CSE344 System Programming

Signals and processes

- Signal fundamentals
- Signal blocking, ignoring, handling
- Creating a new process
- Terminating a process

Signals are mechanisms for communicating with, and manipulating processes.

A signal is a notification sent to a process that an event has occurred.

Think of them as **software interrupts**. They are similar to hardware interrupts in the sense that they interrupt the normal flow of execution.

It is impossible to predict exactly when a signal is going to arrive.

Examples: dividing by zero, referencing an inaccessible memory location, pressing CTRL-C...all lead to **signal generation**.

Signals are **asynchronous**; when a process receives a signal, it processes the signal immediately, without finishing the current function or even the current line of code.

When a signal is **delivered** to a process, the process can:

- Ignore it
- Take the default action associated with that signal: termination, suspension of execution, core dump file generation, etc.
- Execute a **signal handler**; i.e. a custom function written by you, that takes appropriate action; e.g. in case of CTRL-C, make sure all data/settings are saved properly.

If a signal handler is used, the currently executing program is paused, the signal handler is executed, and, when the signal handler returns, the program resumes from where it left off.

Every signal is associated with a unique integer number (starting from 1) and is referenced by a symbolic name (defined in **signal.h**) that starts with SIG; SIGSEGV, SIGTERM, SIGINT, etc.

Make sure you include **signal.h** in your source files when working with signals.

SIGUSR1 and SIGUSR2 are reserved for user use.

signal	description	default action
SIGABRT SIGALRM SIGBUS SIGCHLD SIGCONT SIGFPE SIGHUP SIGILL SIGINT SIGKILL SIGPIPE SIGQUIT SIGSEGV SIGSTOP SIGTERM	process abort alarm clock access undefined part of memory object child terminated, stopped or continued execution continued if stopped error in arithmetic operation as in division by zero hang-up (death) on controlling terminal (process) invalid hardware instruction interactive attention signal (usually Ctrl-C) terminated (cannot be caught or ignored) write on a pipe with no readers interactive termination: core dump (usually Ctrl-) invalid memory reference execution stopped (cannot be caught or ignored)	implementation dependent abnormal termination implementation dependent ignore continue implementation dependent abnormal termination implementation dependent abnormal termination abnormal termination abnormal termination implementation dependent implementation dependent implementation dependent stop abnormal termination
SIGTSTP SIGTTIN	terminal stop background process attempting to read	stop stop
SIGUSR1 SIGUSR2	user-defined signal 1 user-defined signal 2	abnormal termination abnormal termination

Signals can be sent by the kernel, by other processes, or even by the user using the kill system call (also available as a shell command):

```
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <signal.h>
int kill(pid_t pid, int sig);
```

Returns 0 on success, and -1 on error and sets errno.

The name kill derives from the fact that historically, many signals have the default action of terminating the process.

```
pid > 0 signal sent to the process of that pid
pid == -1 sent to all processes for which it has permission to send
```

If no process matches the specified pid, kill() fails and sets errno to ESRCH ("No such process").

A process needs appropriate permissions to be able to send a signal to another process; you cannot go around killing other users' processes.

- The init process (pid 1) is special; it can only be sent signals for which it has a handler installed; this prevents accidental kills.
- For all others, a process can send another process a signal if their user ids match (there are some intricacies involved).
- SIGCONT is an exception; (can be sent to any process in the same session).

Tip: you can use the kill system call to send the **null signal** (0) to test for the existence of a specific pid.

It will either send no signal (successfully since the null signal does not exist) or return with ESRCH (no such process).

A process can also send a signal to itself, either through

```
kill(getpid(), sig);
```

or through the raise system call

```
#include <signal.h>
int raise(int sig);
```

Signal mask

For each process (in fact for each thread – the kernel sends the signal to a random thread if none block it), the kernel maintains a signal mask - a set of signals whose delivery to the process is currently blocked. If a signal that is blocked is sent to a process, delivery of that signal is delayed until it is unblocked by being removed from the process signal mask.

```
#include <signal.h>
int sigprocmask(int how, const sigset_t * set, sigset_t * oldset );
```

Returns 0 on success, or -1 on error

The sigprocmask() system call can be used at any time to explicitly add signals to, and remove signals from the signal mask.

