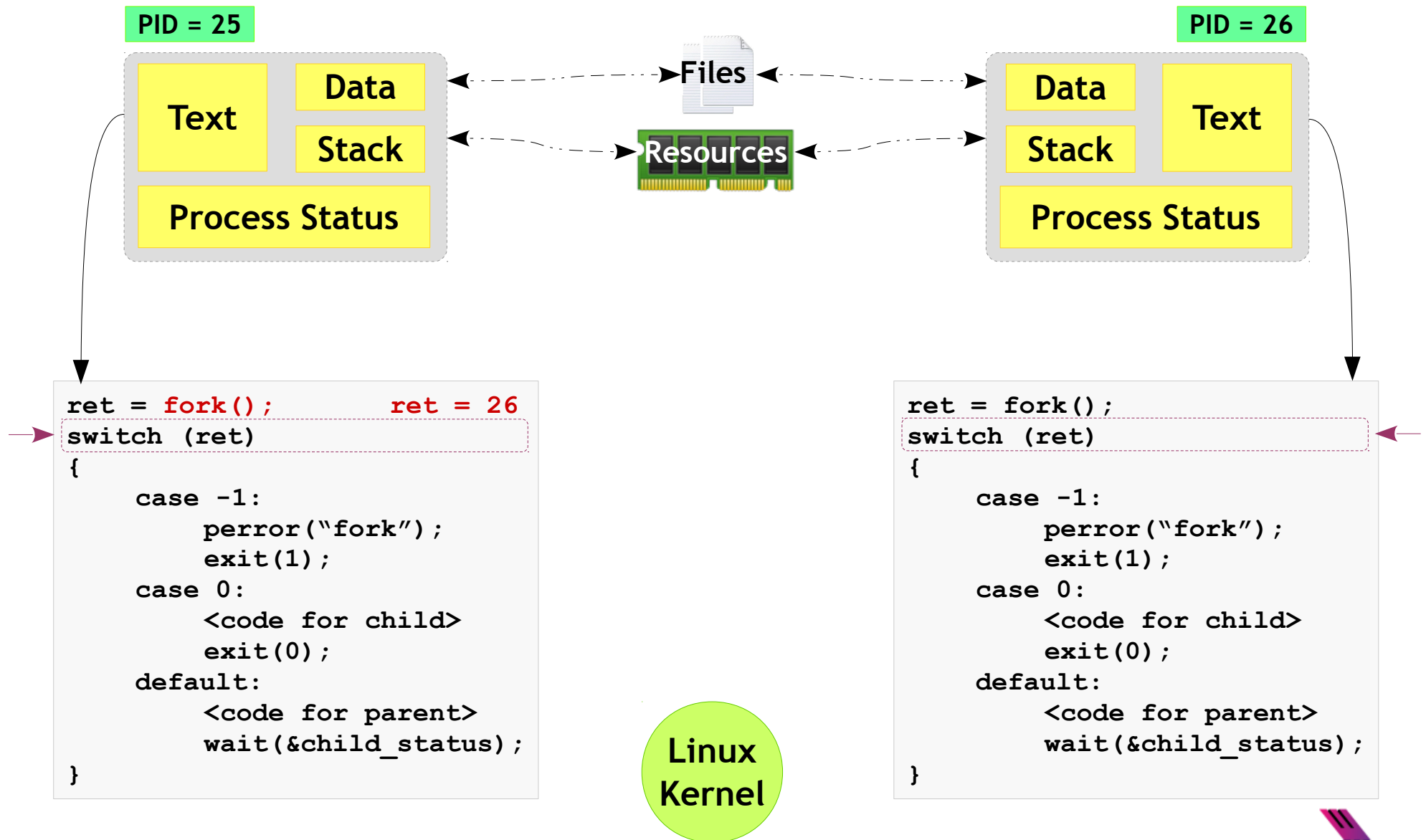
Process

fork() - The Flow



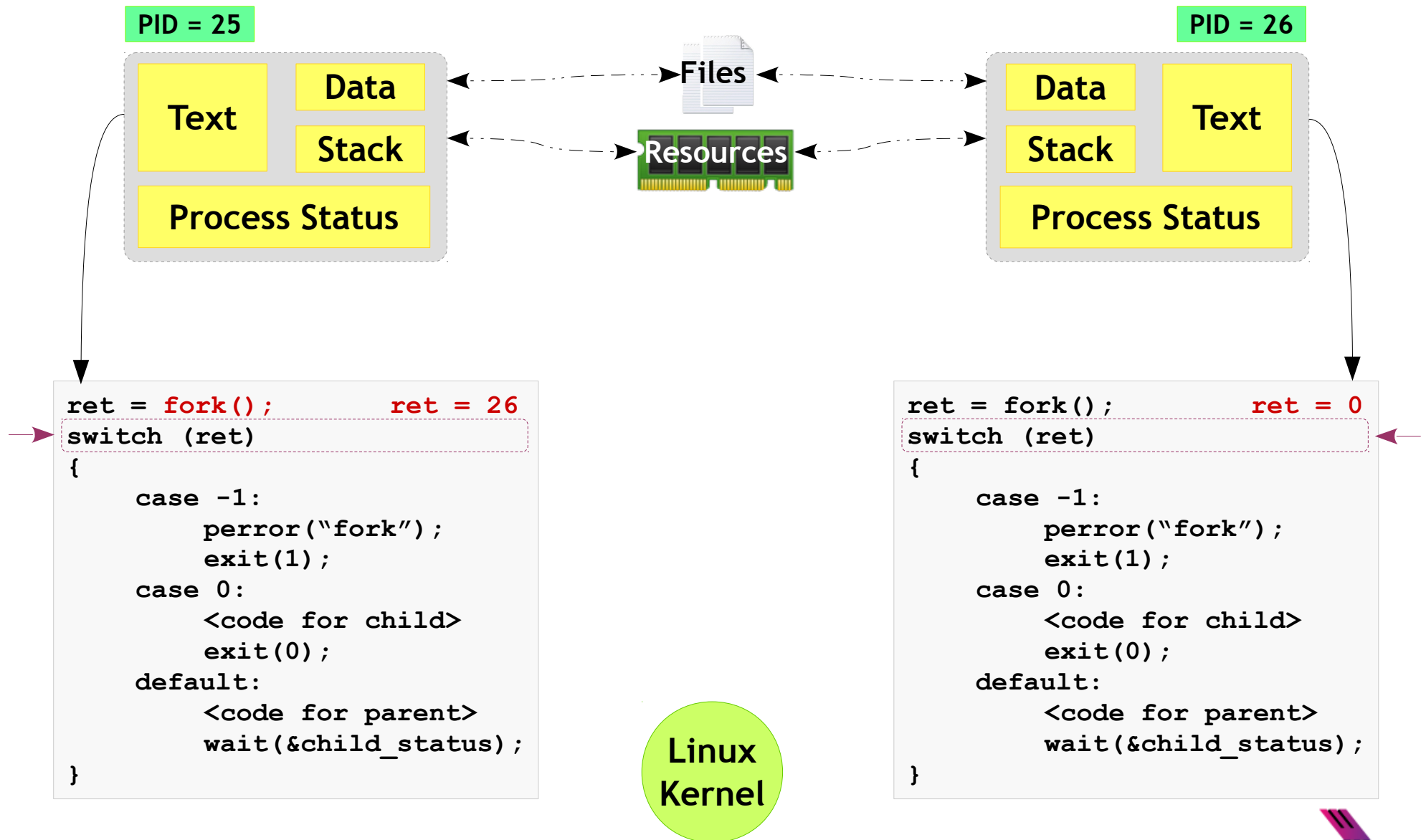
Process

fork() - The Flow



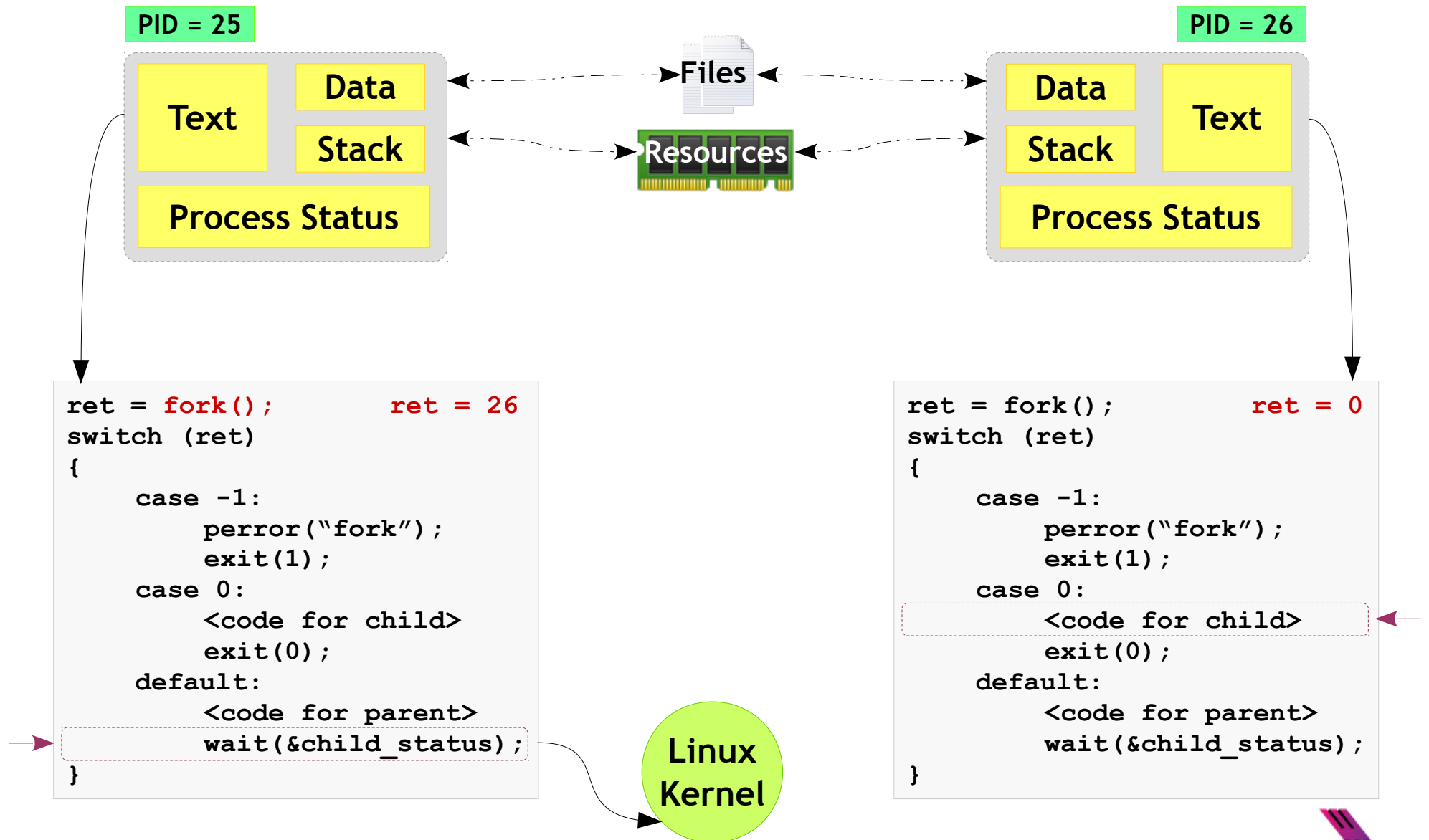
Process

fork() - The Flow



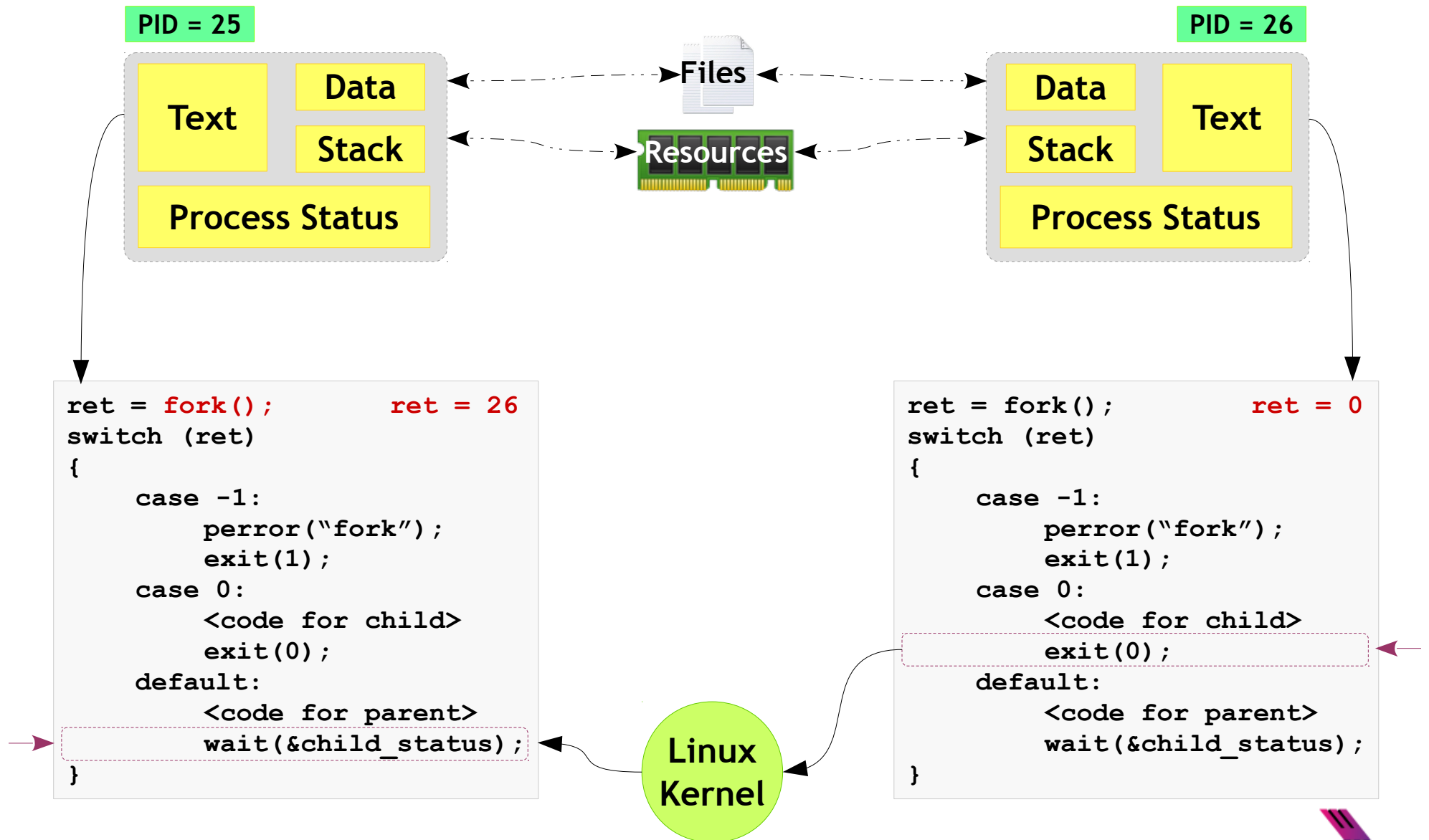
Process

fork() - The Flow



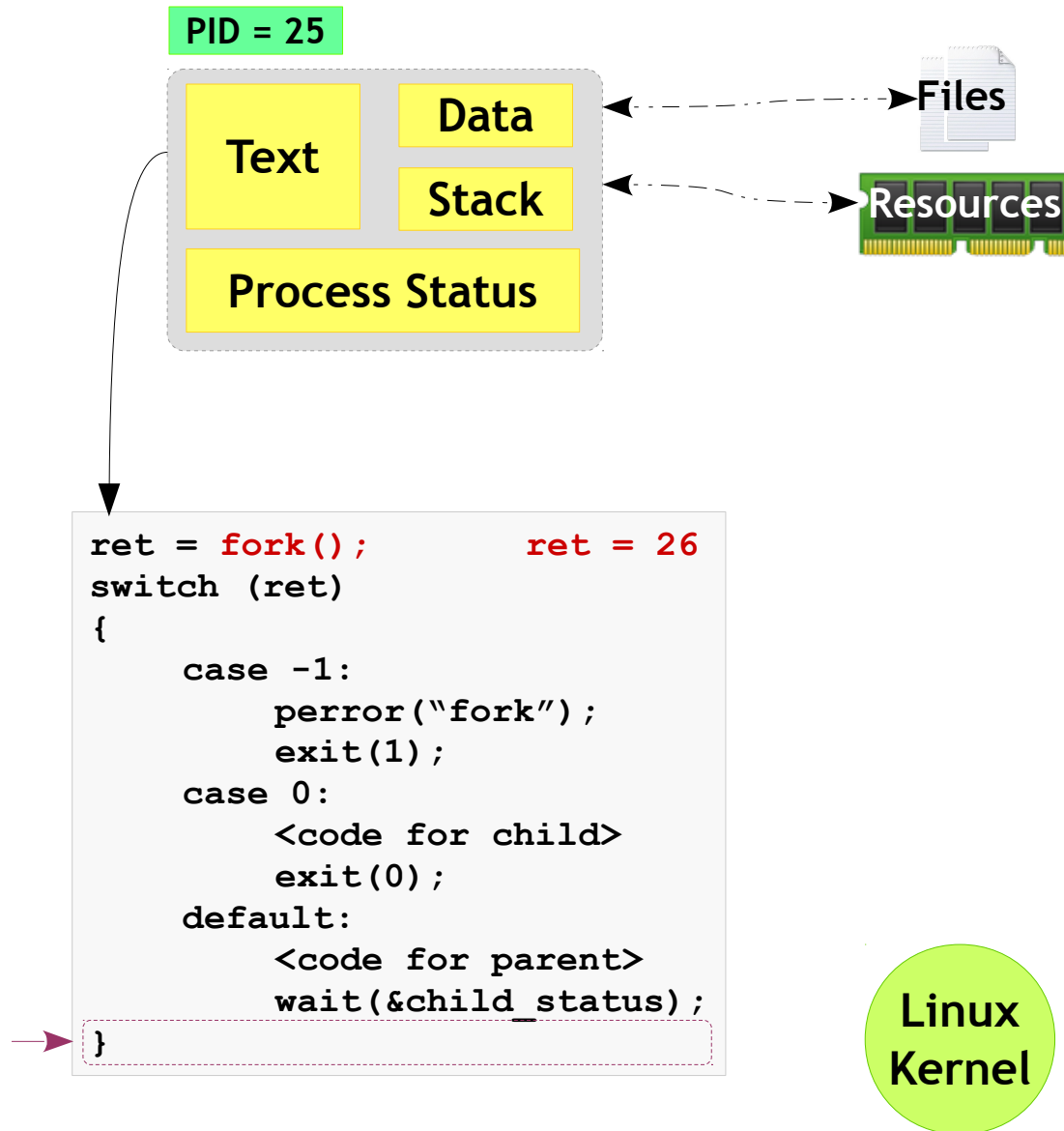
Process

fork() - The Flow



Process

fork() - The Flow



Process

fork() - How to Distinguish?



- First, the child process is a new process and therefore has a new process ID, distinct from its parent's process ID
- One way for a program to distinguish whether it's in the parent process or the child process is to call getpid
- The fork function provides different return values to the parent and child processes
- One process “goes in” to the fork call, and two processes “come out,” with different return values
- The return value in the parent process is the process ID of the child
- The return value in the child process is zero

Process

fork() - Example



- What would be output of the following program?

```
int main()
{
    fork();
    fork();
    fork();

    printf("Hello World\n");

    return 0;
}
```

Process

fork() - Example



```
→ int main()
{
    fork();
    fork();
    fork();

    printf("Hello World\n");

    return 0;
}
```

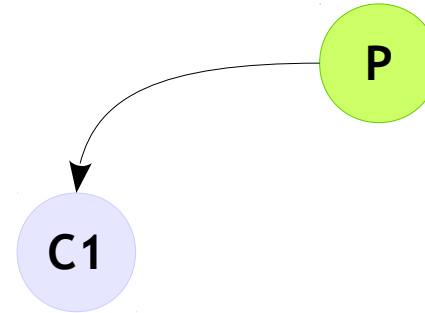
Process

fork() - Example

```
int main()
{
    fork();
    fork();
    fork();

    printf("Hello World\n");

    return 0;
}
```



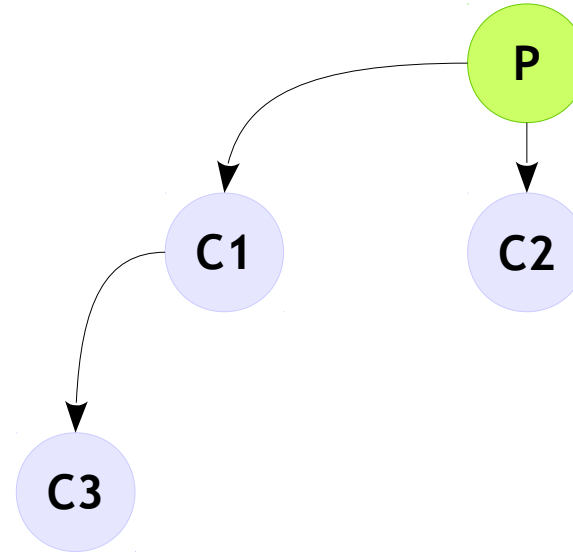
Process

fork() - Example

```
int main()
{
    fork();
    fork();
    fork();

    printf("Hello World\n");

    return 0;
}
```



Note: The actual order of execution based on scheduling

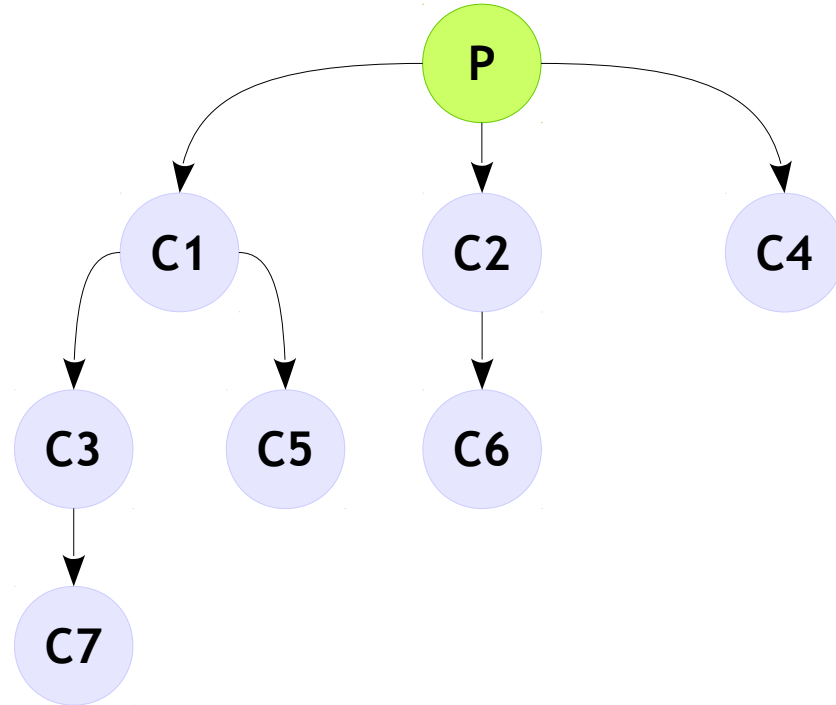
Process

fork() - Example

```
int main()
{
    fork();
    fork();
    fork();

    printf("Hello World\n");

    return 0;
}
```



Note: The actual order of execution based on scheduling

Process

Zombie



- Zombie process is a process that has terminated but has not been cleaned up yet
- It is the responsibility of the parent process to clean up its zombie children
- If the parent does not clean up its children, they stay around in the system, as zombie
- When a program exits, its children are inherited by a special process, the init program, which always runs with process ID of 1 (it's the first process started when Linux boots)
- The init process automatically cleans up any zombie child processes that it inherits.

Process

Orphan



- An orphan process is a computer process whose parent process has finished or terminated, though it remains running itself.
- Orphaned children are immediately "adopted" by init .
- An orphan is just a process. It will use whatever resources it uses. It is reasonable to say that it is not an "orphan" at all since it has a parent but "adopted".
- Init automatically reaps its children (adopted or otherwise).
- So if you exit without cleaning up your children, then they will not become zombies.

Process

Overlay - exec()



- The exec functions replace the program running in a process with another program
- When a program calls an exec function, that process immediately ceases executing and begins executing a new program from the beginning
- Because exec replaces the calling program with another one, it never returns unless an error occurs
- This new process has the same PID as the original process, not only the PID but also the parent process ID, current directory, and file descriptor tables (if any are open) also remain the same
- Unlike fork, exec results in still having a single process

Process

Overlay - exec()

- Let us consider an example of `execlp` (variant of `exec()` function) shown below

```
/* Program: my_ls.c */  
→ int main()  
{  
    print("Executing my ls :)\n");  
    execlp("/bin/ls", "ls", NULL);  
}
```

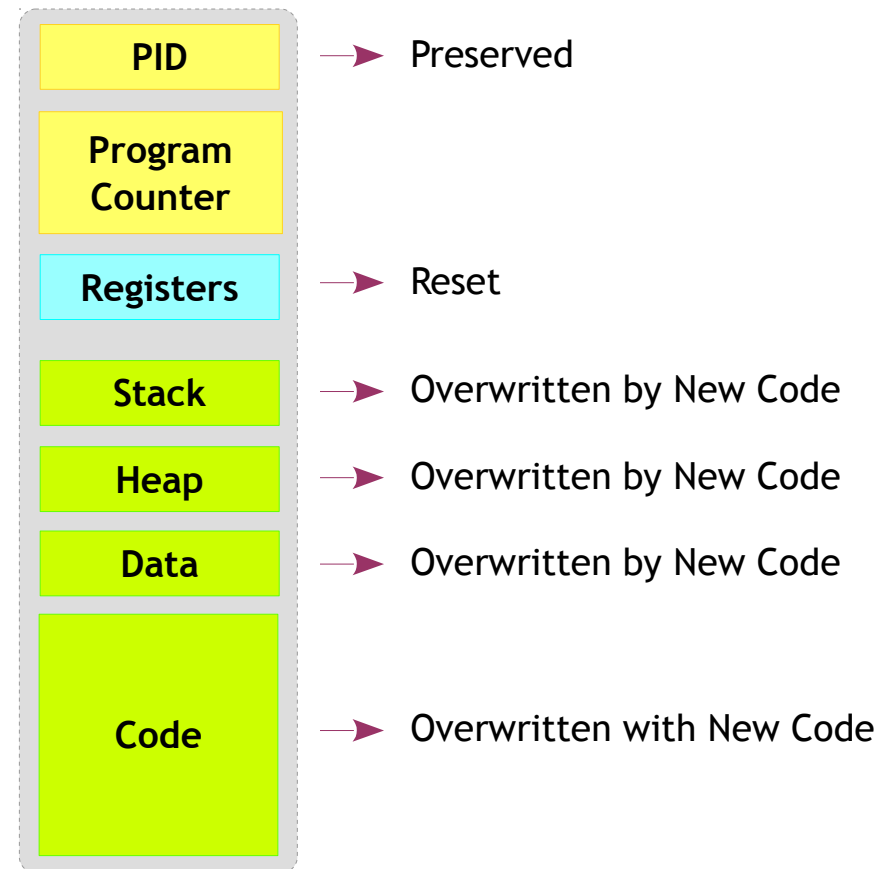


Process

Overlay - exec()

- After executing the exec function, you will note the following changes

```
/* Program: my_ls.c */  
  
int main()  
{  
    print("Executing my ls :)\n");  
    → execlp("/bin/ls", "ls", NULL);  
}
```



Process

exec() - Variants



- The exec has a family of system calls with variations among them
- They are differentiated by small changes in their names
- The exec family looks as follows:

System call	Meaning
<code>execl(const char *path, const char *arg, ...);</code>	Full path of executable, variable number of arguments
<code>execlp(const char *file, const char *arg, ...);</code>	Relative path of executable, variable number of arguments
<code>execv(const char *path, char *const argv[]);</code>	Full path of executable, arguments as pointer of strings
<code>execvp(const char *file, char *const argv[]);</code>	Relative path of executable, arguments as pointer of strings

Process

Blending fork() and exec()



- Practically calling program never returns after exec()
- If we want a calling program to continue execution after exec, then we should first fork() a program and then exec the subprogram in the child process
- This allows the calling program to continue execution as a parent, while child program uses exec() and proceeds to completion
- This way both fork() and exec() can be used together

Process

COW - Copy on Write



- Copy-on-write (called COW) is an optimization strategy
- When multiple separate process use same copy of the same information it is not necessary to re-create it
- Instead they can all be given pointers to the same resource, thereby effectively using the resources
- However, when a local copy has been modified (i.e. write) , the COW has to replicate the copy, has no other option
- For example if `exec()` is called immediately after `fork()` they never need to be copied the parent memory can be shared with the child, only when a write is performed it can be re-created

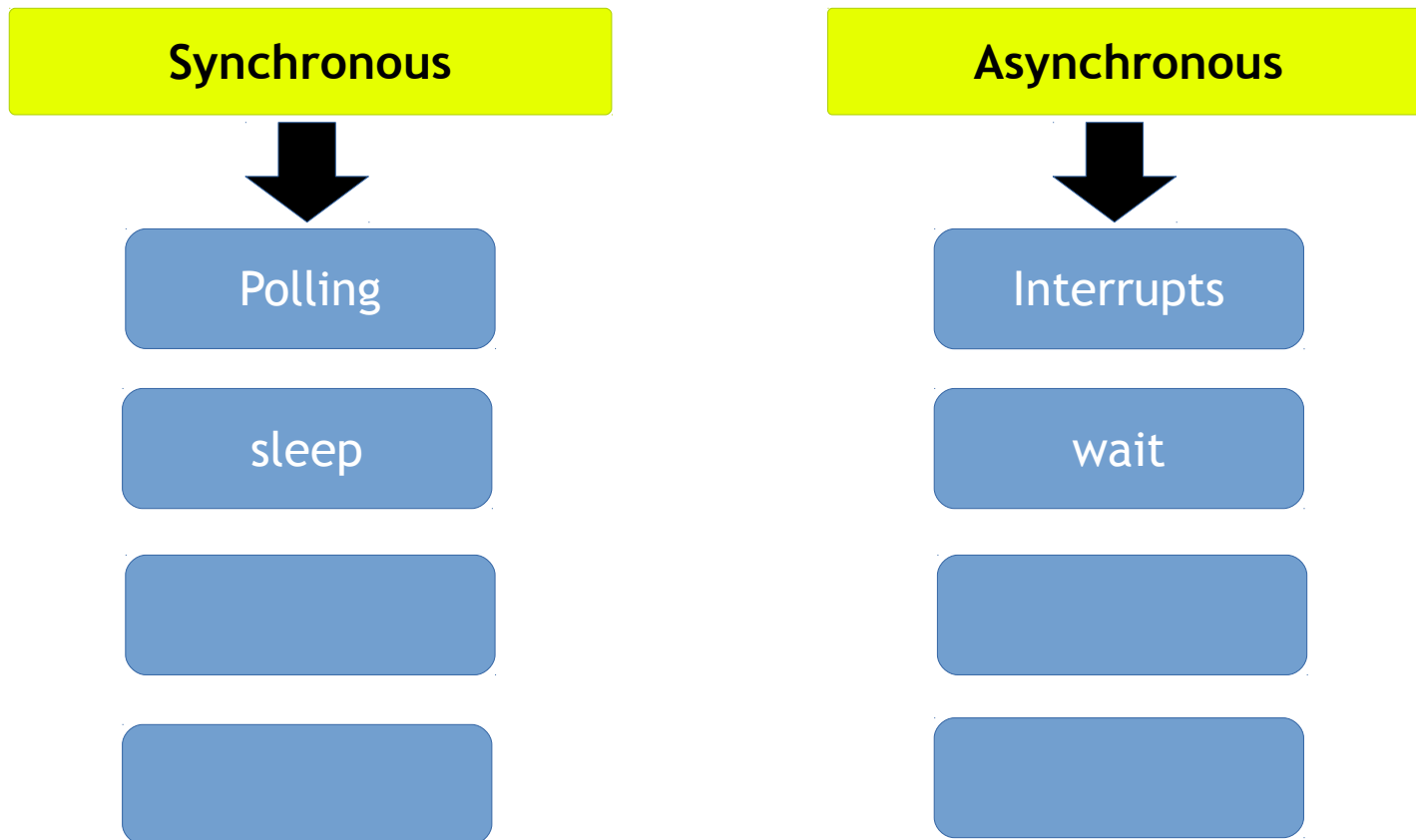
Process Termination



- When a parent forks a child, the two process can take any turn to finish themselves and in some cases the parent may die before the child
- In some situations, though, it is desirable for the parent process to wait until one or more child processes have completed
- This can be done with the wait() family of system calls.
- These functions allow you to wait for a process to finish executing, enable parent process to retrieve information about its child's termination

Synchronous & Asynchronous

- Wait for child to finish



Process

Wait



- `fork()` in combination with `wait()` can be used for child monitoring
- Appropriate clean-up (if any) can be done by the parent for ensuring better resource utilization
- Otherwise it will result in a ZOMBIE process
- There are four different system calls in the wait family

System call	Meaning
<code>wait(int *status)</code>	Blocks & waits the calling process until one of its child processes exits. Return status via simple integer argument
<code>waitpid (pid_t pid, int* status, int options)</code>	Similar to <code>wait</code> , but only blocks on a child with specific PID
<code>wait3(int *status, int options, struct rusage *rusage)</code>	Returns resource usage information about the exiting child process.
<code>wait4 (pid_t pid, int *status, int options, struct rusage *rusage)</code>	Similar to <code>wait3</code> , but on a specific child

Process Resource Structure



```
struct rusage {  
    struct timeval ru_utime; /* user CPU time used */  
    struct timeval ru_stime; /* system CPU time used */  
    long   ru_maxrss;      /* maximum resident set size */  
    long   ru_ixrss;       /* integral shared memory size */  
    long   ru_idrss;       /* integral unshared data size */  
    long   ru_isrss;       /* integral unshared stack size */  
    long   ru_minflt;      /* page reclaims (soft page faults) */  
    long   ru_majflt;      /* page faults (hard page faults) */  
    long   ru_nswap;       /* swaps */  
    long   ru_inblock;     /* block input operations */  
    long   ru_oublock;     /* block output operations */  
    long   ru_msgsnd;      /* IPC messages sent */  
    long   ru_msgrcv;      /* IPC messages received */  
    long   ru_nsignals;    /* signals received */  
    long   ru_nvcsw;       /* voluntary context switches */  
    long   ru_nivcsw;      /* involuntary context switches */  
};
```

Inter Process Communications (IPC)



Communication

in real world



- Face to face
- Fixed phone
- Mobile phone
- Skype
- SMS

Inter Process Communications

Introduction



- *Inter process communication (IPC)* is the mechanism whereby one process can communicate, that is exchange data with another processes
- There are two flavors of IPC exist: System V and POSIX
- Former is derivative of UNIX family, later is when standardization across various OS (Linux, BSD etc..) came into picture
- Some are due to “UNIX war” reasons also
- In the implementation levels there are some differences between the two, larger extent remains the same
- Helps in portability as well

Inter Process Communications

Introduction



- IPC can be categorized broadly into two areas:

Data exchange

Communication

- Pipes
- FIFO
- Shared memory
- Signals
- Sockets

Resource usage/access/control

Synchronization

- Semaphores

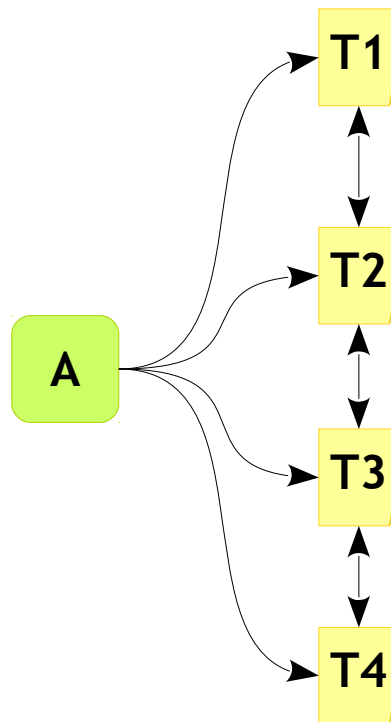
- Even in case of Synchronization also two processes are talking.

