Unit 2: Process Management [LH-10Hrs]

2.1 Process Fundamentals

1. Process vs Program

Program	Process	
Static executable file (e.g., a.out->executable file in linux)	Dynamic instance of a running program	
Stored on disk	Resides in RAM	
Passive entity	Active entity with state	

Example:

- Program: A Python script (hello.py) on disk.
- **Process:** When executed (python hello.py), it becomes a process with a unique PID.

Note:

"A program becomes a process when loaded into memory."

2. Multiprogramming

Definition: Running multiple processes concurrently by switching the CPU between them.

Why Needed?

• Maximizes CPU utilization during I/O wait (e.g., while a process reads a file, another uses CPU).

Example:

• Browser (rendering page) + Text Editor (saving file) + Music Player running simultaneously.

3. Process Model

OS treats all processes as ${\bf independent}$ ${\bf sequential}$ ${\bf programs}$ with:

- Own virtual CPU (illusion created via CPU scheduling).
- Private address space (memory isolation).

Processes interact via inter-process communication (IPC). A process can create child processes, forming a process tree.

Diagram:

```
Process 1 \rightarrow [Code][Data][Stack][Heap]
Process 2 \rightarrow [Code][Data][Stack][Heap]
```

4. Process States

5-State Model:

- 1. New: Process is being created.
- 2. Ready: Waiting for CPU allocation.

3. Running: Executing on CPU.

4. Waiting: Blocked for I/O/event.

5. Terminated: Finished execution.

State	Meaning	Example	
New	Process is being created by the OS.	Browser is launched; OS begins setting up the process.	
Ready	Process is in memory, waiting for CPU.	Browser is loaded in RAM, waiting in the scheduler queue.	
Running	Process is executing on the CPU.	Browser processes a webpage or runs a script.	
Waiting	Process is waiting for I/O or an Browser waits for network event to complete. Browser waits for network response after an HTTP		
Terminated	Process has finished or was killed; OS reclaims resources.	Browser is closed; process is removed from process table.	

State Transition Diagram:

```
graph LR
  A[New] --> B[Ready]
  B --> C[Running]
  C --> B
  C --> D[Waiting]
  D --> B
  C --> E[Terminated]
```

Question:

"Why can't a waiting process directly transition to running?" **Answer:** It must first return to the ready queue first after I/O completion.

5. Process Control Block (PCB)

Definition: Kernel data structure storing process metadata.

PCB Contents(process metadata):

2.2 Threads

1. Thread vs Process

Process	Thread	
Heavyweight (isolated memory)	Lightweight (shared memory)	
Slower context switch	Faster context switch	

TPC	via	system	calls
TLC	V да	3 9 3 L C III	Calls

Communication via shared variables

Analogy:

- Process: A factory with separate departments (isolated).
- Threads: Workers in a department sharing resources (tools, space).

Example:

- Chrome: Each tab runs as a separate process (crash isolation).
- Word: Spell-check runs in a thread (shares document memory).

2. User vs Kernel Threads

User-Level Threads (ULT)

- Managed by user-space libraries (e.g., Python threading).
- Pros:
 - No kernel mode switching (faster).
 - Portable (OS-agnostic).
- · Cons:
 - Blocking one thread blocks all (no true parallelism).

Kernel-Level Threads (KLT)

- Managed directly by the OS (e.g., Linux pthreads).
- Pros:
 - True parallelism (multicore support).
 - Kernel handles blocking I/O.
- · Cons:
 - Slower creation/context switch.

Hybrid Approach (Linux):

• Uses 1:1 model (each user thread maps to kernel thread).

Memory Aid:

- Process = Company, Threads = Employees.
- ULT = Interns (cheap but limited), KLT = Full-timers (powerful but costly).

2.3 Inter Process Communication (IPC), Race Condition, Critical Section

1. Inter Process Communication (IPC)

IPC is a mechanism that allows processes to communicate and synchronize their actions. Processes may run on the same system or different systems connected via a network.

Why IPC?

- Processes often need to share data (e.g., producer-consumer problem).
- Some tasks require coordination (e.g., avoiding simultaneous file access).

Methods of IPC:

(A) Shared Memory

- Processes share a common memory region.
- Faster than message passing (no kernel intervention).

• Example: A shared buffer between a producer and consumer process.

(B) Message Passing

- Processes communicate via system calls (send() and receive()).
- Works for both same-machine and distributed systems.
- Example: Pipes in Unix (| operator in shell commands).

Diagram: IPC Methods

2. Race Condition

A race condition occurs when multiple processes access shared data concurrently, and the final outcome depends on the order of execution.

Why is it a Problem?

- Leads to inconsistent data.
- Hard to reproduce and debug.

Example:

Two processes (P1 and P2) increment a shared variable count = 5:

- 1. P1 reads count = 5.
- 2. P2 reads count = 5.
- 3. P1 increments to 6 and writes back.
- 4. P2 increments to 6 and writes back.
- Expected: count = 7 (if sequential).
- Actual: count = 6 (due to race).

