BCA233: Operating System

Unit – 2

Chapter 3: Processes

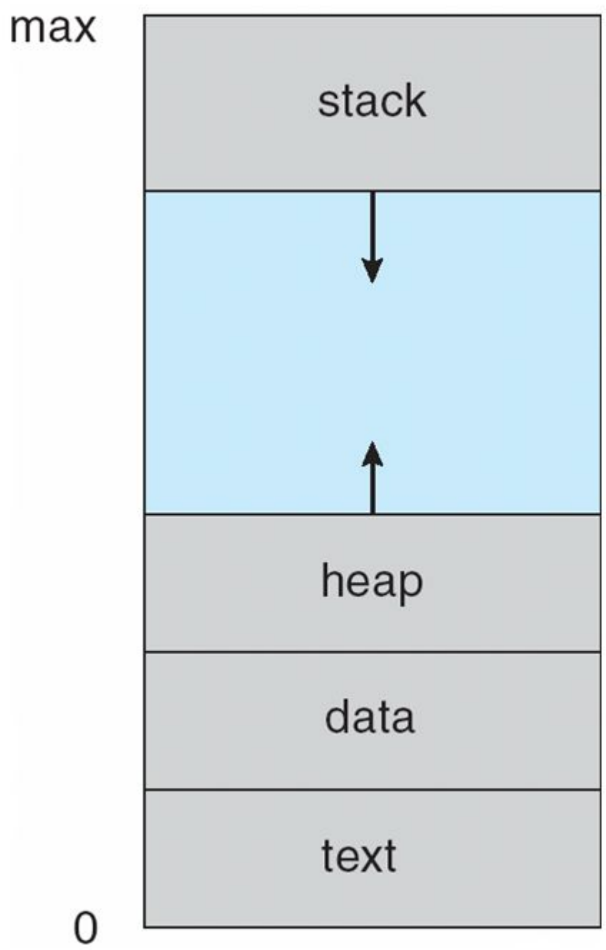
Chapter 3: Processes

- Process Concept
- Process Scheduling
- Operations on Processes
- Inter Process Communication

Process Concept

- An operating system executes a variety of programs:
  - Batch system – **jobs**
  - Time-shared systems – **user programs** or **tasks**
- Textbook uses the terms ***job*** and ***process*** almost interchangeably
- **Process** – a program in execution; process execution must progress in sequential fashion
- Multiple parts
  - The program code, also called **text section**
  - Current activity including **program counter**, processor registers
  - **Stack** containing temporary data
    - Function parameters, return addresses, local variables
  - **Data section** containing global variables
  - **Heap** containing memory dynamically allocated during run time

Process in Memory



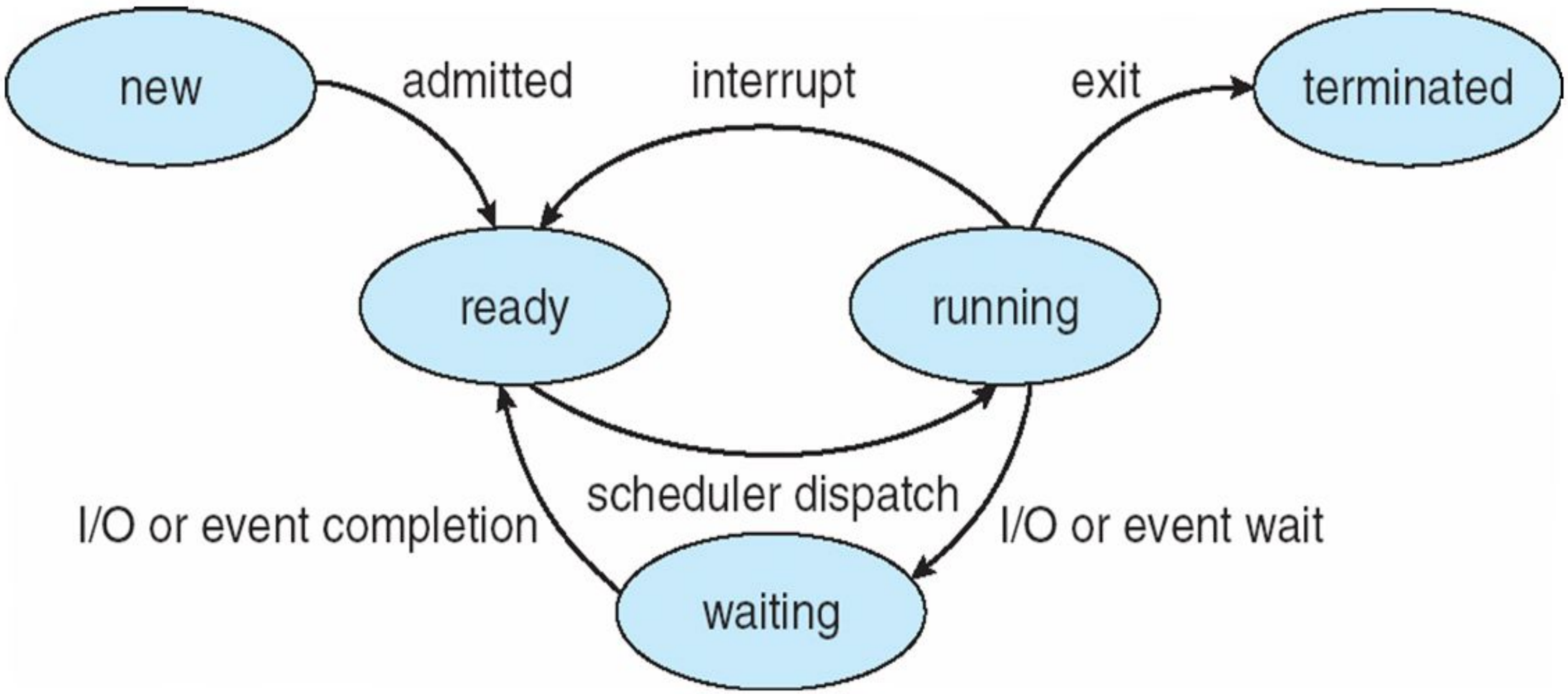
Process Concept (Cont.)