Each IPC mechanism offers some advantages & disadvantages. Depending on the program design, appropriate mechanism needs to be chosen.

Application and Tasks



Example: Read from a file
`$ cat file.txt`



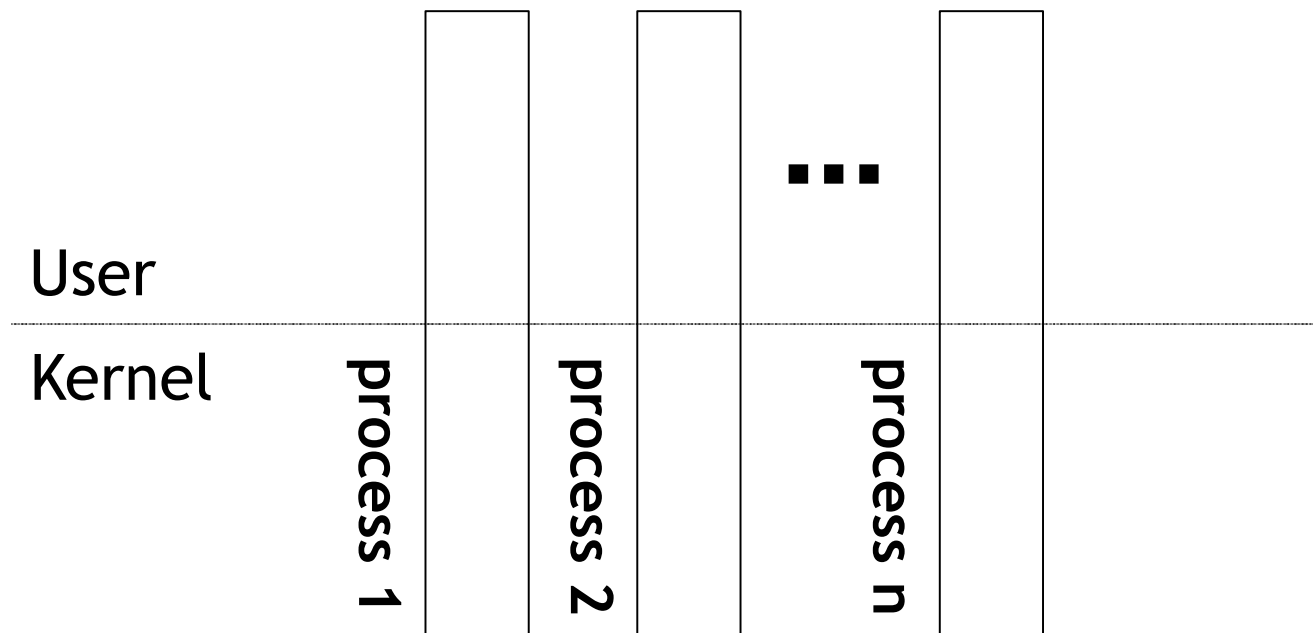
Example: Paper jam handling
in printer

Inter Process Communications

User vs Kernel Space



- Protection domains - (virtual address space)

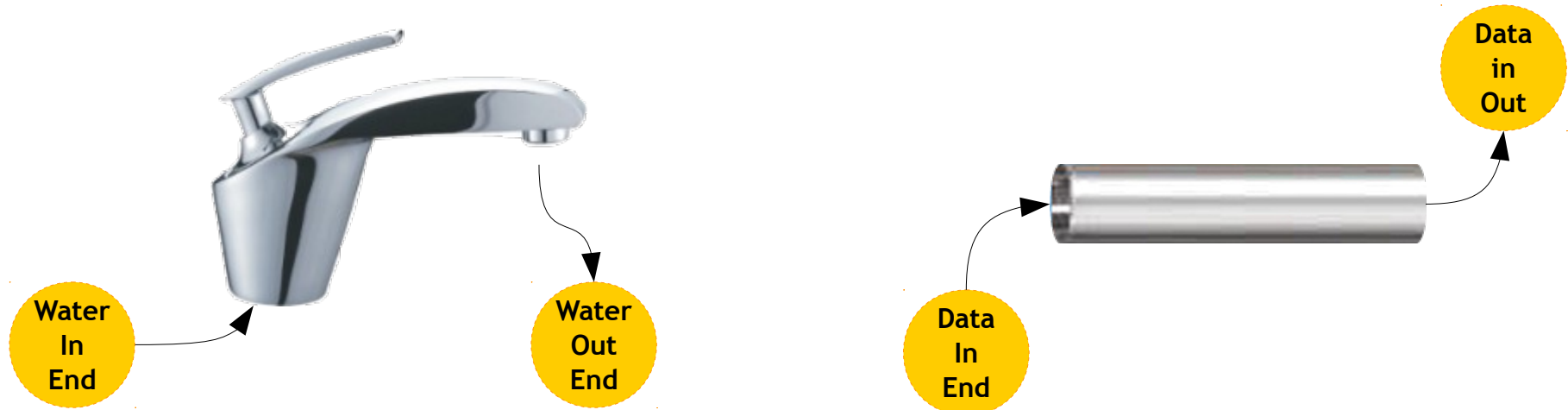


How can processes communicate with each other and the kernel? The answer is nothing but IPC mechanisms

Inter Process Communications

Pipes

- A pipe is a communication device that permits unidirectional communication
- Data written to the “write end” of the pipe is read back from the “read end”
- Pipes are serial devices; the data is always read from the pipe in the same order it was written



Inter Process Communications

Pipes - Creation



- To create a pipe, invoke the pipe system call
- Supply an integer array of size 2
- The call to pipe stores the reading file descriptor in array position 0
- Writing file descriptor in position 1

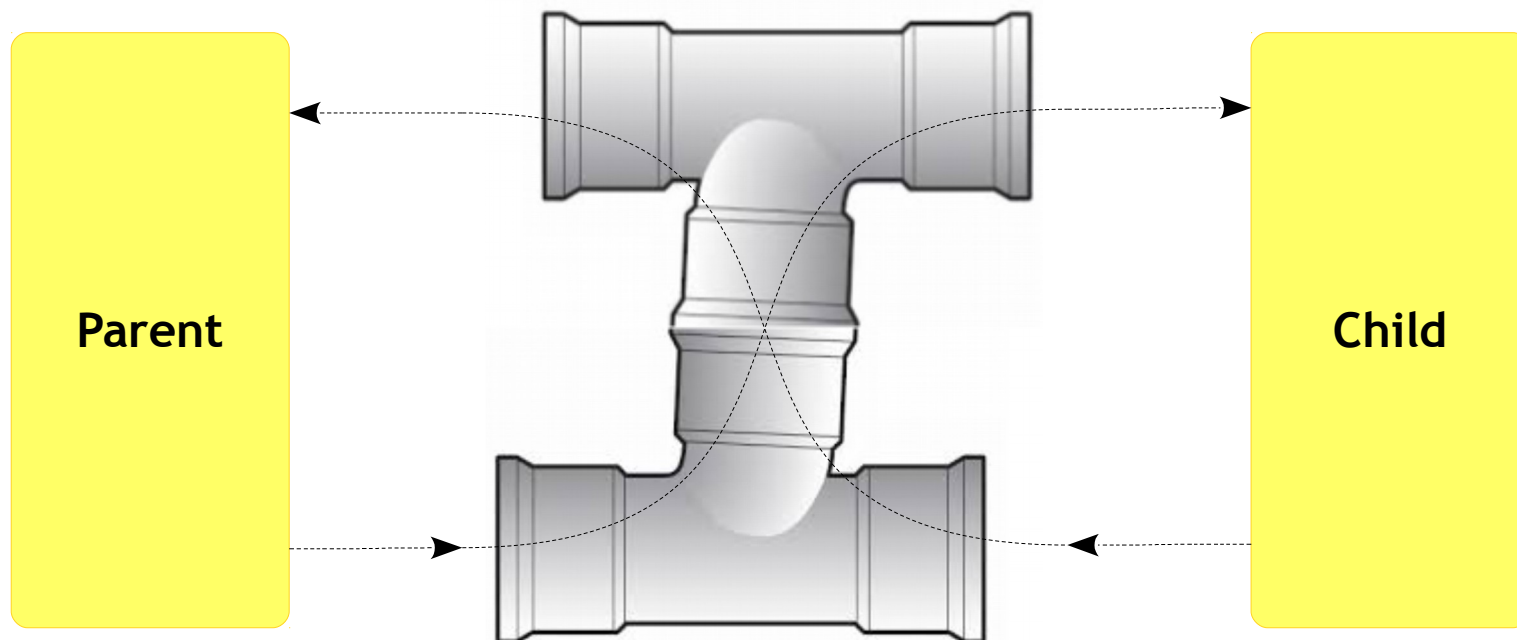
Function	Meaning
<code>int pipe(int pipe_fd[2])</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Pipe gets created✓ READ and WRITE pipe descriptors are populated✓ RETURN: Success (0)/Failure (Non-zero)

Pipe read and write can be done simultaneously between two processes by creating a child process using `fork()` system call.

Inter Process Communications

Pipes - Direction of communication

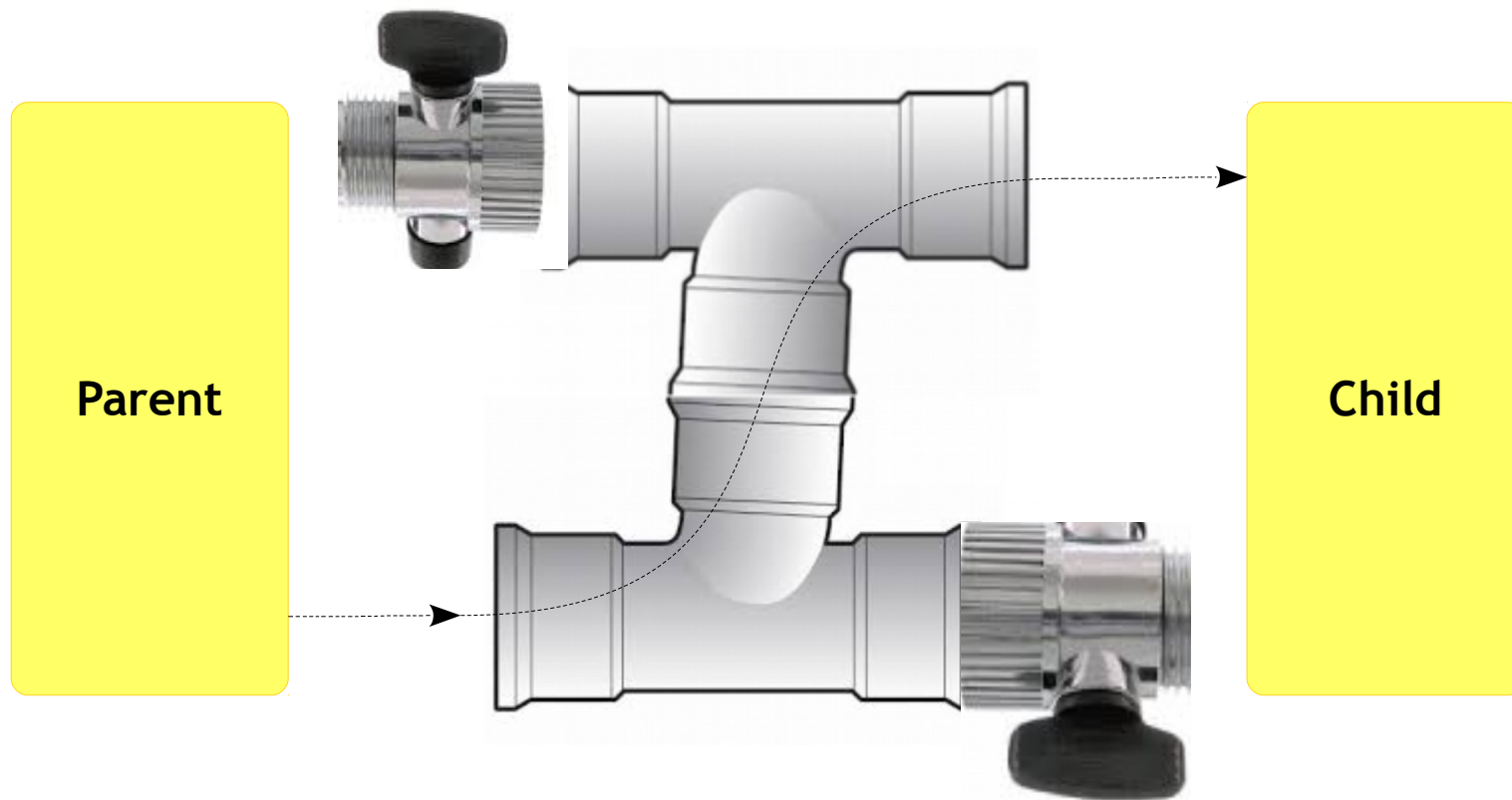
- Let's say a Parent wants to communicate with a Child
- Generally the communication is possible both the way!



Inter Process Communications

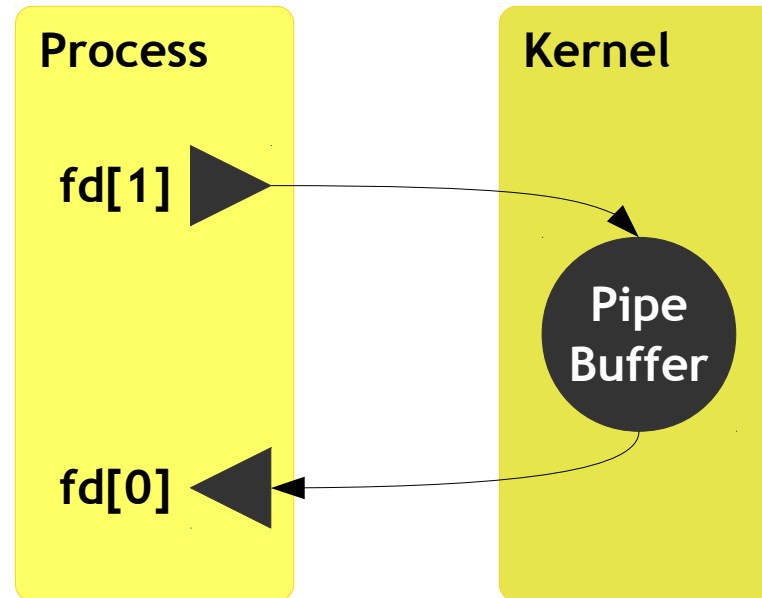
Pipes - Direction of communication

- So it necessary to close one of the end form both sides



Inter Process Communications

Pipes - Working



Inter Process Communications

Pipes - Pros & Cons



PROS

- Naturally synchronized
- Simple to use and create
- No extra system calls required to communicate (read/write)

CONS

- Less memory size (4K)
- Only related process can communicate.
- Only two process can communicate
- One directional communication
- Kernel is involved

Inter Process Communications

Summary



- We have covered

Data exchange

Communication

- Pipes
- FIFO
- Shared memory
- Signals
- Sockets

Resource usage/access/control

Synchronization

- Semaphores

Inter Process Communications

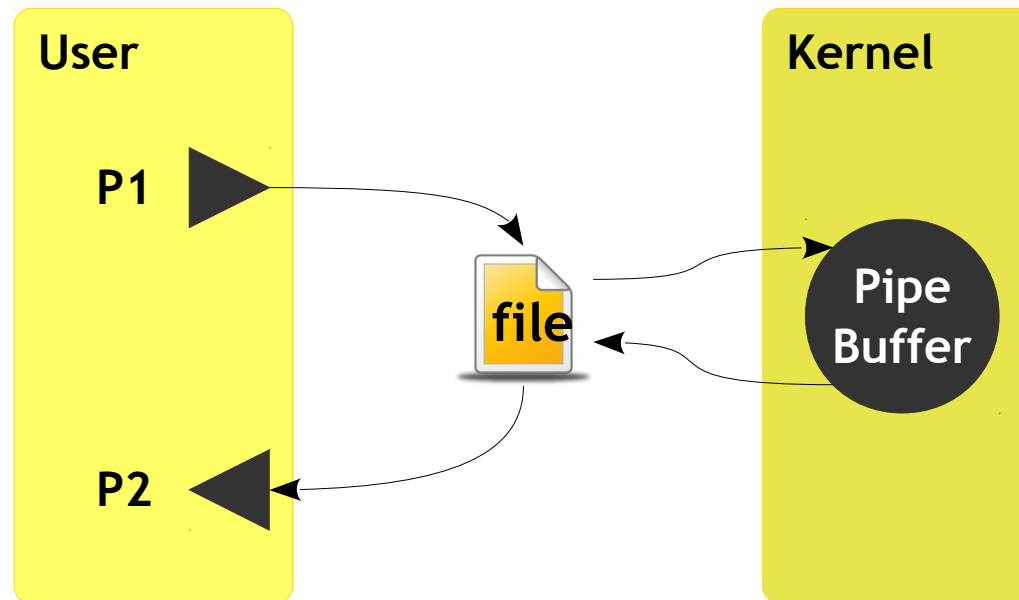
FIFO - Properties



- A *first-in, first-out (FIFO)* file is a pipe that has a name in the file-system
- FIFO file is a pipe that has a name in the file-system
- FIFOs are also called Named Pipes
- FIFOs is designed to let them get around one of the shortcomings of normal pipes

Inter Process Communications

FIFO - Working



Inter Process Communications

FIFO - Creation



- FIFO can also be created similar to directory/file creation with special parameters & permissions
- After creating FIFO, read & write can be performed into it just like any other normal file
- Finally, a device number is passed. This is ignored when creating a FIFO, so you can put anything you want in there
- Subsequently FIFO can be closed like a file

Function	Meaning
<code>int mknod(const char *path, mode_t mode, dev_t dev)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ path: Where the FIFO needs to be created (Ex: “/tmp/Emertxe”)✓ mode: Permission, similar to files (Ex: 0666)✓ dev: can be zero for FIFO

Inter Process Communications

FIFO - Access



- Access a FIFO just like an ordinary file
- To communicate through a FIFO, one program must open it for writing, and another program must open it for reading
- Either low-level I/O functions (open, write, read, close and so on) or C library I/O functions (fopen, fprintf, fscanf, fclose, and so on) may be used.

```
user@user:~] ls -l my_fifo  
prw-rw-r-- 1 biju biju    0 Mar 8  17:36 my_fifo
```



prw-

Inter Process Communications

FIFO vs Pipes



- Unlike pipes, FIFOs are not temporary objects, they are entities in the file-system
- Any process can open or close the FIFO
- The processes on either end of the pipe need not be related to each other
- When all I/O is done by sharing processes, the named pipe remains in the file system for later use

Inter Process Communications

FIFO - Example



- Unrelated process can communicate with FIFO

Shell 1

```
user@user:~] cat > /tmp/my_fifo  
Hai hello
```

Shell 2

```
user@user:~] cat /tmp/my_fifo  
Hai hello
```

Inter Process Communications

FIFO - Pros & Cons



PROS

- Naturally synchronized
- Simple to use and create
- Unrelated process can communicate.
- No extra system calls required to communicate (read/write)
- Work like normal file

CONS

- Less memory size (4K)
- Only two process can communicate
- One directional communication
- Kernel is involved

Inter Process Communications

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Inter Process Communications

Shared Memories - Properties



- Shared memory allows two or more processes to access the same memory
- When one process changes the memory, all the other processes see the modification
- Shared memory is the fastest form of Inter process communication because all processes share the same piece of memory
- It also avoids copying data unnecessarily

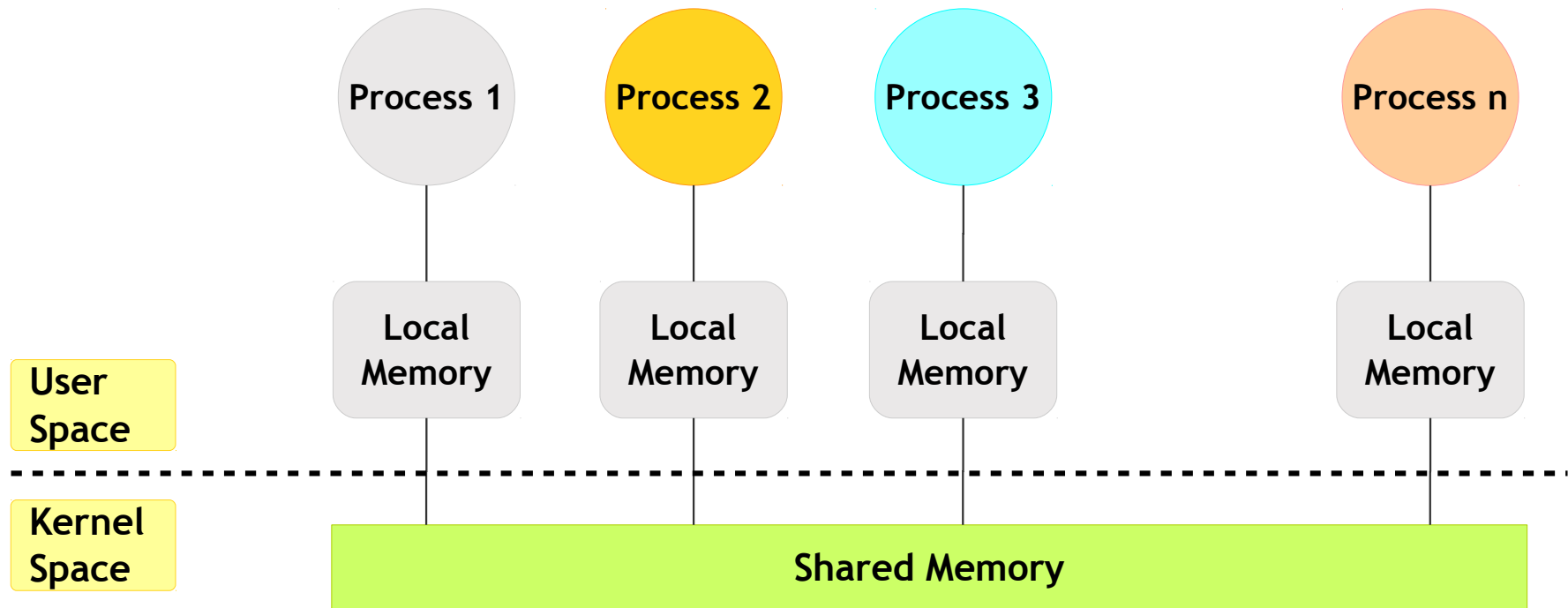
Note:

- Each shared memory segment should be explicitly de-allocated
- System has limited number of shared memory segments
- Cleaning up of IPC is system program's responsibility 😊



Inter Process Communications

Shared vs Local Memory



Inter Process Communications

Shared Memories - Procedure

- Create
- Attach
- Read/Write
- Detach
- Remove

} **95%**



Inter Process Communications

Shared Memories - Procedure



- To start with one process must allocate the segment
- Each process desiring to access the segment must attach to it
- Reading or Writing with shared memory can be done only after attaching into it
- After use each process detaches the segment
- At some point, one process must de-allocate the segment

While shared memory is fastest IPC, it will create synchronization issues as more processes are accessing same piece of memory. Hence it has to be handled separately.

Inter Process Communications

Shared Memories - Function calls



Function	Meaning
<code>int shmget(key_t key, size_t size, int shmflag)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Create a shared memory segment✓ key: Seed input✓ size: Size of the shared memory✓ shmflag: Permission (similar to file)✓ RETURN: Shared memory ID / Failure
<code>void *shmat(int shmid, void *shmaddr, int shmflag)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Attach to a particular shared memory location✓ shmid: Shared memory ID to get attached✓ shmaddr: Exact address (if you know or leave it 0)✓ shmflag: Leave it as 0✓ RETURN: Shared memory address / Failure
<code>int shmdt(void *shmaddr)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Detach from a shared memory location✓ shmaddr: Location from where it needs to get detached✓ RETURN: SUCCESS / FAILURE (-1)
<code>shmctl(shmid, IPC_RMID, NULL)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ shmid: Shared memory ID✓ Remove and NULL

Inter Process Communications

Synchronization - Debugging

- The ***ipcs*** command provides information on inter-process communication facilities, including shared segments.
- Use the **-m** flag to obtain information about shared memory.
- For example, this image illustrates that one shared memory segment, numbered 392316, is in use:

Semaphores
in the
system

```
user@user:~] ipcs -s  
  
----- Semaphore Arrays -----  
key      semid    owner    perms    nsems
```

Shared
Memory
in the
system

```
user@user:~] ipcs -m | more  
  
----- Shared Memory Segments -----  
key      shmid     owner    perms    bytes    nattch   status  
0x00000000 393216    user     600      524288   2        dest  
0x00000000 557057    user     700      2116     2        dest  
0x00000000 589826    user     700      5152     2        dest
```



Inter Process Communications

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- Semaphores

Signals



Signals



- Signals are used to notify a process of a particular event
- Signals make the process aware that something has happened in the system
- Target process should perform some pre-defined actions to handle signals
- This is called 'signal handling'
- Actions may range from 'self termination' to 'clean-up'

Get Basics Right

Function pointers



- What is function pointer?
 - Datatype `*ptr` ; normal pointer
 - Datatype `(*ptr)(datatype,...)`; Function pointer
- How it differs from normal data pointer?

Function Pointer

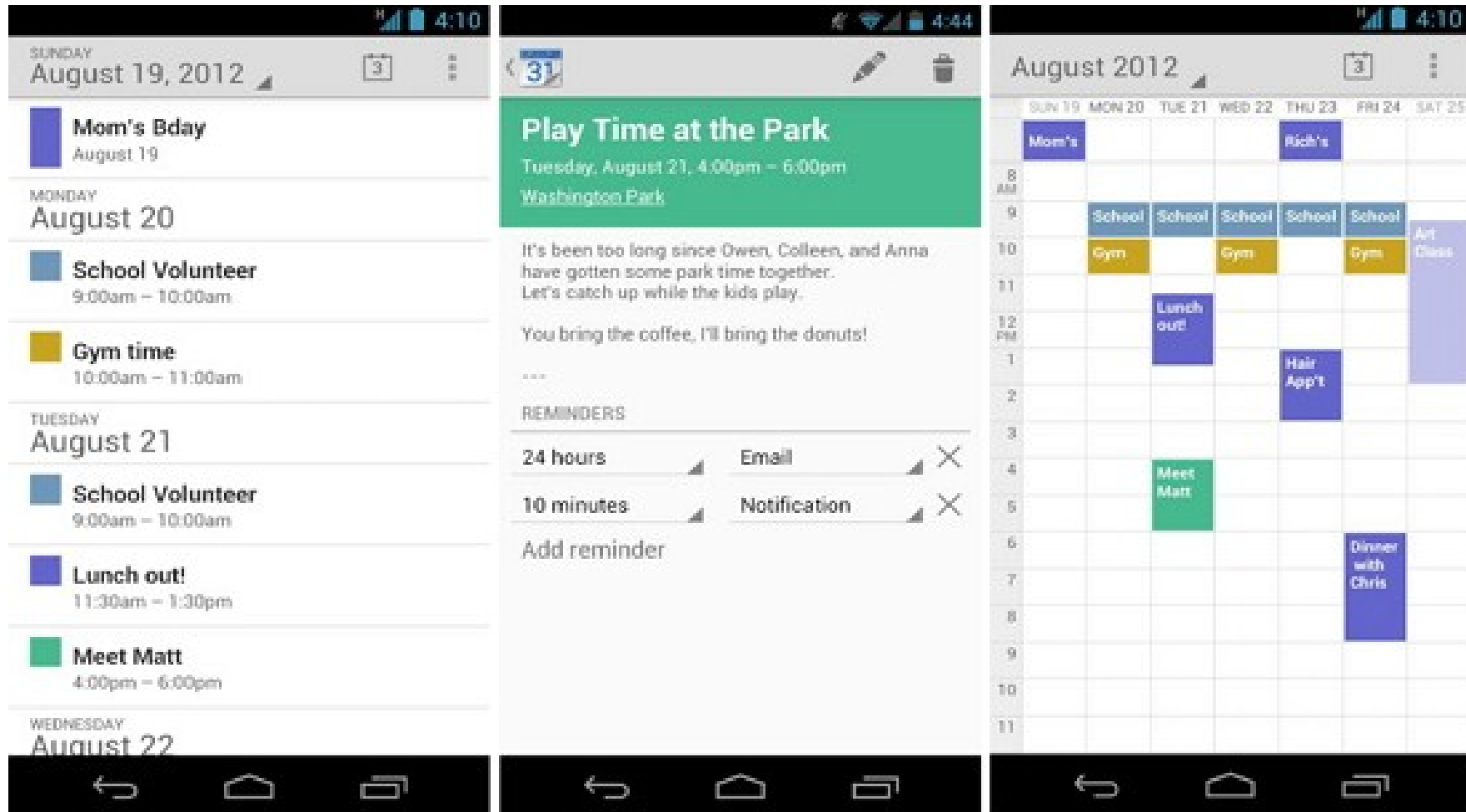
- Holds address of function
- Pointing to a address from code segment.
- Dereference to execute the function
- Pointer arithmetic not valid

Data Pointer

- Holds address of an object
- Pointing to a address from stack/heap/data
- Dereference to get value from address
- Pointer arithmetic is valid

Get Basics Right

Call back functions



Registering an event for later use

Get Basics Right

Call back functions



- In computer programming, a callback is a reference to executable code, or a piece of executable code, that is passed as an argument to other code. This allows a lower-level software layer to call a subroutine (or function) defined in a higher-level layer.

Signals

Names



- Signals are standard, which are pre-defined
- Each one of them have a name and number
- Examples are follows:

Signal name	Number	Description
SIGINT	2	Interrupt character typed
SIGQUIT	3	Quit character typed (^\\)
SIGKILL	9	Kill -9 was executed
SIGSEGV	11	Invalid memory reference
SIGUSR1	10	User defined signal
SIGUSR2	12	User defined signal

To get complete signals list, open `/usr/include/bits/signum.h` in your system.



- The kernel
- A Process may also send a Signal to another Process
- A Process may also send a Signal to itself
- User can generate signals from command prompt:

‘kill’ command:

```
$ kill <signal_number> <target_pid>
```

```
$ kill -KILL 4481
```

Sends kill signal to PID 4481

```
$ kill -USR1 4481
```

Sends user signal to PID 4481



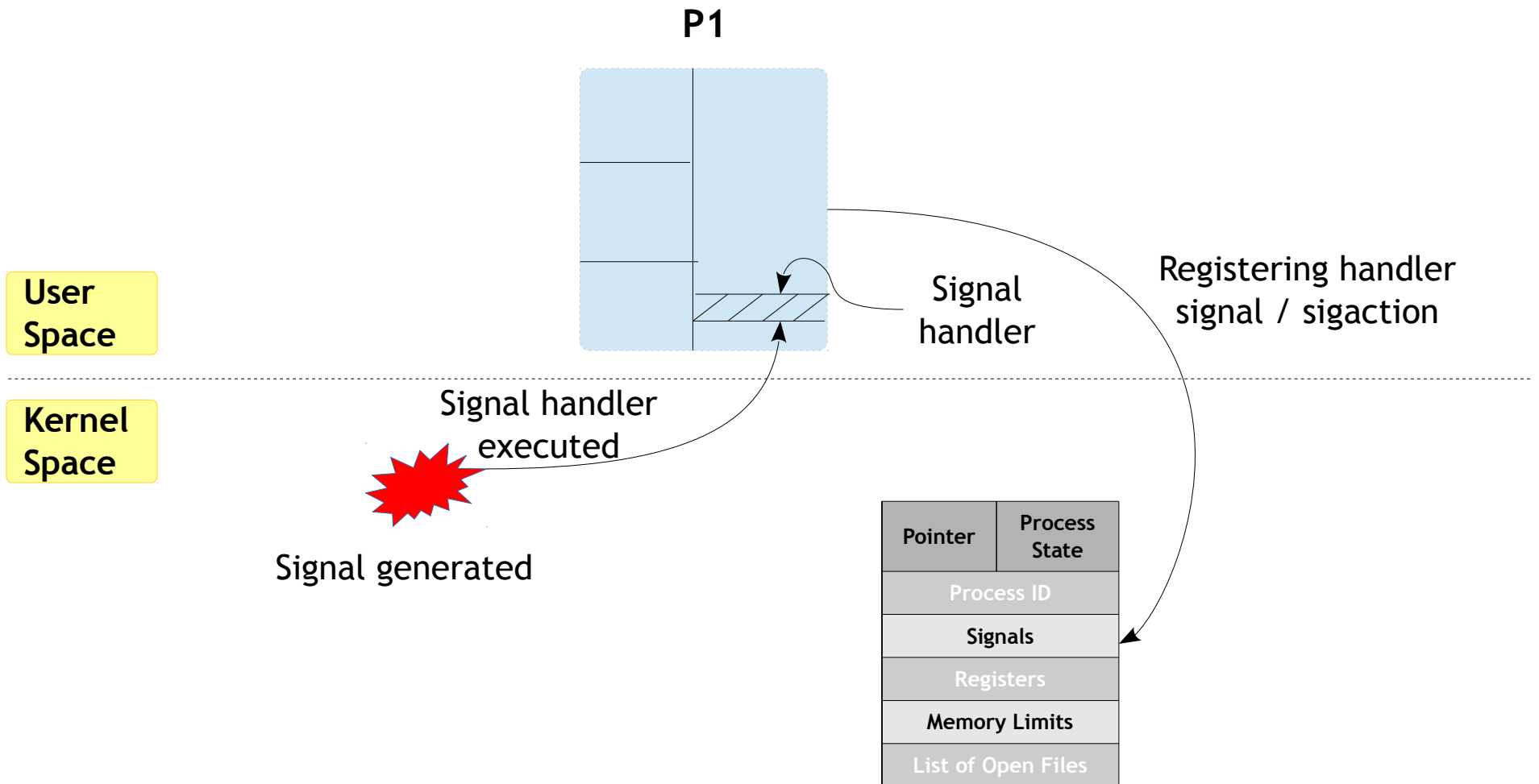
- When a process receives a signal, it processes
- Immediate handling
- For all possible signals, the system defines a default disposition or action to take when a signal occurs
- There are four possible default dispositions:
 - **Exit:** Forces process to exit
 - **Core:** Forces process to exit and create a core file
 - **Stop:** Stops the process
 - **Ignore:** Ignores the signal
- Handling can be done, called ‘signal handling’



- The `signal()` function can be called by the user for capturing signals and handling them accordingly
- First the program should register for interested signal(s)
- Upon catching signals corresponding handling can be done

Function	Meaning
<code>signal (int signal_number, void *(fptr) (int))</code>	<code>signal_number</code> : Interested signal <code>fptr</code> : Function to call when signal handles

Signals Handling





- A signal handler should perform the minimum work necessary to respond to the signal
- The control will return to the main program (or terminate the program)
- In most cases, this consists simply of recording the fact that a signal occurred or some minimal handling
- The main program then checks periodically whether a signal has occurred and reacts accordingly
- Its called as **asynchronous handling**

Signals

vs Interrupt



- Signals can be described as soft-interrupts
- The concept of 'signals' and 'signals handling' is analogous to that of the 'interrupt' handling done by a microprocessor
- When a signal is sent to a process or thread, a signal handler may be entered
- This is similar to the system entering an interrupt handler

- System calls are also soft-interrupts. They are initiated by applications.
- Signals are also soft-interrupts. Primarily initiated by the Kernel itself.