Signal mask

```
#include <signal.h>
int sigprocmask(int how, const sigset_t* set, sigset_t* oldst);
```

how: how should the mask be changed

- SIG_BLOCK: the signals in set are added into the signal mask
- SIG_UNBLOCK: the signals in set are removed from the signal mask
- SIG_SETMASK: set becomes the signal mask

Some signals, such as SIGSTOP and SIGKILL, cannot be blocked. If an attempt is made to block these signals, the system ignores the request without reporting an error.

Signal set

And what about the sigset_t type? Easy to manipulate:

```
#include <signal.h>
int sigaddset(sigset t *set, int signo);
Adds signo into the set
int sigdelset(sigset t *set, int signo);
Removes signo from the set
int sigemptyset(sigset t *set);
Initializes a signal set to contain no members
int sigfillset(sigset t *set);
Initializes a set to contain all signals
int sigismember (const sigset t *set, int signo);
Test membership of signo in the set
```

Signal (un)blocking example

```
#include <math.h>
#include <signal.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <unistd.h>
     a program that blocks and unblocks SIGINT
                                                   */
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
   int i;
   sigset_t intmask;
   int repeatfactor;
   double y = 0.0;
   if (argc != 2) {
       fprintf(stderr, "Usage: %s repeatfactor\n", argv[0]);
        return 1;
   repeatfactor = atoi(argv[1]);
   if ((sigemptyset(&intmask) == -1) || (sigaddset(&intmask, SIGINT) == -1))
       perror("Failed to initialize the signal mask");
        return 1;
   }
   for (;;) {
       if (sigprocmask(SIG_BLOCK, &intmask, NULL) == -1)
            break;
       fprintf(stderr, "SIGINT signal blocked\n");
       for (i = 0; i < repeatfactor; i++)
           y += sin((double)i);
                                                      /* blocked signals calculations */
       fprintf(stderr, "Blocked calculation is finished, y = %f\n", y);
       if (sigprocmask(SIG_UNBLOCK, &intmask, NULL) == -1)
            break;
       fprintf(stderr, "SIGINT signal unblocked\n");
       for (i = 0; i < repeatfactor; i++)
           y += sin((double)i);
                                                     /* unblocked signals calculations */
       fprintf(stderr, "Unblocked calculation is finished, y=%f\n", y);
   }
   perror("Failed to change signal mask");
   return 1;
```

Pending signals

If a process receives a signal that it is currently blocking, that signal is added to the process's set of pending signals. When (and if) the signal is later unblocked, it is then delivered to the process. To determine which signals are pending for a process, we can call

```
#include <signal.h>
int sigpending(sigset_t * set);
```

Returns 0 on success, or –1 on error

We can then examine set using sigismember()

The set of pending signals is only a mask; it indicates whether or not a signal has occurred, but not how many times it has occurred. **Pending signals DO NOT queue/accumulate.**

Signal handlers

Handling signals either by catching or ignoring them, is done through the sigaction call:

```
#include <signal.h>
int sigaction(int signo, const struct sigaction *act, struct sigaction *oldact);
```

signo: signal number for action

act: the action to take

oldact: receives the previous action towards signo

When a handler function is invoked on a signal, that signal is automatically blocked (in addition to any other signals that are already in the process's signal mask) during the time the handler is running.