- Program is ***passive*** entity stored on disk (**executable file**), process is ***active***
  - Program becomes process when executable file loaded into memory
- Execution of program started via GUI mouse clicks, command line entry of its name, etc
- One program can be several processes
  - Consider multiple users executing the same program

Process State

- As a process executes, it changes **state**
  - **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 a processor
  - **terminated**: The process has finished execution

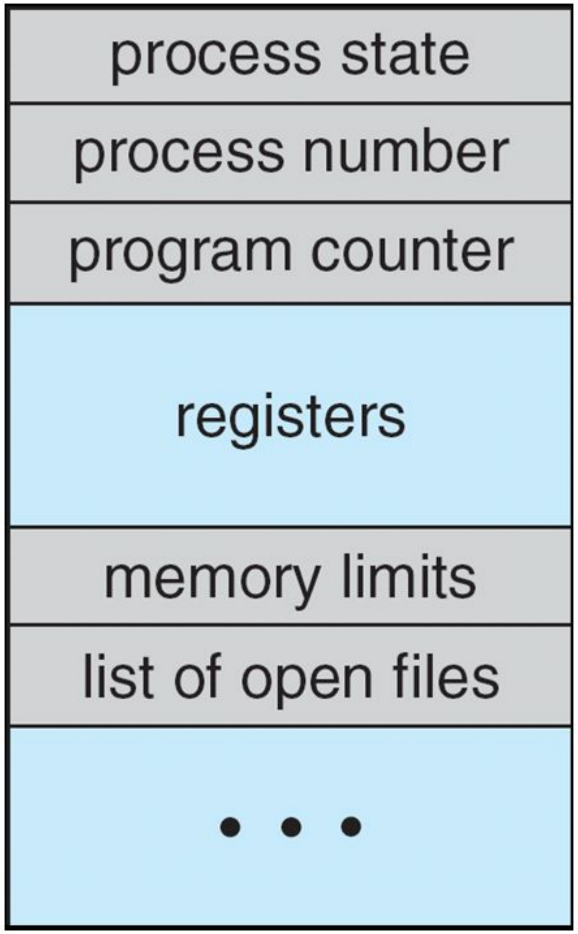
Diagram of Process State



Process Control Block (PCB)

Information associated with each process (also called **task control block**)

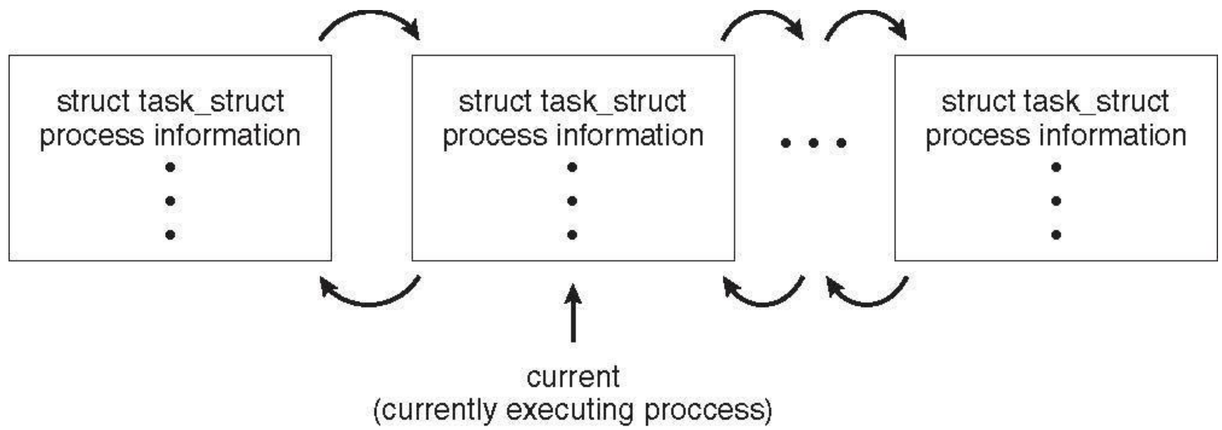
- Process state – running, waiting, etc
- Program counter – location of instruction to next execute
- CPU registers – contents of all process-centric registers
- CPU scheduling information- priorities, scheduling queue pointers
- Memory-management information – memory allocated to the process
- Accounting information – CPU used, clock time elapsed since start, time limits
- I/O status information – I/O devices allocated to process, list of open files