Signals

Advanced Handling



- The `signal()` function can be called by the user for capturing signals and handling them accordingly
- It mainly handles user generated signals (ex: `SIGUSR1`), will not alter default behavior of other signals (ex: `SIGINT`)
- In order to alter/change actions, `sigaction()` function to be used
- Any signal except `SIGKILL` and `SIGSTOP` can be handled using this

Function	Meaning
<code>sigaction(int signum, const struct sigaction *act, struct sigaction *oldact)</code>	<p>signum : Signal number that needs to be handled</p> <p>act: Action on signal</p> <p>oldact: Older action on signal</p>

Signals

Advanced Handling - sigaction structure

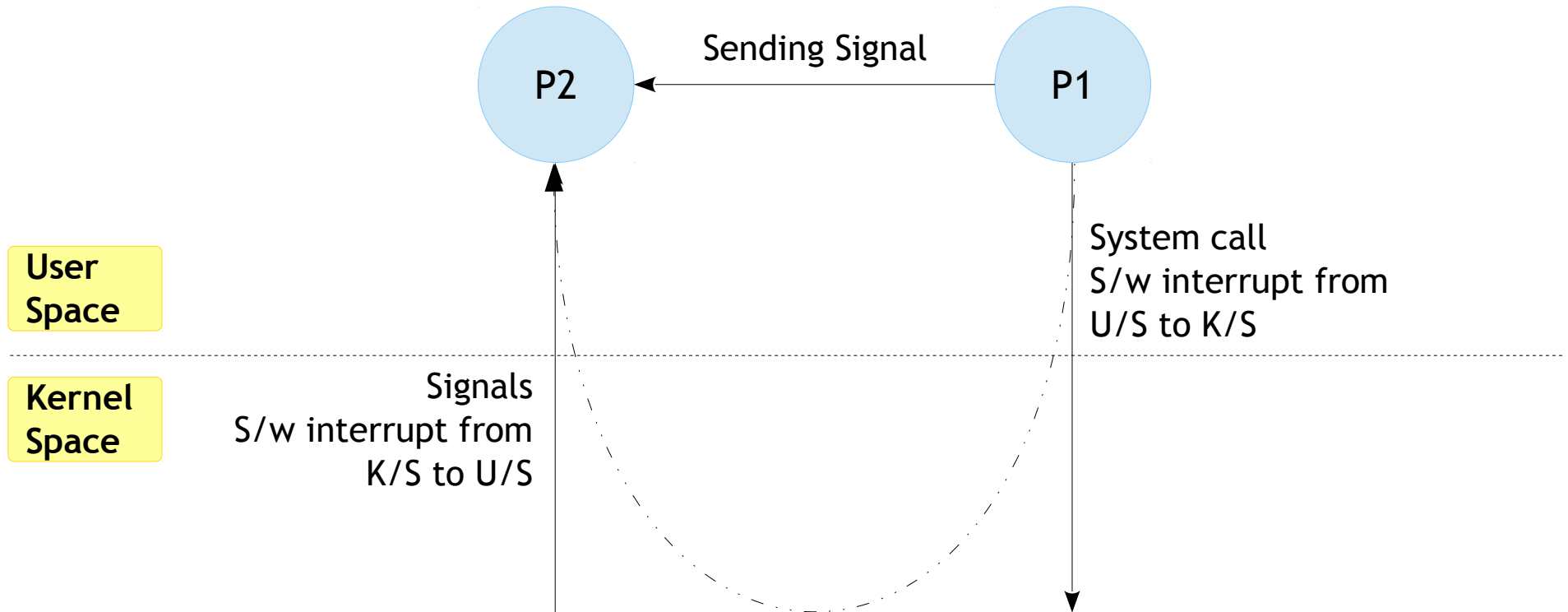


```
struct sigaction
{
    void (*sa_handler)(int);
    void (*sa_sigaction)(int, siginfo_t *, void *);
    sigset_t sa_mask;
    int sa_flags;
    void (*sa_restorer)(void);
}
```

- sa_handler: SIG_DFL (default handling) or SIG_IGN (Ignore) or Signal handler function for handling
- Masking and flags are slightly advanced fields
- Try out sa_sigaction during assignments/hands-on session along with Masking & Flags

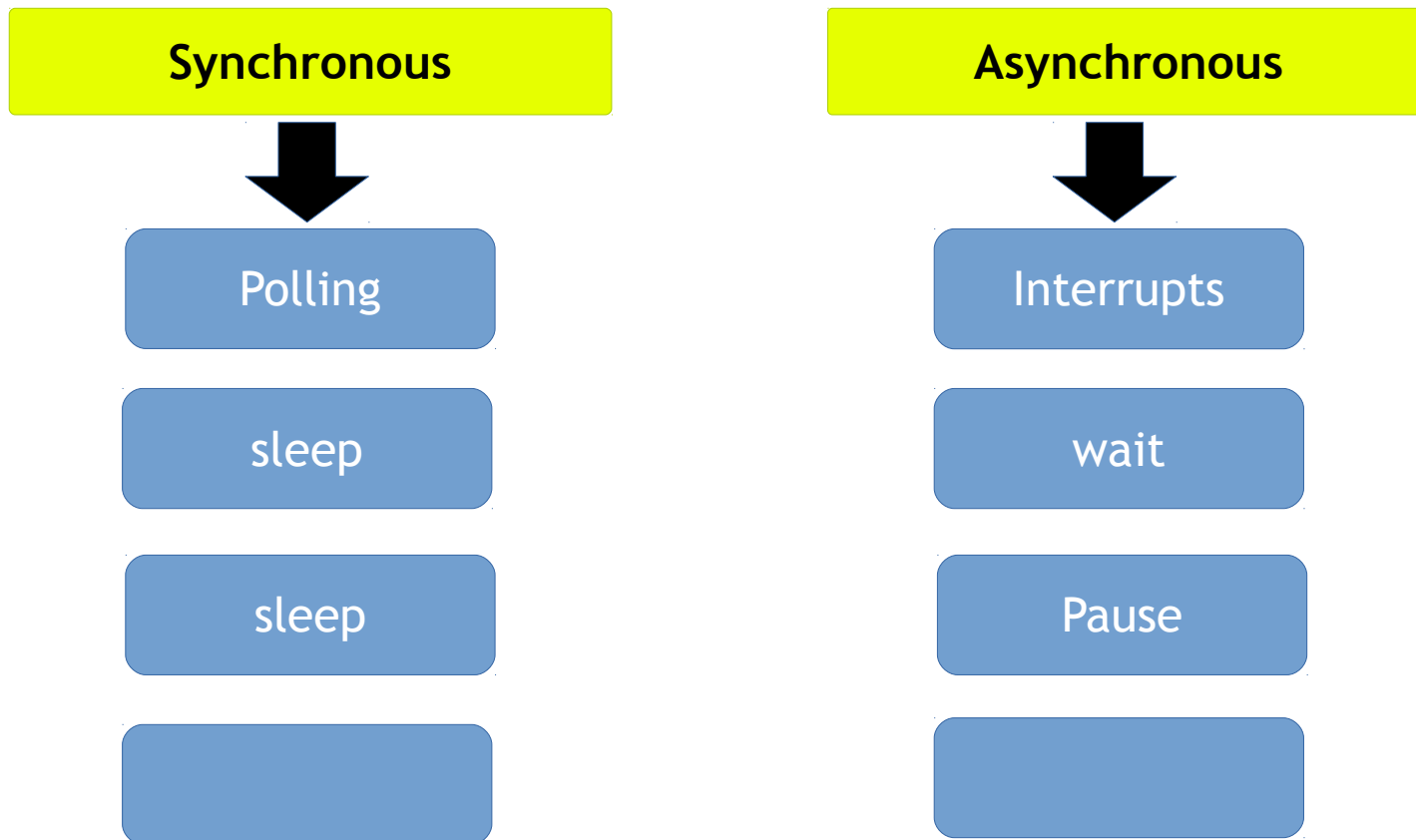
Signals

vs system calls



Synchronous & Asynchronous

- Wait for child to finish





- A process can send or detect signals to itself
- This is another method of sending signals
- There are three functions available for this purpose
- This is another method, apart from 'kill'

Function	Meaning
<code>raise (int sig)</code>	Raise a signal to currently executing process. Takes signal number as input
<code>alarm (int sec)</code>	Sends an alarm signal (SIGALRM) to currently executing process after specified number of seconds
<code>pause()</code>	Suspends the current process until expected signal is received. This is much better way to handle signals than sleep, which is a crude approach

Inter Process Communications

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Networking Fundamentals



Networking Fundamentals

Introduction

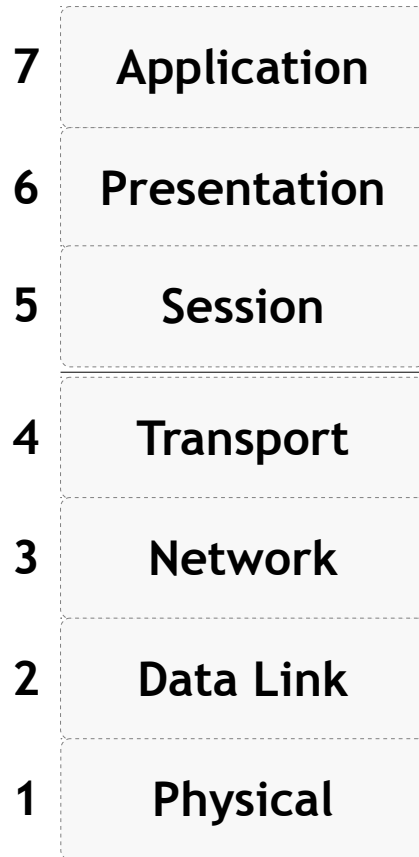


- Networking technology is key behind today's success of Internet
- Different type of devices, networks, services work together
- Transmit data, voice, video to provide best in class communication
- Client-server approach in a scaled manner towards in Internet
- Started with military remote communication
- Evolved as standards and protocols

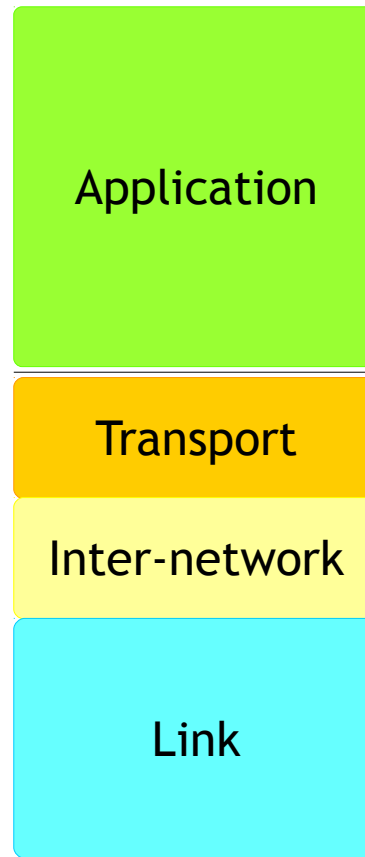
Organizations like IEEE, IETF, ITU etc...work together in creating global standards for interoperability and compliance

Networking Fundamentals

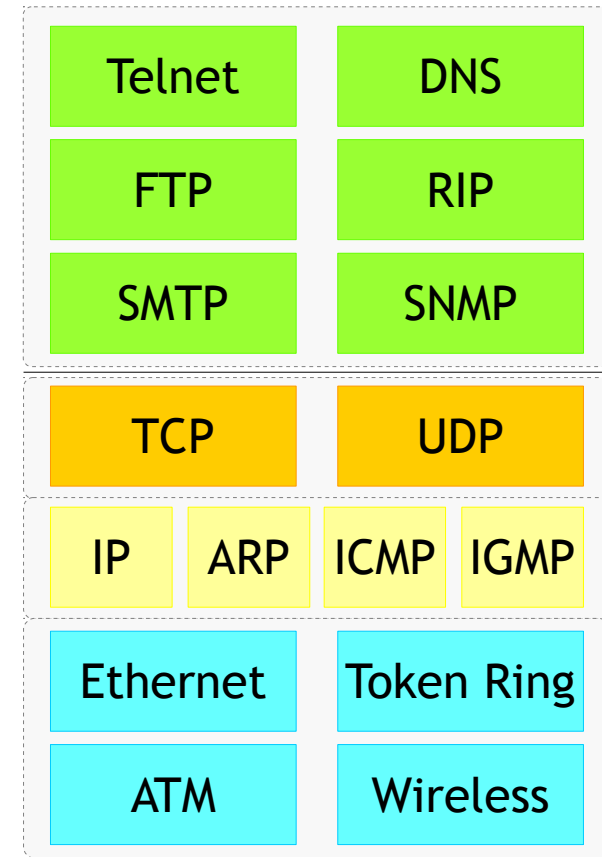
TCP / IP Model



OSI Model



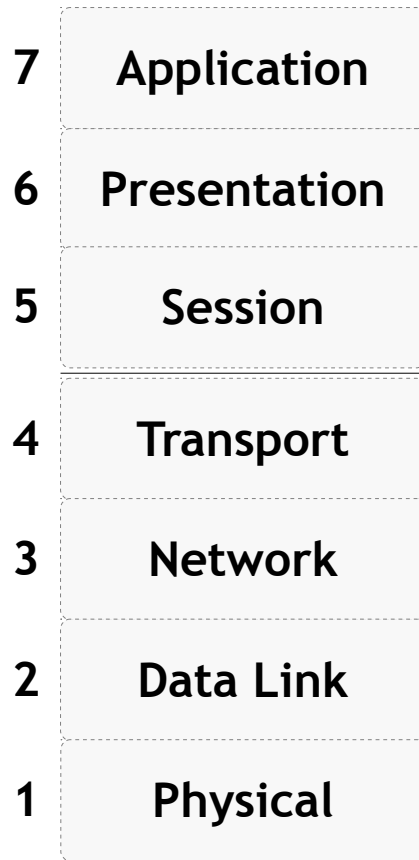
TCP / IP Protocol
Layers



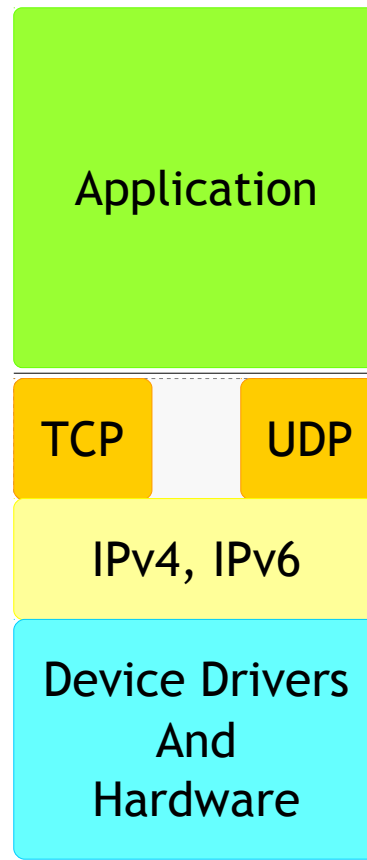
Internet Protocol
Suite

Networking Fundamentals

TCP / IP Model - Implementation in Linux

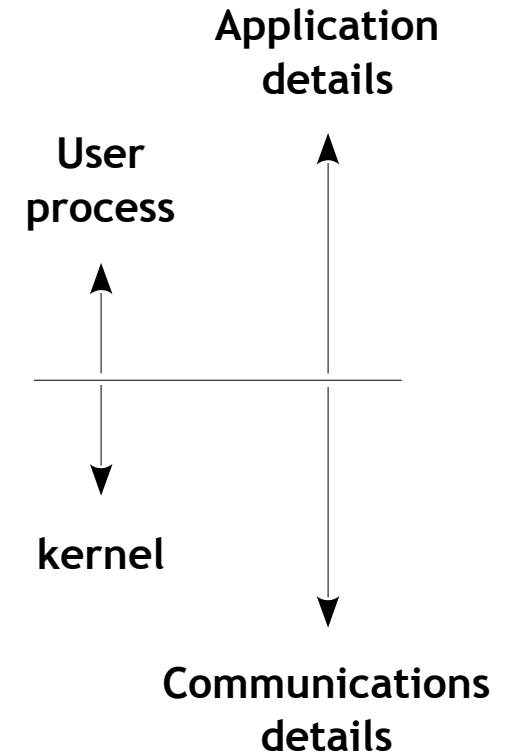


OSI Model



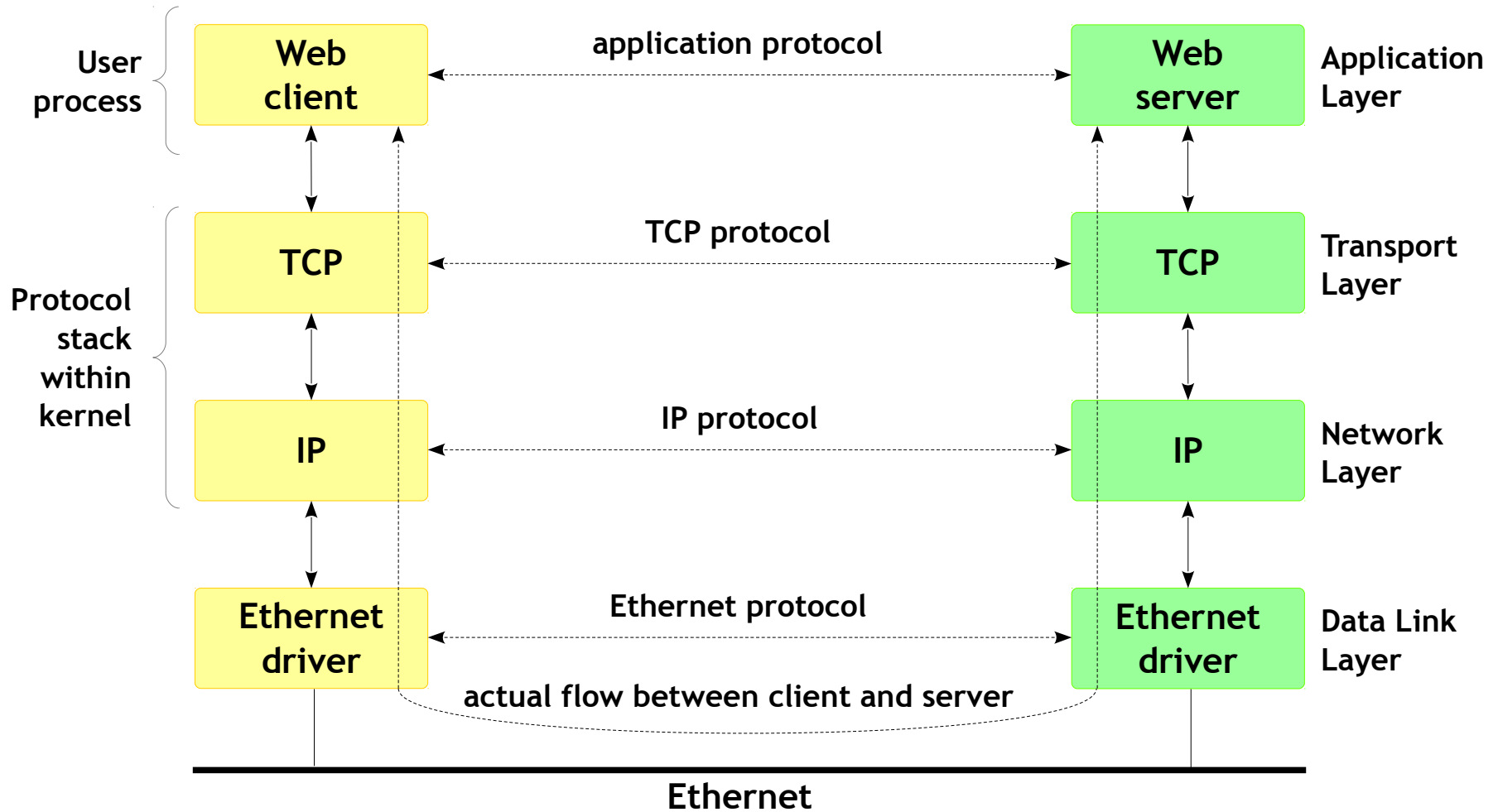
Internet Protocol
Suite

socket
XTI



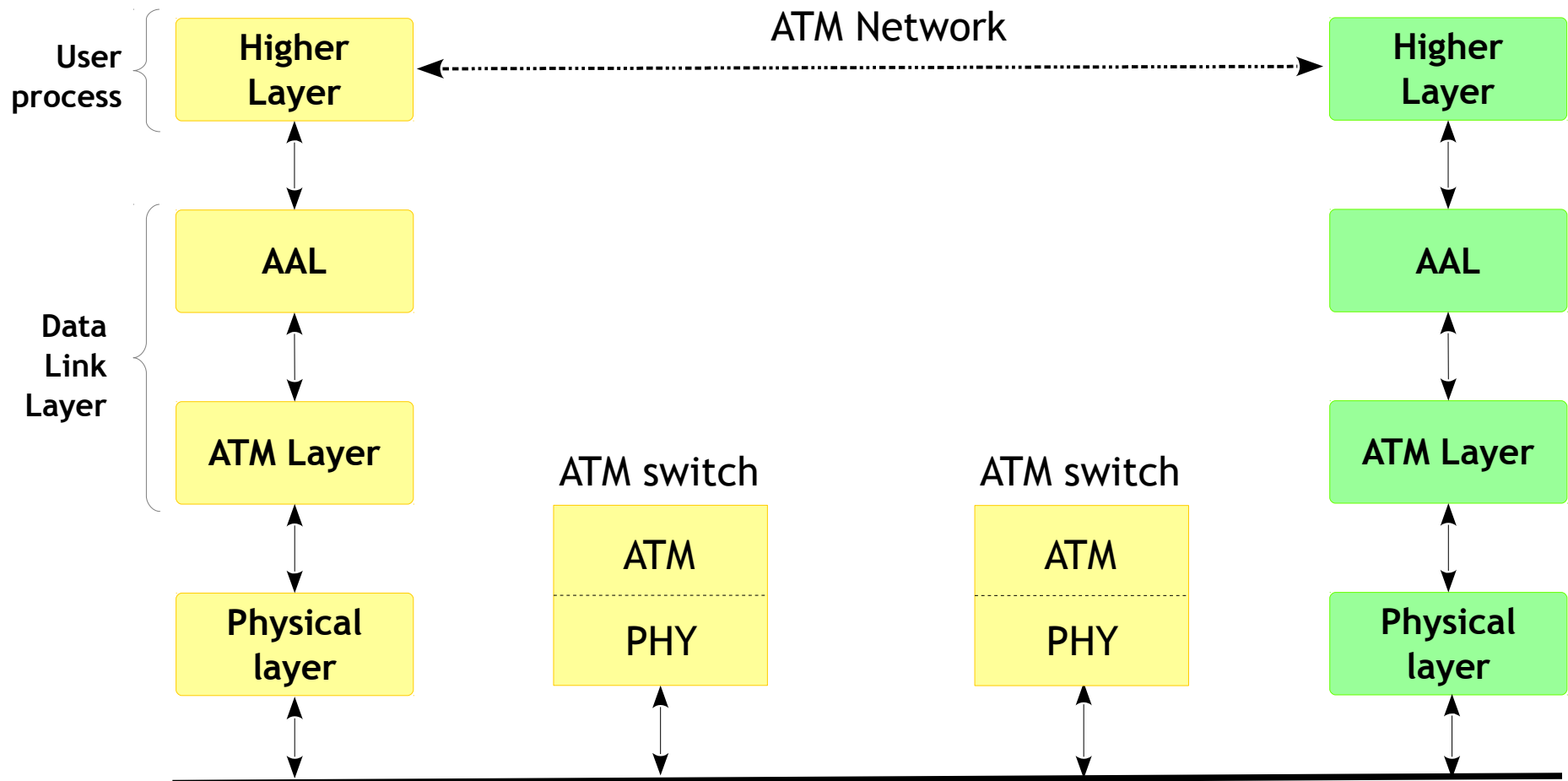
Networking Fundamentals

Protocols



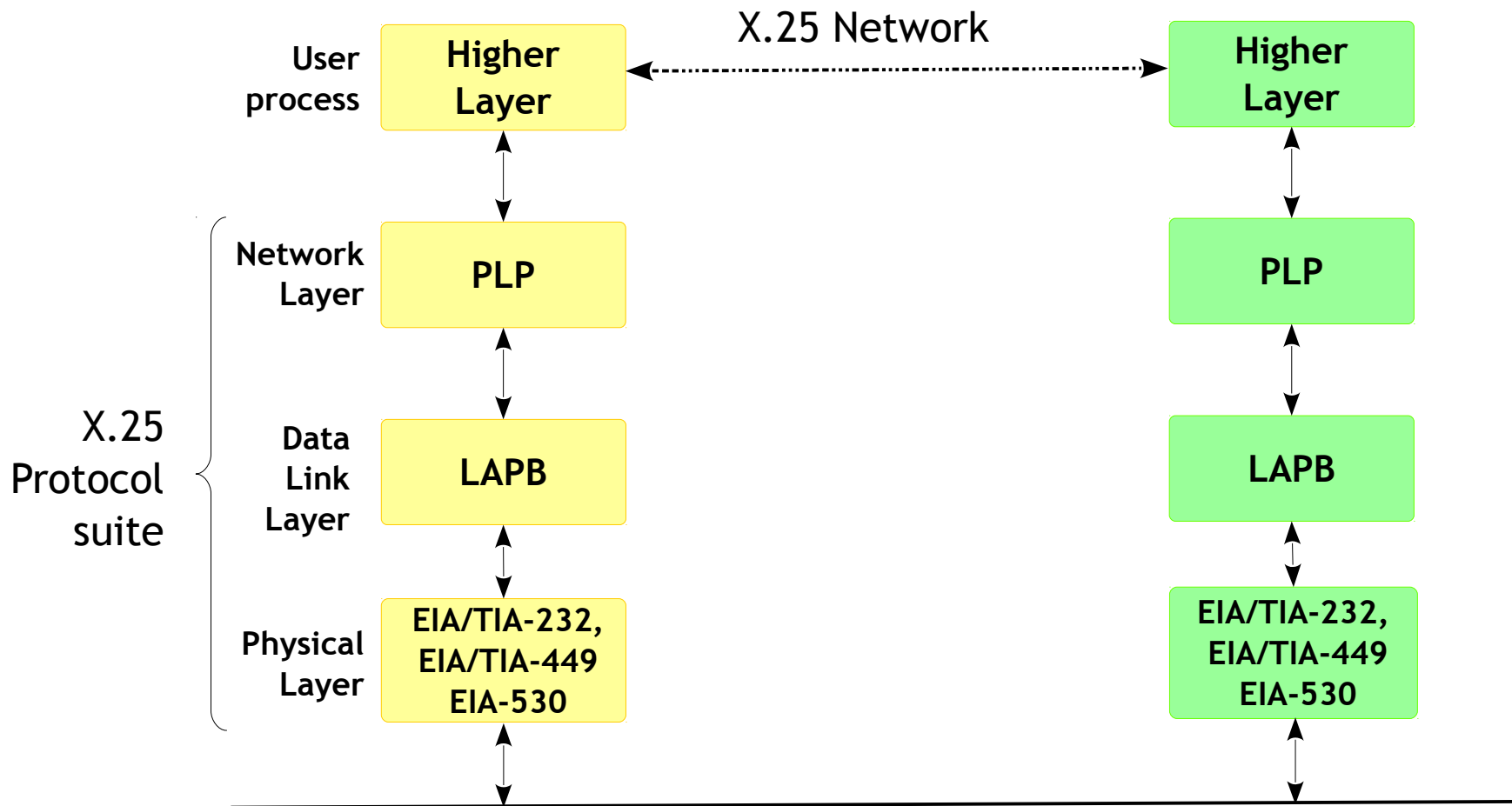
Networking Fundamentals

ATM Protocols stack



Networking Fundamentals

x.25 Protocols stack



Networking Fundamentals

Addressing



- IP layer: IP address
 - Dotted decimal notation (“192.168.1.10”)
 - 32 bit integer is used for actual storage
 - IP address must be unique in a network
 - Two modes IPv4 (32 bits) and IPv6 (128 bits)
 - Total bits divided into two parts
 - Network
 - Host
 - Host part obtained using subnet mask

Networking Fundamentals

IPv4

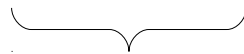


An IPv4 address (dotted-decimal notation)

172 . 16 . 254 . 1



10101100.00010000.11111110.00000001



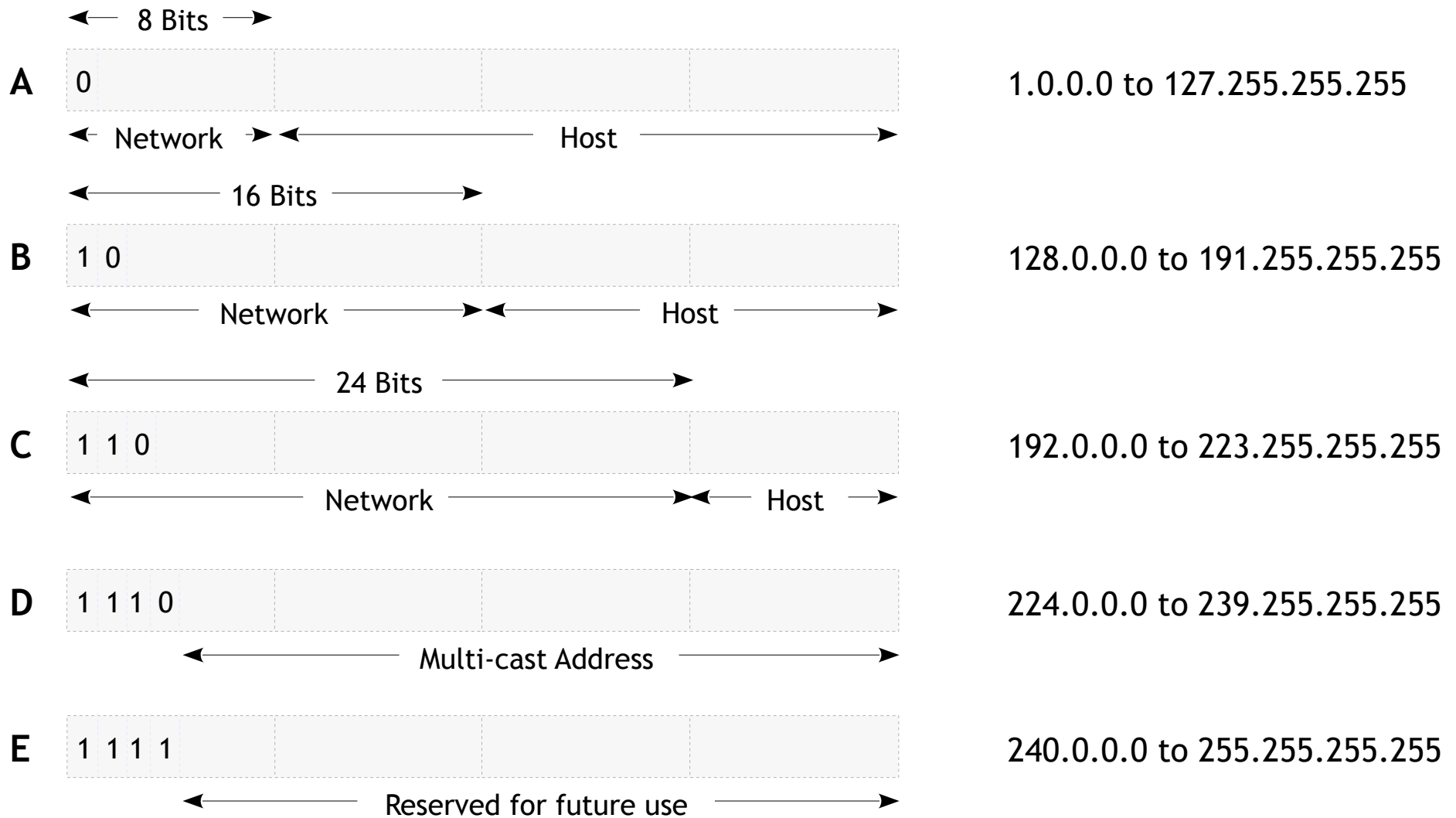
One byte = Eight bits



Thirty-two bits (4 x 8), or 4 bytes

Networking Fundamentals

IPv4 classes



Networking Fundamentals

Ipv6



An IPv6 Address (in Hexadecimal)

2001:0DB8:AC10:FE01:0000:0000:0000:0000



2001:0DB8:AC10:FE01:: Zero can be omitted

0010000000000001:0000110110111000:0000010000010000:1111110000000001:
0000000000000000:0000000000000000:0000000000000000:0000000000000000