Signal handlers

```
struct sigaction {
//SIG DFL, SIG IGN or pointer to function
void (*sa handler)(int);
// additional signals to be blocked during execution of
// handler
sigset t sa mask;
// special flags and options
int sa flags;
// obsolete, don't use this
void(*sa_restorer) (void);
};
SIG DFL: default action
SIG IGN: ignore signal
The handler cannot return anything, and receives only signo as param.
```

Signal handling example

Listing 3.5 (sigusr1.c) Using a Signal Handler

```
#include <signal.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <unistd.h>
                                                  Don't use signal()
sig atomic t sigusr1 count = 0;
                                               use sigaction() instead;
void handler (int signal_number)
                                             signal() does not guarantee
 ++sigusr1 count;
                                            blocking a signal during the
                                               handler's execution, etc
int main ()
  struct sigaction sa;
 memset (&sa, 0, sizeof (sa));
  sa.sa handler = &handler;
  sigaction (SIGUSR1, &sa, NULL);
  /* Do some lengthy stuff here. */
  /* ... */
  printf ("SIGUSR1 was raised %d times\n", sigusr1 count);
  return 0;
```

The following code segment sets the signal handler for SIGINT to mysighand

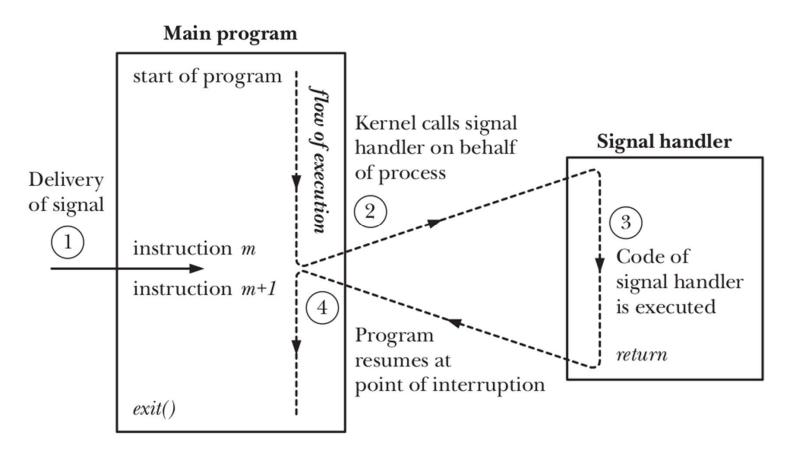
```
struct sigaction newact;
newact.sa_handler = &mysighand; /* set the new handler */
newact.sa_flags = 0;

/* no special options */
if ((sigemptyset(&newact.sa_mask) == -1) || (sigaction(SIGINT, &newact, NULL) == -1))
perror("Failed to install SIGINT signal handler"
```

The following code segment causes the process to ignore SIGINT if the default action is in effect for this signal.

```
struct sigaction act;
/* Find the current SIGINT handler */
if (sigaction(SIGINT, NULL, &act) == -1)
    perror("Failed to get old handler for SIGINT");
else if (act.sa_handler == SIG_DFL) {
    /* if SIGINT handler is default */
    act.sa_handler = SIG_IGN;
/* set new SIGINT handler to ignore */
if (sigaction(SIGINT, &act, NULL) == -1)
    perror("Failed to ignore SIGINT");
}
```

Invocation of a signal handler may interrupt the main program flow at any time; the kernel calls the handler on the process's behalf, and when the handler returns, execution of the program resumes at the point where the handler interrupted it.



The sa_flags field is a bit mask specifying various options controlling how the signal is handled. The following bits can be OR'ed (|)

SA_RESTART: automatically restart system calls interrupted by this signal handler (not widely supported though).

SA_SIGINFO: invoke the signal handler with additional arguments providing further information about the signal.

And more: SA_RESETHAND, SA_NOCLDSTOP, etc.

The UNIX signaling mechanism also serves as a way of waiting for an event without **busy waiting**.

while condition not satisfied do nothing

Busy waiting: testing continuously (within a loop) whether a certain event occurred by using CPU cycles.

The alternative is to suspend the process until a signal arrives notifying it that the event occurred (hence the CPU is free).

POSIX system calls for suspending processes until a signal occurs: sleep (NO), nanosleep (NO), pause (NO), sigsuspend (YES)...