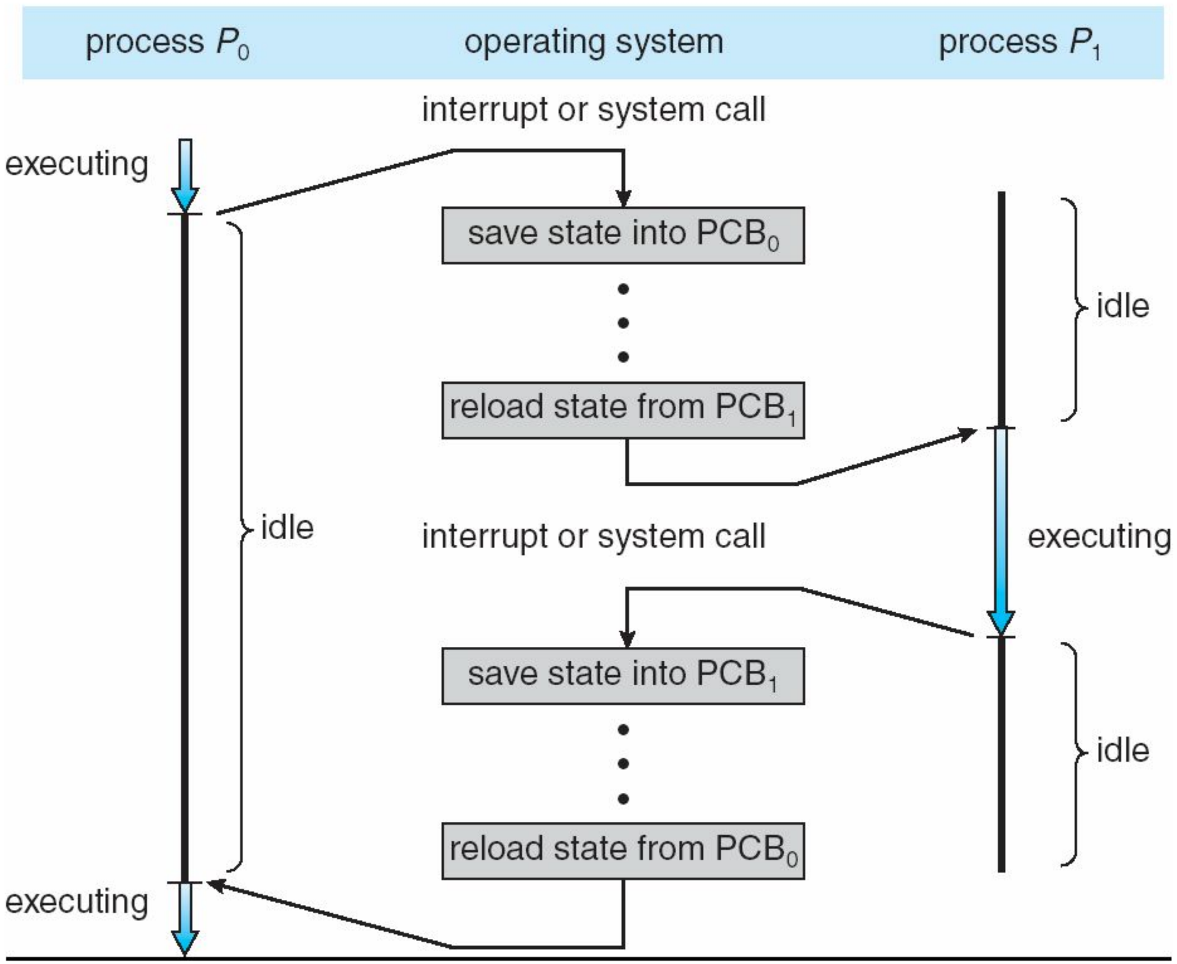
Process Representation in Linux

- The process control block in the Linux operating system is represented by the C structure task_struct, which is found in the <linux/sched.h> include file in the kernel source-code directory

```
pid t_pid; /* process identifier */
long state; /* state of the process */
unsigned int time_slice /* scheduling information */
struct task_struct *parent; /* this process's parent */
struct list_head children; /* this process's children */
struct files_struct *files; /* list of open files */
struct mm_struct *mm; /* address space of this process */
```



CPU Switch From Process to Process



Context Switch

- When CPU switches to another process, the system must **save the state** of the old process and load the **saved state** for the new process via a **context switch**
- **Context** of a process represented in the PCB
- Context-switch time is overhead; the system does no useful work while switching
  - The more complex the OS and the PCB the longer the context switch
- Time dependent on hardware support
  - Some hardware provides multiple sets of registers per CPU multiple contexts loaded at once