Networking Fundamentals

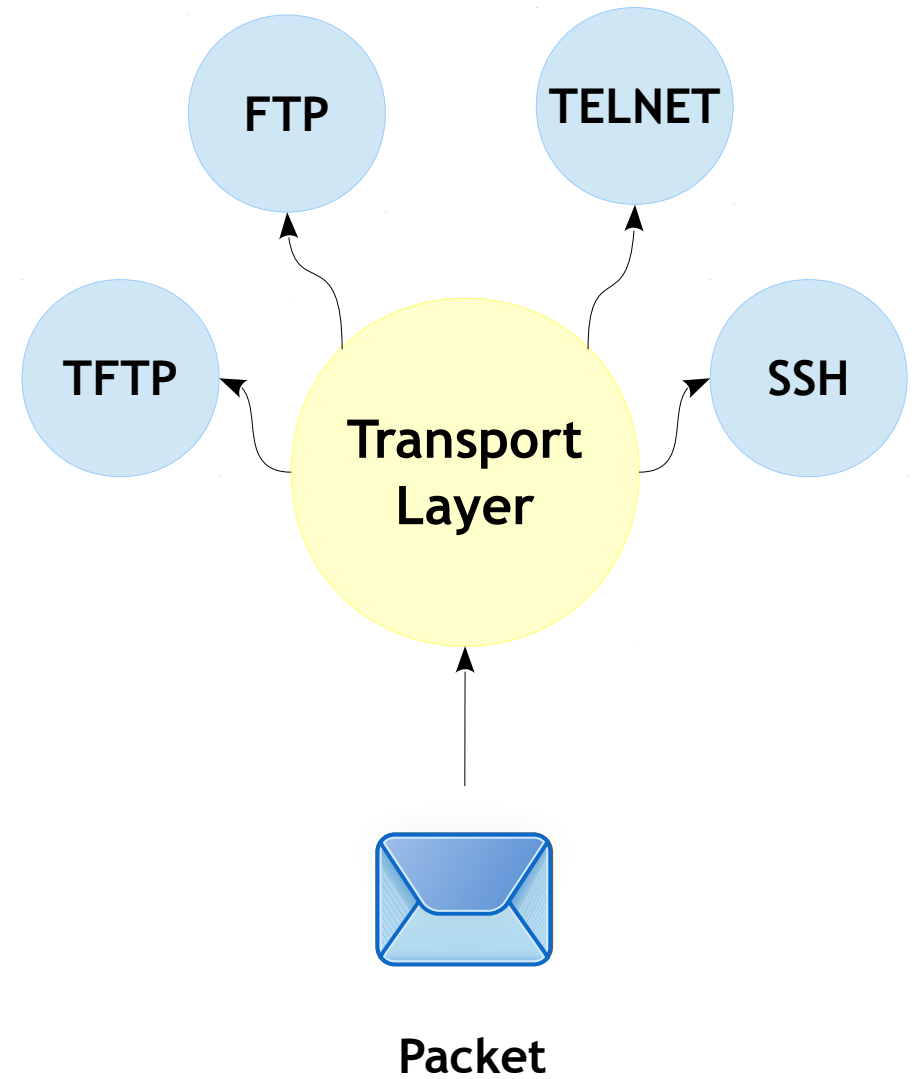
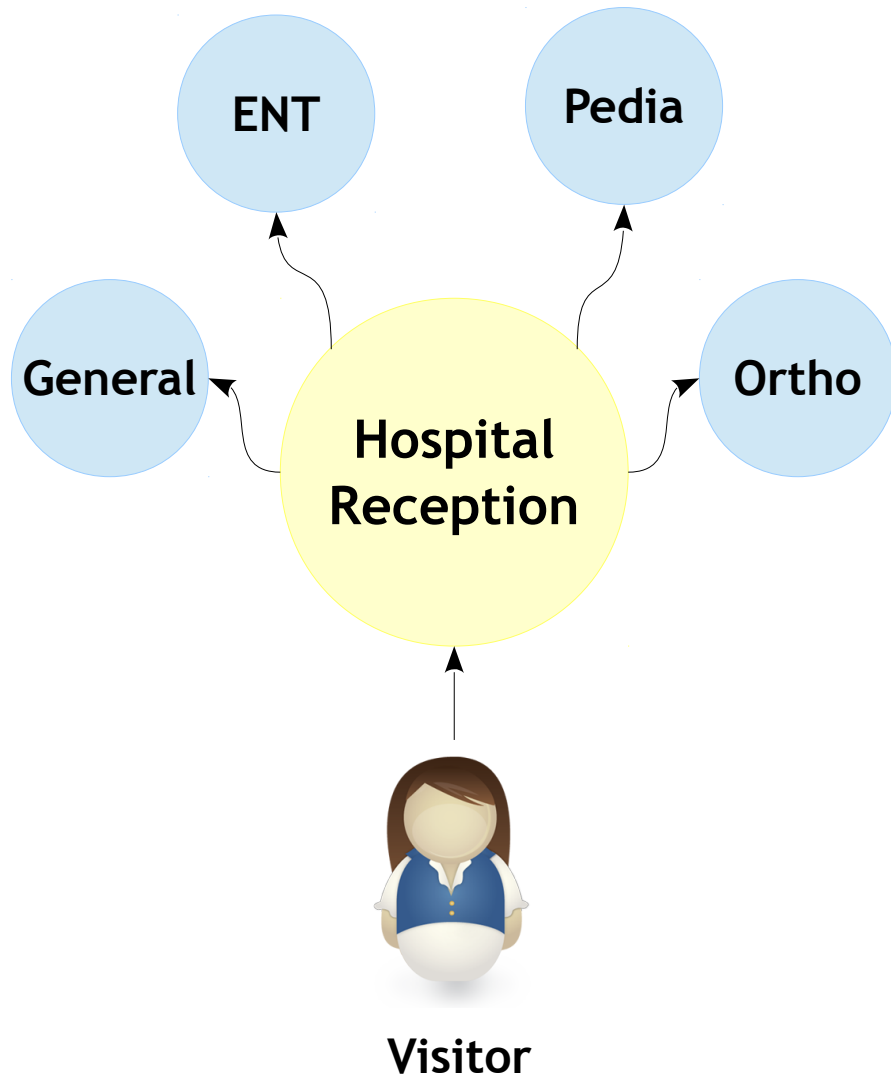
ip address and domain name



- Commands related to networking
 - Ifconfig (/sbin/ifconfig) command to find the ip-address of system
 - Ping - To check the connectivity using ICMP protocol
 - Host - To convert domain name to ip-address
- Eg: host emertxe.com

Networking Fundamentals

Ports



Networking Fundamentals

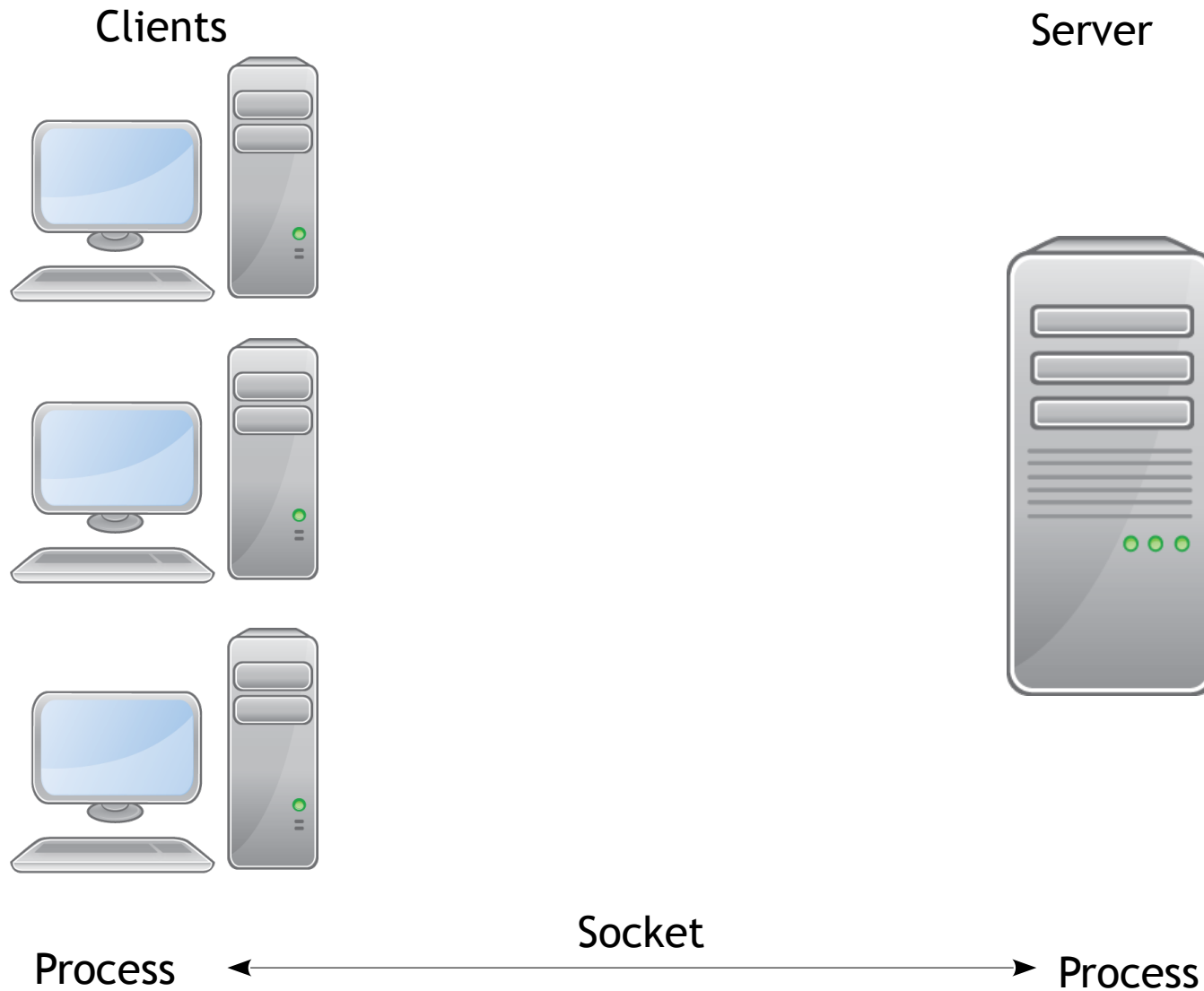
Ports



- TCP/UDP layer: Port numbers
 - Well known ports [ex: HTTP (80), Telnet (23)]
 - System Ports (0-1023)
 - User Ports (1024-49151)
 - Dynamic and/or Private Ports (49152-65535)
- Port number helps in multiplexing and de-multiplexing the messages
- To see all port numbers used in system by opening a file `/etc/services`

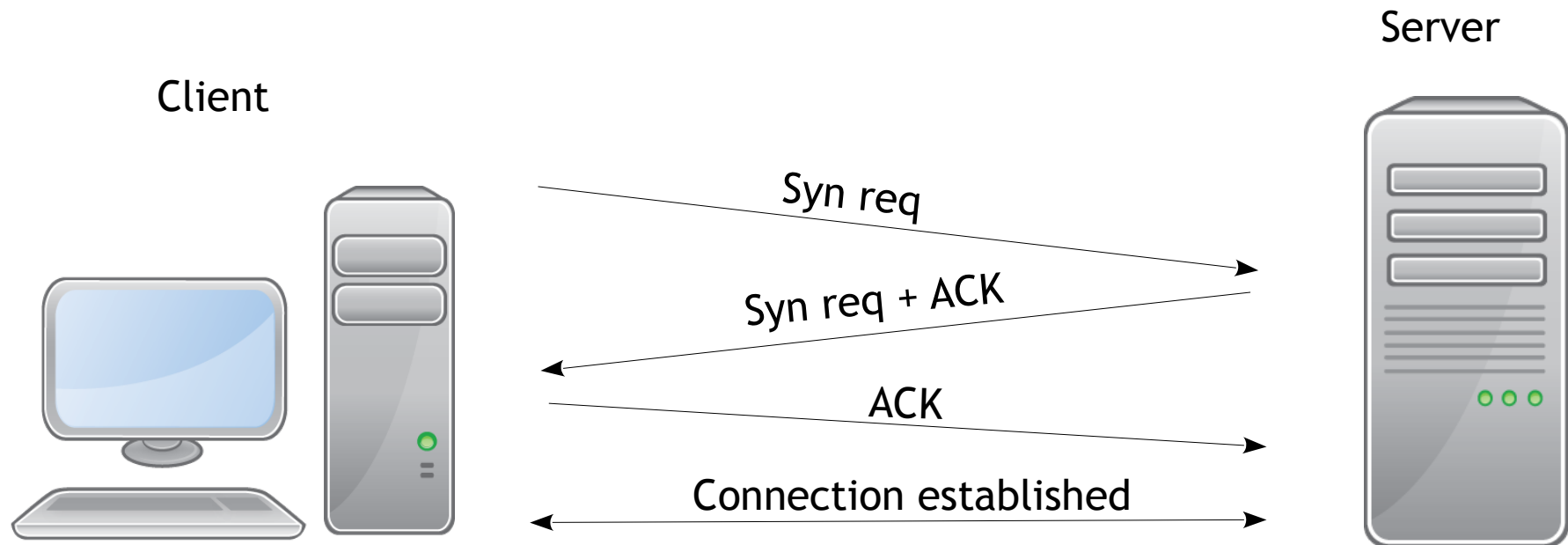
Networking Fundamentals

Socket as a IPC



Networking Fundamentals

TCP/IP three way handshake connection



Socket

Sockets



- Sockets is another IPC mechanism, different from other mechanisms as they are used in networking
- Apart from creating sockets, one need to attach them with network parameter (IP address & port) to enable it communicate it over network
- Both client and server side socket needs to be created & connected before communication
- Once the communication is established, sockets provide 'read' and 'write' options similar to other IPC mechanisms

Get Basics Right

Between big endian & little endian



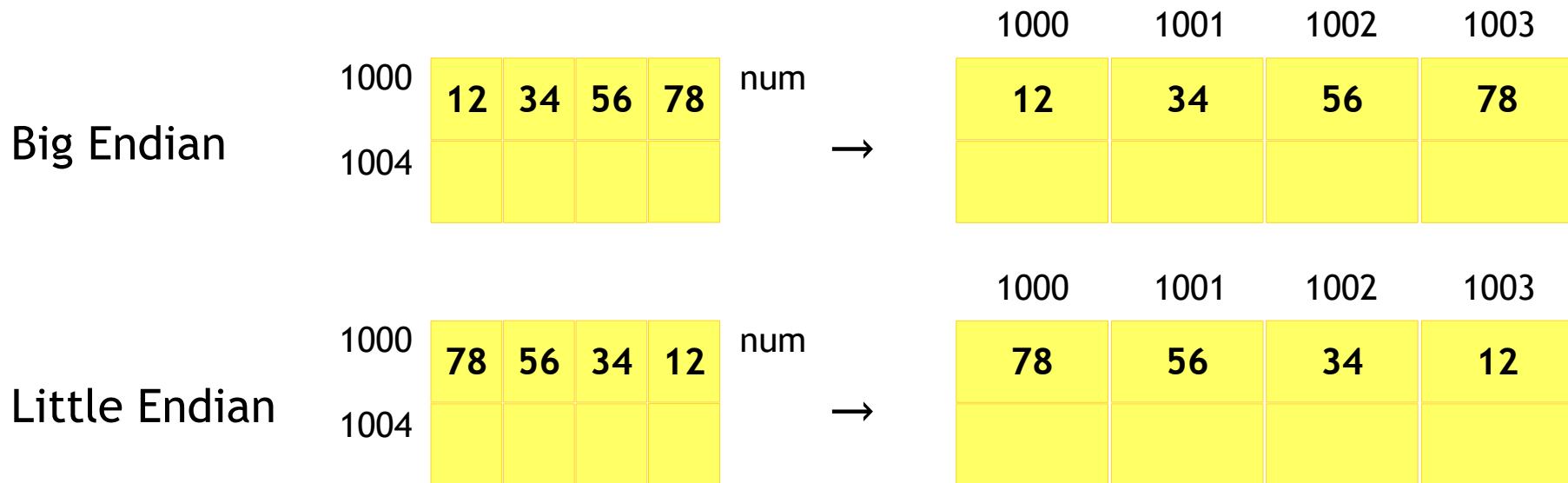
Example

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main()
{
    int num = 0x12345678;

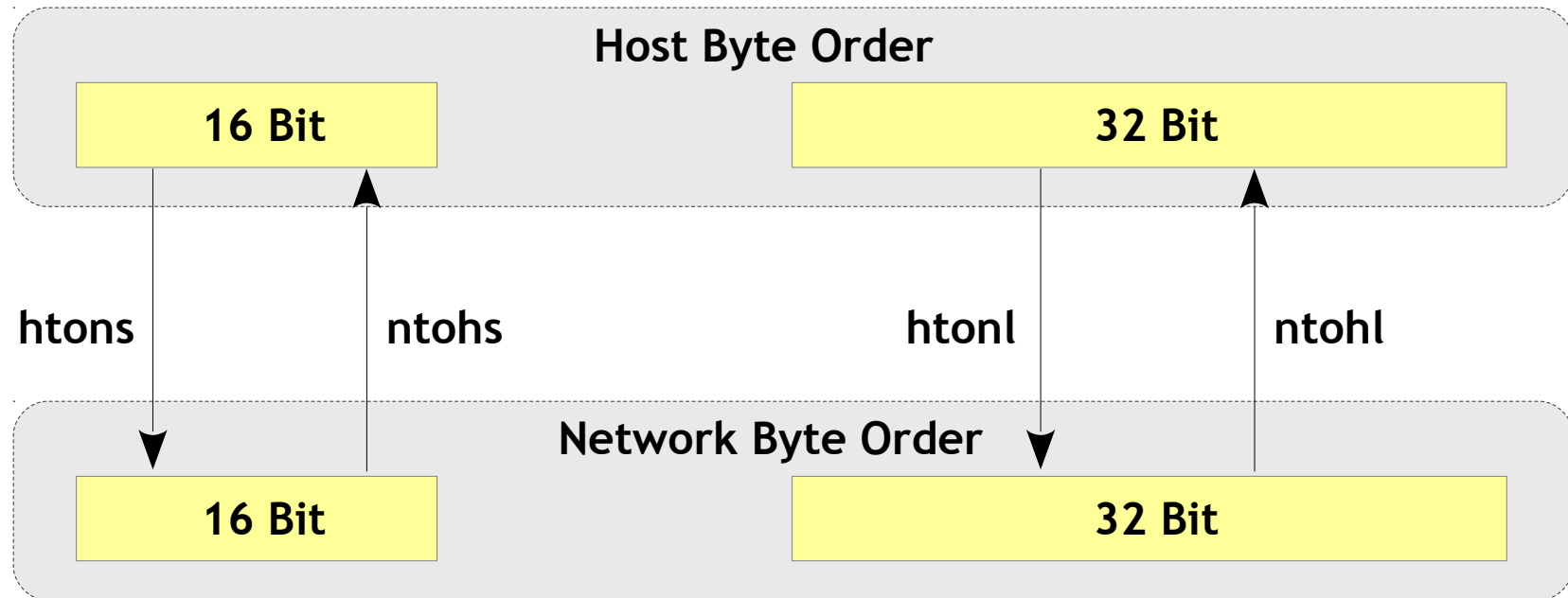
    return 0;
}
```

- Let us consider the following example and how it would be stored in both machine types



Sockets

Help Functions



```
uint16_t htons(uint16_t host_short);  
uint16_t ntohs(uint16_t network_short);  
uint32_t htonl(uint32_t host_long);  
uint32_t ntohl(uint32_t network_long);
```

Sockets

Help Functions



- Since machines will have different type of byte orders (little endian v/s big endian), it will create undesired issues in the network
- In order to ensure consistency network (big endian) byte order to be used as a standard
- Any time, any integers are used (IP address, Port number etc..) network byte order to be ensured
- There are multiple help functions (for conversion) available which can be used for this purpose
- Along with that there are some utility functions (ex: converting dotted decimal to hex format) are also available

Sockets

Address



- In order to attach (called as “bind”) a socket to network address (IP address & Port number), a structure is provided
- This (nested) structure needs to be appropriately populated
- Incorrect addressing will result in connection failure

```
struct sockaddr_in
{
    short int sin_family;          /* Address family */
    unsigned short int sin_port;   /* Port number */
    struct in_addr sin_addr;       /* IP address structure */
    unsigned char sin_zero[8];     /* Zero value, historical purpose */
};
```

```
/* IP address structure for historical reasons */
struct in_addr
{
    unsigned long s_addr;          /* 32 bit IP address */
};
```

Sockets

Calls - socket



Function	Meaning
<code>int socket(int domain, int type, int protocol)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Create a socket✓ domain: Address family (AF_INET, AF_UNIX etc..)✓ type: TCP (SOCK_STREAM) or UDP (SOCK_DGRAM)✓ protocol: Leave it as 0✓ RETURN: Socket ID or Error (-1)

Example usage:

```
sockfd = socket(AF_INET, SOCK_STREAM, 0);           /* Create a TCP socket */
```



Sockets

Calls - bind



Function	Meaning
<code>int bind(int sockfd, struct sockaddr *my_addr, int addrlen)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Bind a socket to network address✓ sockfd: Socket descriptor✓ my_addr: Network address (IP address & port number)✓ addrlen: Length of socket structure✓ RETURN: Success or Failure (-1)

Example usage:

```
int sockfd;  
struct sockaddr_in my_addr;  
  
sockfd = socket(AF_INET, SOCK_STREAM, 0);  
  
my_addr.sin_family = AF_INET;  
my_addr.sin_port = 3500;  
my_addr.sin_addr.s_addr = 0xC0A8010A;    /* 192.168.1.10 */  
memset(&(my_addr.sin_zero), '\0', 8);  
  
bind(sockfd, (struct sockaddr *)&my_addr, sizeof(struct sockaddr));
```



Sockets

Calls - connect



Function	Meaning
<code>int connect(int sockfd, struct sockaddr *serv_addr, int addrlen)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Create to a particular server✓ sockfd: Client socket descriptor✓ serv_addr: Server network address✓ addrlen: Length of socket structure✓ RETURN: Socket ID or Error (-1)

Example usage:

```
struct sockaddr_in my_addr, serv_addr;
```

```
/* Create a TCP socket & Bind */
```

```
sockfd = socket(AF_INET, SOCK_STREAM, 0);
```

```
bind(sockfd, (struct sockaddr *)&my_addr, sizeof(struct sockaddr));
```

```
serv_addr.sin_family = AF_INET;
```

```
serv_addr.sin_port = 4500;
```

```
serv_addr.sin_addr.s_addr = 0xC0A8010B;
```

```
/* Server port */
```

```
/* Server IP = 192.168.1.11 */
```



Sockets

Calls - listen



Function	Meaning
<code>int listen(int sockfd, int backlog)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Prepares socket to accept connection✓ MUST be used only in the server side✓ sockfd: Socket descriptor✓ Backlog: Length of the queue

Example usage:
`listen (sockfd, 5);`



Sockets

Calls - accept



Function	Meaning
<code>int accept(int sockfd, struct sockaddr *addr, socklen_t *addrlen)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Accepting a new connection from client✓ sockfd: Server socket ID✓ addr: Incoming (client) address✓ addrlen: Length of socket structure✓ RETURN: New socket ID or Error (-1)

Example usage:

