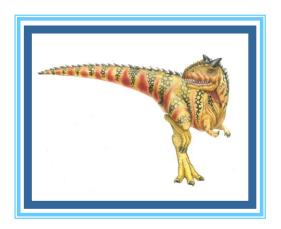
Chapter 3: Processes





Chapter 3: Processes

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





Objectives

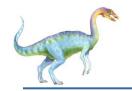
- To introduce the notion of a process -- a program in execution, which forms the basis of all computation
- To describe the various features of processes, including scheduling, creation and termination, and communication
- To explore interprocess communication using shared memory and message passing





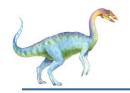
PROCESS CONCEPT





Process Concept

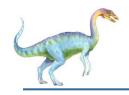
- An operating system executes a variety of programs:
 - Batch system jobs
 - Time-shared systems user programs or tasks
- Textbook uses the terms job and process almost interchangeably
- Process a program in execution; process execution must progress in sequential fashion
- Multiple parts
 - The program 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



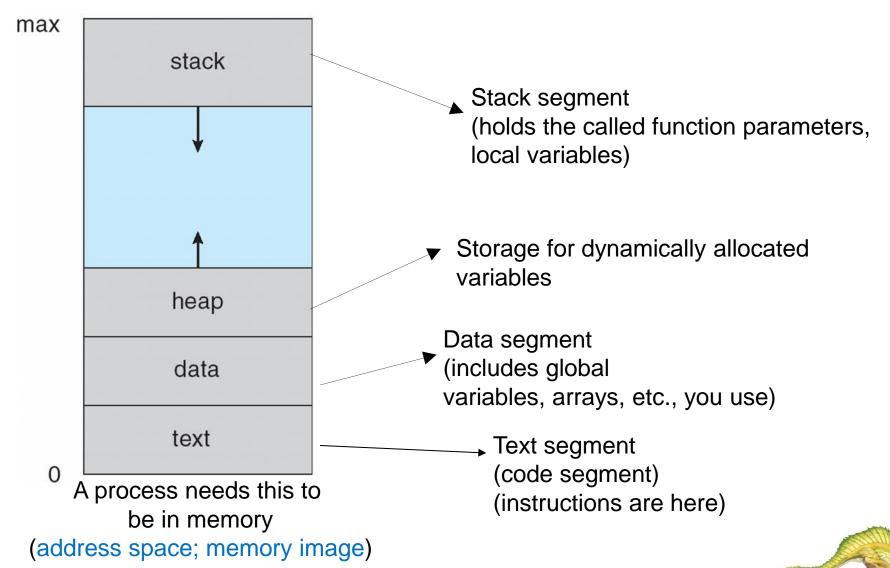
Process Concept (Cont.)

- 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



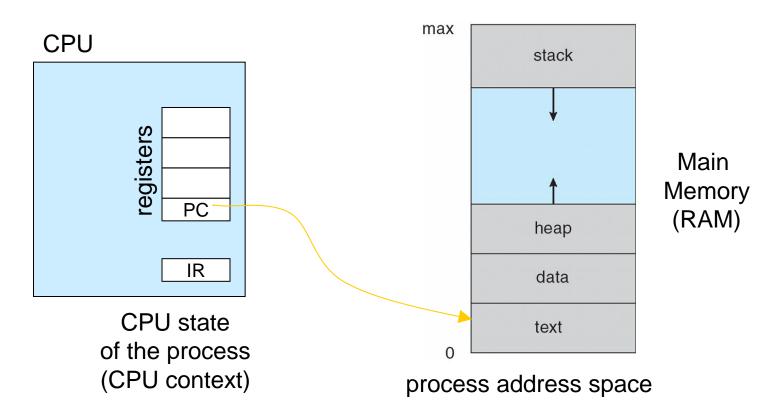


Process in Memory

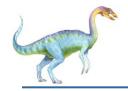




Process: program in execution



(currently used portion of the address space must be in memory)



Process State

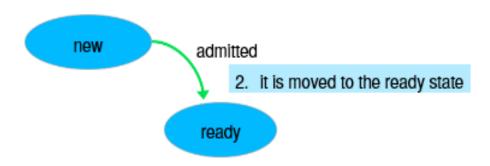
- As a process executes, it changes state
 - new: The process is being created
 - running: Instructions are being executed
 - waiting: The process is waiting for some event to occur
 - ready: The process is waiting to be assigned to a processor
 - terminated: The process has finished execution
- In a single-CPU system, only one process may be in running state; many processes may be in ready and waiting states.



