

Introduction

- Data: global variables
- Text: raw source code/instructions
- Stack: args/params/local vars/caller return addr
- Heap: dynamically allocated with malloc

Stack Frame Setup/Teardown

On executing function call:

- Caller: Pass arguments with Registers/Stack
- Caller: Save return PC on Stack
- Transfer control from caller to callee
- Callee: Save registers used by callee and old FP/SP
- Callee: Alloc space for local vars of callee on stack
- Callee: Adjust SP to point to new stack top

On returning from function call:

- Callee: Restore saved Registers, FP, SP
- Transfer control from callee to caller
- Caller: Continues execution in caller

Process Abstraction

- Exceptions: synchronous; due to program
- Interrupts: asynchronous; independent of program
- Memory Context: text, data, stack, heap
- Hardware Context: registers, PC, SP, FP
- OS Context: PID, process state, opened files
- PCB: stores all contexts of an executing process
- `exec()`: replaces current process with new process

Fork

- child \rightarrow `fork() == 0`; parent \rightarrow `fork() > 0`
- Data is copied, not shared
- `exit(status)` causes value of `status` to be returned to the parent's call to `wait(&status)`. 8 LSB is exit status (`pid = status >> 8`)

Zombie Process

- Child process that has completed execution (`exit` system call) but still has an entry in the process table (so parent process can still read `exit status`)
- `kill` command has no effect on a zombie process

Orphan Process

- Parent terminated, but child still executing
- Dead orphan processes waited on by `init` (PID 1)

Process Scheduling

- Non-preemptive/Cooperative: B will wait for A to finish (or be blocked) before B starts running
- Preemptive: suspend process after time quantum
- Burst Time: time spent actually using CPU
- Turnaround Time: end time - enqueue time
- Response Time: start time - enqueue time
- Waiting Time: turnaround time - burst time
- Throughput: # tasks finished per unit time

Batch Processing

- No user interaction, no need to be responsive
- Prioritises turnaround/burst time, throughput

First Come First Served (FCFS)

- FIFO queue; any process will eventually run
- Blocked process is added back to queue when ready

- Convoy Effect: short tasks waiting for a long task
- Shortest Job First (SJF)**
- Select task with smallest **total** CPU time
 - OS needs to know CPU time for a task in advance
- Shortest Remaining Time First (SRT)**
- Select task with smallest **remaining** CPU time
 - Will preemptively stop another process to allow the shorter remaining time task to run

Interactive Processing

- Prioritises response time, and predictability
- Round Robin (RR)**
- Preemptive version of FCFS
 - Each process given a pre-defined time quantum
 - After using up time quantum, if task is not yet finished, task gets put back in back of queue

Priority Scheduling

- Do tasks with highest priority first
- Hard to guarantee exact amount of CPU time given to each process; low priority tasks may be starved
- May lead to priority inversion:
 $P(H) > P(M) > P(L)$. L, H shares CS but neither with M . L is running in CS. H also needs to run in CS. H waits for L to come out of CS. M able to interrupt L and starts running. M runs till completion. L resumes and starts running till the end of CS. H finally enters CS and starts running.

Multi-Level Feedback Queue (MLFQ)

- If $P(A) > P(B)$, then A runs
- If $P(A) = P(B)$, then A and B runs in RR

Settings:

- New tasks will have highest priority
- Time slice is used before finishing task $\Rightarrow P \downarrow$
- Task blocks before time slice is used $\Rightarrow P$ same

Inter Process Communication (IPC)

Shared Memory

- `shmat(int shmid, void *shmaddr, int flg);`
- Attaches the shared memory segment (`shmid`) to the address space (`shmaddr`) of the calling process. If `shmaddr` is null, attach to first available addr
 - Region is referred to by `shmid`, not by `shmaddr`
 - Efficient: only the initial attach step involves OS
 - Ease of use: shared memory behaves as per normal
 - Hard to synchronise (see Race Condition)

Message Passing

- Passed message is stored in kernel memory space
- Easy to synchronise for synchronous primitives
- Inefficient: every send/recv operation involves OS

UNIX Pipe

- $A \mid B$ means pipe output of A to input of B
- Data must be accessed in order (FIFO)
- Implicit synchronisation (waits when empty/full)
- Read end: 0, write end: 1

Signal

- `signal(int signum, sighandler_t handler);`
- `signal()` sets the disposition of the signal `signum` to handler: either `SIG_IGN` (ignore), `SIG_DFL` (default handler), or the address of a defined function