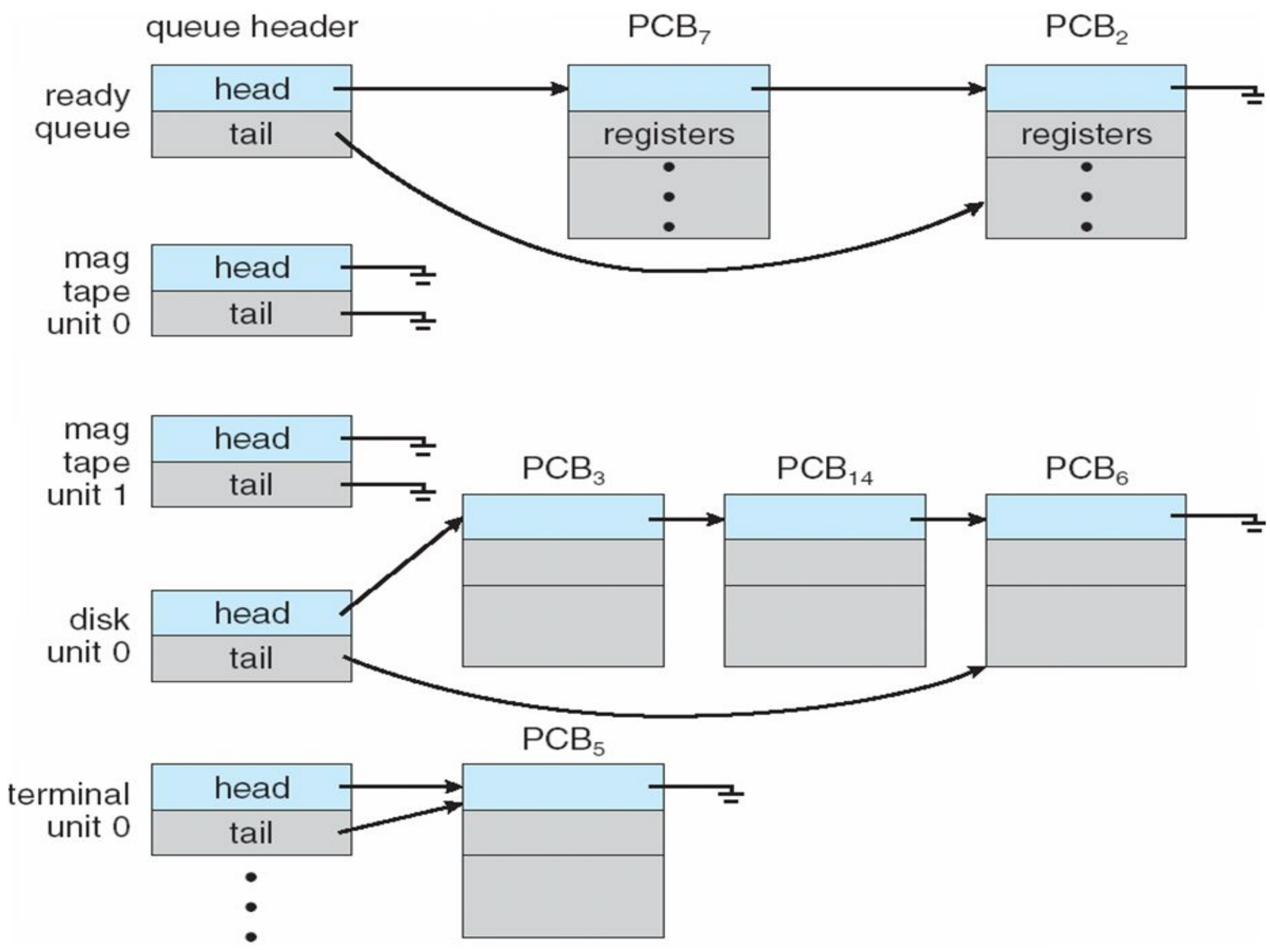
Threads

- In traditional operating systems, process has a single thread of execution
- Most modern operating systems have extended the process concept to allow a process to have multiple threads of execution and thus to perform more than one task at a time.
- This feature is especially beneficial on multicore systems, where multiple threads can run in parallel.
- Consider having multiple program counters per process
  - Multiple locations can execute at once
    - Multiple threads of control -> **threads**
- Must then have storage for thread details, multiple program counters in PCB

Process Scheduling

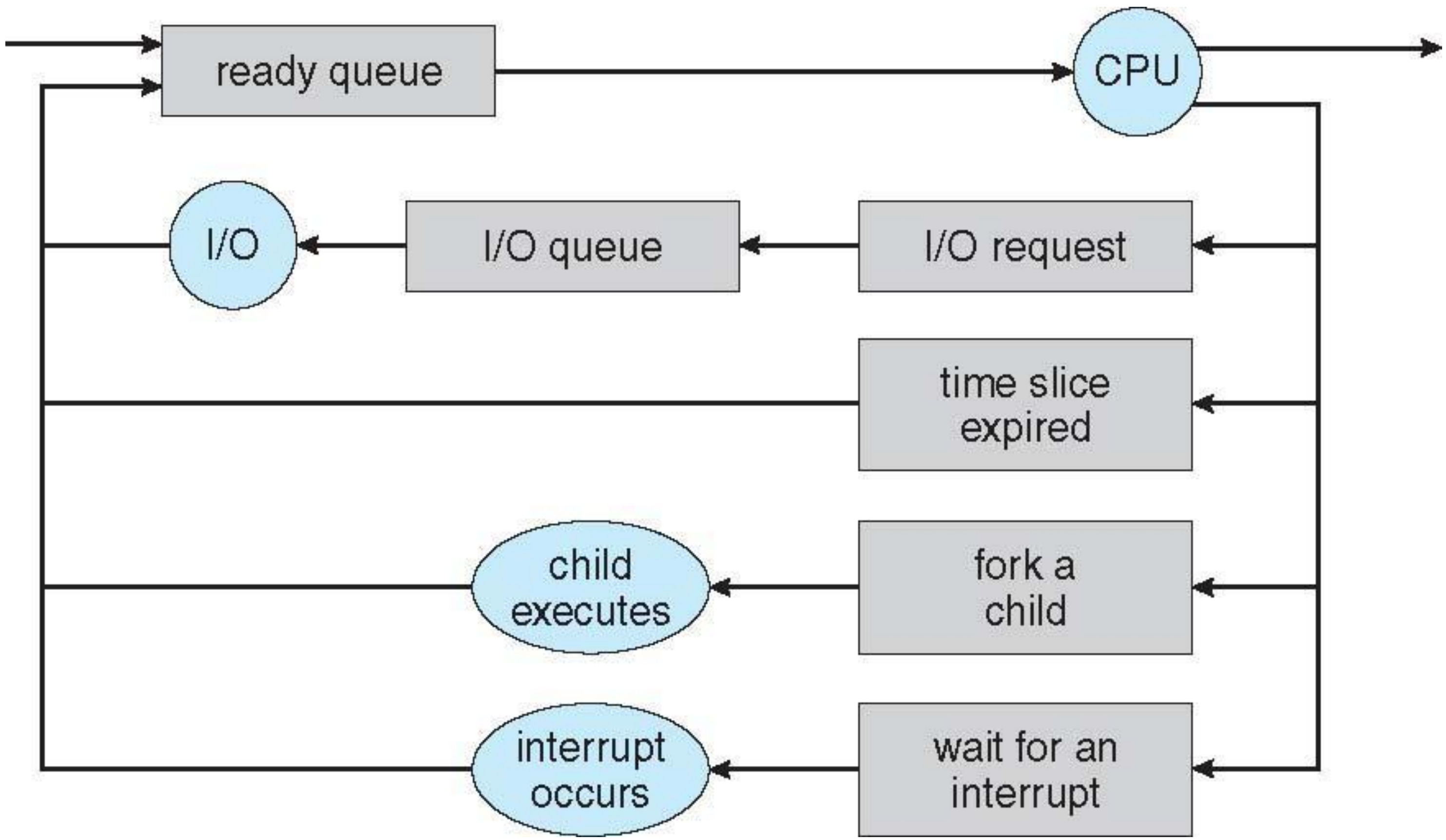
- The objective of multiprogramming is to have some process running at all times, to maximize CPU utilization.
- The objective of time sharing is to switch the CPU among processes so frequently that users can interact with each program while it is running.
- To meet these objectives, **Process scheduler** selects among available processes for next execution on CPU
- Maintains **scheduling queues** of processes
  - **Job queue** – set of all processes in the system
  - **Ready queue** – set of all processes residing in main memory, ready and waiting to execute
  - **Device queues** – set of processes waiting for an I/O device
  - Processes migrate among the various queues