The sleep() function suspends execution of the calling process for the number of seconds specified in the seconds argument or until a signal is caught (thus interrupting the call).

```
#include <unistd.h>
unsigned int sleep(unsigned int seconds);
```

Returns 0 on normal completion, or number of unslept seconds if prematurely terminated

nanosleep is a more powerful version of sleep that operates at higher resolution.

Calling pause() suspends execution of the process until the call is interrupted by a signal handler (or until an unhandled signal terminates the process).

```
#include <unistd.h>
int pause(void);
```

Always returns –1 with errno set to EINTR

```
sigset t prevMask, intMask;
struct sigaction sa;
sigemptyset(&intMask);
sigaddset(&intMask, SIGINT);
sigemptyset(&sa.sa mask);
sa.sa flags = 0;
sa.sa handler = handler;
if (sigaction(SIGINT, &sa, NULL) == -1)
    errExit("sigaction");
/* Block SIGINT prior to executing critical section. (At this
   point we assume that SIGINT is not already blocked.) */
if (sigprocmask(SIG BLOCK, &intMask, &prevMask) == -1)
    errExit("sigprocmask - SIG BLOCK");
/* Critical section: do some work here that must not be
   interrupted by the SIGINT handler */
/* End of critical section - restore old mask to unblock SIGINT */
if (sigprocmask(SIG SETMASK, &prevMask, NULL) == -1)
    errExit("sigprocmask - SIG SETMASK");
/* BUG: what if SIGINT arrives now... */
                                    /* Wait for SIGINT */
pause();
```

Why is pause insufficient?

Because a signal can arrive between unblocking and pause and it will be lost The example shows incorrectly unblocking and waiting for a signal

The solution:

```
#include <signal.h>
int sigsuspend(const sigset_t * mask);
```

Main idea: block the process efficiently until a certain signal arrives and is handled

Returns –1 with errno set to EINTR

Atomically unblocks a signal and suspends the process. Equivalent to (atomic):

```
/* Assign new mask */
sigprocmask(SIG_SETMASK, &mask, &prevMask);
pause();
/* Restore old mask */
sigprocmask(SIG_SETMASK, &prevMask, NULL);
```

There are 3 delicate issues when dealing with signals.

1) Handling errors that use errno

If errno is set within the signal handler, that could mean that its previous eventually unprocessed value from the main program is lost! Solution: in the signal handler, save and restore errno.

```
void myhandler(int signo) {
   int esaved = errno;
   // do dangerous stuff that might cause errno to be set
   errno = esaved; // once you are done, restore errno's value
}
```

2) Whether POSIX system calls that are interrupted by signals should be restarted.

A signal arrives in the middle of a system call. It is handled, and now we return to the call. Should it continue, restart, cancel?

By default, the system call will fail with the error EINTR ("Interrupted function"). You can use this feature for manual restarts:

```
while ((cnt = read(fd, buf, BUF_SIZE)) == -1 && errno == EINTR)
    continue; /* Do nothing loop body */
if (cnt == -1)
    perror("read");
```

If this becomes a major concern you can turn it into a macro too.

```
#define NO_EINTR(stmt) while ((stmt) == -1 && errno == EINTR);

NO_EINTR(cnt = read(fd, buf, BUF_SIZE));

if (cnt == -1)
    perror("read"); /* read() failed with other than EINTR */
```

Unfortunately the SA_RESTART flag we saw earlier, is not supported by all system calls, for historical reasons.

3) The last issue is about which system calls to call in a signal handler.

System calls that rely on global/static variables and data structures are not safe (the majority of stdio calls: printf, scanf, etc).

By not safe we mean that if you call them in the signal handler, you no longer have the guarantee that they will behave as expected when you return to the main program.

Unfortunately the list of async-safe functions is relatively short. Almost none of the functions in the standard C library are on it.

Signal handlers

Because signals are asynchronous, the main program may be in a very **fragile state** when a signal handler function executes. Therefore, you should avoid performing any I/O operations or calling most library and system functions from signal handlers.

