CSC 4320/6320: Operating Systems



<u>Chapter 03: Processes – part II</u>

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Outline



- Process Concept √
- Process Scheduling √
- Operations on Processes √
- Interprocess Communication
- IPC in Shared-Memory Systems
- IPC in Message-Passing Systems

Objectives



- Identify the separate components of a process and illustrate how they are represented and scheduled in an operating system. √
- Describe how processes are created and terminated in an operating system, including developing programs using the appropriate system calls that perform these operations.
- Describe and contrast interprocess communication using shared memory and message passing.
- Design programs that uses pipes and POSIX shared memory to perform interprocess communication.

Orphan Processes



- If a parent process terminates before its child terminates, the child process is automatically adopted by the *init* process
- The following program shows this.

Example Program of Orphan



```
The parent process finishes earlier than its
#include <stdio.h>
                                   child, making the child an "orphan" process.
#include <unistd.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
int main () {
    int pid;
    printf ("I'm the original process with PID %d and PPID %d.\n", getpid(), getppid());
    pid = fork (); /* Duplicate. Child & parent continue from here */
    if (pid != 0) /* Branch based on return value from fork () */ {
    /* pid is non-zero, so I must be the parent */
        printf ("I'm the parent process with PID %d and PPID %d.\n",getpid (), getppid ());
        printf ("My child's PID is %d\n", pid);
    else {
     /* pid is zero, so I must be the child */
      sleep(5); /* Make sure that the parent terminates first */
      printf ("I'm the child process with PID %d and PPID %d.\n",getpid (), getppid ());
    printf ("PID %d terminates.\n", getpid() ); /* Both processes execute this */
    return 0;
```

Zombie Processes



- A process cannot leave the system until parent process accepts its termination code (returned by exit)
- If parent process is dead; *init* adopts process and accepts code Orphan process
- If the parent process is alive but is unwilling to accept the child's termination code
 - o because it never executes wait() Zombie process
 - o the child process will remain a zombie process.





```
The parent process continues
#include <stdio.h>
                                          to run but it is not
#include <stdlib.h>
                                          waiting/willing to receive the
#include <unistd.h>
                                          termination code from its
#include <sys/types.h>
                                          child, eventually making the
int main () {
                                          child a "zombie" process.
    pid_t pid;
    pid = fork (); /* Duplicate */
    /* Branch based on return value from fork () */
    if (pid != 0) {
        /* Never terminate, never execute a wait () */
        while (1)
           sleep (1000);
    else {
      exit (42); /* Exit with a silly number */
    return 0;
```

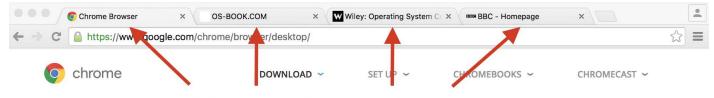
Android Process Importance Hierarchy



- Mobile operating systems often have to terminate processes to reclaim system resources such as memory. From most to least important:
 - Foreground process (current process visible on screen)
 - Visible process (not directly interacting, but visible, e.g., YouTube video in Picture-in-Picture mode)
 - Service process (background process, but output is apparent, e.g. downloading files, streaming music)
 - Background process (not apparent, e.g., a message app synching messages)
 - Empty process (no active components. e.g., shopping app not in use)
- Android will begin terminating processes that are least important.

Multiprocess Architecture – Chrome Browser

- Many web browsers ran as single process (some still do)
 - If one web site causes trouble, entire browser can hang or crash
- Google Chrome Browser is multiprocess with 3 different types of processes:
 - Browser process manages user interface, disk and network I/O
 - Renderer process renders web pages, deals with HTML,
 Javascript. A new renderer created for each website opened
 - Runs in sandbox restricting disk and network I/O, minimizing effect of security exploits
 - Plug-in process for each type of plug-in (extension, add-on)