Ready Queue And Various I/O Device Queues



Queueing Diagram Representation of Process Scheduling

- **Queueing diagram** represents queues, resources, flows



Queueing Diagram Representation of Process Scheduling

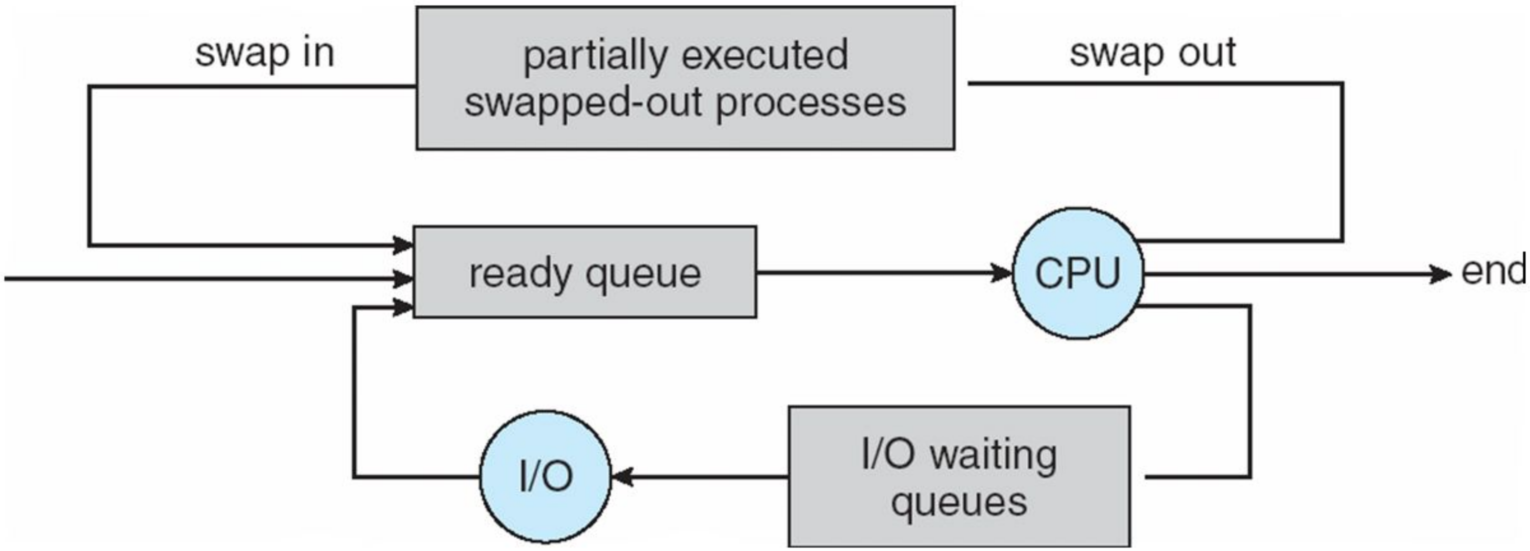
- A new process is initially put in the ready queue. It waits there until it is selected for execution, or **dispatched.**
- Once the process is allocated the CPU and is executing, one of several events could occur:
  - The process could issue an I/O request and then be placed in an I/O queue.
  - The process could create a new child process and wait for the child's termination.
  - The process could be removed forcibly from the CPU, as a result of an interrupt, and be put back in the ready queue.

Schedulers

- **Short-term scheduler** (or **CPU scheduler**) – selects which process should be executed next and allocates CPU
  - Sometimes the only scheduler in a system
  - Short-term scheduler is invoked frequently (milliseconds) $\Rightarrow$ (must be fast)
- **Long-term scheduler** (or **job scheduler**) – selects which processes should be brought into the ready queue
  - Long-term scheduler is invoked infrequently (seconds, minutes) $\Rightarrow$ (may be slow)
  - The long-term scheduler controls the **degree of multiprogramming**
- Processes can be described as either:
  - **I/O-bound process** – spends more time doing I/O than computations, many short CPU bursts
  - **CPU-bound process** – spends more time doing computations; few very long CPU bursts
- Long-term scheduler strives for good ***process mix***

Addition of Medium Term Scheduling

- **Medium-term scheduler** can be added if degree of multiple programming needs to decrease
  - Remove process from memory, store on disk, bring back in from disk to continue execution: **swapping**