A signal handler should perform the minimum work necessary to respond to a signal, and then return control to the main program (or terminate the program).

In most cases, this consists simply of recording the fact that a signal occurred. Signals may arrive even while handling them...this is very hard to debug.

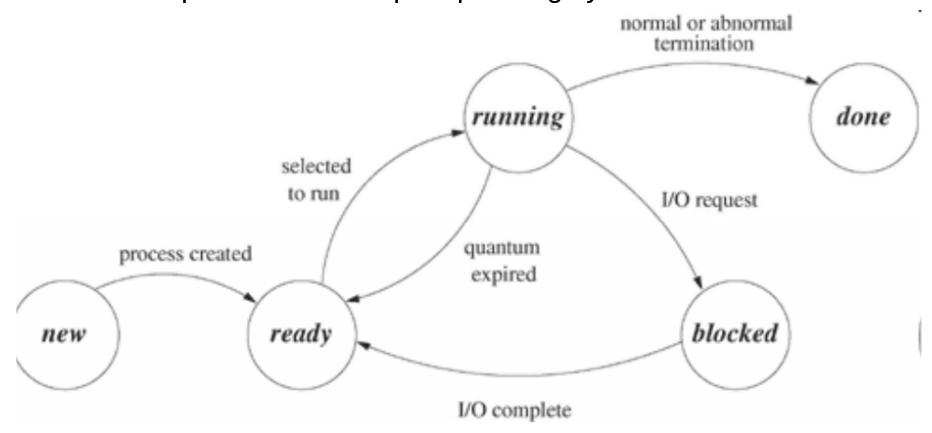
Signal handlers

One way of handling this fragile condition in loop based programs is:

```
signal_handler:
    sets a flag variable
main:
    loop:
        do lengthy stuff
        if flag is set:
            exit elegantly
end_loop
```

Process state

The state of a process in a simple operating system



But how exactly are processes created?

Two common techniques are used for creating a new process.

The first is relatively simple but should be used sparingly (or rather never) because it is inefficient and has considerably security risks.

The second technique is more complex but provides greater flexibility, speed, and security.

The system function in the standard C library provides an easy way to execute a command from within a program, much as if the command had been typed into a shell.

In fact, system creates a subprocess running the standard Bourne shell (/bin/sh) and hands the command to that shell for execution.

```
#include <stdlib.h>
int system(const char * command);
```

It returns the exit status of the shell command. If the shell itself cannot be run, it returns 127; if another error occurs, it returns -1.

Listing 3.2 (system.c) Using the system Call

```
#include <stdlib.h>

int main ()
{
   int return_value;
   return_value = system ("ls -l /");
   return return_value;
}
```

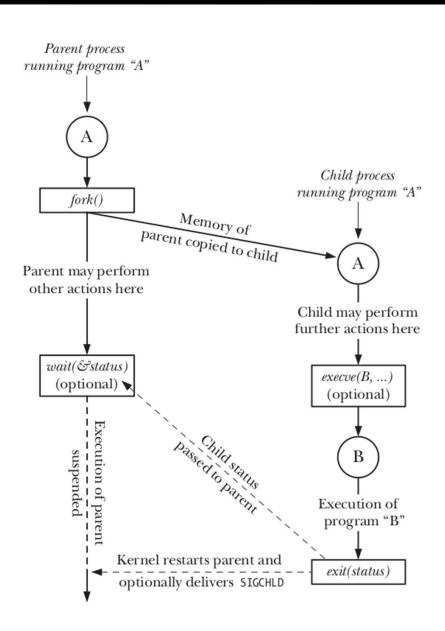
Pros: it's simple, error & signal handling are taken care of.

Cons: a) inefficient since it creates 2 processes, one for the shell, and one more more for the commands b) it's subject to the features, limitations, and security flaws of the system's shell. Since you can't rely on the availability of any particular shell, it's not portable either.