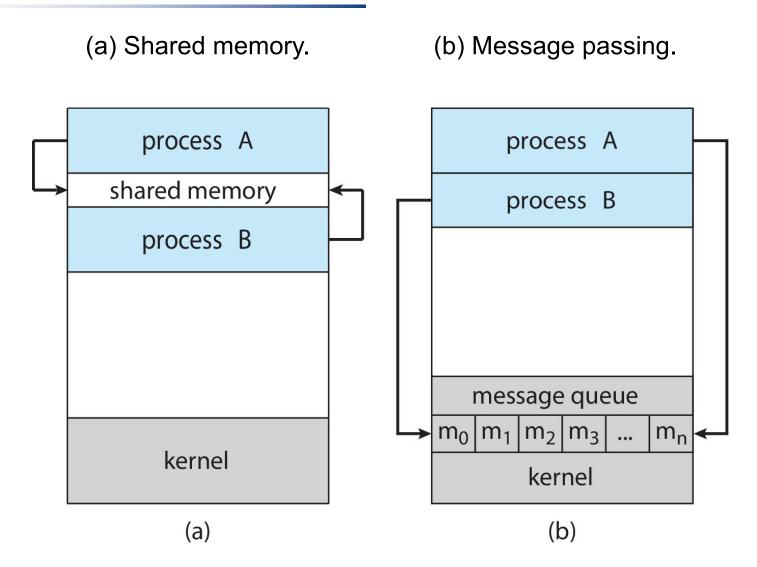
Interprocess Communication



- Processes within a system may be independent or cooperating
- Cooperating process can affect or be affected by other processes (e.g., processes sharing data are cooperating)
- Reasons for cooperating processes:
 - Information sharing (e.g., same file sharing)
 - Computation speedup (e.g., subtasks via multicore processing)
 - Modularity (e.g., modularizing via threads)
 - Convenience
- Cooperating processes need interprocess communication (IPC)
- Two models of IPC
 - Shared memory
 - Message passing

Communications Models





Message Passing vs. Shared Memory



Message passing:

- useful for exchanging smaller amounts of data, because no conflicts need be avoided.
- Message passing is also easier to implement in a distributed system than shared memory.
- Message passing model requires the more time-consuming task of kernel intervention.

Shared memory:

- faster than message passing, since message-passing systems are typically implemented using system calls
- system calls are required only to establish shared-memory regions.
- Once shared memory is established, all accesses are treated as routine memory accesses, and no assistance from the kernel is required.

Questions



Which of the following statements is true?

A) Shared memory is typically faster than message passing.

 \checkmark

- B) Message passing is typically faster than shared memory.
- C) Message passing is most useful for exchanging large amounts of data.
- D) Shared memory is far more common in operating systems than message passing.

Shared memory is a more appropriate IPC mechanism than message passing for distributed systems.

True

False

Producer-Consumer Problem



- Paradigm for cooperating processes:
 - producer process produces information that is consumed by a consumer process
- Two variations:
 - unbounded-buffer places no practical limit on the size of the buffer:
 - Producer never waits
 - Consumer waits if there is no buffer to consume
 - bounded-buffer assumes that there is a fixed buffer size
 - Producer must wait if all buffers are full
 - Consumer waits if there is no buffer to consume

IPC – 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 Chapters 6 & 7.





Shared data

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

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

Solution is correct, but can only use BUFFER_SIZE-1 elements

Producer Process – Shared Memory



```
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;
}
```

Circular array – the last location will not be used.
in points to the next free location
out points to the first filled location

(in + 1) % buffer_size == out means, buffer is full





```
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 */
}
```

Question



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 full when in == out.

True

False _√

What about Filling all the Buffers?



- Suppose that we wanted to provide a solution to the consumer-producer problem that fills all the buffers.
- We can do so by having an integer counter that keeps track of the number of full buffers.
- Initially, counter is set to 0.
- The integer counter is incremented by the producer after it produces a new buffer.
- The integer **counter** is decremented by the consumer after it consumes a buffer.

Producer



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

Consumer



```
while (true) {
    while (counter == 0)
        ; /* do nothing */
    next_consumed = buffer[out];
    out = (out + 1) % BUFFER_SIZE;
        counter--;
    /* consume the item in next consumed */
}
```

Race Condition



• counter++ could be implemented as

```
register1 = counter
register1 = register1 + 1
counter = register1
```

• counter - could be implemented as

```
register2 = counter
register2 = register2 - 1
counter = register2
```

Consider this execution interleaving with "count = 5" initially:

```
S0: producer execute register1 = counter {register1 = 5}
S1: producer execute register1 = register1 + 1 {register1 = 6}
S2: consumer execute register2 = counter {register2 = 5}
S3: consumer execute register2 = register2 - 1 {register2 = 4}
S4: producer execute counter = register1 {counter = 6}
S5: consumer execute counter = register2 {counter = 4}
```

Race Condition



- A race condition in a shared memory solution occurs when multiple processes or threads access and manipulate shared data concurrently
- The final result depends on the order in which the operations are executed.
- This situation can lead to unpredictable behavior and data corruption, as the processes "race" to access the shared resource without proper synchronization.