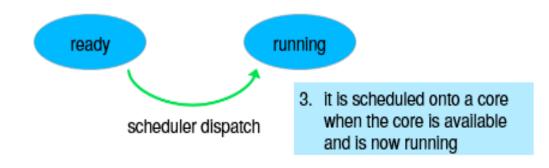


1. a new process is created

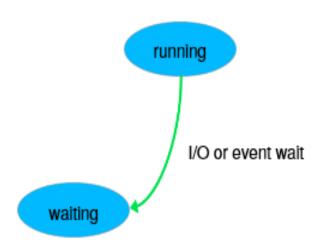






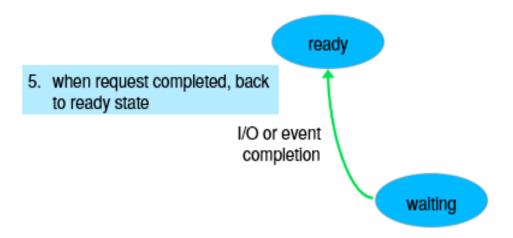






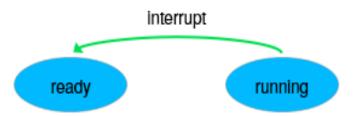
 if an I/O request or event request occurs, moves to waiting state







if running and the core is needed (say for an interrupt), back to the ready state





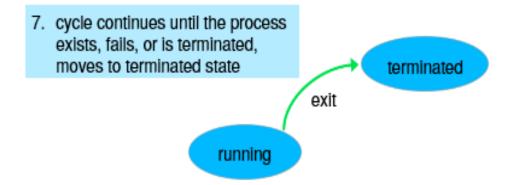
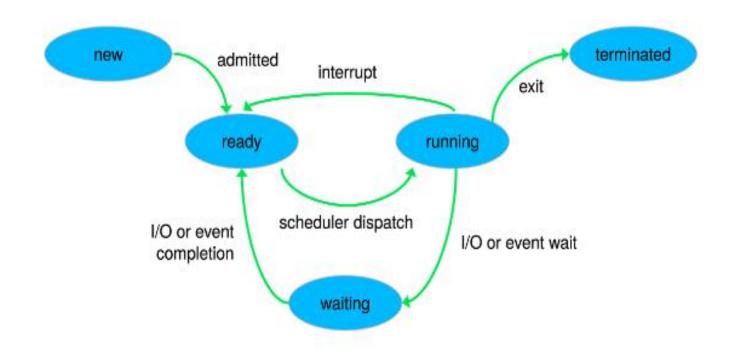




Diagram of Process State



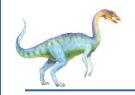




Process: program in execution

- If we have a single program running in the system, then the task of OS is easy:
 - load the program, start it and program runs in CPU
 - (from time to time it calls OS to get some service done)
- But if we want to start several processes, then the running program in CPU (current process) has to be stopped for a while and other program (process) has to run in CPU.
- To do this switch, we have to save the state/context (register values) of the CPU which belongs to the stopped program, so that later the stopped program can be re-started again as if nothing has happened.





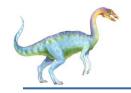
Process Control Block (PCB)

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 processcentric 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 state process number program counter registers memory limits list of open files