```
new_sockfd = accept(sockfd, &client_address, &client_address_length);
```

- The `accept()` returns a new socket ID, mainly to separate control and data sockets
- By having this servers become concurrent
- Further concurrency is achieved by `fork()` system call



Sockets

Calls - recv



Function	Meaning
<code>int recv</code> (<code>int sockfd</code> , <code>void *buf</code> , <code>int len</code> , <code>int flags</code>)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Receive data through a socket✓ <code>sockfd</code>: Socket ID✓ <code>msg</code>: Message buffer pointer✓ <code>len</code>: Length of the buffer✓ <code>flags</code>: Mark it as 0✓ RETURN: Number of bytes actually sent or Error(-1)



Sockets

Calls - send



Function	Meaning
<code>int send(int sockfd, const void *msg, int len, int flags)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Send data through a socket✓ sockfd: Socket ID✓ msg: Message buffer pointer✓ len: Length of the buffer✓ flags: Mark it as 0✓ RETURN: Number of bytes actually sent or Error(-1)



Sockets

Calls - close

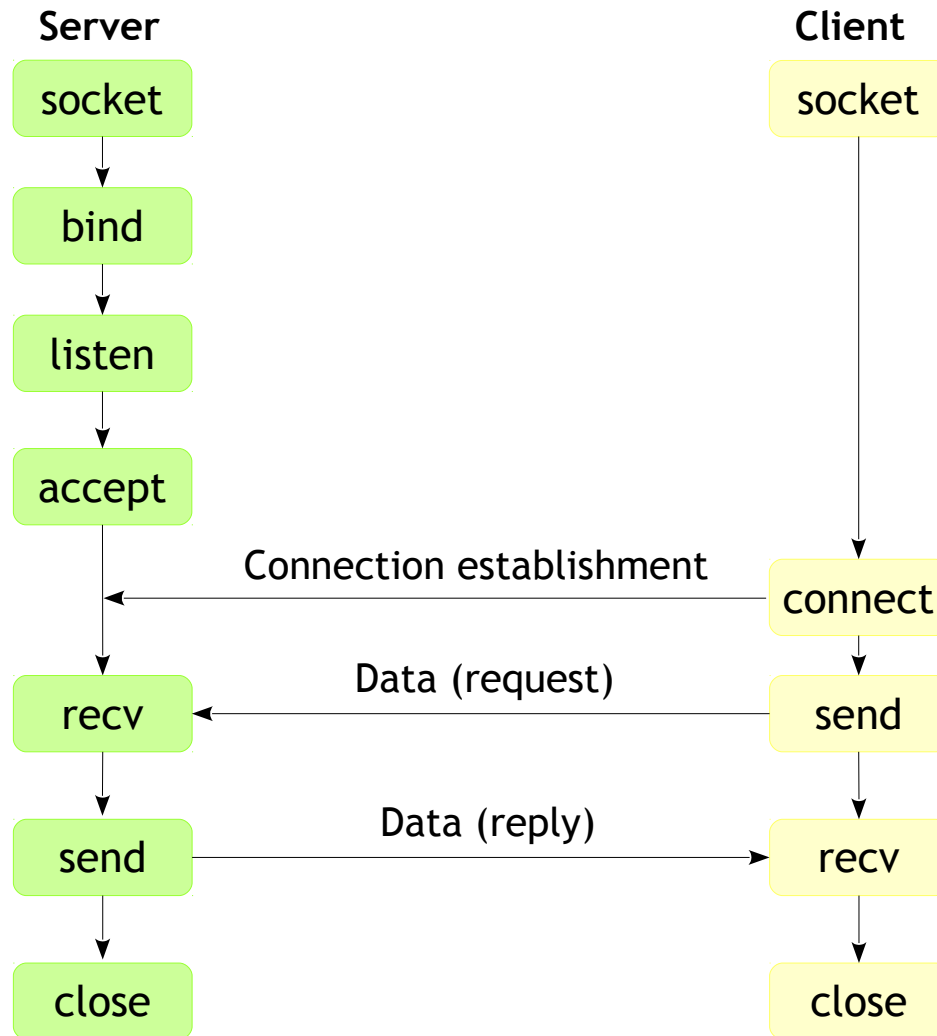


Function	Meaning
close (int sockfd)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Close socket data connection✓ sockfd: Socket ID



Sockets

TCP - Summary



NOTE: Bind() - call is optional from client side

Sockets

TCP vs UDP

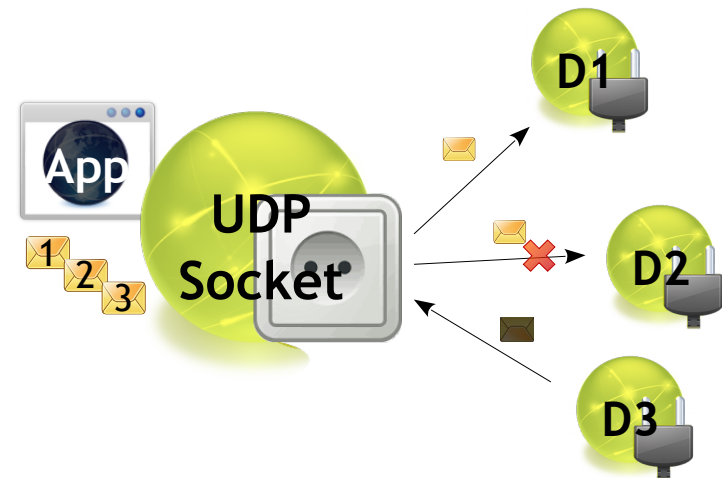
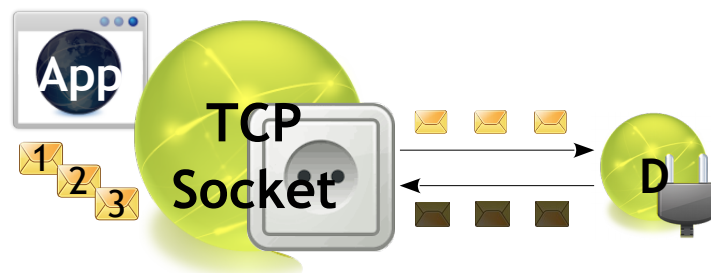


TCP socket (SOCK_STREAM)

- Connection oriented TCP
- Reliable delivery
- In-order guaranteed
- Three way handshake
- More network BW

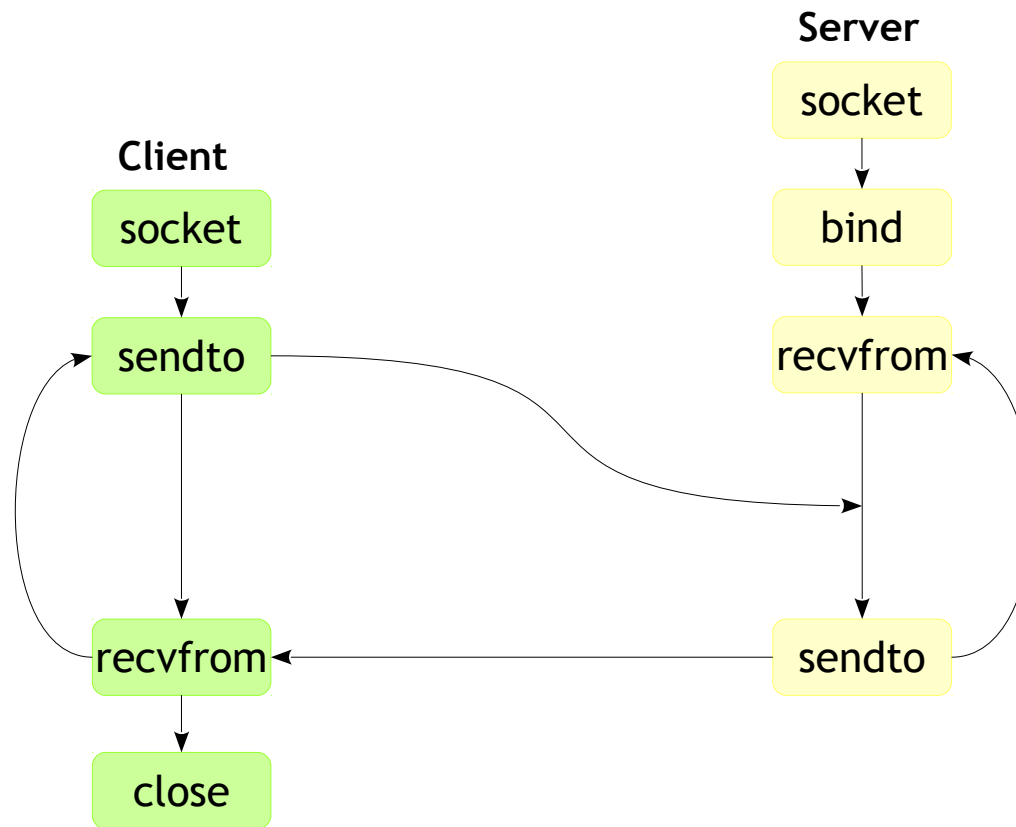
UDP socket (SOCK_DGRAM)

- Connectionless UDP
- Unreliable delivery
- No-order guarantees
- No notion of “connection”
- Less network BW



Sockets

UDP



Each UDP data packet need to be addressed separately. sendto() and recvfrom() calls are used

Sockets

UDP - Functions calls



Function	Meaning
<pre>int sendto(int sockfd, const void *msg, int len, unsigned int flags, const struct sockaddr *to, socklen_t length);</pre>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Send data through a UDP socket✓ sockfd: Socket ID✓ msg: Message buffer pointer✓ len: Length of the buffer✓ flags: Mark it as 0✓ to: Target address populated✓ length: Length of the socket structure✓ RETURN: Number of bytes actually sent or Error(-1)
<pre>int recvfrom(int sockfd, void *buf, int len, unsigned int flags, struct sockaddr *from, int *length);</pre>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Receive data through a UDP socket✓ sockfd: Socket ID✓ buf: Message buffer pointer✓ len: Length of the buffer✓ flags: Mark it as 0✓ to: Receiver address populated✓ length: Length of the socket structure✓ RETURN: Number of bytes actually received or Error(-1)

Client - Server Models



Client - Server Models



- Iterative Model
 - The Listener and Server portion coexist in the same task
 - So no other client can access the service until the current running client finishes its task.
- Concurrent Model
 - The Listener and Server portion run under control of different tasks
 - The Listener task is to accept the connection and invoke the server task
 - Allows higher degree of concurrency

Client - Server Models

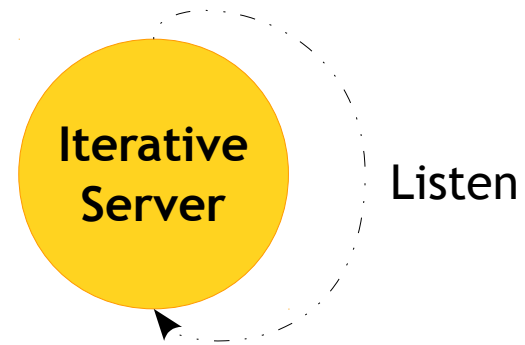
Iterative Model - The Flow



- Create a socket
- Bind it to a local address
- Listen (make TCP/IP aware that the socket is available)
- Accept the connection request
- Do data transaction
- Close

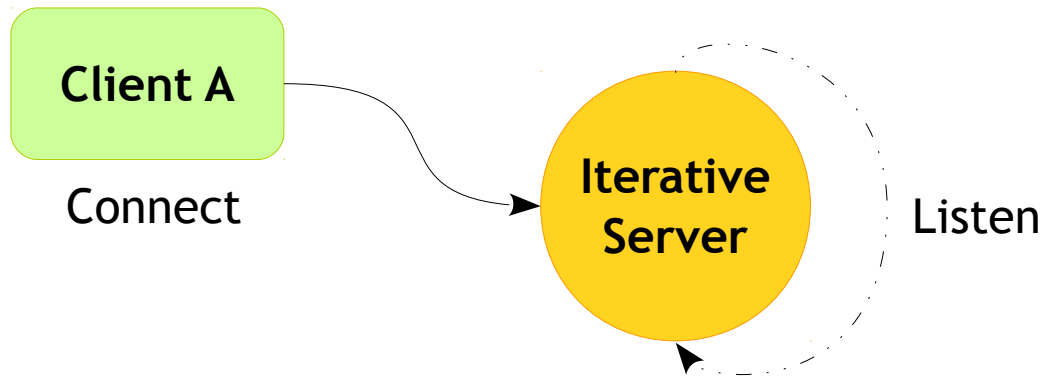
Client - Server Models

Iterative Model - The Flow



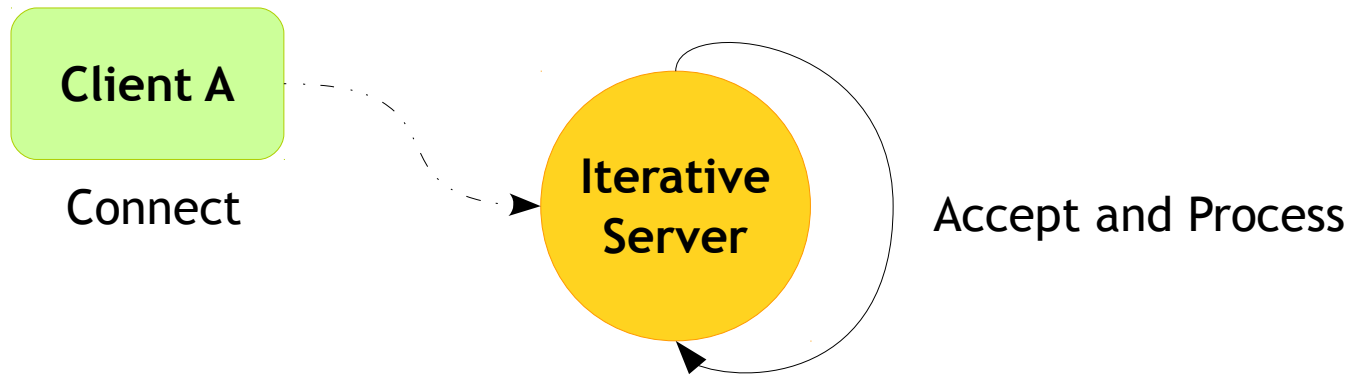
Client - Server Models

Iterative Model - The Flow



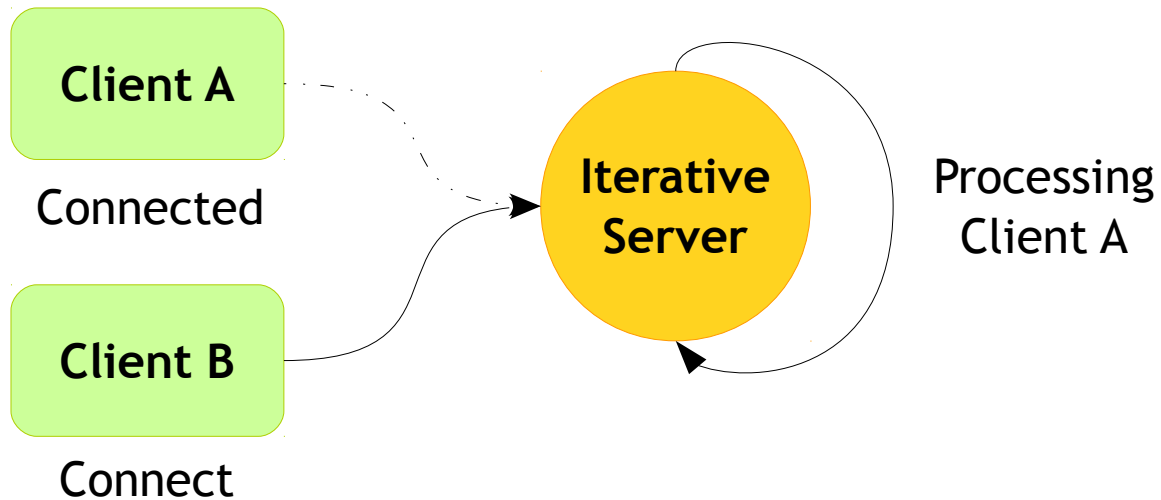
Client - Server Models

Iterative Model - The Flow



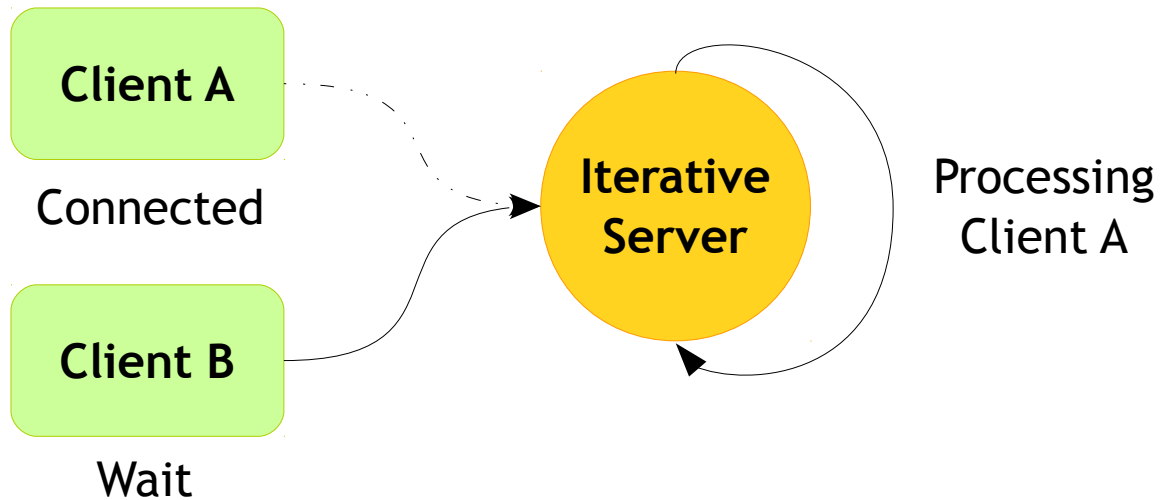
Client - Server Models

Iterative Model - The Flow



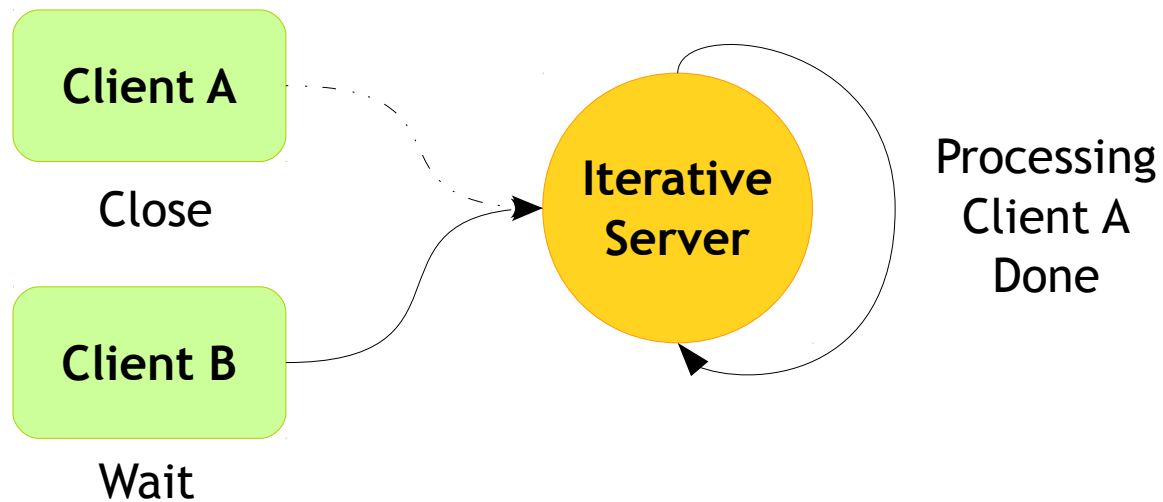
Client - Server Models

Iterative Model - The Flow



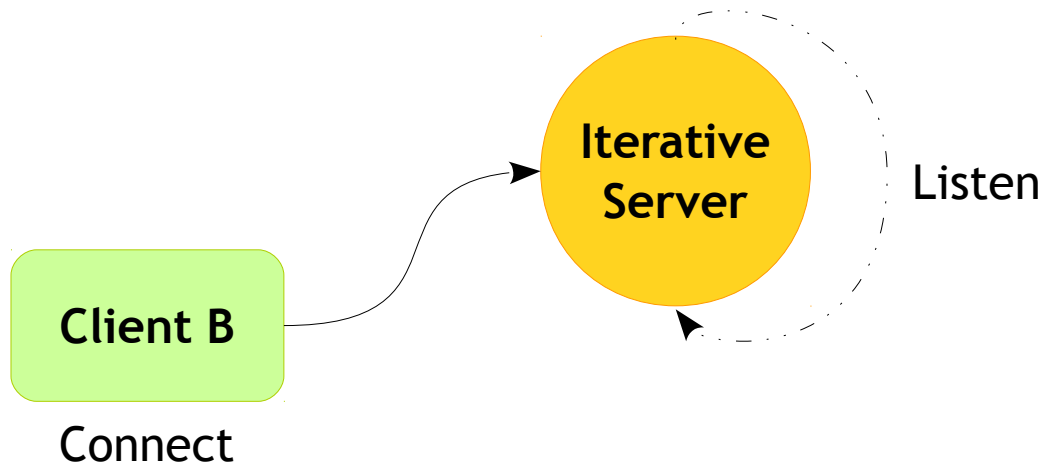
Client - Server Models

Iterative Model - The Flow



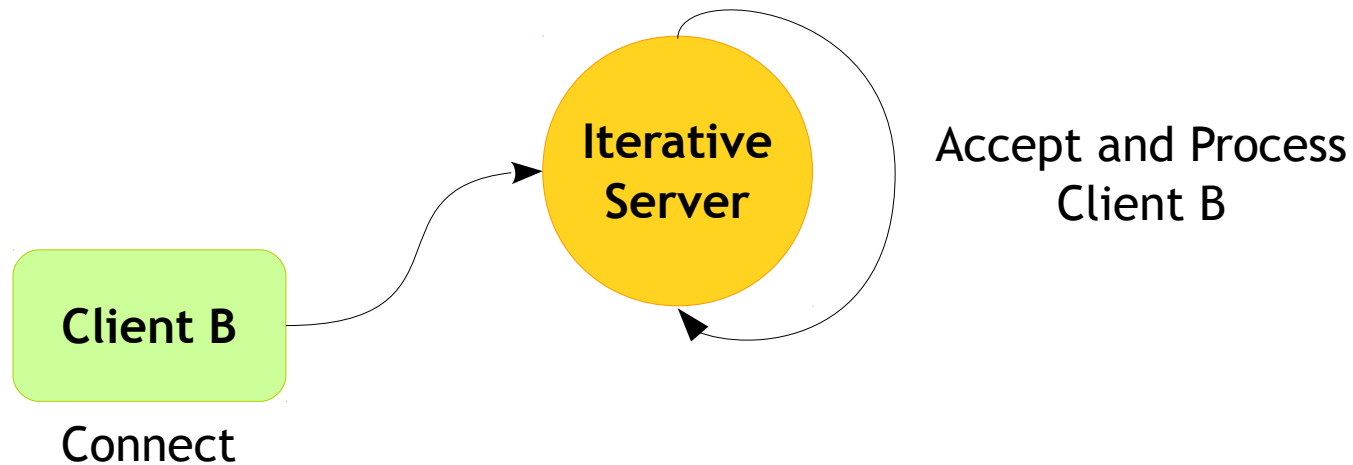
Client - Server Models

Iterative Model - The Flow



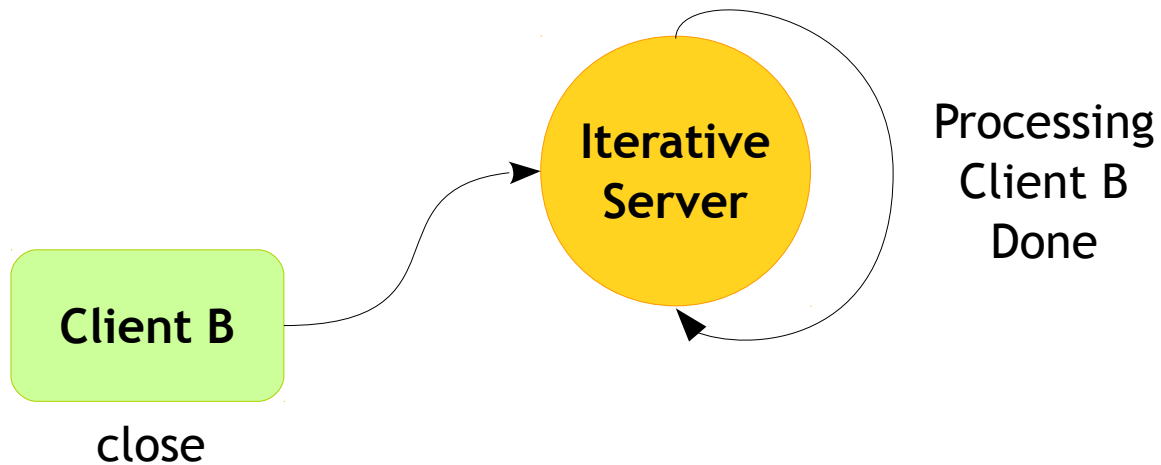
Client - Server Models

