Interlude: Process API

In this interlude, we discuss process creation in UNIX systems. UNIX presents one of the most intriguing ways to create a new process with a pair of system calls: fork() and exec(). A third routine, wait(), can be used by a process wishing to wait for a process it has created to complete. We now present these interfaces in more detail, with a few simple examples to motivate us.

ASIDE: INTERLUDES

Interludes will cover more practical aspects of systems, including a particular focus on operating system APIs and how to use them. If you don't like practical things, you could skip these interludes. But you should like practical things, because, well, they are generally useful in real life.

5.1 The fork () System Call

The fork () system call is used to create a new process [C63]. However, be forewarned: it is certainly the strangest routine you will ever call ¹. More specifically, you have a running program whose code looks like what you see in Figure 5.1.

¹Well, OK, we admit that we don't know that for sure; who knows what routines you call when no one is looking? But fork () is pretty odd.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <unistd.h>
int
main(int argc, char *argv[])
   printf("hello world (pid:%d)\n", (int) getpid());
   int rc = fork();
   if (rc < 0) {
        // fork failed; exit
        fprintf(stderr, "fork failed\n");
        exit(1);
    } else if (rc == 0) {
       // child (new process)
       printf("hello, I am child (pid:%d)\n", (int) getpid());
    } else {
        // parent goes down this path (original process)
        printf("hello, I am parent of %d (pid:%d)\n",
                rc, (int) getpid());
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Figure 5.1: The code for pl.c

When you run this program (called pl.c), what you see is the following:

```
prompt> ./pl
hello world (pid:29146)
hello, I am parent of 29147 (pid:29146)
hello, I am child (pid:29147)
prompt>
```

Let us understand what happened in more detail in pl.c. When it first started running, the process prints out a hello world message; included in that message is its **process identifier**, also known as a **PID**. The process has a PID of 29146; in UNIX systems, the PID is used to name the process if one wants to do something with the process, such as (for example) stop it from running. So far, so good.

Now the interesting part begins. The process calls the fork() system call, which the OS provides as a way to create a new process. The odd part: the process that is created is an (almost) *exact copy of the calling process*. That means that to the OS, it now looks like there

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```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <sys/wait.h>
int
main(int argc, char *argv[])
    printf("hello world (pid:%d)\n", (int) getpid());
    int rc = fork();
    if (rc < 0) {
        // fork failed; exit
        fprintf(stderr, "fork failed\n");
        exit(1);
    } else if (rc == 0) {
        // child (new process)
        printf("hello, I am child (pid:%d)\n", (int) getpid());
    } else {
        // parent goes down this path (original process)
        int wc = wait (NULL);
        printf("hello, I am parent of %d (wc:%d) (pid:%d)\n",
                rc, wc, (int) getpid());
    return 0;
```

Figure 5.2: The code for p2.c

are two copies of the program p1 running, and both are about to return from the fork() system call. The newly-created process (called the **child**, in contrast to the creating **parent**) doesn't start running at main(), like you might expect (note, the "hello, world" message only got printed out once); rather, it just comes into life as if it had called fork() itself.

You might have noticed: the child isn't an *exact* copy. Specifically, although it now has its own copy of the address space (i.e., its own private memory), its own registers, its own PC, and so forth, the value it returns to the caller of **fork()** is different. Specifically, while the parent receives the PID of the newly-created child, the child is simply returned a 0. This differentiation is useful, because it is simple then to write the code that handles the two different cases (as above).

You might also have noticed: the output is not **deterministic**. When the child process is created, there are now two active processes in the system that we care about: the parent and the child. Assuming

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we are running on a system with a single CPU (for simplicity), then either the child or the parent might run at that point. In our example (above), the parent did and thus printed out its message first. In other cases (not shown), the opposite might happen. We'll see a lot more of this type of non-determinism when we study **concurrency** in the future.

5.2 Adding wait () System Call

So far, we haven't done much: just created a child that prints out a message and exits. Sometimes, as it turns out, it is quite useful for a parent to wait for a child process to finish what it has been doing. This task is accomplished with the wait () system call (or its more complete sibling waitpid()); see Figure 5.2.

In this example (p2.c), the parent process calls wait () to delay its execution until the child finishes executing. When the child is done, wait () returns to the parent.

Adding a wait () call to the code above makes the output deterministic. Can you see why? Go ahead, think about it.

Now that you have thought a bit, here is the output:

```
prompt> ./p2
hello world (pid:29266)
hello, I am child (pid:29267)
hello, I am parent of 29267 (wc:29267) (pid:29266)
prompt>
```

With this code, we now know that the child will always print first. Why? Well, it might simply run first, as before, and thus print before the parent. However, if the parent does run first, it will immediately call wait (); this system call won't return until the child has run and exited 2 . Thus, even when the parent runs first, it politely waits for the child to finish running, then wait () returns, and then the parent prints its message.

 $^{^2 \}rm There are a few cases where wait () returns before the child exits; read the man page for more details, as always.$

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <sys/wait.h>
int
main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    printf("hello world (pid:%d)\n", (int) getpid());
    int rc = fork();
    if (rc < 0) {
        // fork failed; exit
        fprintf(stderr, "fork failed\n");
        exit(1);
    } else if (rc == 0) {
        // child (new process)
        printf("hello, I am child (pid:%d)\n", (int) getpid());
        char *myargs[3];
        myargs[0] = strdup("wc"); // program: "wc" (word count)
        myargs[1] = strdup("p3.c"); // argument: file to count
        myargs[2] = NULL;
                                    // marks end of array
        execvp(myargs[0], myargs); // runs word count
        printf("this shouldn't print out");
    } else {
        // parent goes down this path (original process)
        int wc = wait(NULL);
        printf("hello, I am parent of %d (wc:%d) (pid:%d) \n",
                rc, wc, (int) getpid());
    return 0;
}
```