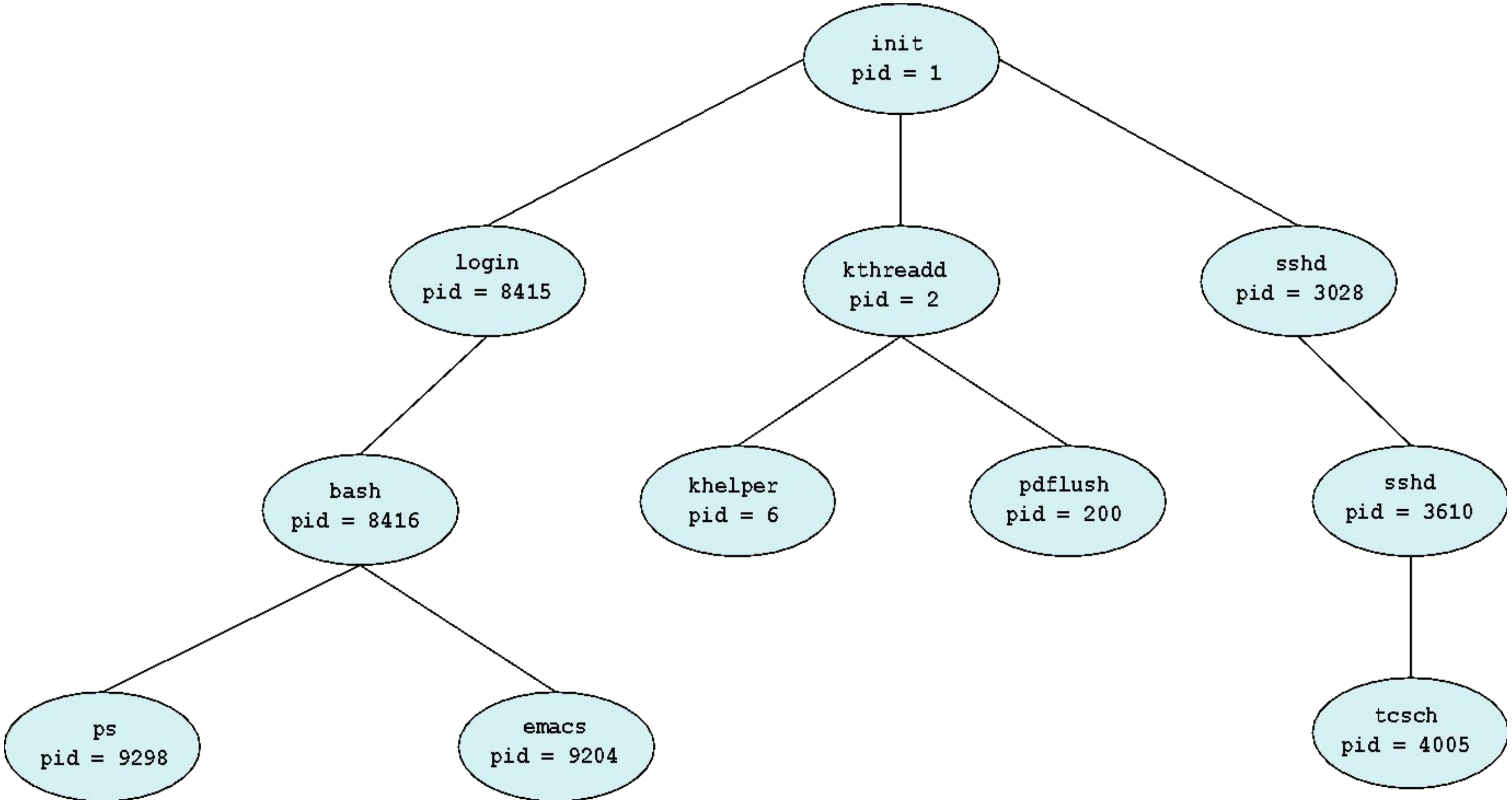
Operations on Processes

- System must provide mechanisms for:
  - process creation,
  - process termination

Process Creation

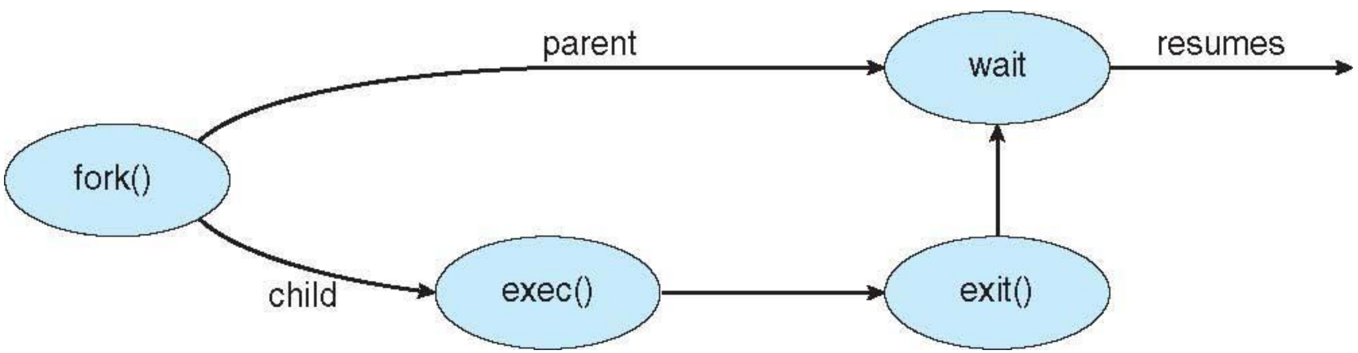
- **Parent** process create **children** processes, which, in turn create other processes, forming a **tree** of processes
- Generally, process identified and managed via a **process identifier** (**pid**)
- Resource sharing options
  - Parent and children share all resources
  - Children share subset of parent's resources
  - Parent and child share no resources
- Execution options
  - Parent and children execute concurrently
  - Parent waits until children terminate

A Tree of Processes in Linux



Process Creation (Cont.)

- Address space
  - Child duplicate of parent
  - Child has a program loaded into it
- UNIX examples
  - **fork()** system call creates new process
  - **exec()** system call used after a **fork()** to replace the process' memory space with a new program



C Program Forking Separate Process

```
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <unistd.h>

int main()
{
pid_t pid;

   /* fork a child process */
   pid = fork();

   if (pid < 0) { /* error occurred */
      fprintf(stderr, "Fork Failed");
      return 1;
   }
   else if (pid == 0) { /* child process */
      execlp("/bin/ls","ls",NULL);
   }
   else { /* parent process */
      /* parent will wait for the child to complete */
      wait(NULL);
      printf("Child Complete");
   }

   return 0;
}
```

Creating a Separate Process via Windows API

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <windows.h>

int main(VOID)
{
STARTUPINFO si;
PROCESS_INFORMATION pi;

    /* allocate memory */
    ZeroMemory(&si, sizeof(si));
    si.cb = sizeof(si);
    ZeroMemory(&pi, sizeof(pi));

    /* create child process */
    if (!CreateProcess(NULL, /* use command line */
     "C:\\WINDOWS\\system32\\mspaint.exe", /* command */
     NULL, /* don't inherit process handle */
     NULL, /* don't inherit thread handle */
     FALSE, /* disable handle inheritance */
     0, /* no creation flags */
     NULL, /* use parent's environment block */
     NULL, /* use parent's existing directory */
     &si,
     &pi))
    {
      fprintf(stderr, "Create Process Failed");
      return -1;
    }
    /* parent will wait for the child to complete */
    WaitForSingleObject(pi.hProcess, INFINITE);
    printf("Child Complete");