Iterative Model - The Flow



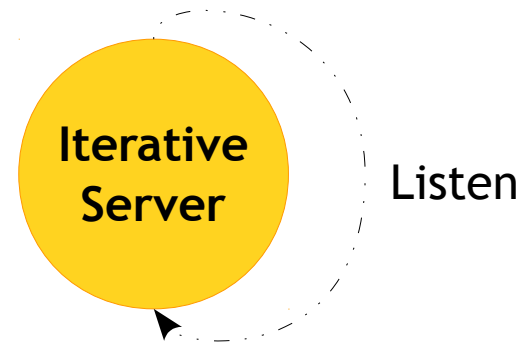
Client - Server Models

Iterative Model - The Flow



Client - Server Models

Iterative Model - The Flow



Client - Server Models

Iterative Model - Pros and Cons



- Pros:
 - Simple
 - Reduced network overhead
 - Less CPU intensive
 - Higher single-threaded transaction throughput
- Cons
 - Severely limits concurrent access
 - Server is locked while dealing with one client

Client - Server Models

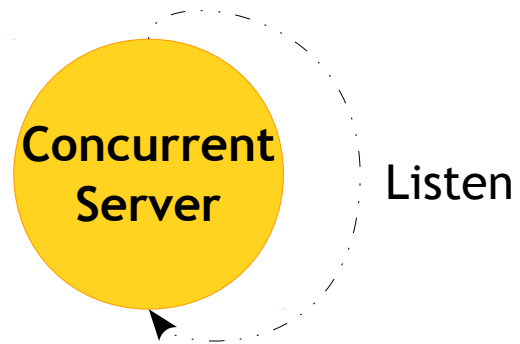
Concurrent Model - The Flow



- Create a Listening socket
- Bind it to a local address
- Listen (make TCP/IP aware that the socket is available)
- Accept the connection request in loop
- Create a new process and passing the new **sockfd**
- Do data transaction
- Close (Both process depending on the implementation)

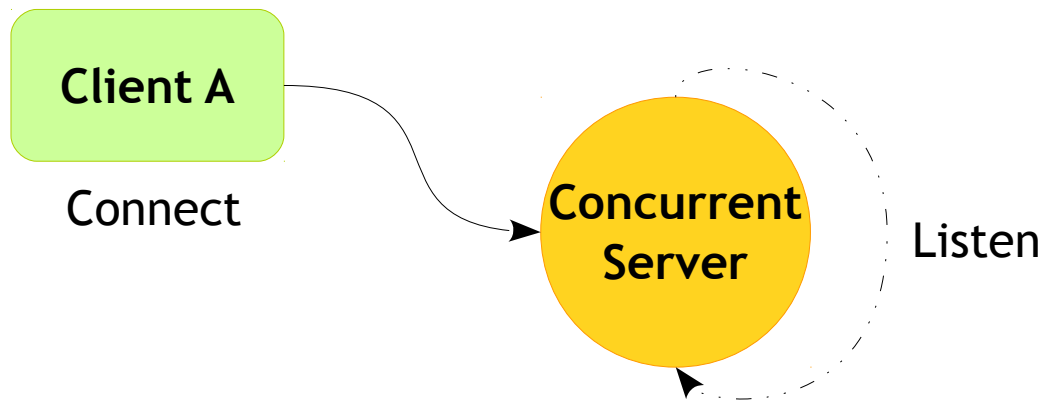
Client - Server Models

Concurrent Model - The Flow



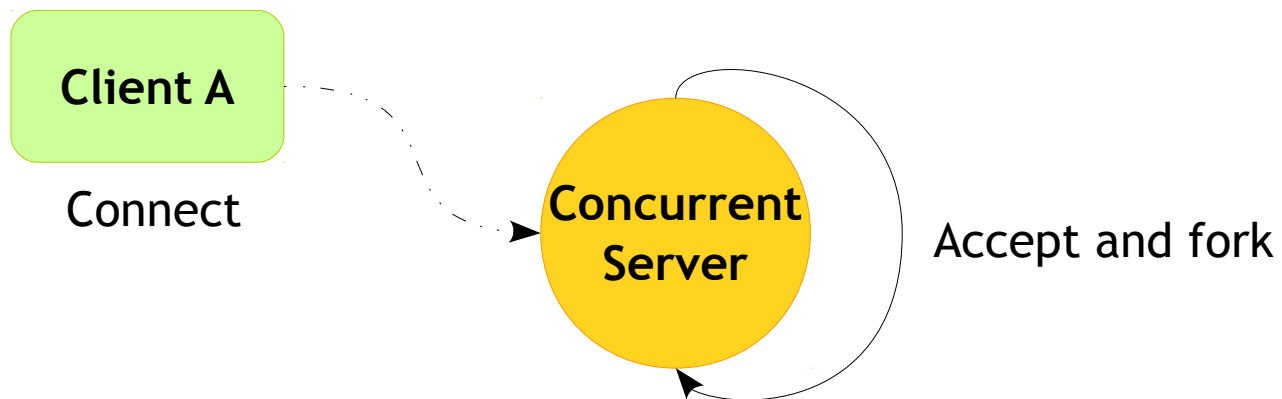
Client - Server Models

Concurrent Model - The Flow



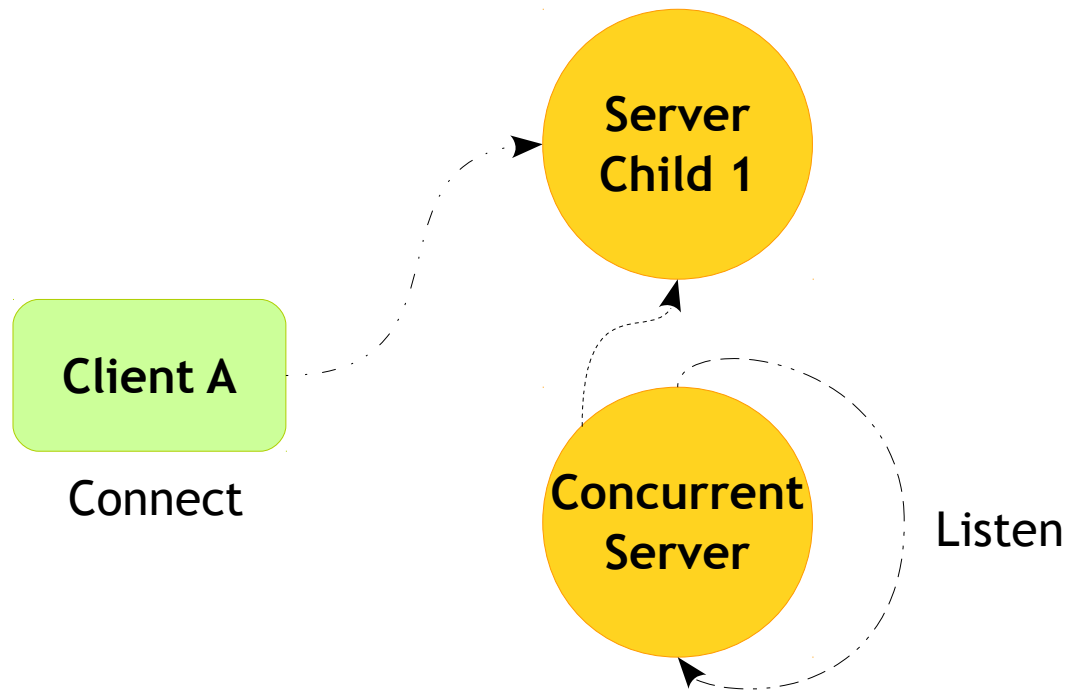
Client - Server Models

Concurrent Model - The Flow



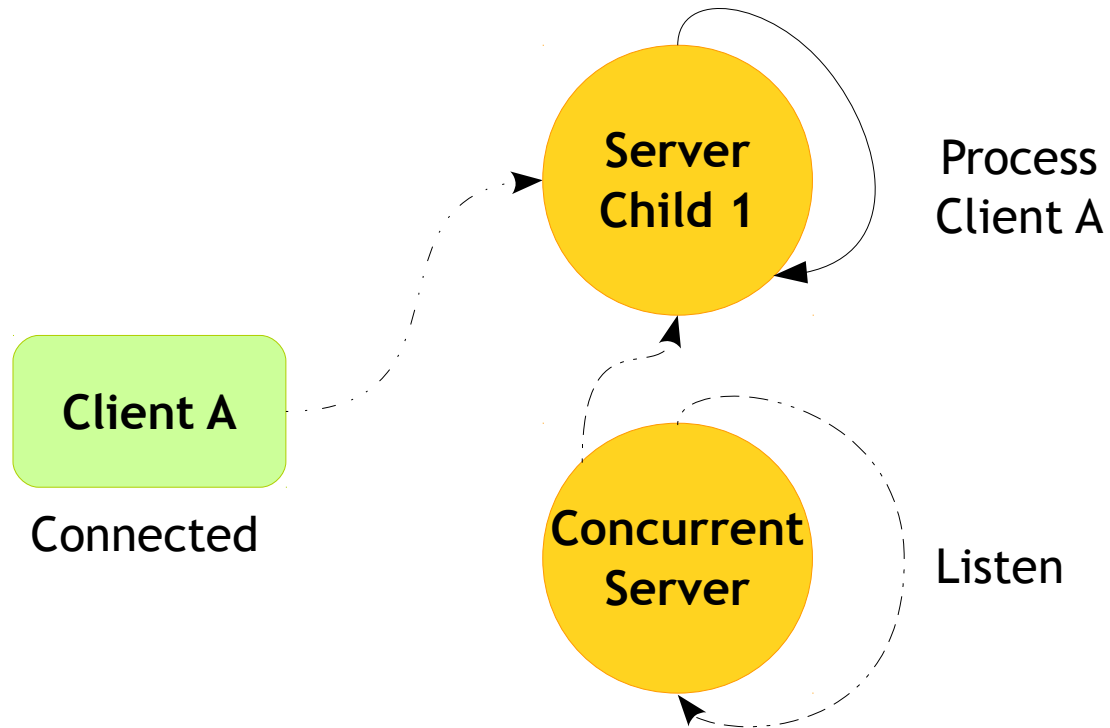
Client - Server Models

Concurrent Model - The Flow



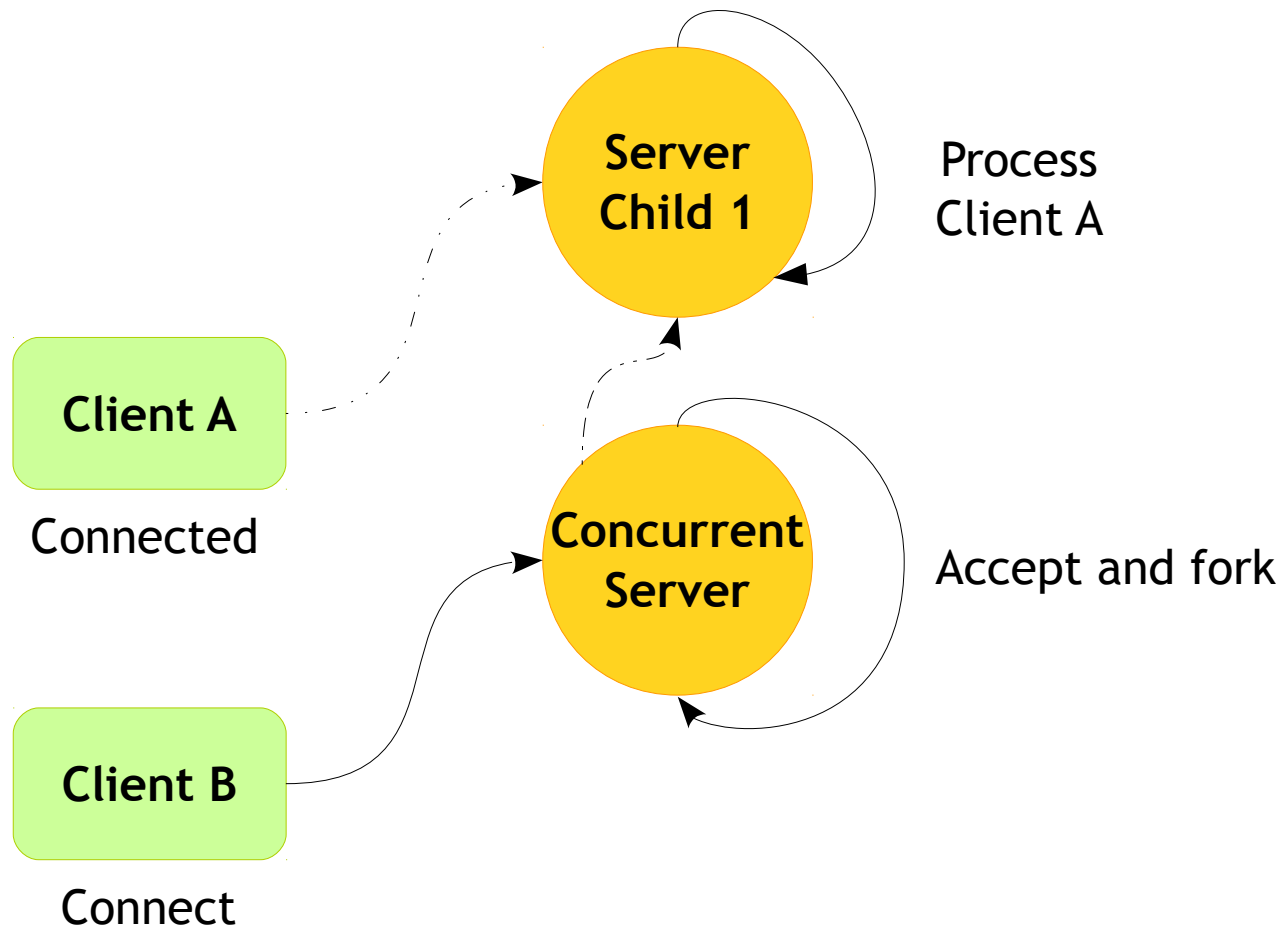
Client - Server Models

Concurrent Model - The Flow



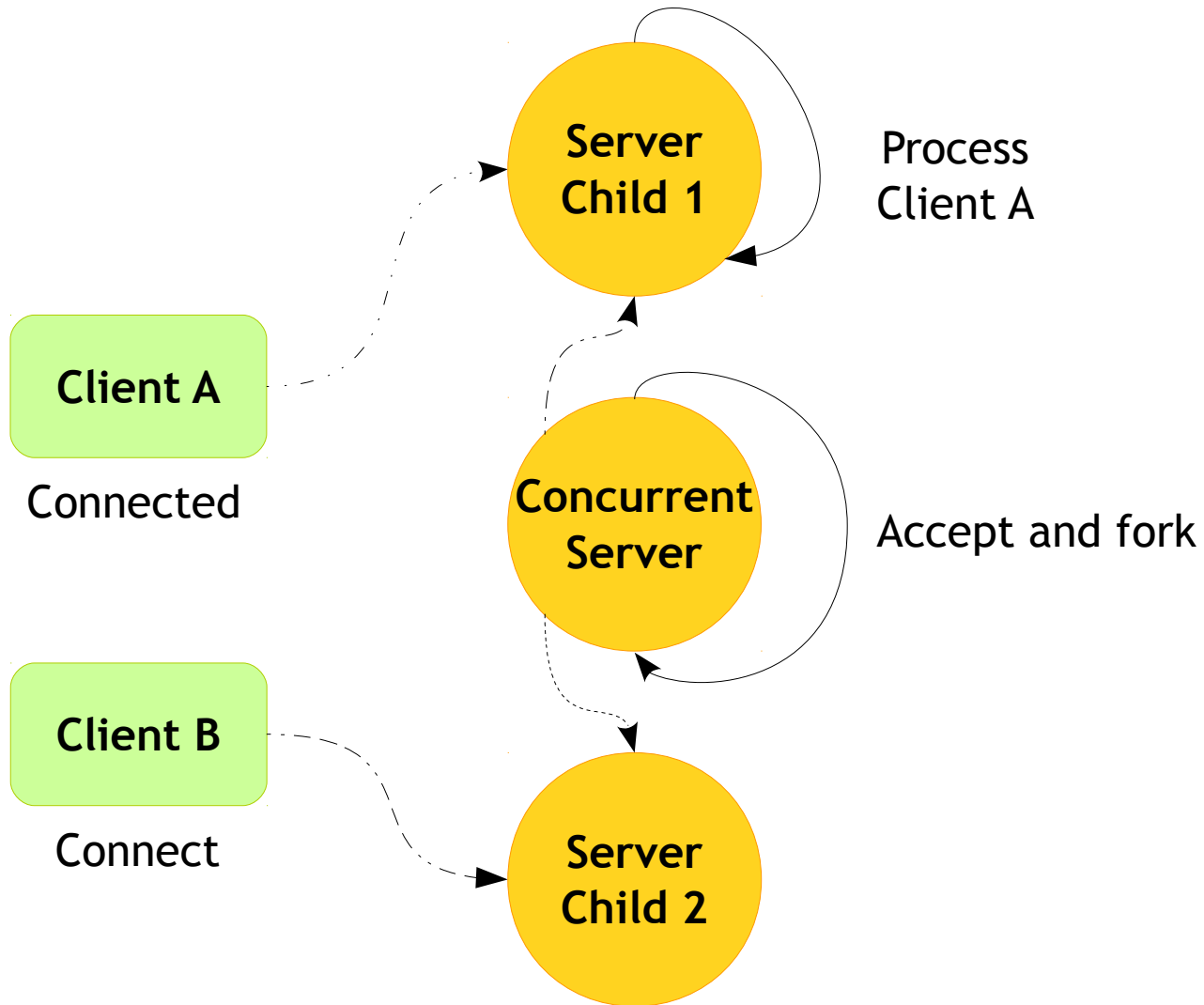
Client - Server Models

Concurrent Model - The Flow



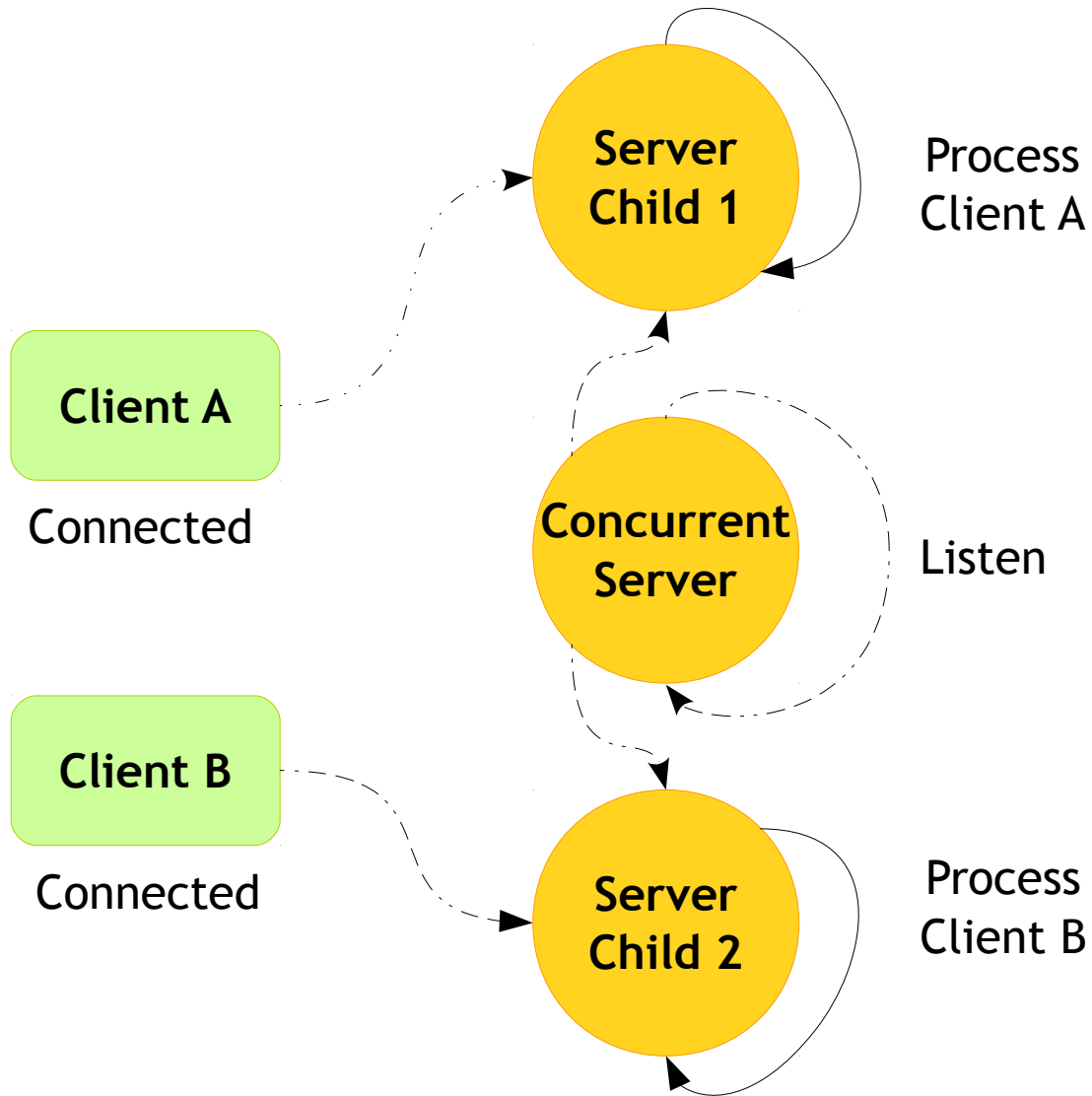
Client - Server Models

Concurrent Model - The Flow



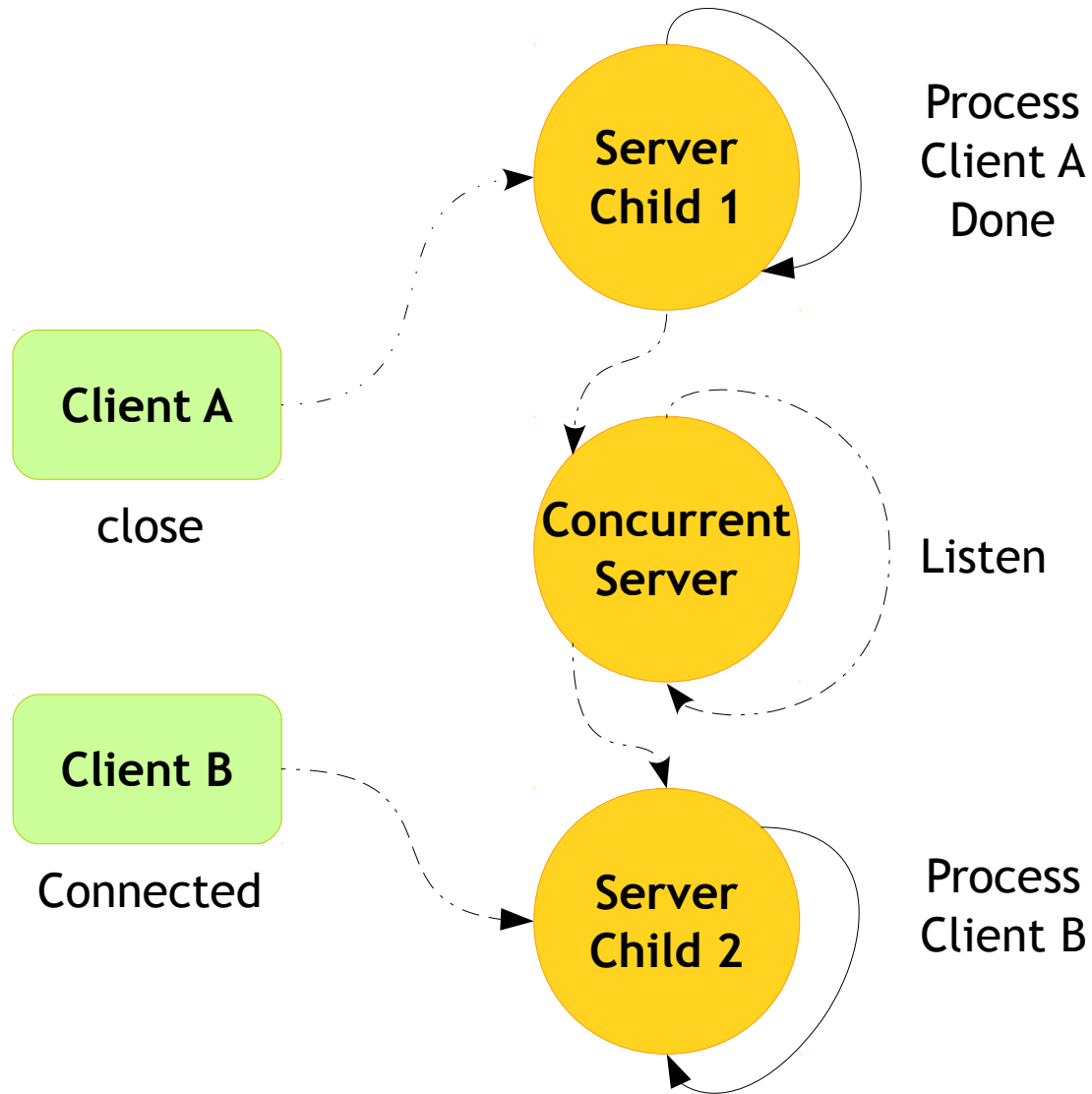
Client - Server Models

Concurrent Model - The Flow



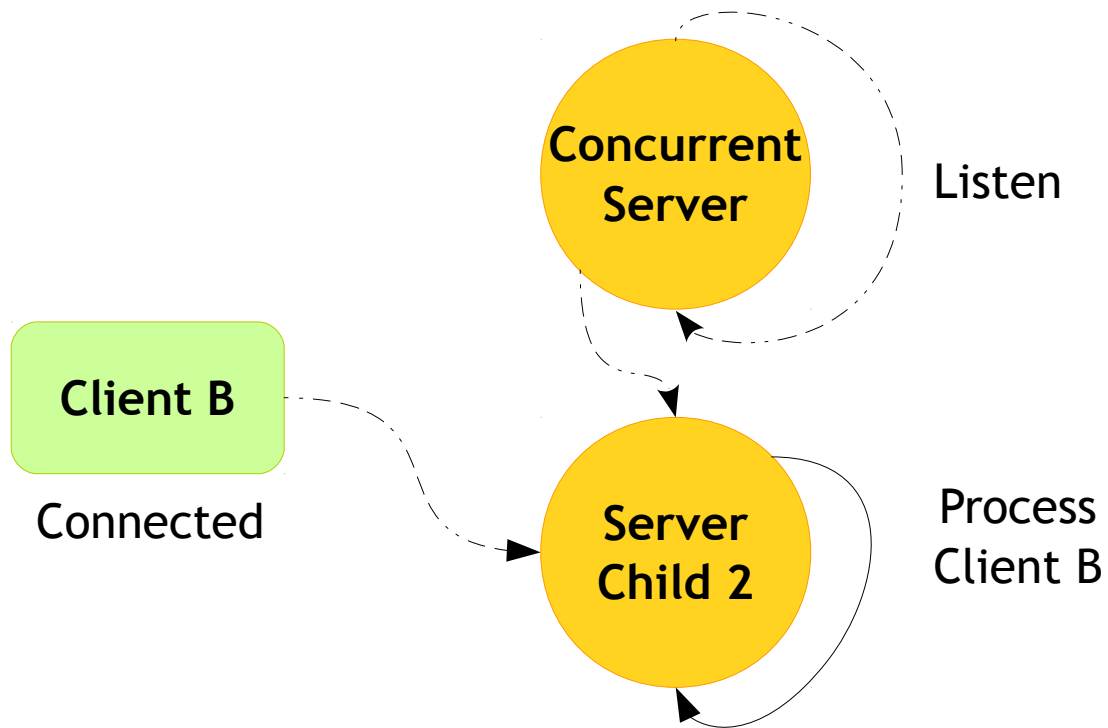
Client - Server Models

Concurrent Model - The Flow



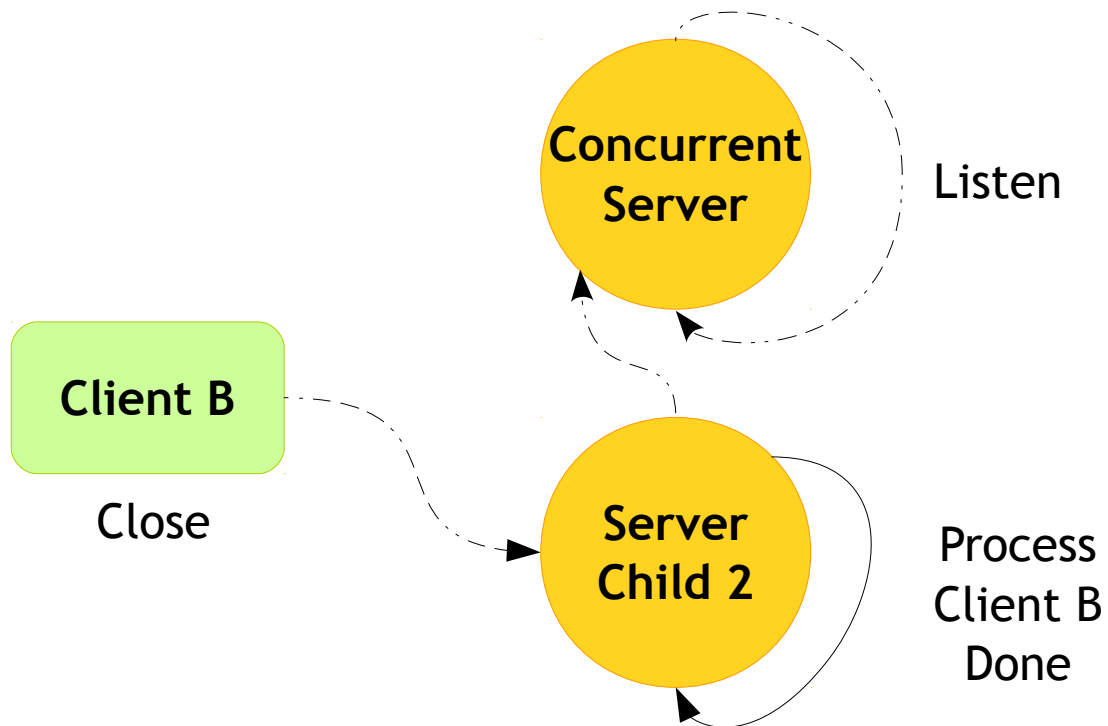
Client - Server Models

Concurrent Model - The Flow



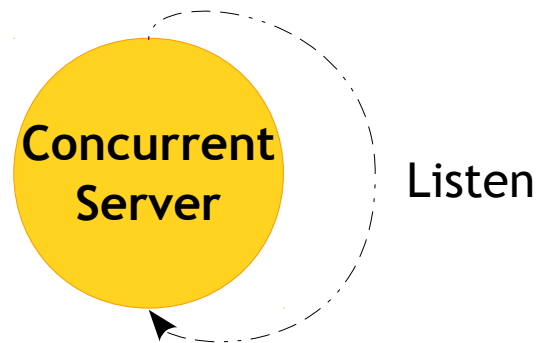
Client - Server Models

Concurrent Model - The Flow



Client - Server Models

Concurrent Model - The Flow



Client - Server Models

Concurrent Model - Pros and Cons



- Pros:
 - Concurrent access
 - Can run longer since no one is waiting for completion
 - Only one listener for many clients
- Cons
 - Increased network overhead
 - More CPU and resource intensive

Inter Process Communications

Summary



- We have covered

Data exchange

Communication

- Pipes
- FIFO
- Shared memory
- Signals
- Sockets

Resource usage/access/control

Synchronization

- Semaphores

Threads

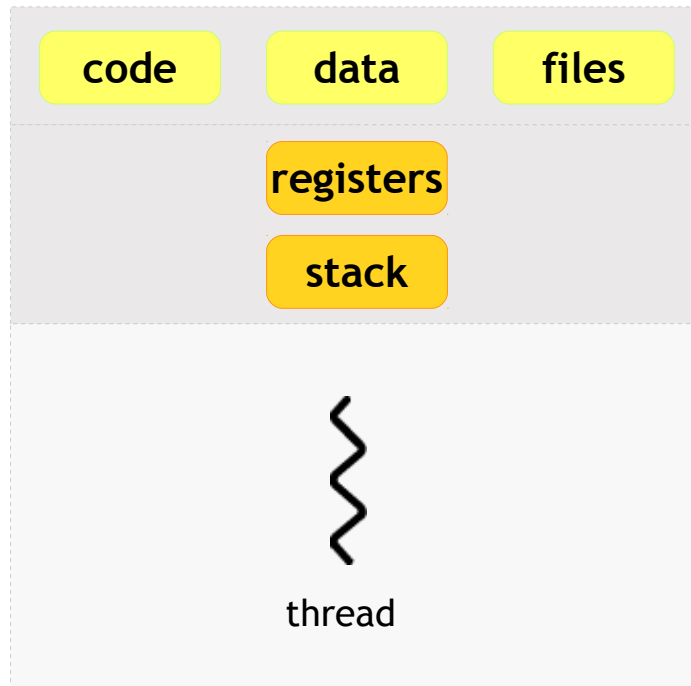
Threads



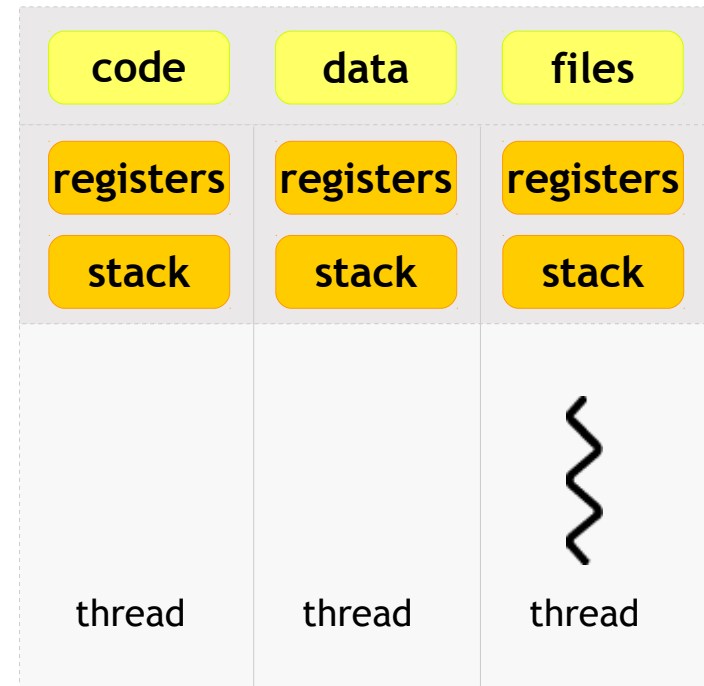
- Threads, like processes, are a mechanism to allow a program to do more than one thing at a time
- As with processes, threads appear to run concurrently
- The Linux kernel schedules them asynchronously, interrupting each thread from time to time to give others a chance to execute
- Threads are a finer-grained unit of execution than processes
- That thread can create additional threads; all these threads run the same program in the same process
- But each thread may be executing a different part of the program at any given time

Threads

Single and Multi threaded Process



Single Threaded Process



Multi Threaded Process

Threads are similar to handling multiple functions in parallel. Since they share same code & data segments, care to be taken by programmer to avoid issues.

Threads

Advantages



- Takes less time to create a new thread in an existing process than to create a brand new process
- Switching between threads is faster than a normal context switch
- Threads enhance efficiency in communication between different executing programs
- No kernel involved

Threads

pthread API's



- GNU/Linux implements the POSIX standard thread API (known as *pthreads*)
- All thread functions and data types are declared in the header file `<pthread.h>`
- The pthread functions are not included in the standard C library
- Instead, they are in **libpthread**, so you should add **-lpthread** to the command line when you link your program

Using libpthread is a very good example to understand differences between functions, library functions and system calls

Threads

Compilation



- Use the following command to compile the programs using thread libraries