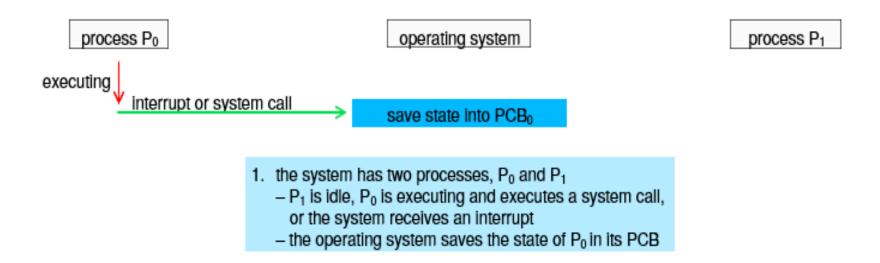




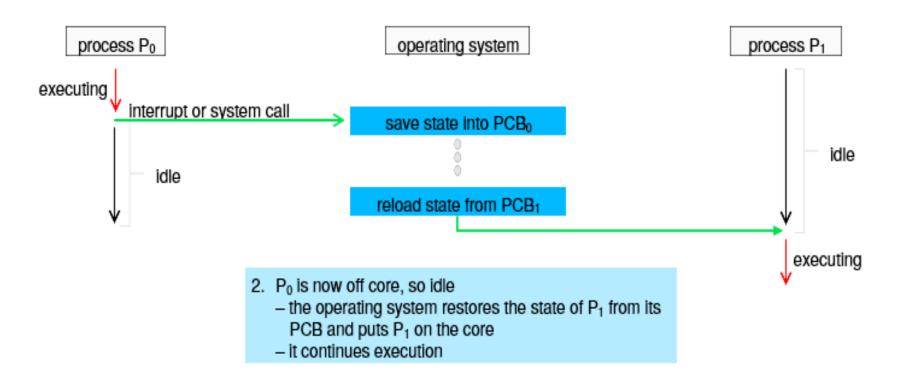
Context Switch

- 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

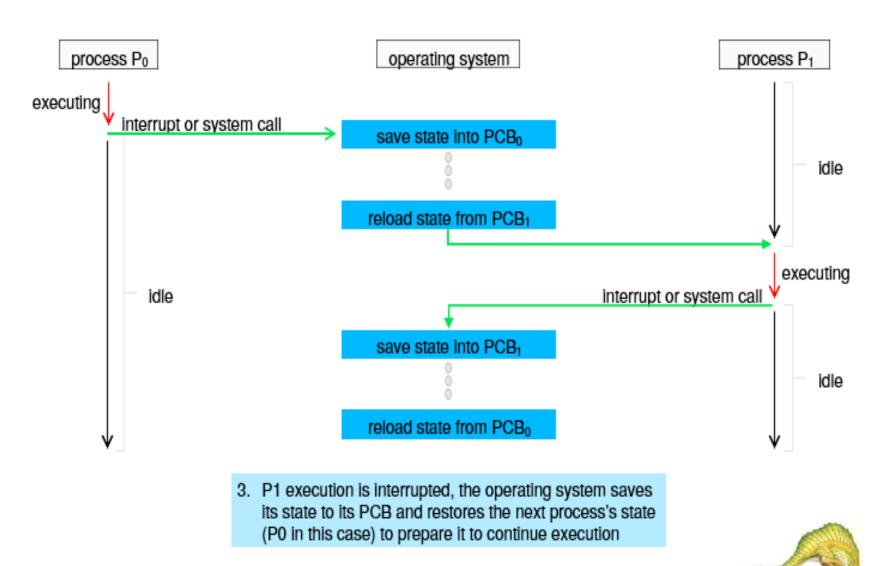


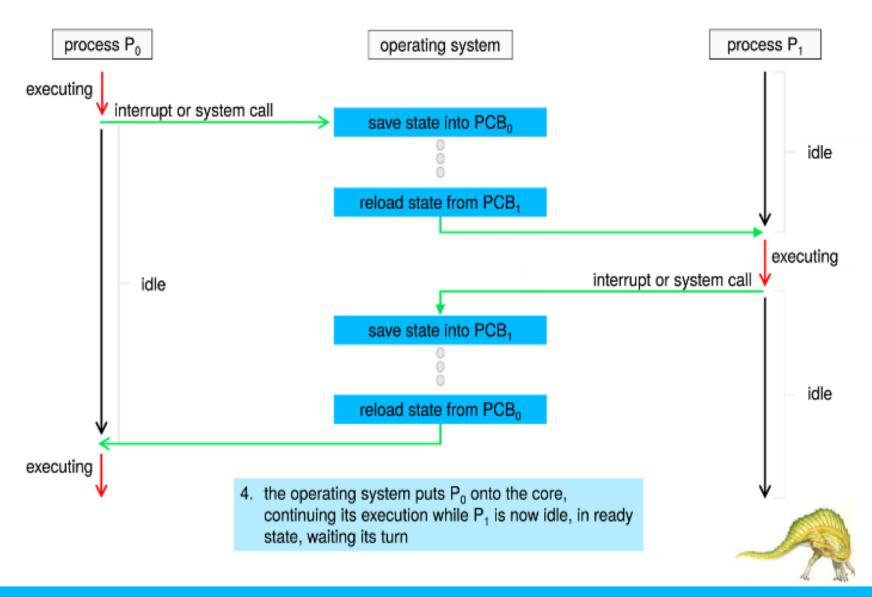


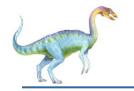






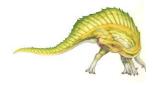






Threads

- So far, process has a single thread of execution
- 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
- See next chapter





PROCESS SCHEDULING





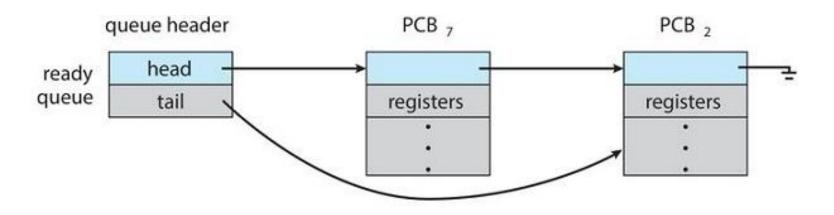
Process Scheduling

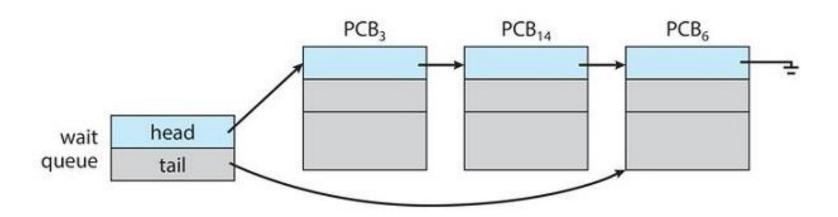
- Maximize CPU use, quickly switch processes onto CPU for time sharing
- Process scheduler selects among available processes for next execution on CPU