The windows API has the spawn family of functions to create new processes by being given just the name of the program to run.

In the UNIX world the creation of a new process is done in 2 steps!

- 1) fork: that creates a child process that is an exact copy of its parent process
- 2) exec: causes a particular process to cease being an instance of one program and to instead become an instance of another program



Why create multiple instances of the same process? In many applications, it can be a useful way of dividing up a task.

For example, a network server process may listen for incoming client requests and create a new child process to handle each request; meanwhile, the server process continues to listen for further client connections.

Dividing tasks up in this way often makes application design simpler. It also permits greater concurrency (i.e., more tasks or requests can be handled simultaneously).

This is accomplished through fork

```
#include <unistd.h>
pid t fork(void);
```

In parent: returns process id of child on success, or -1 on error; in successfully created child: always returns 0

The key point to understanding fork() is to realize that after it has completed its work, two processes exist, and, in each process, execution continues from the point where fork() returns.

Because no process ever has a process id of zero, this makes it easy for the program to know whether it is now running as the parent or the child process.

Listing 3.3 (fork.c) Using fork to Duplicate a Program's Process

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <unistd.h>
int main ()
  pid t child pid;
  printf ("the main program process ID is %d\n", (int) getpid ());
  child pid = fork ();
  if (child pid != 0) {
    printf ("this is the parent process, with id %d\n", (int) getpid ());
   printf ("the child's process ID is %d\n", (int) child pid);
  else
    printf ("this is the child process, with id %d\n", (int) getpid ());
  return 0;
```

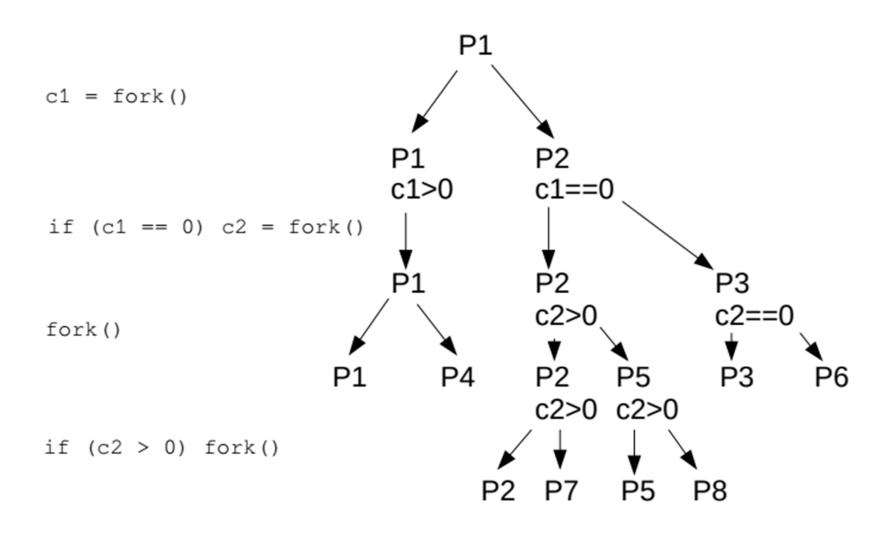
The child process is created as an exact copy of its parent, except for its process id. This means a copy of everything: data, heap and stack.

What about open files? The child process receives duplicates of all of the parent's file descriptors. The descriptors in the parent and the child refer to the same open files. The open file description contains the current file offset (as modified by read(), write(), and lseek()) and the open file status flags (set by open()).

Consequently, these attributes of an open file are shared between the parent and child. For example, if the child updates the file offset, this change is visible through the corresponding descriptor in the parent.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void) {
pid_t c1, c2; /* process ids */
c2 = 0;
            /* fork number 1 */
c1 = fork();
if (c1 == 0) c2 = fork(); /* fork number 2 */
               /* fork number 3 */
fork();
if (c2 > 0) fork(); /* fork number 4 */
```

How many processes have been formed ?? By which process ??