```
$ gcc -o <output_file> <input_file.c> -lpthread
```

Threads

Creation



- The **pthread_create** function creates a new thread

Function	Meaning
<pre>int pthread_create(pthread_t *thread, const pthread_attr_t *attr, void *(*start_routine) (void *), void *arg)</pre>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ A pointer to a pthread_t variable, in which the thread ID of the new thread is stored✓ A pointer to a thread attribute object. If you pass NULL as the thread attribute, a thread will be created with the default thread attributes✓ A pointer to the thread function. This is an ordinary function pointer, of this type: void* (*) (void*)✓ A thread argument value of type void *. Whatever you pass is simply passed as the argument to the thread function when thread begins executing

Threads

Creation



- A call to **pthread_create** returns immediately, and the original thread continues executing the instructions following the call
- Meanwhile, the new thread begins executing the thread function
- Linux schedules both threads asynchronously
- Programs must not rely on the relative order in which instructions are executed in the two threads

Threads

Joining



- It is quite possible that output created by a thread needs to be integrated for creating final result
- So the main program may need to wait for threads to complete actions
- The `pthread_join()` function helps to achieve this purpose

Function	Meaning
<code>int pthread_join(pthread_t thread, void **value_ptr)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Thread ID of the thread to wait✓ Pointer to a <code>void*</code> variable that will receive thread finished value✓ If you don't care about the thread return value, pass <code>NULL</code> as the second argument.

Threads

Passing Data



- The thread argument provides a convenient method of passing data to threads
- Because the type of the argument is **void***, though, you can't pass a lot of data directly via the argument
- Instead, use the thread argument to pass a pointer to some structure or array of data
- Define a structure for each thread function, which contains the “parameters” that the thread function expects
- Using the thread argument, it's easy to reuse the same thread function for many threads. All these threads execute the same code, but on different data

Threads

Return Values



- If the second argument you pass to **pthread_join** is non-null, the thread's return value will be placed in the location pointed to by that argument
- The thread return value, like the thread argument, is of type **void***
- If you want to pass back a single int or other small number, you can do this easily by casting the value to **void*** and then casting back to the appropriate type after calling **pthread_join**

Threads

Attributes



- Thread attributes provide a mechanism for fine-tuning the behaviour of individual threads
- Recall that **pthread_create** accepts an argument that is a pointer to a thread attribute object
- If you pass a null pointer, the default thread attributes are used to configure the new thread
- However, you may create and customize a thread attribute object to specify other values for the attributes

Threads

Attributes



- There are multiple attributes related to a
- particular thread, that can be set during creation
- Some of the attributes are mentioned as follows:
 - Detach state
 - Priority
 - Stack size
 - Name
 - Thread group
 - Scheduling policy
 - Inherit scheduling

Threads

Joinable and Detached



- A thread may be created as a *joinable thread* (the default) or as a *detached thread*
- A joinable thread, like a process, is not automatically cleaned up by GNU/Linux when it terminates
- Thread's exit state hangs around in the system (kind of like a zombie process) until another thread calls **pthread_join** to obtain its return value. Only then are its resources released
- A detached thread, in contrast, is cleaned up automatically when it terminates
- Because a detached thread is immediately cleaned up, another thread may not synchronize on its completion by using **pthread_join** or obtain its return value

Threads

Creating a Detached Thread



- In order to create a detached thread, the thread attribute needs to be set during creation
- Two functions help to achieve this

Function	Meaning
<code>int pthread_attr_init(pthread_attr_t *attr)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Initializing thread attribute✓ Pass pointer to pthread_attr_t type✓ Returns integer as pass or fail
<code>int pthread_attr_setdetachstate(pthread_attr_t *attr, int detachstate);</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Pass the attribute variable✓ Pass detach state, which can take<ul style="list-style-type: none">• PTHREAD_CREATE_JOINABLE• PTHREAD_CREATE_DETACHED

Threads

ID



- Occasionally, it is useful for a sequence of code to determine which thread is executing it.
- Also sometimes we may need to compare one thread with another thread using their IDs
- Some of the utility functions help us to do that

Function	Meaning
<code>pthread_t pthread_self()</code>	✓ Get self ID
<code>int pthread_equal(pthread_t threadID1, pthread_t threadID2);</code>	✓ Compare threadID1 with threadID2 ✓ If equal return non-zero value, otherwise return zero

Threads

Cancellation



- It is possible to cancel a particular thread
- Under normal circumstances, a thread terminates normally or by calling **pthread_exit**.
- However, it is possible for a thread to request that another thread terminate. This is called ***cancelling*** a thread

Function	Meaning
<code>int pthread_cancel(pthread_t thread)</code>	✓ Cancel a particular thread, given the thread ID

Thread cancellation needs to be done carefully, left-over resources will create issue. In order to clean-up properly, let us first understand what is a “critical section”?

Synchronization - Concepts



Synchronization

why?



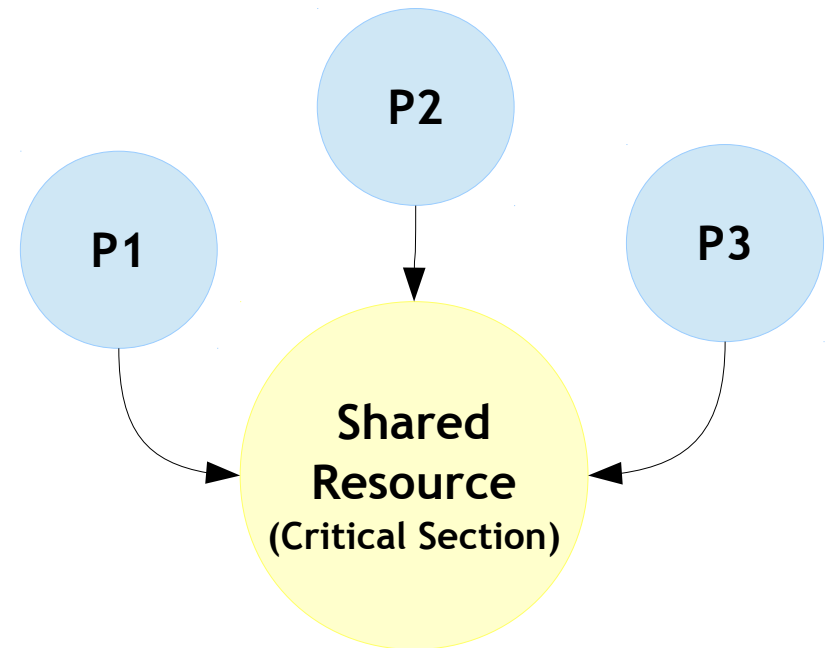
- In a multi-tasking system the most critical resource is CPU. This is shared between multiple tasks / processes with the help of 'scheduling' algorithm
- When multiple tasks are running simultaneously:
 - Either on a single processor, or on
 - A set of multiple processors
- They give an appearance that:
 - For each process, it is the only task in the system.
 - At a higher level, all these processes are executing efficiently.
 - Process sometimes exchange information:
 - They are sometimes blocked for input or output (I/O).
- Whereas multiple processes run concurrently in a system by communicating, exchanging information with others all the time. They also have very close dependency with various I/O devices and peripherals.

Synchronization

why?



- Considering resources are lesser and processes are more, there is a contention going between multiple processes
- Hence resource needs to be shared between multiple processes. This is called as 'Critical section'
- Access / Entry to critical section is determined by scheduling, however exit from critical section needs to be done when activity is completed properly
- Otherwise it will lead to a situation called 'Race condition'



Synchronization

why?



- Synchronization is defined as a mechanism which ensures that two or more concurrent processes do not simultaneously execute some particular program segment known as critical section
- When one process starts executing the critical section (serialized segment of the program) the other process should wait until the first process finishes
- If not handled properly, it may cause a race condition where, the values of variables may be unpredictable and vary depending on the timings of context switches of the processes
- If any critical decision to be made based on variable values (ex: real time actions - like medical system), synchronization problem will create a disaster as it might trigger totally opposite action than what was expected

Synchronization

Race Condition in Embedded Systems



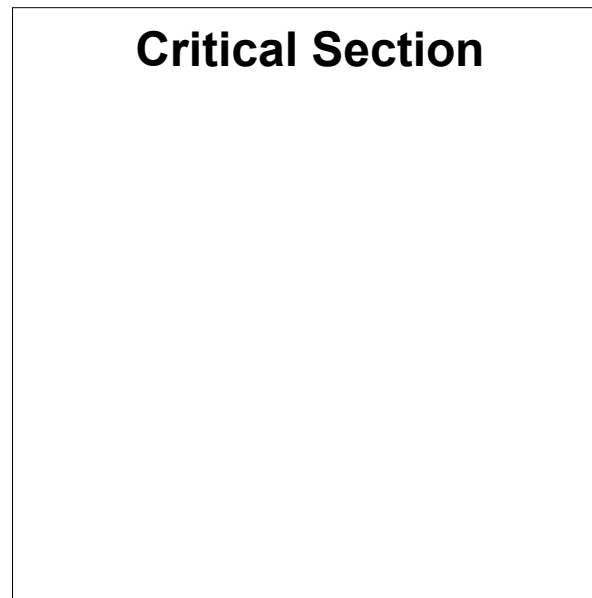
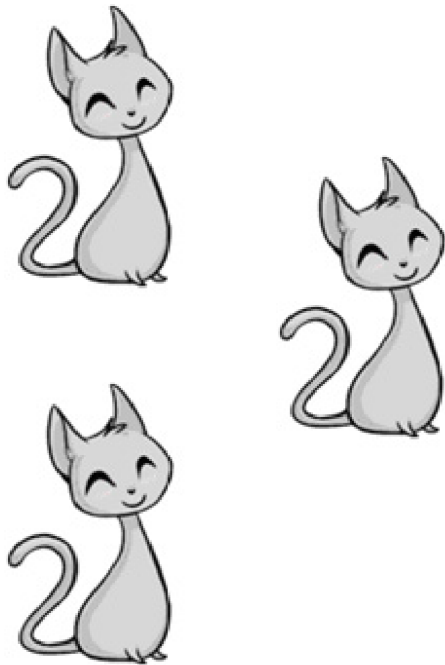
- Embedded systems are typically lesser in terms of resources, but having multiple processes running. Hence they are more prone to synchronization issues, thereby creating race conditions
- Most of the challenges are due to shared data condition. Same pathway to access common resources creates issues
- Debugging race condition and solving them is a very difficult activity because you cannot always easily re-create the problem as they occur only in a particular timing sequence
- Asynchronous nature of tasks makes race condition simulation and debugging as a challenging task, often spend weeks to debug and fix them

Synchronization

Critical Section



- The way to solve race condition is to have the critical section access in such a way that only one process can execute at a time
- If multiple process try to enter a critical section, only one can run and the others will sleep (means getting into blocked / waiting state)

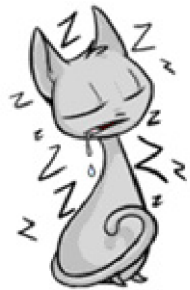


Synchronization

Critical Section



- Only one process can enter the critical section; the other two have to sleep. When a process sleeps, its execution is paused and the OS will run some other task



Critical Section

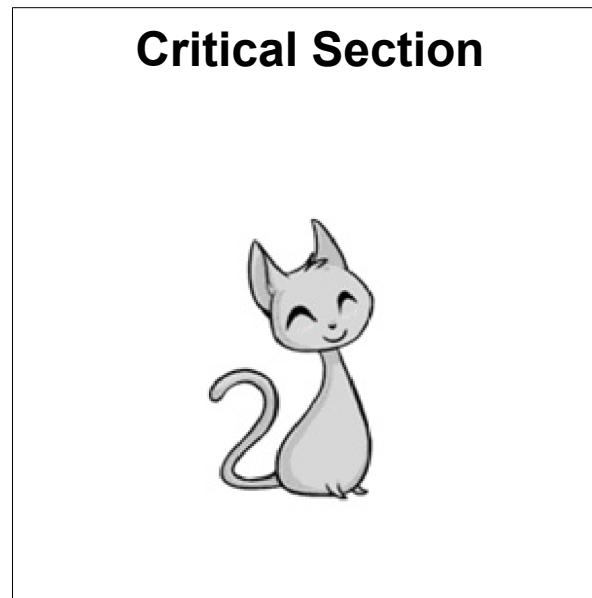


Synchronization

Critical Section



- Once the process in the critical section exits, another process is woken up and allowed to enter the critical section. This is done based on the existing scheduling algorithm
- It is important to keep the code / instructions inside a critical section as small as possible (say similar to ISR) to handle race conditions effectively



Synchronization

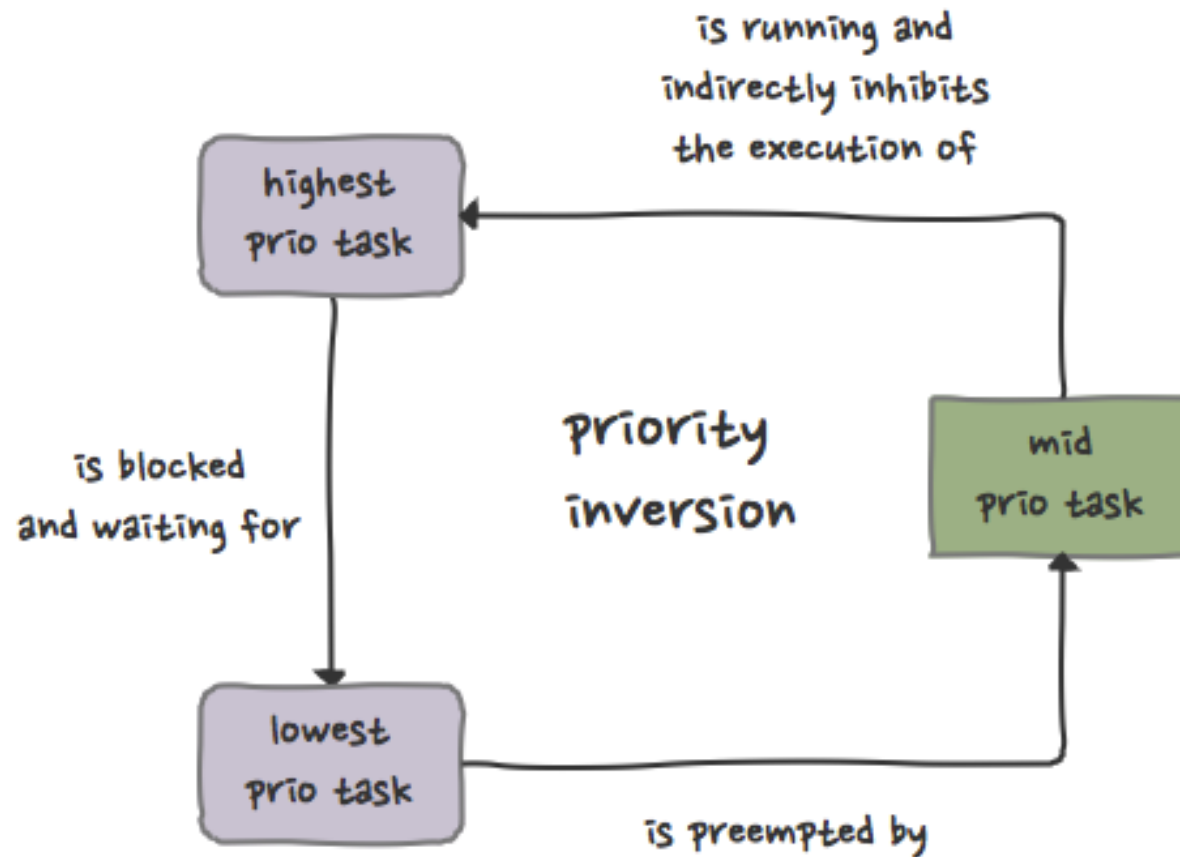
Priority Inversion



- One of the most important aspect of critical section is to ensure whichever process is inside it, has to complete the activities at one go. They should not be done across multiple context switches. This is called Atomicity
- Assume a scenario where a lower priority process is inside the critical section and higher priority process tries to enter
- Considering atomicity the higher priority process will be pushed into blocking state. This creates some issue with regular priority algorithm
- In this juncture if a medium priority tasks gets scheduled, it will enter into the critical section with higher priority task is made to wait. This scenario is further creating a change in priority algorithm
- This is called as 'Priority Inversion' which alters the priority schema

Synchronization

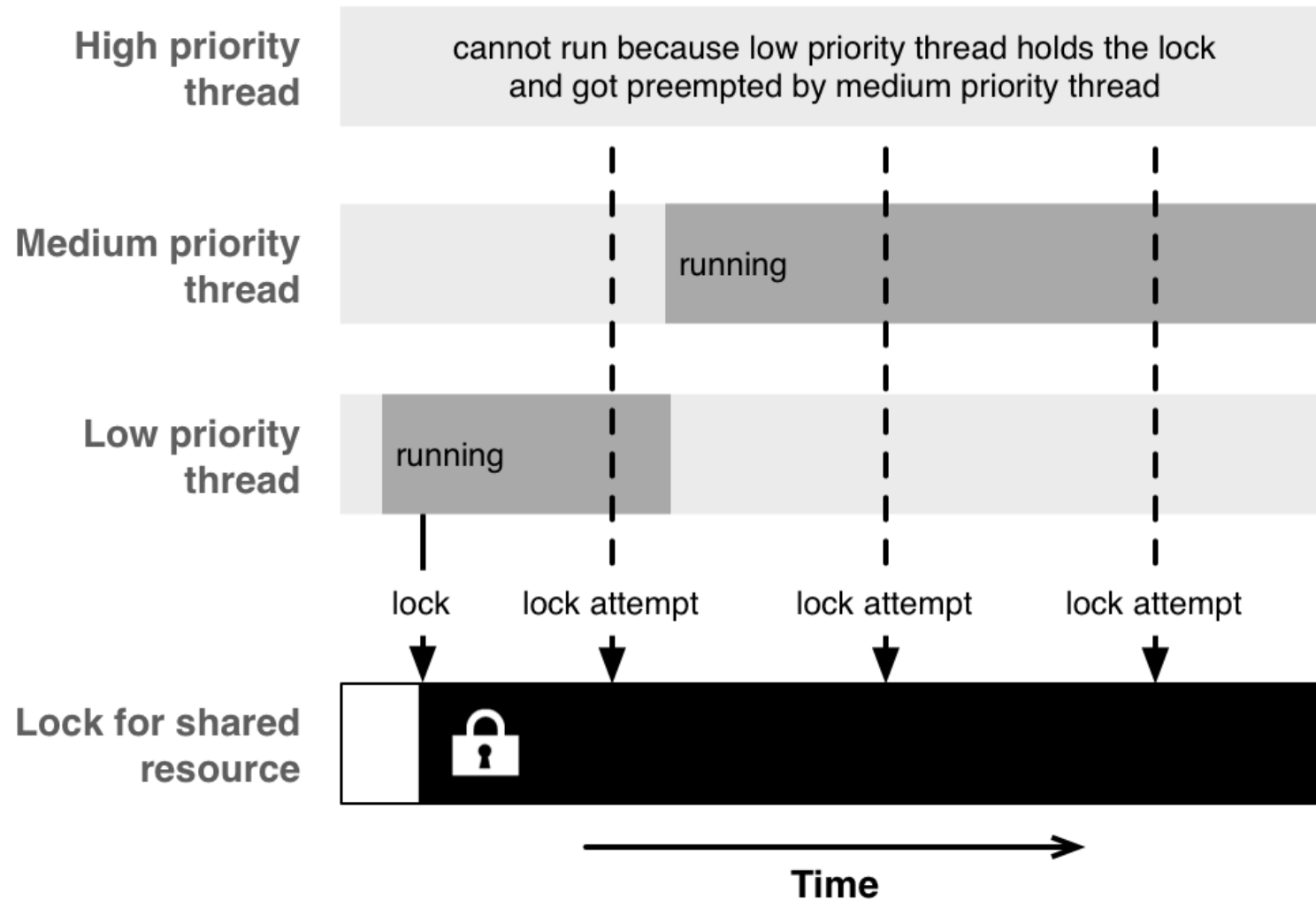
Priority Inversion



RTOS.BE

Synchronization

Priority Inversion



Quick refresher



- Before moving onto exploring various solutions for critical section problem, ensure we understand these terminologies / definitions really well.
 - Difference between scheduling & Synchronization
 - Shared data problem
 - Critical section
 - Race condition
 - Atomicity
 - Priority inversion

Critical section - Solutions



Critical Section

Solutions



Solution to critical section should have following three aspects into it:

- **Mutual Exclusion:** If process P is executing in its critical section, then no other processes can be executing in their critical sections
- **Progress:** If no process is executing in its critical section and there exist some processes that wish to enter their critical section, then the selection of the processes that will enter the critical section next cannot be postponed indefinitely
- **Bounded Waiting:** A bound must exist on the number of times that other processes are allowed to enter their critical sections after a process has made a request to enter its critical section and before that request is granted

Critical Section Solutions

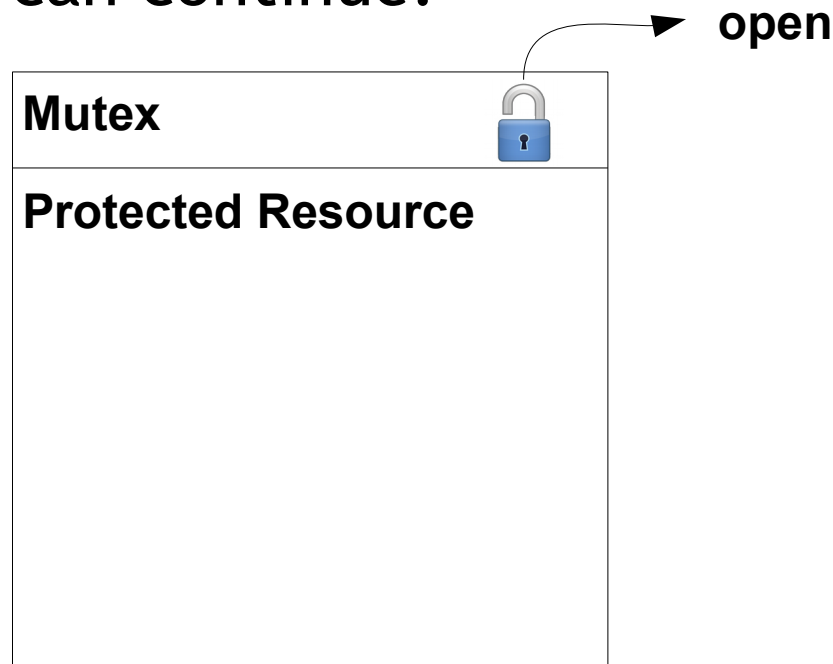
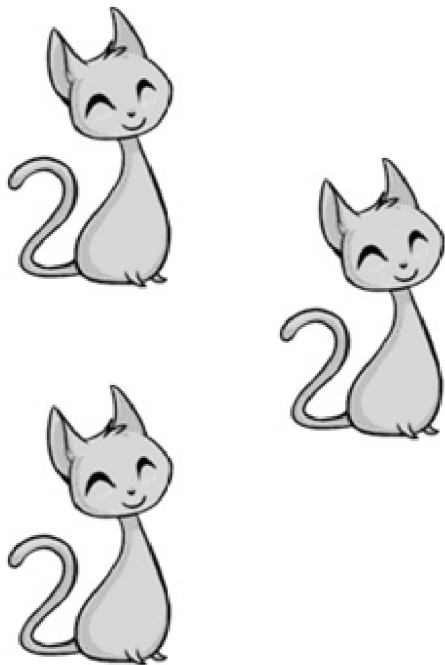


- There are multiple algorithms (ex: Dekker's algorithm) to implement solutions that is satisfying all three conditions. From a programmers point of view they are offered as multiple solutions as follows:
 - Locks / Mutex
 - Readers-writer locks
 - Recursive locks
 - Semaphores
 - Monitors
 - Message passing
 - Tuple space
- Each of them are quite detailed in nature, in our course two varieties of solutions are covered they are Mutex and Semaphores
- Let us look into them in detail!

Critical Section

Solutions - Mutual Exclusion

- A Mutex works in a critical section while granting access
- You can think of a Mutex as a token that must be grabbed before execution can continue.

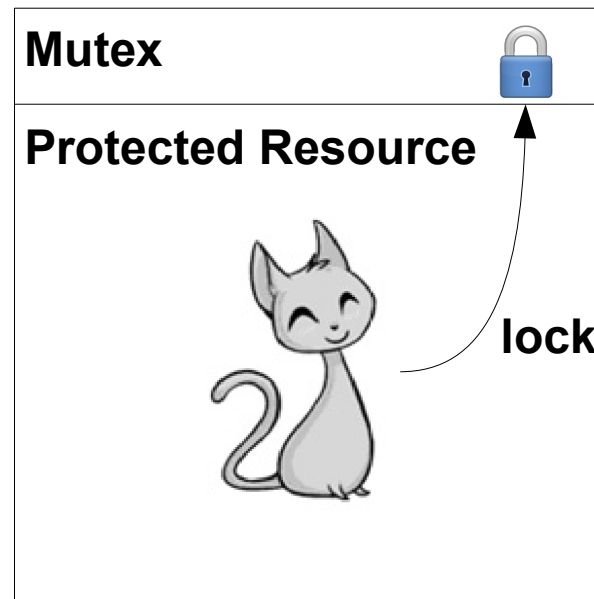
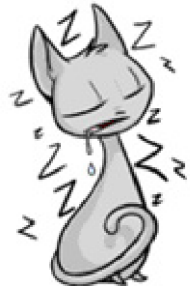
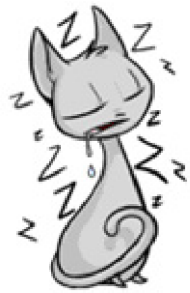


Critical Section

Solutions - Mutual Exclusion



- During the time that a task holds the mutex, all other tasks waiting on the mutex sleep.



Critical Section

Solutions - Mutual Exclusion



- Once a task has finished using the shared resource, it releases the mutex. Another task can then wake up and grab the mutex.



release



Critical Section

Solutions - Mutual Exclusion - Locking / Blocking



- A process may attempt to get a Mutex by calling a **lock** method. If the Mutex was unlocked (means already available), it becomes locked (unavailable) and the function returns immediately
- If the Mutex was locked by another process, the locking function **blocks** execution and returns only eventually when the Mutex is **unlocked** by the other process
- More than one process may be blocked on a locked Mutex at one time
- When the Mutex is unlocked, only one of the blocked process is unblocked and allowed to lock the Mutex. Other tasks stay blocked.

Critical Section

Semaphores



- A semaphore is a counter that can be used to synchronize multiple processes. Typically semaphores are used where multiple units of a particular resources are available
- Each semaphore has a counter value, which is a non-negative integer. It can take any value depending on number of resources available
- The 'lock' and 'unlock' mechanism is implemented via 'wait' and 'post' functionality in semaphore. Where the wait will decrement the counter and post will increment the counter
- When the counter value becomes zero that means the resources are no longer available hence remaining processes will get into blocked state

Critical Section

Semaphores - Sleeping barber problem

A lazy barber who sleeps and gets up on his own will :)



Critical Section

Semaphores - 2 basic operations



- **Wait operation:**
 - Decrements the value of the semaphore by 1
 - If the value is already zero, the operation blocks until the value of the semaphore becomes positive
 - When the semaphore's value becomes positive, it is decremented by 1 and the wait operation returns
- **Post operation:**
 - Increments the value of the semaphore by 1
 - If the semaphore was previously zero and other threads are blocked in a wait operation on that semaphore
 - One of those threads is unblocked and its wait operation completes (which brings the semaphore's value back to zero)

Critical Section

Mutex & Semaphores

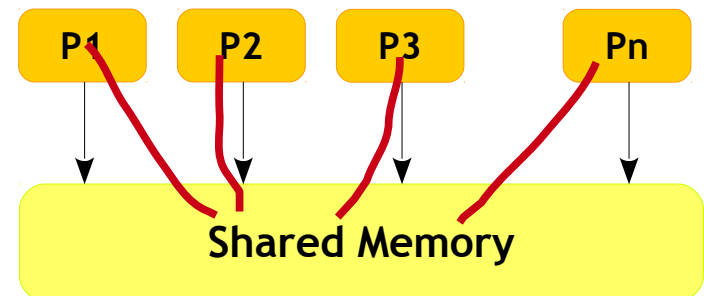
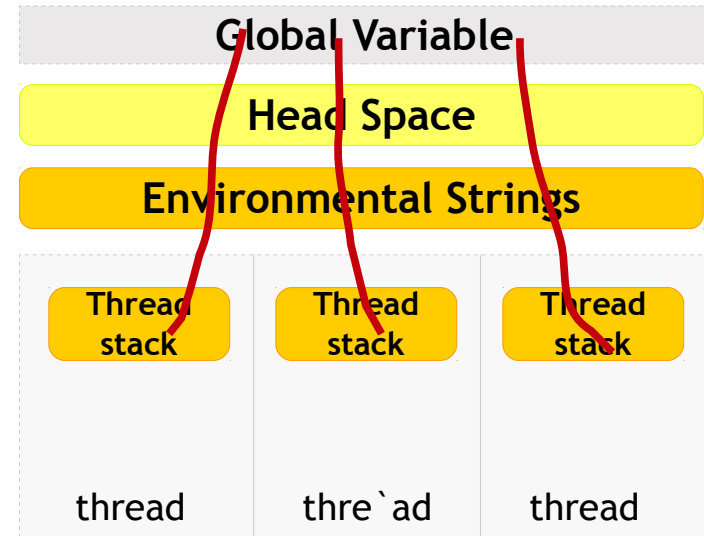


- Semaphores which allow an arbitrary resource count (say 25) are called **counting semaphores**
- Semaphores which are restricted to the values 0 and 1 (or locked/unlocked, unavailable/available) are called **binary semaphores**
- A Mutex is essentially the same thing as a binary semaphore, however the differences between them are in how they are used
- While a binary semaphore may be used as a Mutex, a Mutex is a more specific use-case, in that only the process that locked the Mutex is supposed to unlock it
- This constraint makes it possible to implement some additional features in Mutexes

Critical Section

Practical Implementation

- The problem is critical section / race condition is common in multi-threading and multi-processing environment. Since both of them offer concurrency & common resource facility, it will raise to race conditions
- However the common resource can be different. In case of multiple threads a common resource can be a data segment / global variable which is a shared resource between multiple threads
- In case of multiple processes a common resource can be a shared memory



Synchronization

Treads - Mutex



- pthread library offers multiple Mutex related library functions
- These functions help to synchronize between multiple threads

Function	Meaning
<code>int pthread_mutex_init(pthread_mutex_t *mutex const pthread_mutexattr_t *attribute)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Initialize mutex variable✓ mutex: Actual mutex variable✓ attribute: Mutex attributes✓ RETURN: Success (0)/Failure (Non zero)
<code>int pthread_mutex_lock(pthread_mutex_t *mutex)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Lock the mutex✓ mutex: Mutex variable✓ RETURN: Success (0)/Failure (Non-zero)
<code>int pthread_mutex_unlock(pthread_mutex_t *mutex)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Unlock the mutex✓ Mutex: Mutex variable✓ RETURN: Success (0)/Failure (Non-zero)
<code>int pthread_mutex_destroy(pthread_mutex_t *mutex)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Destroy the mutex variable✓ Mutex: Mutex variable✓ RETURN: Success (0)/Failure (Non-zero)

Synchronization

Treads - Semaphores - 2 basic operations



- **Wait operation:**
 - Decrements the value of the semaphore by 1
 - If the value is already zero, the operation blocks until the value of the semaphore becomes positive
 - When the semaphore's value becomes positive, it is decremented by 1 and the wait operation returns
- **Post operation:**
 - Increments the value of the semaphore by 1
 - If the semaphore was previously zero and other threads are blocked in a wait operation on that semaphore
 - One of those threads is unblocked and its wait operation completes (which brings the semaphore's value back to zero)

Synchronization

Treads - Semaphores



- pthread library offers multiple Semaphore related library functions
- These functions help to synchronize between multiple threads

Function	Meaning
<code>int sem_init (sem_t *sem, int pshared, unsigned int value)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ sem: Points to a semaphore object✓ pshared: Flag, make it zero for threads✓ value: Initial value to set the semaphore✓ RETURN: Success (0)/Failure (Non zero)
<code>int sem_wait(sem_t *sem)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Wait on the semaphore (Decrements count)✓ sem: Semaphore variable✓ RETURN: Success (0)/Failure (Non-zero)
<code>int sem_post(sem_t *sem)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Post on the semaphore (Increments count)✓ sem: Semaphore variable✓ RETURN: Success (0)/Failure (Non-zero)