- Maintains scheduling queues of processes
 - Job queue set of all processes in the system
 - Ready queue set of all processes residing in main memory, ready and waiting to execute
 - Device queues set of processes waiting for an I/O device
 - Processes migrate among the various queues



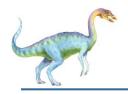


Ready Queue And A Wait Queue



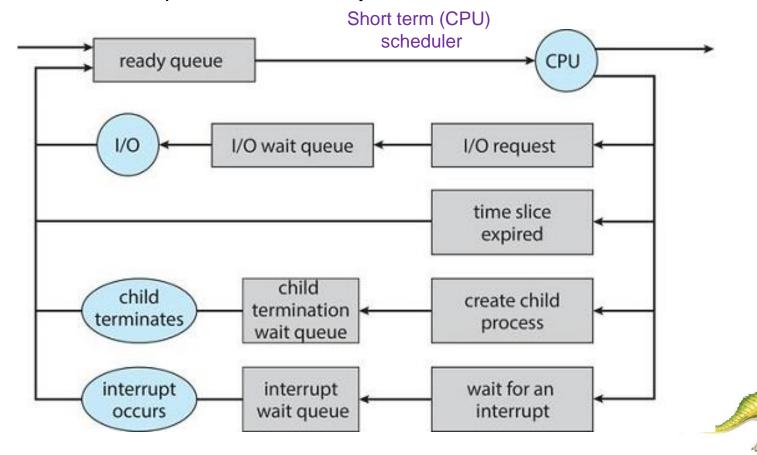






Representation of Process Scheduling

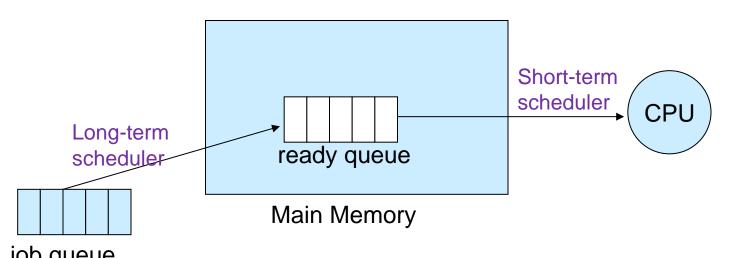
- Queueing diagram represents queues, resources, flows.
- Two types of queues are present: the ready queue and a set of wait queues.
- The circles represent the resources that serve the queues, and the arrows indicate the flow of processes in the system.