Diagram: Race Condition

```
P1: Read (5) → Increment (6) → Write (6)
P2: Read (5) → Increment (6) → Write (6)
Final value: 6 (instead of 7)
```

3. Critical Section

A segment of code where shared resources (variables, files, etc.) are accessed.

Requirements for Critical Section Problem:

 Mutual Exclusion: Only one process can execute in the critical section at a time.

- 2. **Progress:** If no process is in the critical section, another process must be allowed to enter.
- 3. Bounded Waiting: No process should wait indefinitely.

Solutions to Critical Section Problem:

- 1. Peterson's Algorithm (Software-based, for 2 processes).
- 2. Mutex Locks (Hardware-based, acquire() and release()).
- 3. Semaphores (Generalized mutex, wait() and signal()).

Diagram: Critical Section Handling

2.4 Implementing Mutual Exclusion

Mutual Exclusion ensures that only one process/thread accesses the critical section (shared resources) at a time, preventing race conditions.

1. Mutual Exclusion with Busy Waiting

Busy waiting (or spinlock) means a process continuously checks for a condition (e.g., a lock) in a loop while waiting to enter the critical section.

Methods:

(A) Disabling Interrupts

- How? Disable interrupts before entering the critical section.
- Pros: Simple (works for single-core systems).
- · Cons:
 - Dangerous in user mode (only kernel should disable interrupts).
 - \bullet Doesn't work for multi-core systems.
- Example:

```
CLI ; Disable interrupts (x86 instruction)
; Critical Section
STI ; Enable interrupts
```

(B) Lock Variables

- How? A shared lock variable (0 = free, 1 = busy).
- Problem: Race condition in checking and setting the lock.
- Example:

```
while (lock == 1); // Busy wait
lock = 1; // Race condition here!
// Critical Section
lock = 0;
```

(C) Strict Alternation (Turn Variable)

- How? Processes take turns using a turn variable.
- Problem: Violates Progress (a process must wait even if the other is idle).
- Example:

```
// Process 0
while (turn != 0); // Wait
// Critical Section
turn = 1;

// Process 1
while (turn != 1); // Wait
// Critical Section
turn = 0;
```

(D) Peterson's Solution

- How? Uses turn and flag[2] (for 2 processes).
- Satisfies: Mutual Exclusion, Progress, Bounded Waiting.
- Example:

(E) Test and Set Lock (TSL)

- How? Hardware instruction (TSL RX, LOCK) sets lock and returns old value atomically.
- Example:

```
TSL R0, LOCK ; Copy LOCK to R0 and set LOCK=1
CMP R0, #0 ; Was LOCK 0?
JNE WAIT ; If not, wait
; Critical Section
MOV LOCK, #0 ; Release lock
```

2. Sleep and Wakeup

Instead of busy waiting, the OS puts the process to sleep and wakes it when the lock is free.

Example (Producer-Consumer Problem):

```
// Producer
while (count == BUFFER_SIZE) sleep();
// Produce item
wakeup(Consumer);

// Consumer
while (count == 0) sleep();
// Consume item
wakeup(Producer);
```

Problem: Lost Wakeup

- If wakeup is called before sleep, the signal is lost.
- Solution: Use semaphores.

3. Semaphores

An integer variable (S) accessed only via atomic operations (An operation that executes completely or not at all, without being interrupted):

- wait(S) (or P): Decrements S; if S < 0, the process sleeps.
- signal(S) (or V): Increments S; wakes up a waiting process.

Types:

- 1. Binary Semaphore (S = 0 or 1) \rightarrow Acts like a mutex lock.
- 2. Counting Semaphore (S = N) \rightarrow Allows N processes in critical section.

Example (Mutex with Semaphore):

```
semaphore S = 1;

// Process P1
wait(S);
// Critical Section
signal(S);
```

Problem: Deadlocks

• If two processes wait for each other's resources.

4. Monitors

A high-level synchronization construct where shared data and procedures are grouped together.

Features:

- \bullet Only one process can execute a monitor procedure at a time.
- Uses condition variables (wait(), signal()).

Example (Bounded Buffer Monitor):

```
monitor BoundedBuffer {
  int buffer[N];
  condition full, empty;
```

```
void produce(item) {
   if (buffer.isFull()) empty.wait();
   buffer.add(item);
   full.signal();
}

void consume() {
   if (buffer.isEmpty()) full.wait();
   item = buffer.remove();
   empty.signal();
}
```

5. Message Passing

Processes communicate via messages (send() and receive()).

Types:

- 1. Blocking (Synchronous):
 - send() blocks until the message is received.
 - receive() blocks until a message arrives.
- 2. Non-Blocking (Asynchronous):
 - send() returns immediately.
 - receive() checks for a message (may return empty).

Example (Client-Server):

```
// Server
while (1) {
  receive(REQUEST, &client);
  // Process request
  send(REPLY, client);
}

// Client
send(REQUEST, server);
receive(REPLY, &response);
```

2.5 Classical IPC Problems

Classical IPC problems help illustrate common **synchronization issues** and how to solve them using **semaphores**, **mutexes**, and **monitors**.