Figure 5.3: The code for p3.c

5.3 Finally, the exec() System Call

A final and important piece of the process creation API is the exec() system call³. This system call is useful when you want to run a program that is different from the calling program. For example, calling fork() in p2.c is only useful if you want to keep

³Actually, there are six variants of exec(): execl(), execl(), execlp(), execv(), and execvp(). Read the man pages to learn more.

running copies of the same program. However, sometimes you want to run a *different* program; exec() does just that (Figure 5.3).

In this example, the child process calls execvp() in order to run the program wc, which is the word counting program. In fact, it runs wc on the source file p3.c, thus telling us how many lines, words, and bytes are found in the file:

If fork() was strange, exec() is not so normal either. What it does: given the name of an executable (e.g., wc), and some arguments (e.g., p3.c), it takes the code from that executable and overwrites its current code segment with it; the heap and stack and other parts of the memory space of the program are reinitialized. Then the OS simply runs that program, passing in any arguments as the argv of that process. Thus, it does *not* create a new process; rather, it transforms the currently running program (formerly p3) into a different running program (wc). After the exec() in the child, it is almost as if p3.c never ran; a successful call to exec() never returns.

5.4 Why? Motivating the API

Of course, one big question you might have: why would we build such an odd interface to what should be the simple act of creating a new process? Well, as it turns out, the separation of fork() and exec() is essential in building a UNIX shell.

The shell is just a program that is running ⁴. You type a command (i.e., the name of an executable program, plus any arguments) to it; it figures out where the executable is, calls fork () to create a new child process to run the command, calls some variant of exec() to run the command, and then waits for the command to complete by calling wait(). When the child completes, the shell returns from

 $^{^4}And$ there are lots of shells; tcsh, bash, and zsh to name a few. You should pick one, read its man pages, and learn more about it; all UNIX experts do.

wait () and prints out a prompt again, ready for your next command.

The separation of fork() and exec() allows the shell to do a whole bunch of really cool things rather easily. For example:

prompt> wc p3.c > newfile.txt

In the example above, the output of the program wc is **redirected** into the output file newfile.txt. The way the shell accomplishes this is quite simple: when the child is created, before calling exec(), the shell closes **standard output** and opens the file newfile.txt. By doing so, any print outs from the soon to be running program wc are redirected to the file instead of the screen. UNIX pipes are implemented in a similar way but with the pipe() system call. There is a lot more detail there to be learned and understood; for now, suffice it to say that the fork()/exec() combination is a very powerful way to create and manipulate processes.

5.5 Other Parts of the API

Beyond fork(), exec(), and wait(), there are a lot of other interfaces for interacting with processes in UNIX systems. For example, the kill() system call is used to send **signals** to a process, including directives to go to sleep, die, and other useful things you might want to do. In fact, the entire signals subsystem provides quite a rich way to deliver external events to processes, including ways for processes to receive and process those signals.

There are many command-line tools that are useful as well. For example, using the ps command allows you to see which processes are running; read the **man pages** for some useful flags to pass to ps. The tool top is also quite helpful, as it displays the processes of the system and how much CPU and other resources they are eating up. Humorously, many times when you run it, top claims it is the top resource hog; perhaps it is a bit of an egomaniac. Finally, there are many different kinds of **CPU meters** you can use to get a quick glance understanding of the load on your system; for example, we always keep **MenuMeters** (from Raging Menace software) running on our Macintosh toolbars, so we can see how much CPU is being utilized at any moment in time. In general, the more information about what is going on, the better.

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5.6 Summary

We have introduced some of the APIs dealing with UNIX process creation: fork(), exec(), and wait(). However, we have just skimmed the surface. For more detail, read Stevens [S92], of course, particularly chapters 8, 9, and 10 on Process Control, Process Relationships, and Signals. There is much to extract from the wisdom therein.

References

[C63] "A Multiprocessor System Design" Melvin E. Conway AFIPS '63 Fall Joint Computer Conference New York, USA 1963 An early paper on how to design multiprocessing systems; may be the first place the term fork () was used in the discussion of spawning new processes.

[DV66] "Programming Semantics for Multiprogrammed Computations" Jack B. Dennis and Earl C. Van Horn Communications of the ACM, Volume 9, Number 3, March 1966 A classic paper that outlines the basics of multiprogrammed computer systems. Undoubtedly had great influence on Project MAC, Multics, and eventually UNIX.

[S92] "Advanced Programming in the UNIX Environment" W. Richard Stevens and Stephen A. Rago Addison-Wesley, 1992 All nuances and subtleties of using UNIX APIs are found herein. Buy this book! Read it! And most importantly, live it.