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) ⇒ (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) ⇒ (may be slow)
 - The long-term scheduler controls the degree of multiprogramming (the number of processes in memory)





Schedulers-Cont.

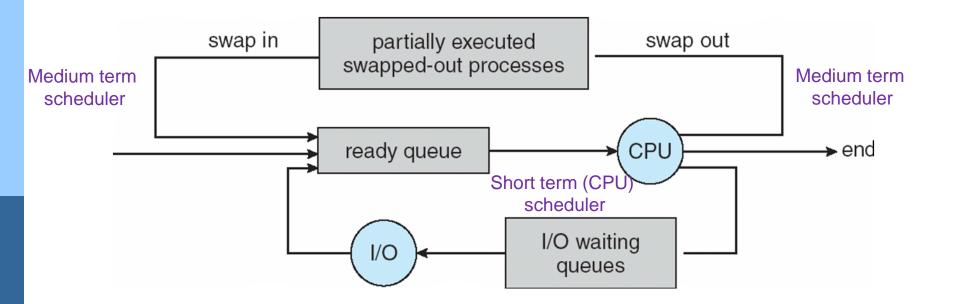
- CPU burst: the execution of the program in CPU between two I/O requests (i.e. time period during which the process wants to continuously run in the CPU without making I/O)
 - We may have a short or long CPU burst.
- Processes can be described as either:
 - I/O-bound process spends more time doing I/O 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

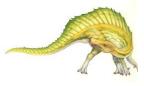
- Medium-term scheduler can be added if degree of multiple programming needs to decrease
 - Remove process from memory, store on disk, bring back in from disk to continue execution: swapping







OPERATIONS ON PROCESSES

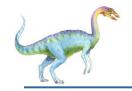




Operations on Processes

- System must provide mechanisms for:
 - process creation,
 - process termination,
 - and so on as detailed next





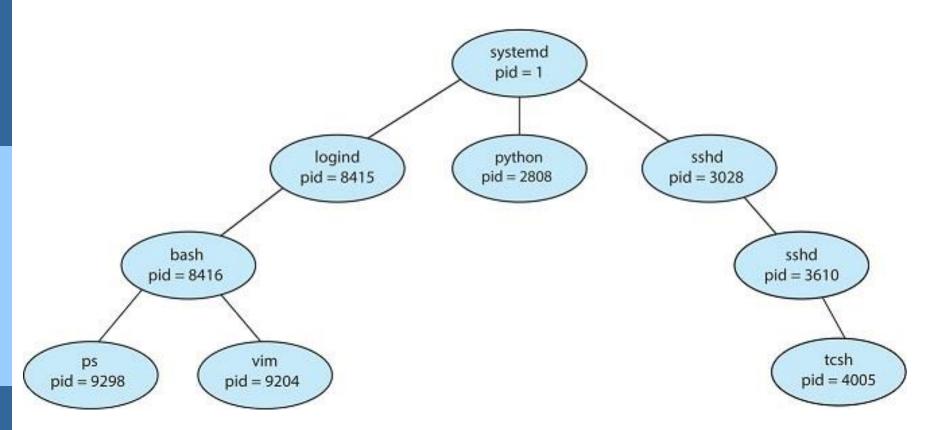
Process Creation

- 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

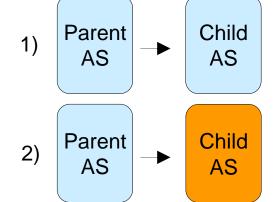






Process Creation (Cont.)