- Asynchronous \rightarrow vulnerable to race conditions
- Use `sigwait` to synchronously block till signal recvd

Threads

- `pthread_create()`: 0 on success, !0 on errors
 - `pthread_exit(void *retval)`: terminates the calling thread and returns a value via `retval`
 - `pthread_join(pthread_t t, void **ret)`: waits for `t` and sets `ret` to `t`'s `retval`
 - A single thread exits when:
 - Calling `pthread_exit` or `pthread_cancel`
 - Returning from `start_routine`
 - ALL threads exit when:
 - Any thread calls `exit()`
 - Main thread returns from `main()`
 - Threads in the same process shares
 1. Memory Context: variables, text, data, heap
 2. OS Context: PID, opened files (pd), signals, etc
- *Not shared:** Thread ID, registers, and **stack**

Kernel Threads

- Maintains kernel-level thread table
- Thread operations are system calls (slower)
- Can Thread Switch if threads from **same** process

User Threads

- Each process maintains its own private thread table
- Thread operations are runtime procedures (faster)
- Only Process Switch: threads **transparent to OS**

Hybrid Threads

- OS only aware of (and schedules) kernel threads
- Multiple user threads can bind to a kernel thread

Process Switch	Thread Switch
Switches full VM space Flushes TLB cache More overhead	Switches GPR/PC/stack Keeps TLB cache Less overhead

Threads vs Processes

1. Memory
 - Threads share same memory space
 - Processes each have independent memory space
 - Multiprocess is used if memory usage is heavy
 - Multithreading is cheaper if sharing large data
2. Overhead: thread creation is cheaper than forking
3. Protection: processes have independent memory space, child processes can potentially hang, deface memory, without really affecting other processes
4. Hardware: some do not support multiple threads
5. OS: some OSes favour one over the other

Synchronisation

Race Condition

```
lw  $r1, var      # init var as 0
addi $r1, $r1, 3
sw  $r1, var
```

Only 2 possible outcomes, `var` is 3 or 6:

1. Both threads `lw` from `var` simultaneously (ie. both loads 0 to `$r1`) and eventually `sw 3` to `var`
2. One thread finishes and `sw 3`. The other thread then starts executing, and finishes to `sw 6` to `var`

Critical Section (CS)

Properties to maintain:

- Mutual Exclusion: exactly one process in CS
- Progress: if no processes, one should enter
- Bounded Wait: process must eventually enter
- Independence: process not executing in CS should never block other processes waiting to enter

Incorrect use can lead to deadlock/livelock/starvation

Test & Set

1. Atomically set 1 to memory and return old value
2. If old value is 1, repeat step 1 (busy wait)
3. When exiting CS, set memory/lock to 0

Semaphore

Counter & waiting list (may not be FIFO) of processes

- `wait(S)`: decrement *counter* by 1. If *counter* < 0, add process to waiting list and block self
- `signal(S)`: increment *counter* by 1. If *counter* ≤ 0, resume/remove a process from waiting list

1. `counter` is the number of waiting processes
2. `signal()` is never blocked, but `wait()` may
3. `wait()` and `signal()` must be **atomic**
4. Deadlock is still possible with incorrect use

`semaphore S = 3;` At most 3 processes can be in CS
while (1) before CS is locked. Only when
 `S.wait();` a process in CS finishes the work
 // CS and calls `signal()` can another
 `S.signal();` process enter CS.

Memory Management

Buddy System Allocation (RAM)

To allocate memory:

1. Look for smallest 2^k block \geq requested memory, R
2. If found, allocate it
3. Else, split a free memory slot $> R$ by half
 1. If lower limit is not reached, repeat step 3
 2. Else, allocate it

To deallocate memory:

1. Free the block
2. Determine if neighbour blocks are free
3. If free, combine the two and repeat step 2 till upper limit reached or non-free neighbour encountered

Problems With Physical Memory (PM)

If program can address full 32-bit PM address space,

1. Program can crash if $\text{RAM} < 2^{32}\text{B} = 4\text{GB}$
2. Can run out of space if running multiple programs
3. Can access and corrupt other programs' data

Virtual Memory (VM)

- Without VM: program address = RAM address
- Maps program address to RAM address
- `printf("%p")` prints VM address (not PM addr)

This solves each problem of PM by,

1. Allowing writing to/fro disk when RAM is full
2. Allowing program data to be anywhere in RAM
3. Making each program have a different mapping

Paging Scheme

- Physical Frame: split regions of physical memory
- Virtual Page: split regions of logical memory