1. Producer-Consumer Problem (Bounded Buffer Problem)

Problem Statement:

- A producer creates data items and places them in a bounded (limited-size) buffer.
- \bullet A consumer removes items from the buffer.
- The **goal** is to ensure:

- Producer waits if buffer is full.
- Consumer waits if buffer is empty.
- Mutual exclusion while accessing the buffer.

Real-life Analogy:

- A bakery (producer) produces bread.
- A delivery truck (buffer) has limited slots.
- Customers (consumers) buy bread from the truck.

Solution using Semaphores:

```
semaphore mutex = 1;  // mutual exclusion
semaphore full = 0;
                        // count of full slots
semaphore empty = N;
                        // count of empty slots (N = buffer size)
Producer:
while (true) {
   produce_item();
                  // wait for empty slot
// enter critical section
   wait(empty);
   wait(mutex);
   add_item_to_buffer();
   signal(mutex); // exit critical section
                      // one more full slot
   signal(full);
}
Consumer:
while (true) {
                    // wait for full slot
// enter critical section
   wait(full);
   wait(mutex);
   remove_item_from_buffer();
    signal(mutex); // exit critical section
   signal(empty);
                      // one more empty slot
   consume_item();
```

2. Sleeping Barber Problem

Problem Statement:

- A barber sleeps when there are no customers.
- If a customer arrives:
 - Wakes the barber if sleeping.
 - If all chairs are full, customer leaves.
 - Else waits in the waiting room (limited chairs).

Real-life Analogy:

 \bullet A barbershop with one barber and $\,$ N $\,$ waiting chairs.

Challenges:

- Wake the barber when needed.
- Ensure mutual exclusion in accessing customer count.

• Don't let more than N customers enter waiting room.

Solution using Semaphores:

```
semaphore customers = 0; // number of waiting customers
Barber:
while (true) {
   wait(customers);
                     // sleep if no customers
   wait(mutex);
   waiting = waiting - 1;
   signal(barber); // ready to cut hair
   signal(mutex);
   cut_hair();
}
Customer:
wait(mutex);
if (waiting < N) {</pre>
   waiting = waiting + 1;
   signal(customers); // wake up barber if needed
   signal(mutex);
                     // wait until barber is ready
   wait(barber);
   get_haircut();
}
else {
   signal(mutex); // no chair available, leave shop
}
```

3. Dining Philosophers Problem

Problem Statement:

- 5 philosophers sit around a table.
- Each needs two forks to eat (left and right).
- A fork is shared between neighbors.
- Goal: avoid deadlock and starvation.

Real-life Analogy:

- Philosophers alternate between thinking and eating.
- There are only 5 forks (1 between each pair).

Problem Issues:

- If all philosophers pick the left fork first, they deadlock.
- Some philosophers may **starve** if others keep eating.

Solution using Semaphores (Asymmetric Strategy):

```
semaphore forks[5] = {1, 1, 1, 1, 1}; // 5 binary semaphores for 5 forks
Philosopher i:
```

Alternate Solutions:

- Use mutex + states (thinking, hungry, eating).
- Limit the number of philosophers who can sit at the table at the same time (e.g., only 4 at once).

Summary Table:

Problem	Key Concept	Issue Solved	Common Tools
Producer-	Buffer	Full/Empty buffer, race conditions	Semaphores,
Consumer	Synchronization		Mutex
Sleeping Barber	Process Wake/Sleep	Barbershop capacity, sleeping barber	Semaphores
Dining	Resource	Deadlock, starvation	Semaphores,
Philosophers	Allocation		Mutex

Process Scheduling

2.6 Process Scheduling

Process scheduling is the mechanism used by the OS to select which process runs next on the CPU. The **scheduler** is responsible for allocating CPU time efficiently based on scheduling algorithms.

Key Terms:

- 1. **Process Scheduling** The act of selecting a process from the ready queue to execute on the CPU.
- 2. Scheduler The OS component that decides the order of process execution.
- 3. Ready Queue A queue of processes in main memory that are ready to execute.
- 4. **Preemptive Scheduling** A process can be interrupted and moved back to the ready queue before completion.
- 5. **Non-Preemptive Scheduling** A process runs until it completes or voluntarily yields the CPU.
- 6. Turnaround Time Total time taken from process submission to completion.
- 7. Waiting Time Total time a process spends waiting in the ready queue.
- 8. **Response Time** Time taken from submission until the first response (for interactive systems).

- 9. Throughput Number of processes completed per unit time.
- 10. CPU Utilization Percentage of time the CPU is busy (not idle).

Goals of Process Scheduling

- 1. Fairness All processes should get a fair share of CPU time.
- 2. $\textbf{Efficiency} \ - \ \textbf{Maximize} \ \textbf{CPU} \ \textbf{utilization} \ \textbf{and} \ \textbf{throughput}.$
- 4. Minimize Turnaround Time Important for batch systems.
- 5. Avoid Starvation No process should wait indefinitely.

Numerical Done in Class