- Address space
 - 1) Child duplicate of parent
 - 2) Child has a program loaded into it

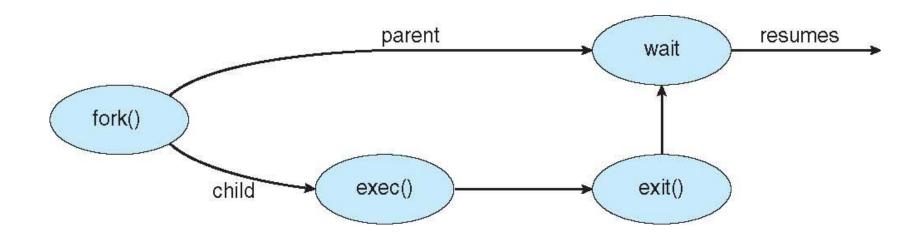


- UNIX examples
 - fork () system call creates new process
 - exec() system call used after a fork() to replace the process' memory space with a new program



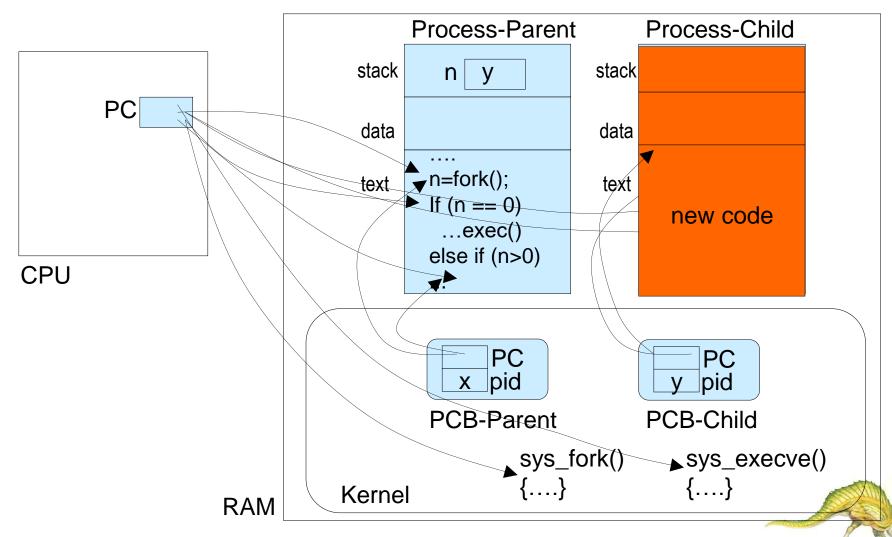


Process Creation (Cont.)





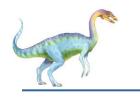
Execution Trace: fork() with execlp()





C Program Forking Separate Process

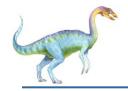
```
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <unistd.h>
int main()
pid_t pid;
   /* fork a child process */
   pid = fork();
   if (pid < 0) { /* error occurred */
      fprintf(stderr, "Fork Failed");
      return 1;
   else if (pid == 0) { /* child process */
      execlp("/bin/ls","ls",NULL);
   else { /* parent process */
      /* parent will wait for the child to complete */
      wait(NULL);
      printf("Child Complete");
   return 0;
```



Separate Windows a a Creating S **Proces**

```
#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);
```





Process Termination

```
Parent
                                                Child
           fork();
           x = wait();
                                            exit (code);
                        PCB of parent PCB of child
            sys_wait()
                                                    sys_exit(..)
            ...return(..)
Kernel
```



INTER-PROCESS COMMUNICATION





Cooperating Processes

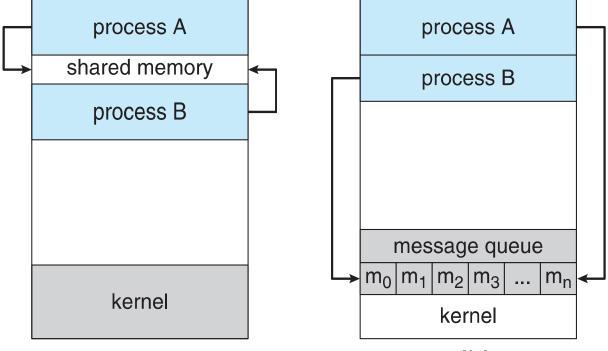
- Independent process cannot affect or be affected by the execution of another process
- Cooperating process can affect or be affected by the execution of another process
- Advantages of process cooperation
 - Information sharing
 - Computation speed-up
 - Modularity
 - Convenience