Race Condition (Cont.)



- Question why was there no race condition in the first solution (where at most N - 1) buffers can be filled?
- More in Chapter 6.

IPC - Message Passing



- Processes communicate with each other without resorting to shared variables
- IPC facility provides two operations:
 - send(message)
 - receive(message)
- The message size is either fixed or variable

Message Passing (Cont.)



- If processes P and Q wish to communicate, they need to:
 - Establish a communication link between them
 - Exchange messages via send/receive
- Implementation issues:
 - How are links established?
 - Can a link be associated with more than two processes?
 - How many links can there be between every pair of communicating processes?
 - What is the capacity of a link?
 - Is the size of a message that the link can accommodate fixed or variable?
 - Is a link unidirectional or bi-directional?

Implementation of Communication Link Georgia State



Physical:

- Shared memory
- Hardware bus
- Network
- Logical:
 - Direct or indirect
 - Synchronous or asynchronous
 - Automatic or explicit buffering (bounded/unbounded capacity of queue)

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 bidirectional

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 (each referring to one mailbox)
 - Link may be unidirectional or bi-directional

Indirect Communication (Cont.)



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.

Indirect Communication (Cont.)



Operations

- Create a new mailbox (port) (by owner)
- Send and receive messages through mailbox
- Delete a mailbox
- Primitives are defined as:
 - send(A, message) send a message to mailbox A
 - receive(A, message) receive a message from mailbox A

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
- Different combinations possible
 - If both send and receive are blocking, we have a rendezvous

Producer-Consumer: Message Passing



Producer

```
message next_produced;
while (true) {
   /* produce an item in next_produced */
   send(next_produced);
}
```

Consumer

```
message next_consumed;
while (true) {
  receive(next_consumed)

  /* consume the item in next_consumed */
}
```

Buffering



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

Questions



- Q1. A blocking send() and blocking receive() is known as a(n) A) synchronized message
- rendezvous
- C) blocked message
- asynchronous message
- Q2. In a(n) _____ temporary queue, the sender must always block until the recipient receives the message.
- A) zero capacity
- B) variable capacity
- bounded capacity
- unbounded capacity

Shared Memory Model - Example



```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <fcntl.h>
#include <svs/shm.h>
#include <sys/stat.h>
#include <sys/mman.h>
int main()
/* the size (in bytes) of shared memory object */
const int SIZE = 4096:
/* name of the shared memory object */
const char *name = "OS";
/* strings written to shared memory */
const char *message 0 = "Hello";
const char *message_1 = "World!";
/* shared memory file descriptor */
int fd:
/* pointer to shared memory obect */
char *ptr;
/* create the shared memory object */
fd = shm open(name, O CREAT | O RDWR, 0666);
/* configure the size of the shared memory object */
ftruncate(fd, SIZE);
/* memory map the shared memory object */
ptr = (char *)
    mmap(0, SIZE, PROT READ | PROT WRITE, MAP SHARED, fd, 0);
/* write to the shared memory object */
sprintf(ptr, "%s", message 0);
ptr += strlen(message 0);
sprintf(ptr,"%s",message 1);
ptr += strlen(message 1);
return 0:
}
```

consumer.c

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <fcntl.h>
#include <sys/shm.h>
#include <sys/stat.h>
#include <sys/mman.h>
int main()
/* the size (in bytes) of shared memory object */
const int SIZE = 4096;
/* name of the shared memory object */
const char *name = "OS";
/* shared memory file descriptor */
int fd;
/* pointer to shared memory obect */
char *ptr:
/* open the shared memory object */
fd = shm open(name, O RDONLY, 0666);
/* memory map the shared memory object */
ptr = (char *)
mmap(0, SIZE, PROT READ | PROT WRITE, MAP SHARED, fd, 0);
/* read from the shared memory object */
printf("%s",(char *)ptr);
/* remove the shared memory object */
shm unlink(name);
return 0;
```

Executing the shared memory model



gcc -o producer producer.c -lrt (on snowball linux, -lrt is required: Irt stands for real time library handling shared memory)

```
gcc -o consumer consumer.c -lrt
./producer
./consumer
```

Each memory map has a corresponding file location in the file system.

Use: ls -1 /dev/shm/ to see the object OS