    /* close handles */
    CloseHandle(pi.hProcess);
    CloseHandle(pi.hThread);
}
```

Process Termination

- Process executes last statement and then asks the operating system to delete it using the **exit()** system call.
  - Returns status data from child to parent (via **wait()**)
  - Process' resources are deallocated by operating system
- Parent may terminate the execution of children processes using the **abort()** system call. Some reasons for doing so:
  - Child has exceeded allocated resources
  - Task assigned to child is no longer required
  - The parent is exiting and the operating systems does not allow a child to continue if its parent terminates

Process Termination

- Some operating systems do not allow child to exists if its parent has terminated. If a process terminates, then all its children must also be terminated.
  - **cascading termination.** All children, grandchildren, etc. are terminated.
  - The termination is initiated by the operating system.
- The parent process may wait for termination of a child process by using the **wait()** system call**.** The call returns status information and the pid of the terminated process

  pid = wait(&status);
- If no parent waiting (did not invoke **wait()**) process is a **zombie**
- If parent terminated without invoking **wait()**, process is an **orphan**

Process Termination

- **Zombie Process:**

  A process which has finished the execution but still has entry in the process table to report to its parent process is known as a zombie process.

  A child process always first becomes a zombie before being removed from the process table. The parent process reads the exit status of the child process which reaps off the child process entry from the process table.

Process Termination

```
/ / C program to demonstrate Zombie Process.
// Child becomes Zombie as parent is sleeping  when child process exits.
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <unistd.h>
int main()
{
   // Fork returns process id in parent process
   pid_t child_pid = fork();

   // Parent process
   if (child_pid > 0)
      sleep(50);

   // Child process
   else
      exit(0);

   return 0;
}
```

Process Termination

- **Orphan Process:**

  A process whose parent process no more exists i.e. either finished or terminated without waiting for its child process to terminate is called an orphan process.

  However, the orphan process is soon adopted by init process, once its parent process dies.

Process Termination

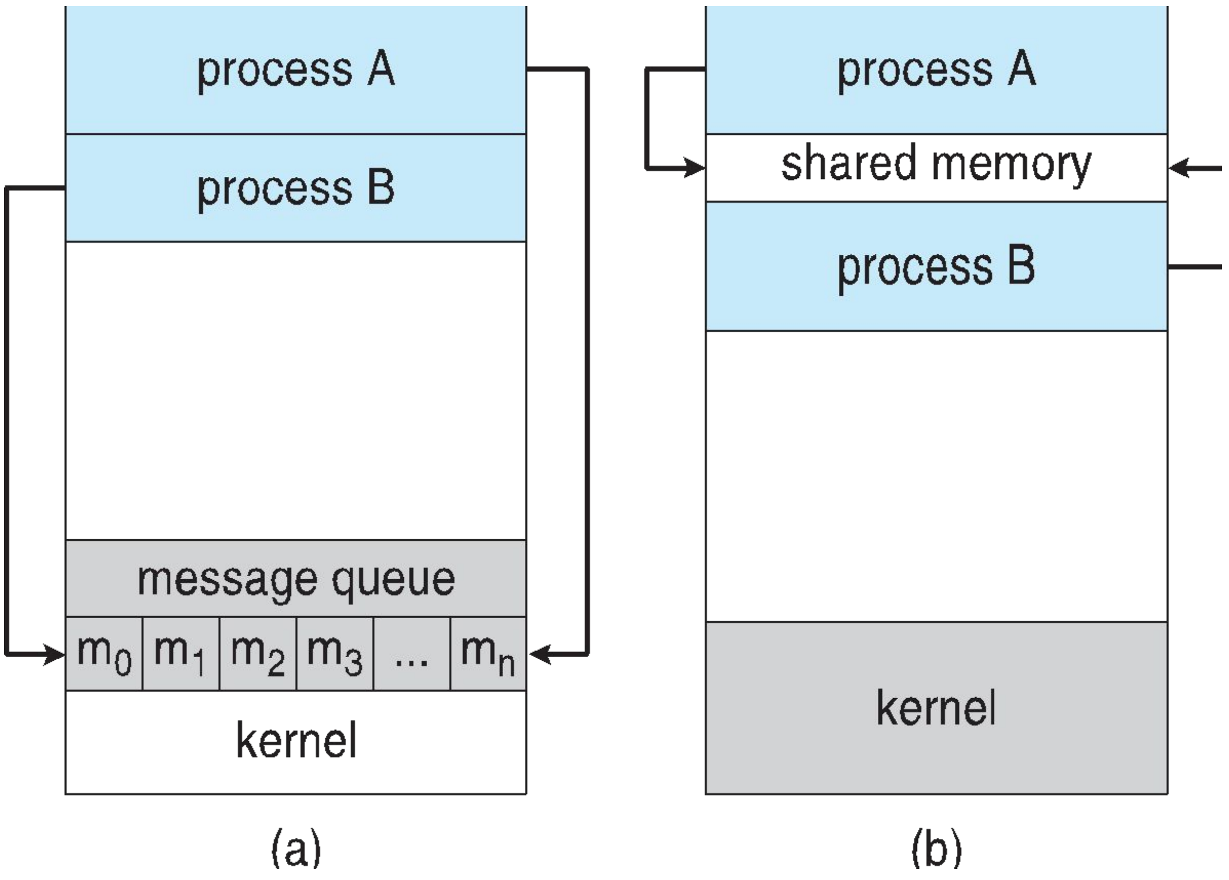
```
// C program to demonstrate Orphan Process.
// Parent process finishes execution while the child process is running. The child process becomes orphan.
#include<stdio.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <unistd.h>

int main()
{
    // Create a child process
    int pid = fork();

    if (pid > 0)
        printf("in parent process");