Interprocess Communication

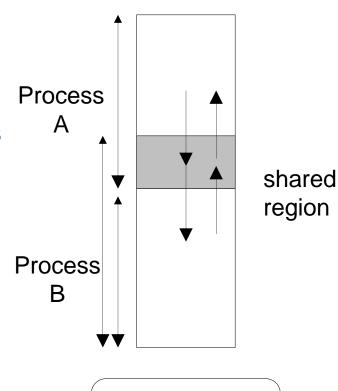
- Processes within a system may be independent or cooperating
- Cooperating processes require a facility/mechanism for interprocess communication (IPC)
- Two models of IPC
 - a) Shared memory
 - b) Message passing





Interprocess Communication – Shared Memory

- A region of shared memory is established among two or more processes.
- Establishment of that shared region is done via the help of the kernel (via a system call).
- Then, processes can read and write shared memory region directly as ordinary memory access
- During this time, kernel is not involved: the communication is under the control of the users processes not the operating system.
- Hence it is faster than message passing.
- 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.



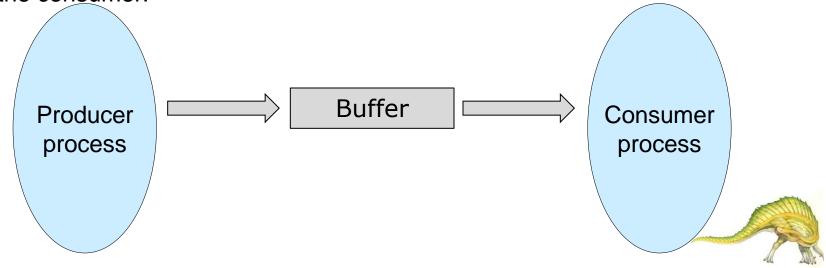
Kernel





Producer-Consumer Problem

- Paradigm for cooperating processes, producer process produces information that is consumed by a consumer process.
 - E.g., a compiler may produce assembly code, which is consumed by an assembler.
 - E.g., client-server paradigm: 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.
- One solution to the producer—consumer problem uses shared memory: use a buffer of items that can be filled by the producer and emptied by the consumer.

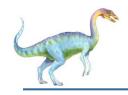




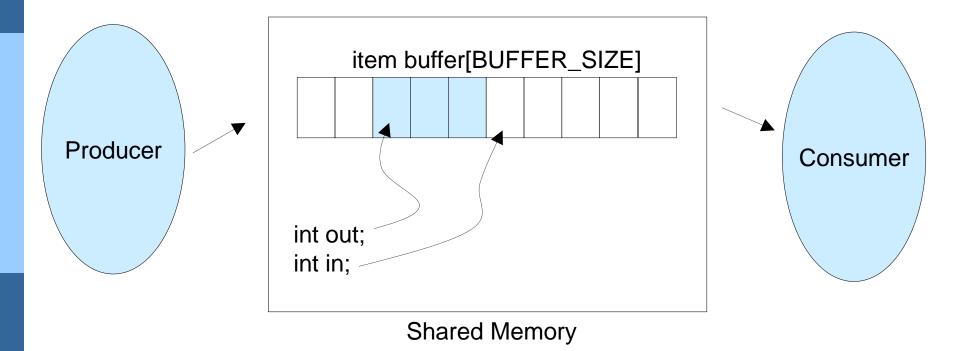
Producer-Consumer Problem

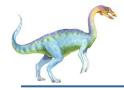
- Two types of buffers can be used:
 - unbounded-buffer places no practical limit on the size of the buffer
 - Consumer may have to wait for new items,
 - Producer can always produce new items.
 - bounded-buffer assumes that there is a fixed buffer size
 - Consumer must wait if the buffer is empty,
 - Producer must wait if the buffer is full.
- The producer and consumer must be synchronized, so that the consumer does not try to consume an item that has not yet been produced.