<code>int sem_destroy(sem_t *sem)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Destroy the semaphore✓ No thread should be waiting on this semaphore✓ RETURN: Success (0)/Failure (Non-zero)

Inter Process Communications

Synchronization - Semaphores



- Semaphores are similar to counters
- Process semaphores synchronize between multiple processes, similar to thread semaphores
- The idea of creating, initializing and modifying semaphore values remain same in between processes also
- However there are different set of system calls to do the same semaphore operations

Inter Process Communications

Synchronization - Semaphore Functions



Function	Meaning
<code>int semget(key_t key, int nsems, int flag)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Create a process semaphore✓ key: Seed input✓ nsems: Number of semaphores in a set✓ flag: Permission (similar to file)✓ RETURN: Semaphore ID / Failure
<code>int semop(int semid, struct sembuf *sops, unsigned int nsops)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Wait and Post operations✓ semid: Semaphore ID✓ sops: Operation to be performed✓ nsops: Length of the array✓ RETURN: Operation Success / Failure
<code>semctl(semid, 0, IPC_RMID)</code>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Semaphores need to be explicitly removed✓ semid: Semaphore ID✓ Remove and NULL

Inter Process Communications

Summary



- We have covered

Data exchange

Communication

- Pipes
- FIFO
- Shared memory
- Signals
- Sockets

Resource usage/access/control

Synchronization

- Semaphores

Process Management - Concepts



Process Management - Concepts

Scheduling



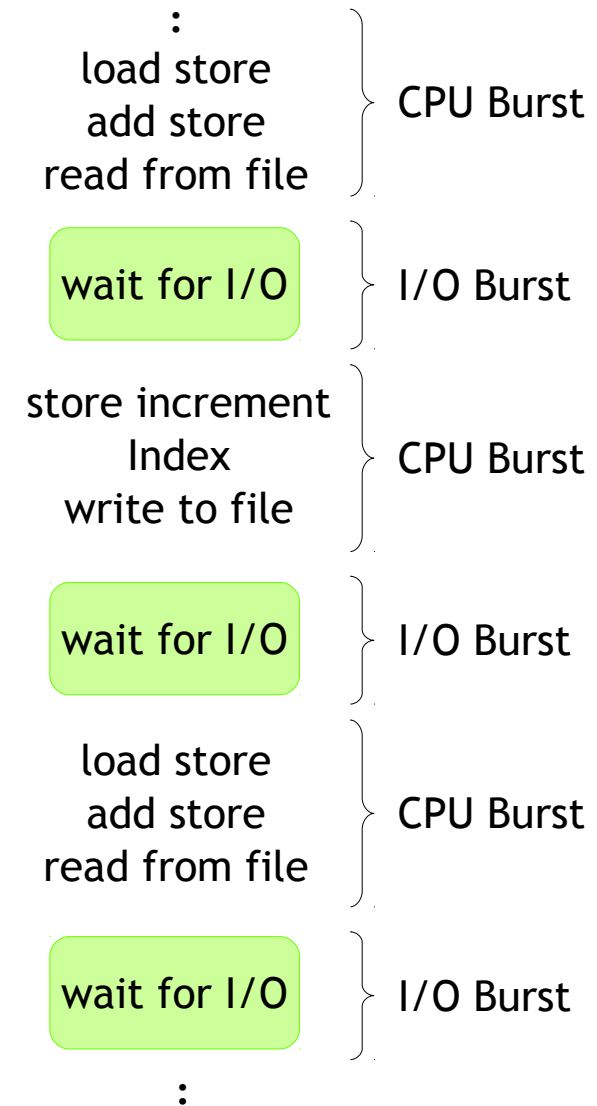
- It is a mechanism used to achieve the desired goal of multitasking
- This is achieved by SCHEDULER which is the heart and soul of operating System
- Long-term scheduler (or job scheduler) - selects which processes should be brought into the ready queue
- Short-term scheduler (or CPU scheduler) - selects which process should be executed next and allocates CPU

When a scheduler schedules tasks and gives a predictable response, they are called as “Real Time Systems”

Process Management - Concepts

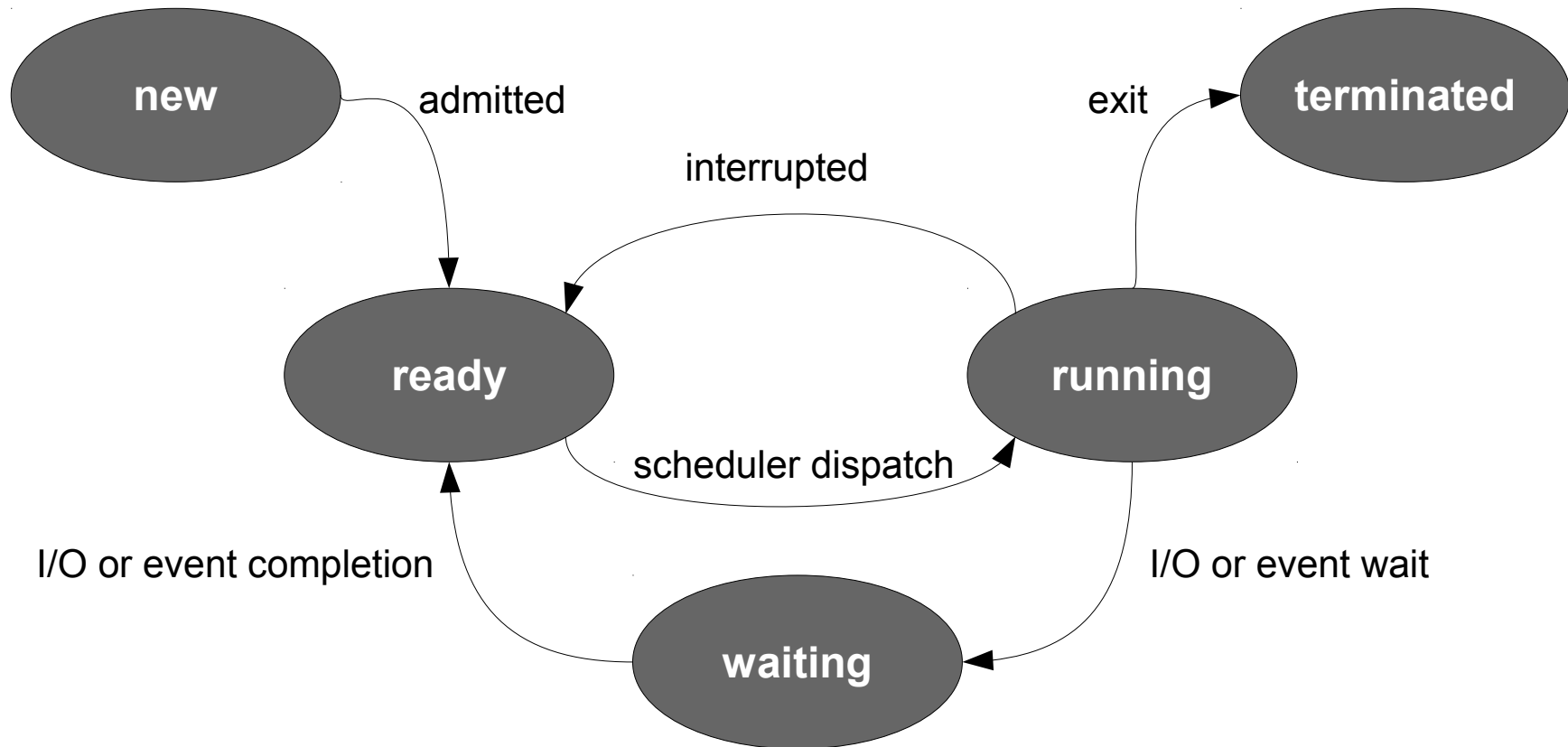
CPU Scheduling

- Maximum CPU utilization obtained with multi programming
- CPU-I/O Burst Cycle - Process execution consists of a *cycle* of CPU execution and I/O wait



Process Management - Concepts

States



Process Management - Concepts

States



- A process goes through multiple states ever since it is created by the OS

State	Description
New	The process is being created
Running	Instructions are being executed
Waiting	The process is waiting for some event to occur
Ready	The process is waiting to be assigned to processor
Terminated	The process has finished execution

Process Management - Concepts

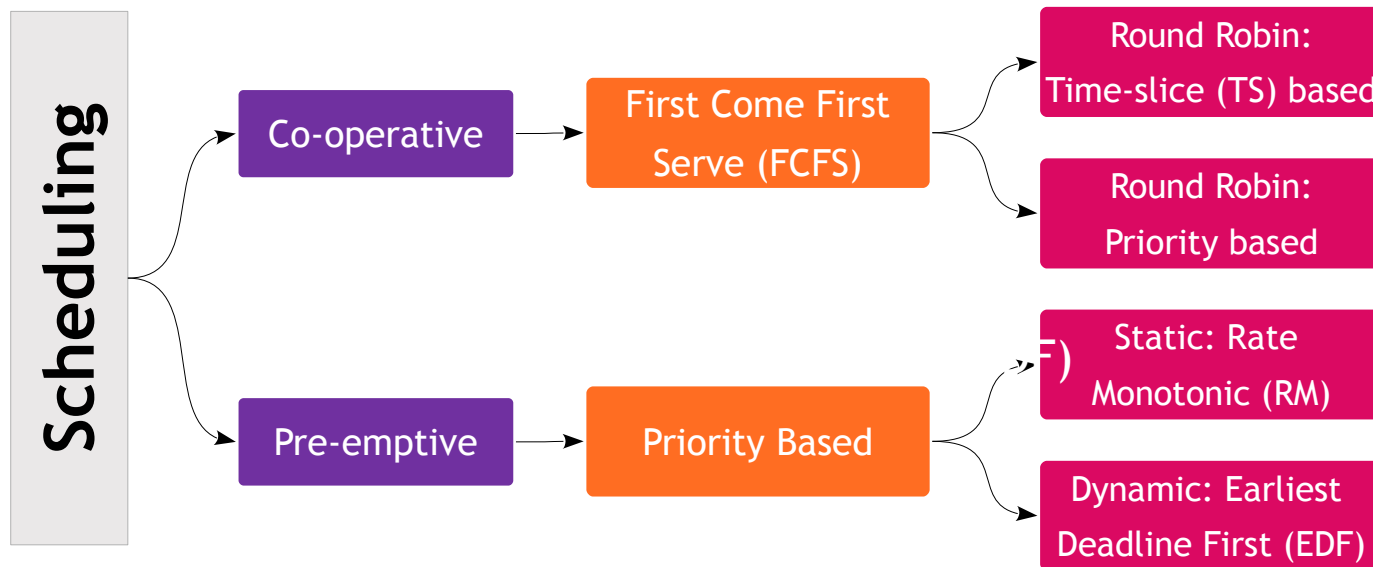
Schedulers



- Selects from among the processes in memory that are ready to execute
- Allocates the CPU to one of them
- CPU scheduling decisions may take place when a process:
 - Switches from running to waiting state
 - Switches from running to ready state
 - Switches from waiting to ready
 - Terminates
- Scheduling under 1 and 4 is non-preemptive
- All other scheduling is preemptive

Process Management - Concepts

Scheduling - Types



Process Management - Concepts

Scheduling - Types - Co-operative vs Pre-emptive



- In Co-operative scheduling, process co-operate in terms of sharing processor timing. The process voluntarily gives the kernel a chance to perform a process switch
- In Preemptive scheduling, process are preempted a higher priority process, thereby the existing process will need to relinquish CPU

Process Management - Concepts

Scheduling - Types - FCFS



- First Come First Served (FCFS) is a Non-Preemptive scheduling algorithm. FIFO (First In First Out) strategy assigns priority to process in the order in which they request the processor. The process that requests the CPU first is allocated the CPU first. This is easily implemented with a FIFO queue for managing the tasks. As the process come in, they are put at the end of the queue. As the CPU finishes each task, it removes it from the start of the queue and heads on to the next task.

Process Management - Concepts

Scheduling - Types - FCFS



Process	Burst time
P1	20
P2	5
P3	3

- Suppose processes arrive in the order: P1, P2, P3 , The Gantt Chart for the schedule is



Process Management - Concepts

Scheduling - Types - RR: Time Sliced



- Processes are scheduled based on time-slice, but they are time-bound
- This time slicing is similar to FCFS except that the scheduler forces process to give up the processor based on the timer interrupt
- It does so by preempting the current process (i.e. the process actually running) at the end of each time slice
- The process is moved to the end of the priority level

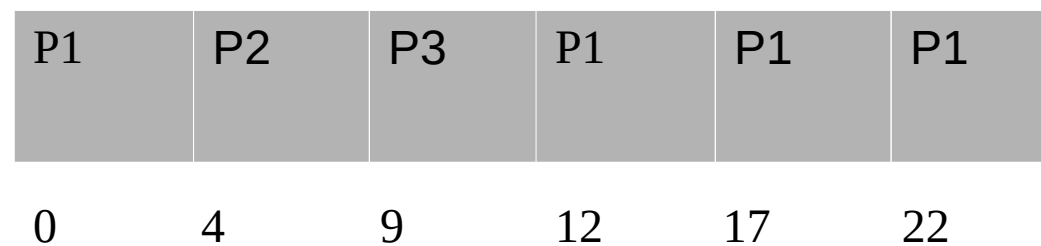
Process Management - Concepts

Scheduling - Types - RR: Time Sliced



Process	Burst time
P1	20
P2	5
P3	3

- Suppose processes arrive in the order: P1, P2, P3 , The Gantt Chart for the schedule is



Process Management - Concepts

Scheduling - Types - RR: Priority



- Processes are scheduled based on RR, but priority attached to it
- While processes are allocated based on RR (with specified time), when higher priority task comes in the queue, it gets pre-empted
- The time slice remain the same

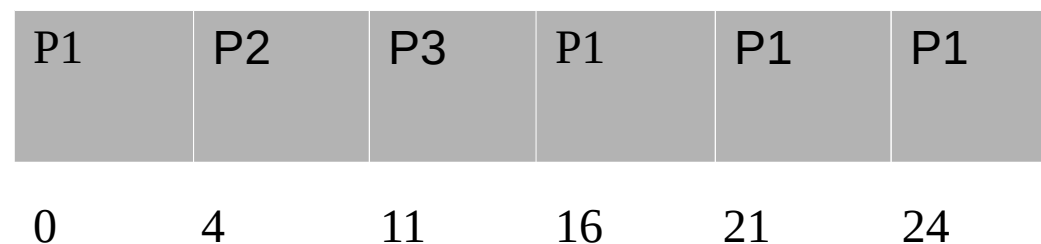
Process Management - Concepts

Scheduling - Types - RR: Time Sliced



Process	Burst time
P1	24
P2	10
P3	15

- Suppose processes arrive in the order: P1, P2, P3 and assume P2 have high priority, The Gantt Chart for the schedule is



Process Management - Concepts

Scheduling - Types - Pre-emptive

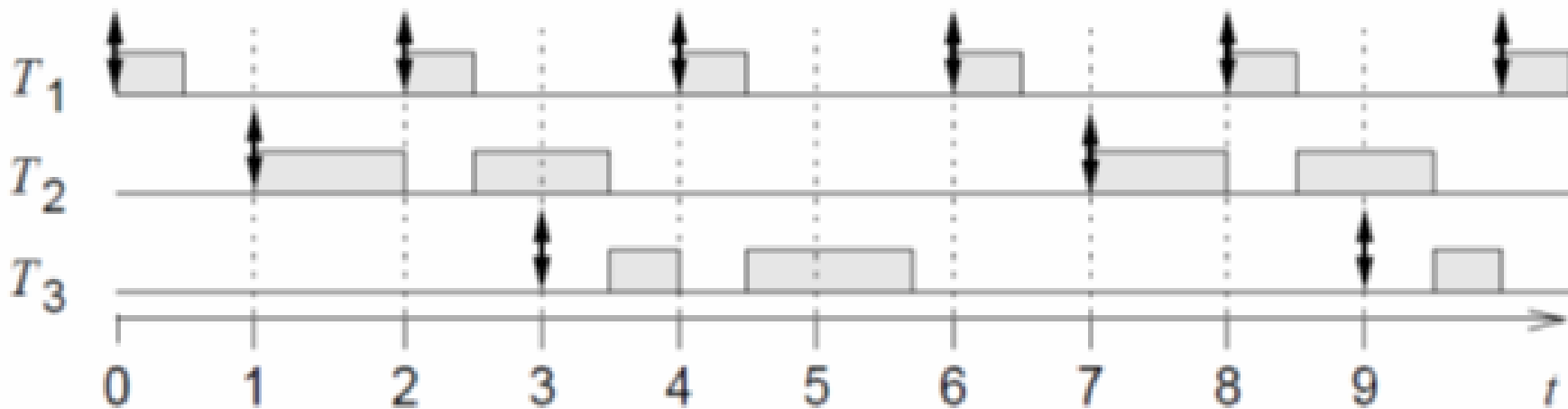


- Pre-emption means while a lower priority process is executing on the processor another process higher in priority than comes up in the ready queue, it preempts the lower priority process.
- Rate Monotonic (RM) scheduling:
 - The highest Priority is assigned to the Task with the Shortest Period
 - All Tasks in the task set are periodic
 - The relative deadline of the task is equal to the period of the Task
 - Smaller the period, higher the priority
- Earliest Deadline First (EDF) scheduling:
 - This kind of scheduler tries to give execution time to the task that is most quickly approaching its deadline
 - This is typically done by the scheduler changing priorities of tasks on-the-fly as they approach their individual deadlines

Process Management - Concepts

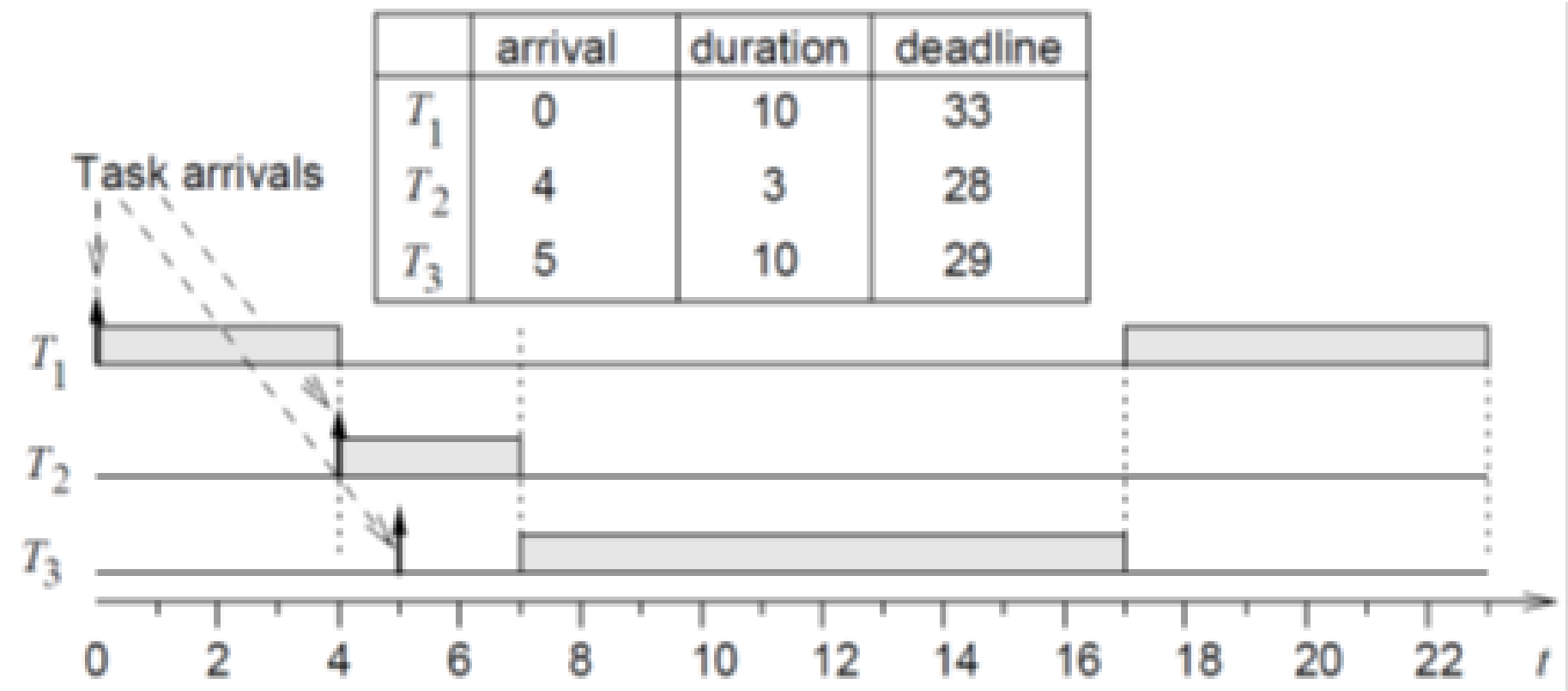
Scheduling - Types - Rate Monotonic (RM)

- T_1 preempts T_2 and T_3 .
- T_2 and T_3 do not preempt each other.



Process Management - Concepts

Scheduling - Types - Earliest Deadline First (EDF)



Introduction to RTOS



Real Time Systems



- Characteristics:
 - Capable of guaranteeing timing requirements of the processes under its control
 - Fast - low latency
 - Predictable - able to determine task's completion time with certainty
 - Both time-critical and non time-critical tasks to coexist
- Types:
 - Hard real time system
 - Guarantees that real-time tasks be completed within their required deadlines.
 - Requires formal verification/guarantees of being to always meet its hard deadlines (except for fatal errors).
 - Examples: air traffic control , vehicle subsystems control, medical systems.
 - Soft real time system
 - Provides priority of real-time tasks over non real-time tasks.
 - Also known as “best effort” systems. Example - multimedia streaming, computer games

Real Time OS



- Operating system is a program that runs on a super loop
- Consist of Scheduler, Task, Memory, System call interface, File systems etc.
- All of these components are very much part of Embedded and Real-time systems
- Some of the parameters need to be tuned/changed in order to meet the needs of these systems
- Real time & Embedded systems - Coupling v/s De-coupling

Real Time OS

Characteristics



- Real-time systems are typically single-purpose (Missing: Support for variety of peripherals)
- Real-time systems often do not require interfacing with a user (Missing: Sophisticated user modes & permissions)
- High overhead required for protected memory and for switching modes (Missing: User v/s Kernel mode)
- Memory paging increases context switch time (Missing: Memory address translation between User v/s Kernel)
- User control over scheduler policy & configuration

Real Time OS

Properties



- Reliability
- Predictability
- Performance
- Compactness
- Scalability
- User control over OS Policies
- Responsiveness
 - Fast task switch
 - Fast interrupt response

Real Time OS

Examples

- LynxOS
- OSE
- QNX
- VxWorks
- Windows CE
- RT Linux



Memory Management - Concepts



Memory Management - Concepts

Introduction

- Overall memory sub-division:
 - OS
 - Application
- Uni-programming vs. Multi-programming
- Memory Management is task of OS, called MMU
- May involve movement between:
 - Primary (Hard disk / Flash)
 - Secondary (RAM)

Memory Management - Concepts

Requirements



- Relocation
- Protection
- Sharing
- Logical Organization
- Physical Organization

Memory Management - Concepts

Requirements - Relocation



- Programmer does not know where the program will be placed in memory when it is executed
- Before the program is loaded, address references are usually relative addresses to the entry point of program
- These are called logical addresses, part of logical address space
- All references must be translated to actual addresses
- It can be done at compile time, load time or execution
- Mapping between logical to physical address mechanism is implemented as “Virtual memory”
- Paging is one of the memory management schemes where the program retrieves data from the secondary storage for use in main memory

Memory Management - Concepts

Virtual memory - Why?

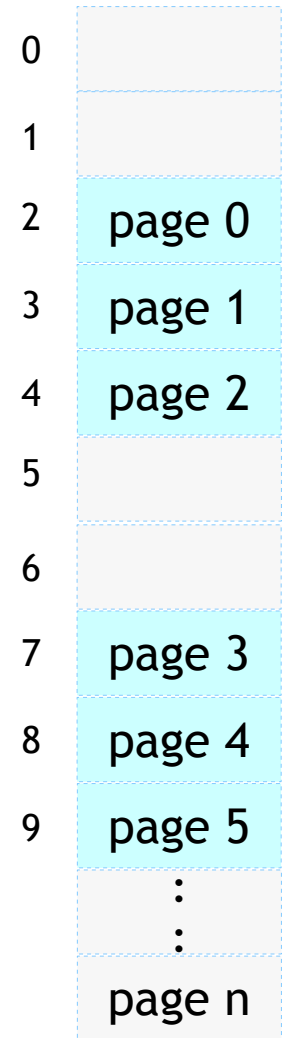
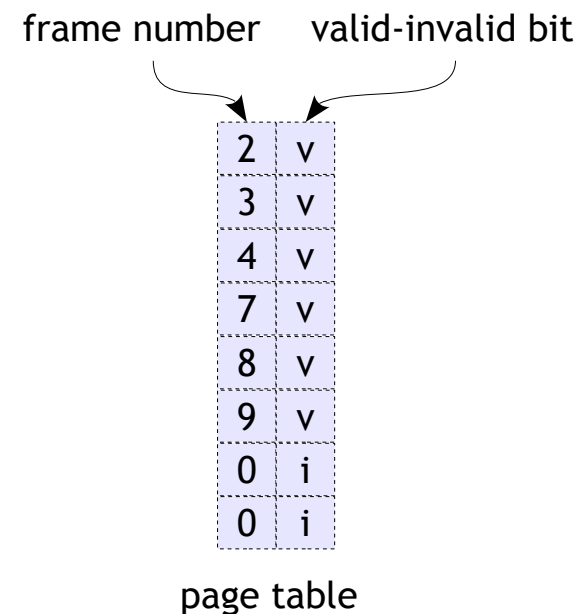
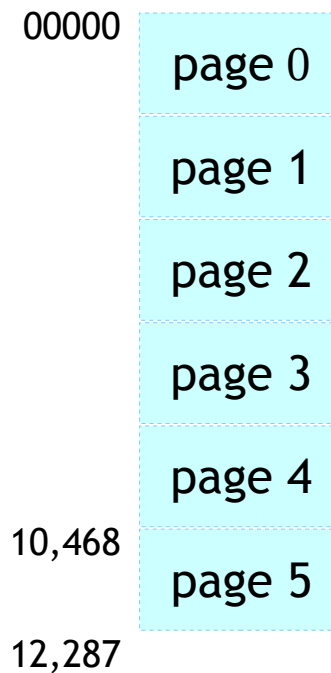


- If programs access physical memory we will face three problems
 - Don't have enough physical memory.
 - Holes in address space (fragmentation).
 - No security (All program can access same memory)
- These problems can be solved using virtual memory.
 - Each program will have their own virtual memory.
 - They separately maps virtual memory space to physical memory.
 - We can even move to disk if we run out of memory (Swapping)

Memory Management - Concepts

Virtual memory - Paging & page table

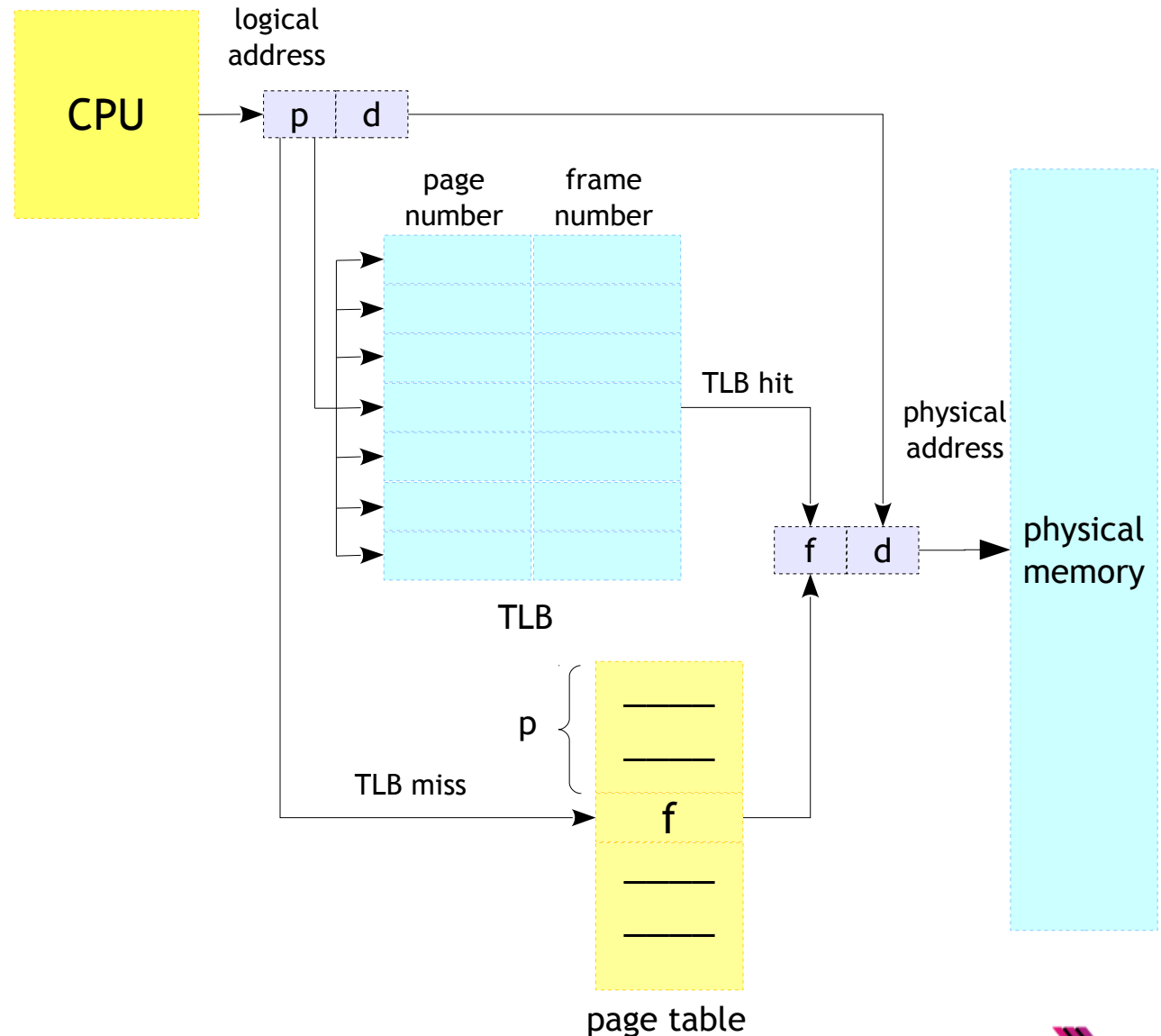
- Virtual memory divided into small chunks called pages.
- Similarly physical memory divided into frames.
- Virtual memory and physical memory mapped using page table.



Memory Management - Concepts

Virtual memory - TLB

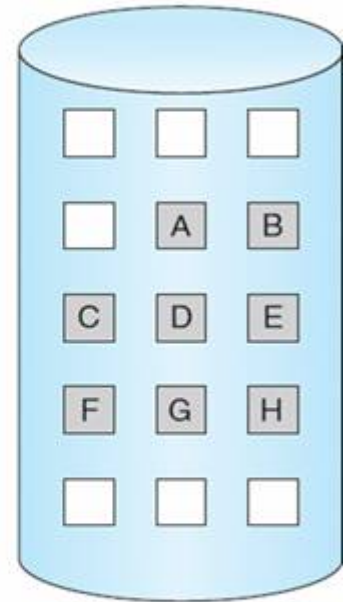
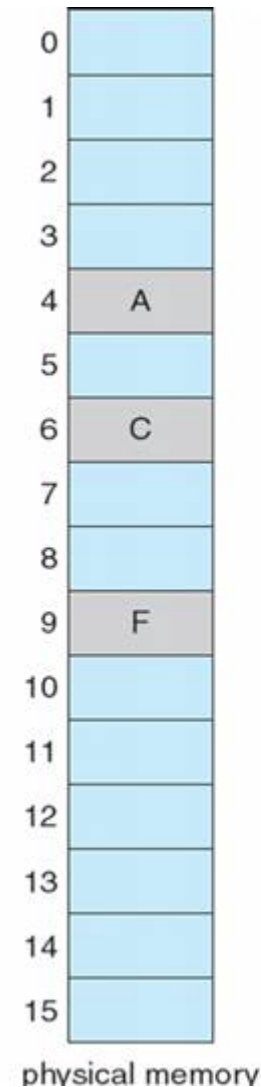
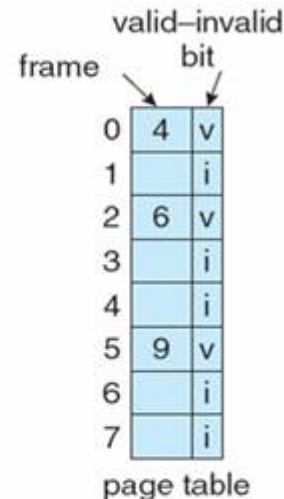
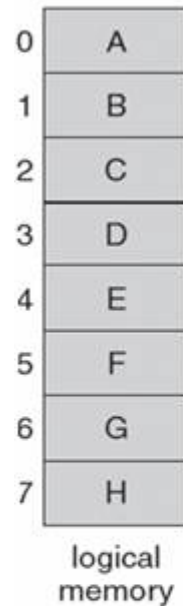
- For faster access page table will be stored in CPU cache memory.
- But limited entries only possible.
- If page entry available in TLB (Hit), control goes to physical address directly (Within one cycle).
- If page entry not available in TLB (Miss), it use page table from main memory and maps to physical address (Takes more cycles compared to TLB).



Memory Management - Concepts

Page fault

- When a process try access a frame using a page table and that frame moved to swap memory, generates an interrupt called page fault.



Memory Management - Concepts

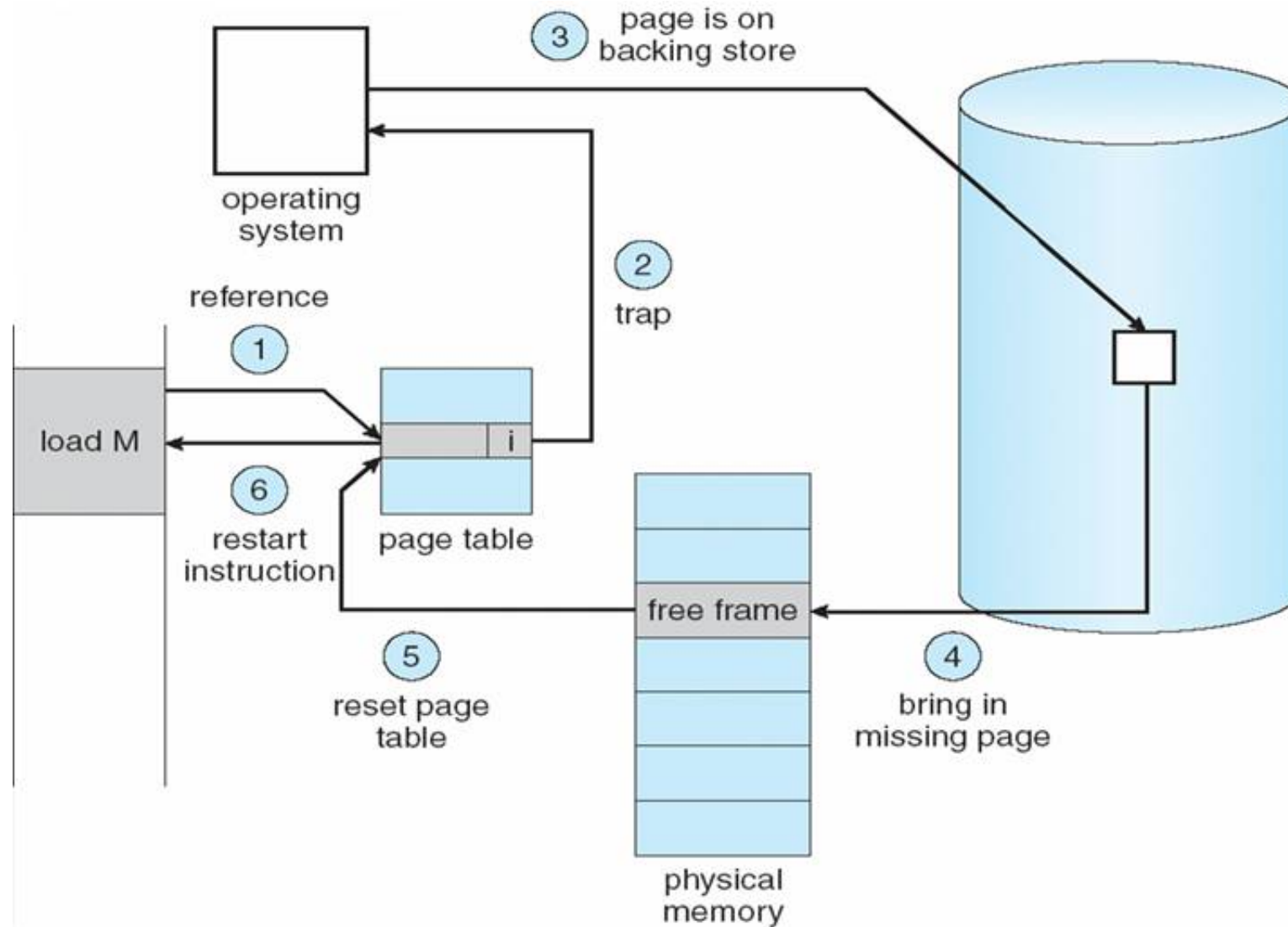
Page fault - Handling



1. Check an internal table for this process, to determine whether the reference was a valid or it was an invalid memory access.
2. If the reference was invalid, terminate the process. If it was valid, but page have not yet brought in, page in the latter.
3. Find a free frame.
4. Schedule a disk operation to read the desired page into the newly allocated frame.
5. When the disk read is complete, modify the internal table kept with the process and the page table to indicate that the page is now in memory.
6. Restart the instruction that was interrupted by the illegal address trap. The process can now access the page as though it had always been in memory.

Memory Management - Concepts

Page fault - Handling



Memory Management - Concepts

MMU

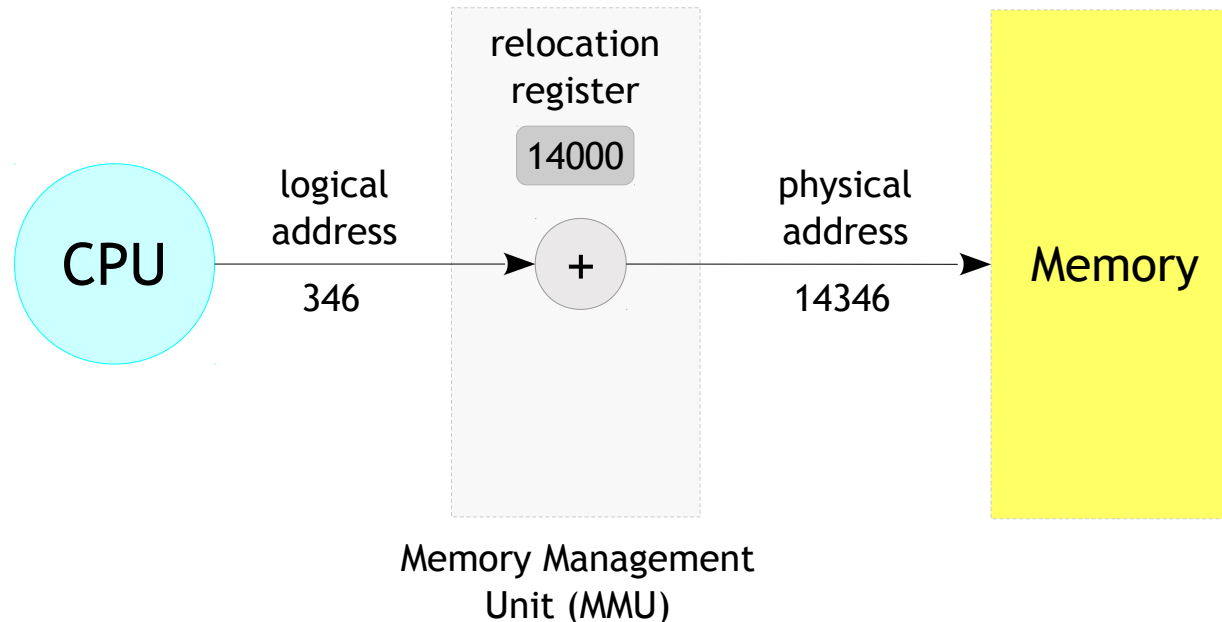


- MMU is responsible for all aspects of memory management. It is usually integrated into the processor, although in some systems it occupies a separate IC (integrated circuit) chip.
- The work of the MMU can be divided into three major categories:
 - Hardware memory management, which oversees and regulates the processor's use of RAM (random access memory) and cache memory.
 - OS (operating system) memory management, which ensures the availability of adequate memory resources for the objects and data structures of each running program at all times.
 - Application memory management, which allocates each individual program's required memory, and then recycles freed-up memory space when the operation concludes.

Memory Management - Concepts

MMU - Relocation

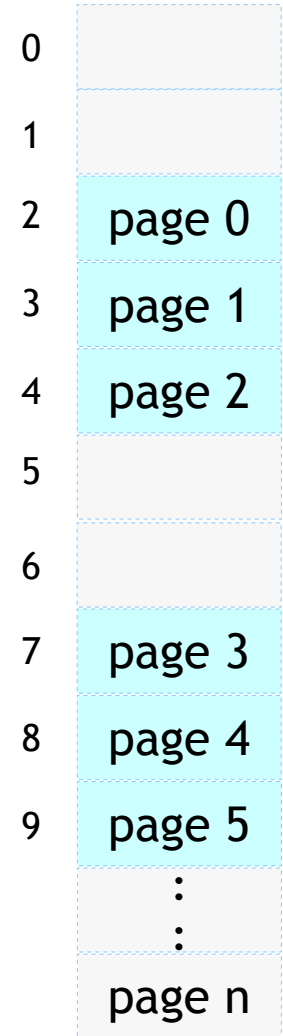
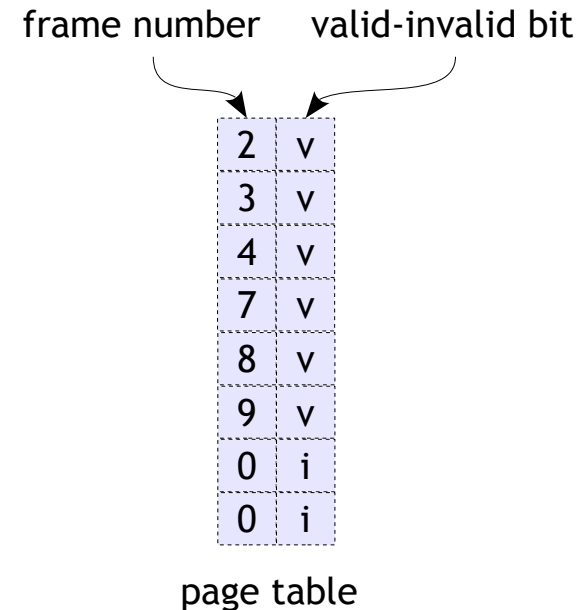
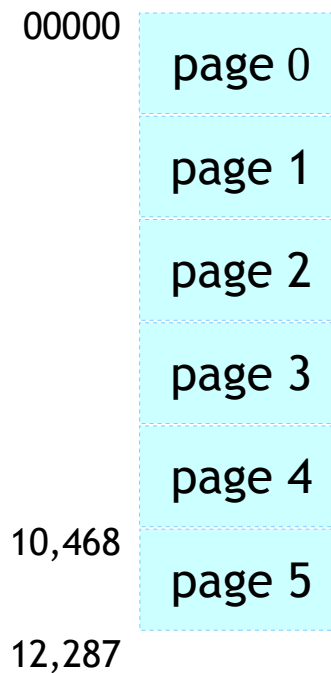
- The logical address of a memory allocated to a process is the combination of base register and limit register. When this logical address is added to the relocation register, it gives the physical address.



Memory Management - Concepts

Requirements - Protection

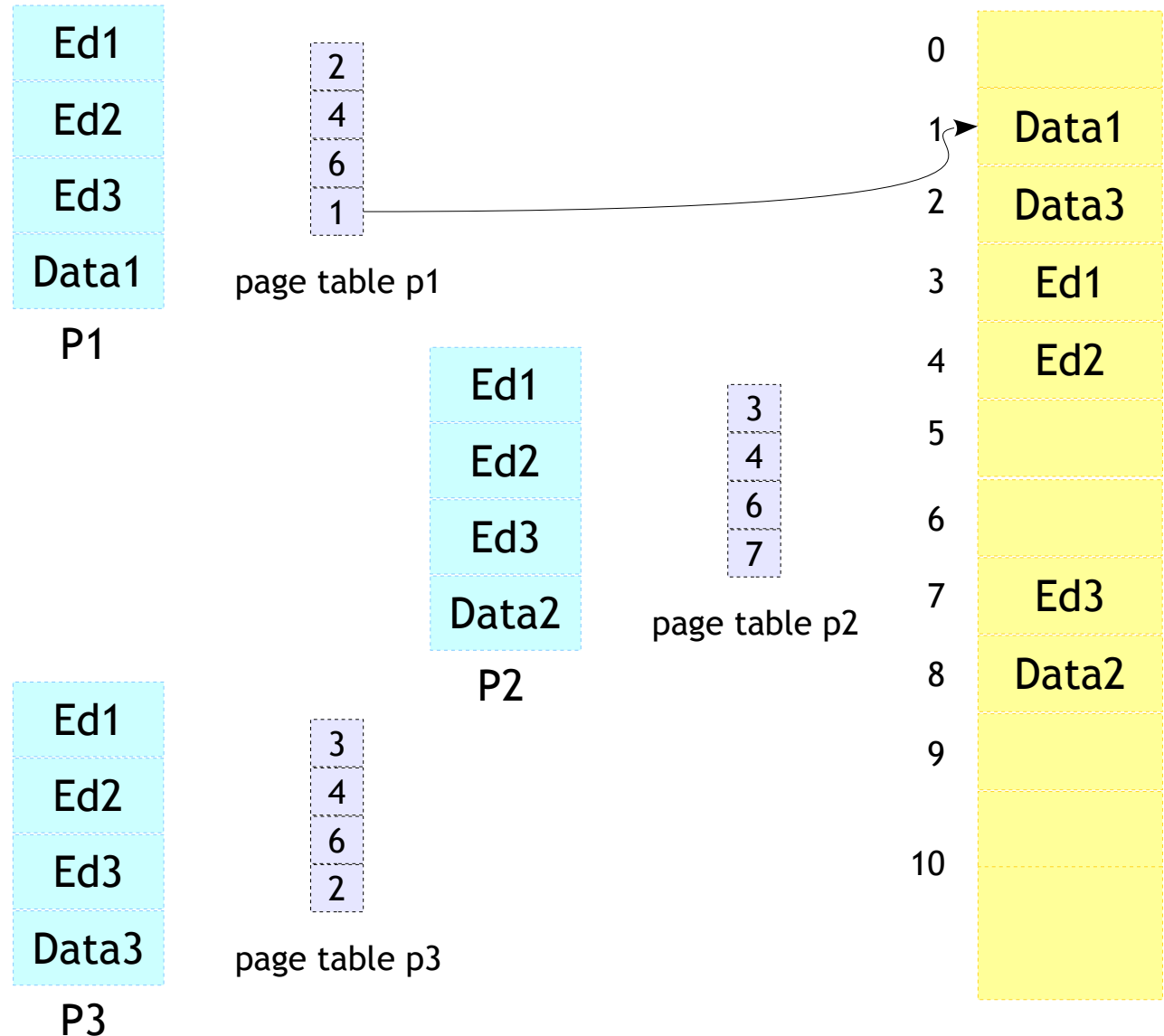
- Processes should not be able to reference memory locations in another process without permission
- Impossible to check absolute addresses in programs since the program could be relocated
- Must be checked during execution



Memory Management - Concepts

Requirements - Sharing

- Allow several processes to access the same portion of memory
- For example, when using shared memory IPC, we need two processes to share the same memory segment



Memory Management - Concepts

Requirements - Logical Organization



- Logical Organization Memory is organized linearly (usually) In contrast, programs are organized into modules.
- Modules can be written and compiled independently
- Different degrees of protection can be given to different modules (read-only, execute-only)
- Modules can be shared among processes Segmentation helps here
- In Linux, Code Segment has a read-only attribute

Memory Management - Concepts

Requirements - Physical Organization



- Processes in the user space will be leaving & getting in
- Each process needs the memory to execute
- So, the memory needs to be partitioned between processes
 - Fixed Partitioning
 - Dynamic Partitioning

Networking - Concepts



Networking - concept

Types of networks



There are several different types of computer networks. Computer networks can be characterized by their size as well as their purpose.

The size of a network can be expressed by the geographic area they occupy and the number of computers that are part of the network. Networks can cover anything from a handful of devices within a single room to millions of devices spread across the entire globe.

Some of the different networks based on size are:

- Personal area network, or PAN

- Local area network, or LAN

- Metropolitan area network, or MAN

- Wide area network, or WAN

Networking - concept

Types of networks



- LAN
 - Mostly same physical technology
 - No switching elements
 - Channel contention problem
 - Range: 10 m to 1 km
- WAN
 - Different physical layer technologies
 - Switching elements
 - Hosts and routers
 - Internet

Networking - concept

Types of networks

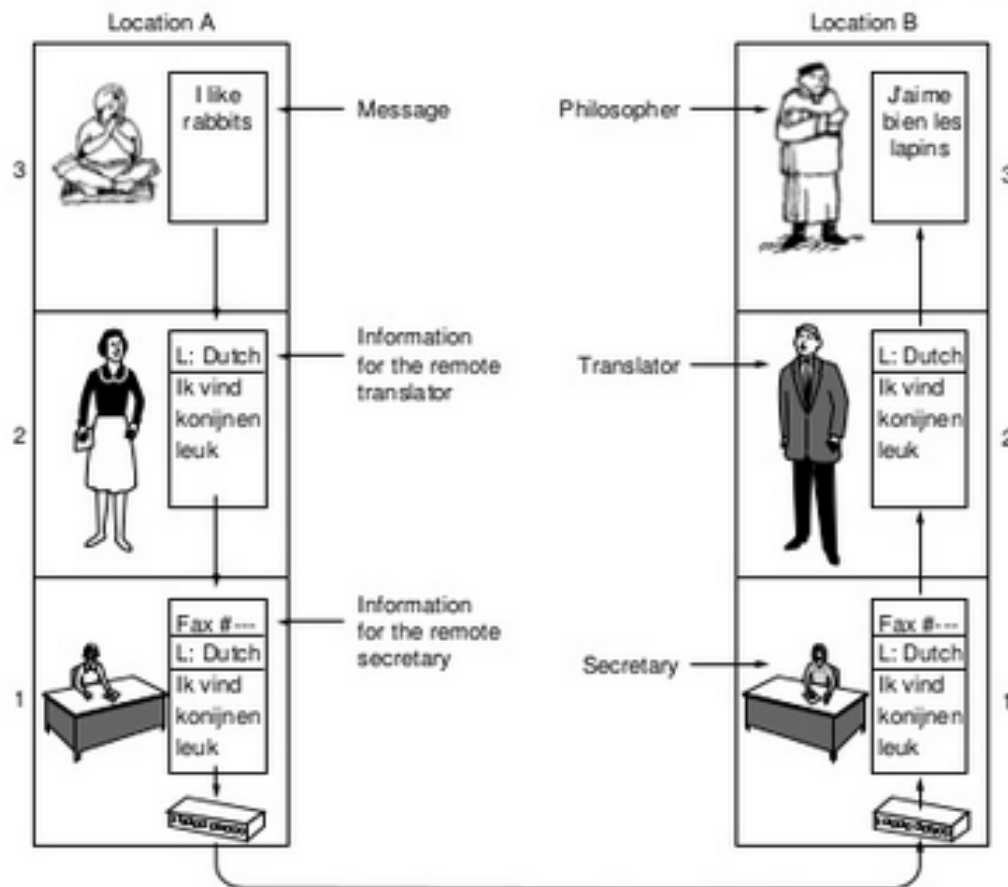
- WPN
 - Consumer home networking
 - Connected home 'experience'
 - Connect everything
 - Low range, high power
 - Office on the move



Networking - concept

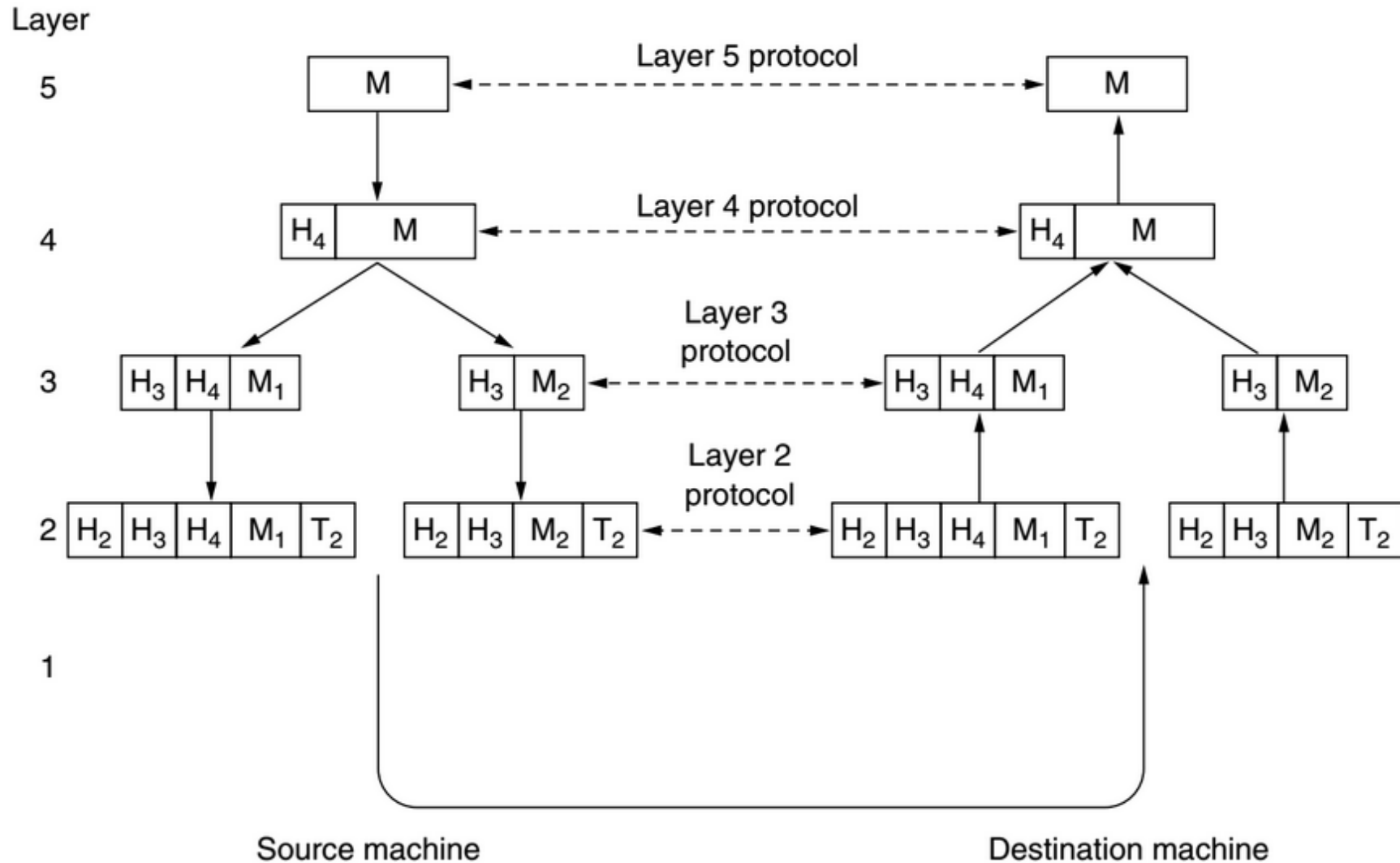
Protocols

A protocol is a set of rules and standards that basically define a language that devices can use to communicate. There are a great number of protocols in use extensively in networking, and they are often implemented in different layers.



Networking - concept

Protocols



Networking - concept

Protocols- Examples



- Media Access Control

Media access control is a communications protocol that is used to distinguish specific devices. Each device is supposed to get a unique MAC address during the manufacturing process that differentiates it from every other device on the internet.

- ICMP

ICMP stands for internet control message protocol. It is used to send messages between devices to indicate the availability or error conditions. These packets are used in a variety of network diagnostic tools, such as ping and traceroute.

Networking - concept

Protocols- Examples



- HTTP

HTTP stands for hypertext transfer protocol. It is a protocol defined in the application layer that forms the basis for communication on the web.

- FTP

FTP stands for file transfer protocol. It is also in the application layer and provides a way of transferring complete files from one host to another.

- DNS

DNS stands for domain name system. It is an application layer protocol used to provide a human-friendly naming mechanism for internet resources. It is what ties a domain name to an IP address and allows you to access sites by name in your browser.

Networking - concept

Protocols- Examples



- SSH

SSH stands for secure shell. It is an encrypted protocol implemented in the application layer that can be used to communicate with a remote server in a secure way. Many additional technologies are built around this protocol because of its end-to-end encryption and ubiquity.

- DHCP

Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP) is a client/server protocol that automatically provides an Internet Protocol (IP) host with its IP address and other related configuration information such as the subnet mask and default gateway.

- ARP

A host wishing to obtain a physical address broadcasts an ARP request onto the TCP/IP network. The host on the network that has the IP address in the request then replies with its physical hardware address.

Networking - concept

Some questions from protocols



- 1) What type of cable or transmission media is used to connect hosts on the network?
- 2) How is data transmitted on the transmission media?
- 3) How do the hosts on the network know when to transmit data?
- 4) How does each host know how much data can be transmitted at a time?
- 5) How can hosts using different operating systems communicate?
- 6) How can a host check the data received for transmissions?

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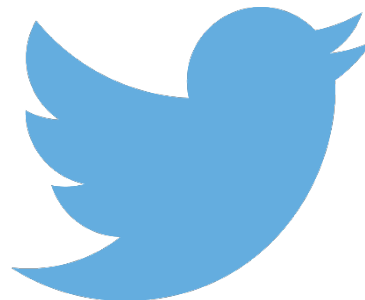
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