Process scheduling

After a fork(), it is indeterminate which process - the parent or the child - next has access to the CPU. (On a multiprocessor system, they may both simultaneously get access to a CPU.)

Applications that implicitly or explicitly rely on a particular sequence of execution in order to achieve correct results are open to failure due to race conditions.

Such bugs can be hard to find, as their occurrence depends on scheduling decisions that the kernel makes according to system load.

Use the nice command to control the "priority" of processes.

Normally, a process terminates in one of two ways.

Either the executing program calls the <code>exit</code> function, or the program's main function returns. Each process has an exit code: a number that the process returns to its parent. The exit code is the argument passed to the exit function, or the value returned from main.

```
#include <stdlib.h>
void exit(int status);
```

By convention

0 status: successful completion

• < 0 status: failure</p>

• > 0 status: their meaning is application specific

With most shells, it's possible to obtain the exit code of the most recently executed program using the special \$? variable. Example:

```
% ls /
               lib
bin
     coda
                           misc nfs
           etc
                                      proc sbin
                                                 usr
boot dev
           home lost+found mnt
                                 opt
                                      root
                                           tmp
                                                 var
% echo $?
0
% ls bogusfile
ls: bogusfile: No such file or directory
% echo $?
```

Calling exit leads to

- execution of exit handlers
- flushing of all stdio buffers

An exit handler is a function to be executed when the process terminates. It is registered through atexit:

```
#include <stdlib.h>
int atexit(void (* func )(void));
```

More generally, at process termination:

- All open files and streams are closed
- All file locks held by the process are released

The second way of termination is the abnormal way, in response to a signal such as SIGSEGV, SIGBUS, SIGINT, SIGTERM and SIGABRT.

Their default disposition is to terminate the target process.

The most powerful termination signal is SIGKILL which ends a process immediately and cannot be blocked or handled by a program.

```
/* This example replaces the signal mask and then suspends execution. */
#define POSIX SOURCE
#include <stdio.h>
#include <signal.h>
#include <time.h>
#include <unistd.h>
void catcher(int signum) {
  switch (signum) {
    case SIGUSR1: puts("catcher caught SIGUSR1");
                  break;
    case SIGUSR2: puts("catcher caught SIGUSR2");
                  break;
    default:
                  printf("catcher caught unexpected signal %d\n",
                         signum); // bad idea to call printf in handler
```

```
int main() {
 sigset t sigset;
 struct sigaction sact;
 time t t;
 if (fork() == 0) {
    sleep(10);
   puts ("child is sending SIGUSR2 signal - which should be blocked");
   kill(getppid(), SIGUSR2);
    sleep(5);
   puts ("child is sending SIGUSR1 signal - which should be caught");
   kill(getppid(), SIGUSR1);
   exit(0);
```

```
sigemptyset(&sact.sa mask);
sact.sa flags = 0;
sact.sa handler = catcher;
if (sigaction(SIGUSR1, &sact, NULL) != 0)
   perror("1st sigaction() error");
if (sigaction(SIGUSR2, &sact, NULL) != 0)
   perror("2nd sigaction() error");
sigfillset(&sigset);
sigdelset(&sigset, SIGUSR1);
time(&t);
   printf("parent waiting for child to send SIGUSR1 at %s", ctime(&t));
    if (sigsuspend(&sigset) == -1) // blocks all except for SIGUSR1
        perror("sigsuspend() returned -1 as expected");
   printf("sigsuspend is over at %s", ctime(time(&t)));
```

```
Output
```

```
parent is waiting for child to send SIGUSR1 at Fri Jun 16 12:30:57 2001 child is sending SIGUSR2 signal - which should be blocked child is sending SIGUSR1 signal - which should be caught catcher caught SIGUSR2 catcher caught SIGUSR1 sigsuspend() returned -1 as expected: Interrupted function call sigsuspend is over at Fri Jun 16 12:31:12 2001
```

Why are there sleep calls in the child process? What could happen if we remove them?