Buffer State in Shared Memory





Bounded-Buffer – Shared-Memory Solution

Shared data

```
#define BUFFER_SIZE 10

typedef struct {
    . . .
} item;

item buffer[BUFFER_SIZE];

int in = 0;

int out = 0;
```

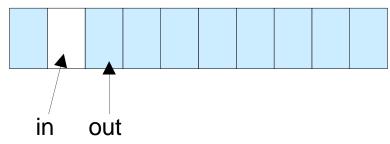
Solution is correct, but can only use BUFFER_SIZE-1 elements





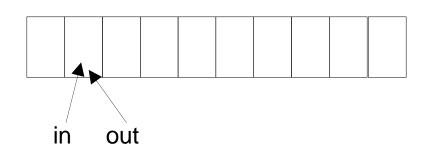
Buffer State in Shared Memory

Buffer Full



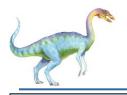
((in+1) % BUFFER_SIZE == out) : considered full buffer

Buffer Empty



In == out : empty buffer





Producer-Consumer Code Bounded-Buffer

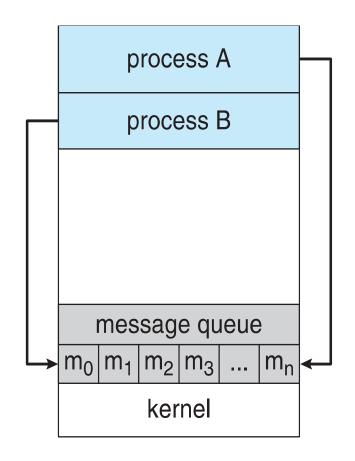
```
item
buffer[BUFFER_SIZE];
int in = 0;
int out = 0;
```

Shared Memory

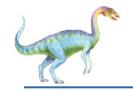


Interprocess Communication – Message Passing

- Mechanism for processes to communicate and to synchronize their actions
- Message system processes communicate with each other without resorting to shared variables
- Particularly useful in a distributed environment, where the communicating processes may reside on different computers connected by a network
- E.g. chat program used on the World Wide Web: chat participants communicate by exchanging messages.
- IPC facility provides two operations:
 - send(message)
 - receive(message)
- The message size is either fixed or variable







Message Passing (Cont.)

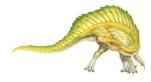
- If processes P and Q wish to communicate, they need to:
 - Establish a communication link between them
 - Exchange messages via send/receive
- Implementation issues:
 - How are links established?
 - Can a link be associated with more than two processes?
 - How many links can there be between every 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?

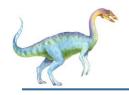




Message Passing (Cont.)

- Implementation of communication link
 - Physical:
 - Shared memory
 - Hardware bus
 - Network
 - Logical:
 - Direct or indirect
 - Synchronous or asynchronous
 - Automatic or explicit buffering

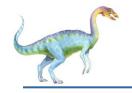




Direct Communication

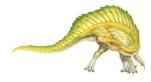
- Processes must name each other explicitly:
 - send (P, message) send a message to process P
 - receive(Q, message) receive a message from process Q
- Properties of communication link
 - Links are established automatically
 - A link is associated with exactly one pair of communicating processes
 - Between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

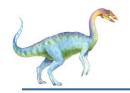




Indirect Communication

- 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

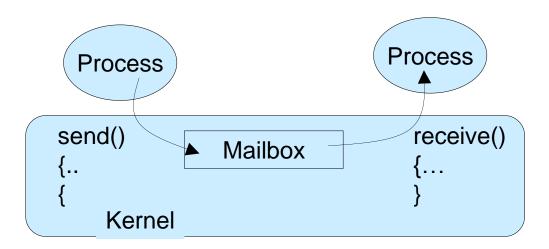




Indirect Communication

- 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



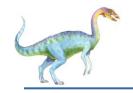




Indirect Communication

- Mailbox sharing
 - P₁, P₂, and P₃ 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.

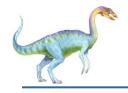




Synchronization

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





Synchronization (Cont.)

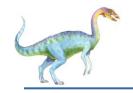
Producer-consumer becomes trivial

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

```
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

1. Zero capacity

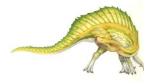
- No messages are queued on a link.
- Sender must wait for receiver (rendezvous)

2. Bounded capacity

- Finite length of *n* messages
- Sender must wait if link full

3. Unbounded capacity

- Infinite length
- Sender never waits



End of Chapter 3