    // Note that pid is 0 in child process and negative if fork() fails
    else if (pid == 0)
    {
        sleep(30);
        printf("in child process");
    }
     return 0;
}
```

Interprocess Communication

- There are two fundamental models of interprocess communication: **shared memory and message passing.**
- In the **shared-memory model**, a region of memory that is shared by cooperating processes is established. Processes can then exchange information by reading and writing data to the shared region.
- In the **message-passing model**, communication takes place by means of messages exchanged between the cooperating processes.

Communications Models

(a) Message passing. (b) shared memory.



Shared-Memory Systems

- Interprocess communication using shared memory requires communicating processes to establish a region of shared memory.
- An area of memory shared among the processes that wish to communicate. The communication is under the control of the users processes not the operating system.
- Typically, a shared-memory region resides in the address space of the process creating the shared-memory segment.
- Other processes that wish to communicate using this shared-memory segment must attach it to their address space.
- They can then exchange information by reading and writing data in the shared areas.

Producer-Consumer Problem

- Paradigm for cooperating processes, *producer* process produces information that is consumed by a *consumer* process
- For example, a compiler may produce assembly code that is consumed by an assembler. The assembler, in turn, may produce object modules that are consumed by the loader.
- client–server paradigm - For example, a web server produces (that is, provides) HTML files and images, which are consumed (that is, read) by the client web browser requesting the resource.

Producer-Consumer Problem

- One solution to the producer–consumer problem uses shared memory. To allow producer and consumer processes to run concurrently, we must have available a buffer of items that can be filled by the producer and emptied by the consumer.
- This buffer will reside in a region of memory that is shared by the producer and consumer processes. A producer can produce one item while the consumer is consuming another item.
- The producer and consumer must be synchronized, so that the consumer does not try to consume an item that has not yet been produced.

- Two types of buffers can be used.
  - **unbounded-buffer** places no practical limit on the size of the buffer
  - **bounded-buffer** assumes that there is a fixed buffer size

Bounded-Buffer – Shared-Memory Solution

- Shared data

```
#define BUFFER_SIZE 10
typedef struct {
 . . .
} item;

item buffer[BUFFER_SIZE];
int in = 0;
int out = 0;
```

- The shared buffer is implemented as a circular array with two logical pointers: in and out.
- The variable in points to the next free position in the buffer; out points to the first full position in the buffer. The buffer is empty when in == out; the buffer is full when ((in + 1) % BUFFER SIZE) == out.

Bounded-Buffer – Producer

```
item next_produced;
while (true) {
   /* produce an item in next produced */
while (((in + 1) % BUFFER_SIZE) == out)
      ; /* do nothing */
   buffer[in] = next_produced;
   in = (in + 1) % BUFFER_SIZE;
}
```

Bounded Buffer – Consumer

```
item next_consumed;
while (true) {
   while (in == out)
      ; /* do nothing */
   next_consumed = buffer[out];
   out = (out + 1) % BUFFER_SIZE;

   /* consume the item in next
consumed */
}
```

Interprocess Communication – Shared Memory

- An area of memory shared among the processes that wish to communicate
- The communication is under the control of the users processes not the operating system.
- Major issues is to provide mechanism that will allow the user processes to synchronize their actions when they access shared memory.
- Synchronization is discussed in great details in Chapter 5.

Interprocess Communication – Message Passing

- Message passing provides a mechanism to allow processes to communicate and to synchronize their actions without sharing the same address space.
- It is particularly useful in a distributed environment, where the communicating processes may reside on different computers connected by a network.
- For example, an Internet chat program could be designed so that chat participants communicate with one another by exchanging messages.
- Message-passing facility provides two operations:
  - **send**(*message*)
  - **receive**(*message*)
- The *message* size is either fixed or variable

Message Passing Types

Logical:

- Direct or indirect
- Synchronous or asynchronous
- Automatic or explicit buffering

Direct Communication

- Processes must name each other explicitly:
  - **send** (*P, message*) – send a message to process P
  - **receive**(*Q, message*) – receive a message from process Q
- Properties of communication link
  - Links are established automatically
  - A link is associated with exactly one pair of communicating processes
  - Between each pair there exists exactly one link
  - The link may be unidirectional, but is usually bi-directional

Indirect Communication

- Messages are directed and received from mailboxes (also referred to as ports)
  - Each mailbox has a unique id
  - Processes can communicate only if they share a mailbox
- Properties of communication link
  - Link established only if processes share a common mailbox
  - A link may be associated with many processes
  - Each pair of processes may share several communication links
  - Link may be unidirectional or bi-directional

Indirect Communication

- Operations
  - create a new mailbox (port)
  - send and receive messages through mailbox
  - destroy a mailbox
- Primitives are defined as:

  send(*A, message*) – send a message to mailbox A

  receive(*A, message*) – receive a message from mailbox A

Indirect Communication

- Mailbox sharing
  - P_1, P_2, and P_3 share mailbox A
  - P_1, sends; P_2 and P_3 receive
  - Who gets the message?
- Solutions
  - Allow a link to be associated with at most two processes
  - Allow only one process at a time to execute a receive operation
  - Allow the system to select arbitrarily the receiver. Sender is notified who the receiver was.

Synchronization

- Message passing may be either blocking or non-blocking
- **Blocking** is considered **synchronous**
  - **Blocking send** -- the sender is blocked until the message is received
  - **Blocking receive** -- the receiver is blocked until a message is available
- **Non-blocking** is considered **asynchronous**
  - **Non-blocking send** -- the sender sends the message and continue
  - **Non-blocking receive** -- the receiver receives:

    A valid message, or Null message

Buffering

- Queue of messages attached to the link.
- implemented in one of three ways
  1. Zero capacity – no messages are queued on a link. Sender must wait for receiver .
  2. Bounded capacity – finite length of *n* messages. Sender must wait if link full
  3. Unbounded capacity – infinite length .
     Sender never waits

End of Chapter 3