Chapter 3: Processes





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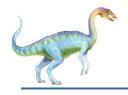
- Process Concept
- Process Scheduling
- Operations on Processes
- Interprocess Communication
- Examples of IPC Systems
- Communication in Client-Server Systems



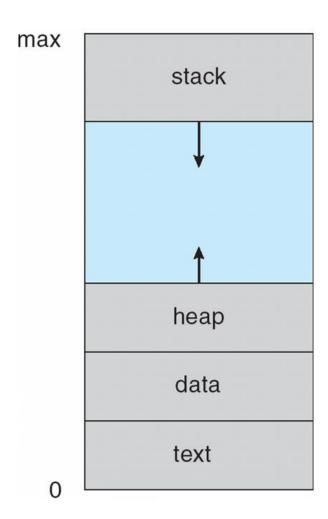


Process Concept

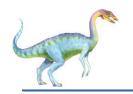
- An operating system executes a variety of programs:
 - Batch system jobs
 - □ Time-shared systems user programs or tasks
- Textbook uses the terms job and process almost interchangeably
- Process a program in execution; process execution must progress in sequential fashion
- Multiple parts
 - The program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





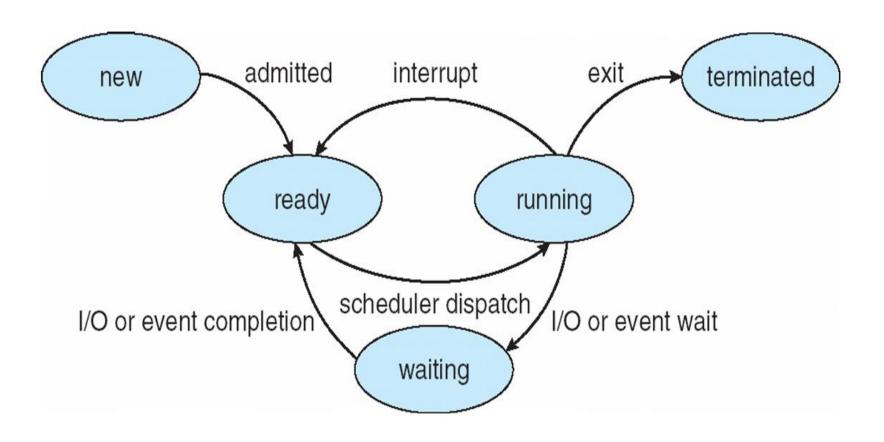
Process State

- As a process executes, it changes **state** (current activity of that process)
 - 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







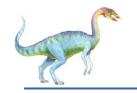
Process Control Block (PCB)

Information associated with each process represented in the operating system by a process control block (PCB) (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 [accumulators, index registers, stack pointers, and general-purpose registers]
- CPU scheduling information- priorities, scheduling queue pointers
- Memory-management information memory allocated to the process [Page and segment table]
- □ 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





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





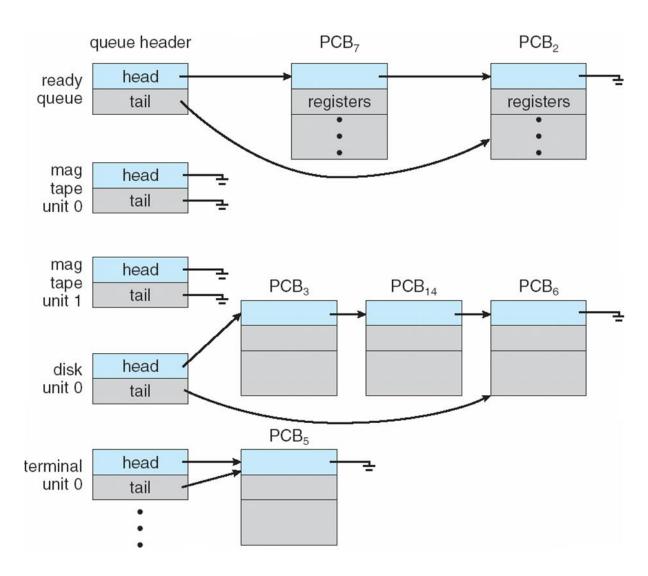
Process Scheduling

- 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 Various I/O Device Queues

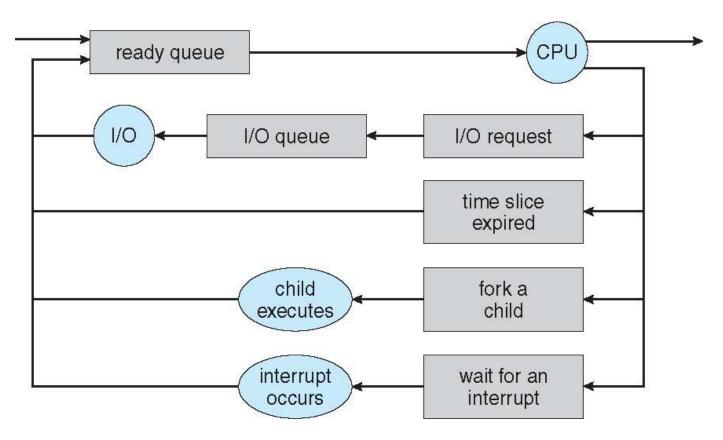






Representation of Process Scheduling

Queueing diagram represents queues, resources, flows







Schedulers

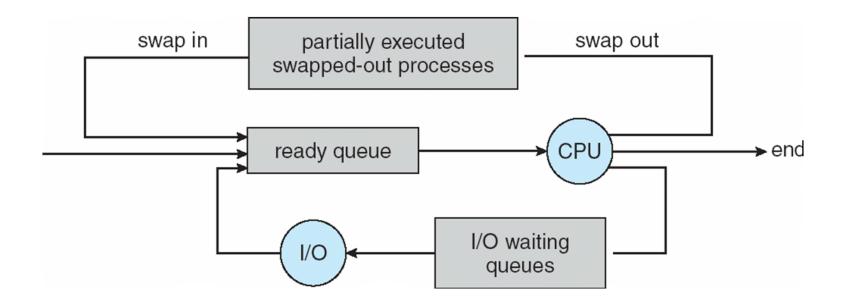
- Short-term scheduler (or CPU scheduler) selects which process should be executed next and allocates CPU
 - Sometimes the only scheduler in a system
 - Short-term scheduler is invoked frequently (milliseconds) ⇒ (must be fast)
- Long-term scheduler (or job scheduler) selects which processes should be 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
- 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







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





Operations on Processes

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





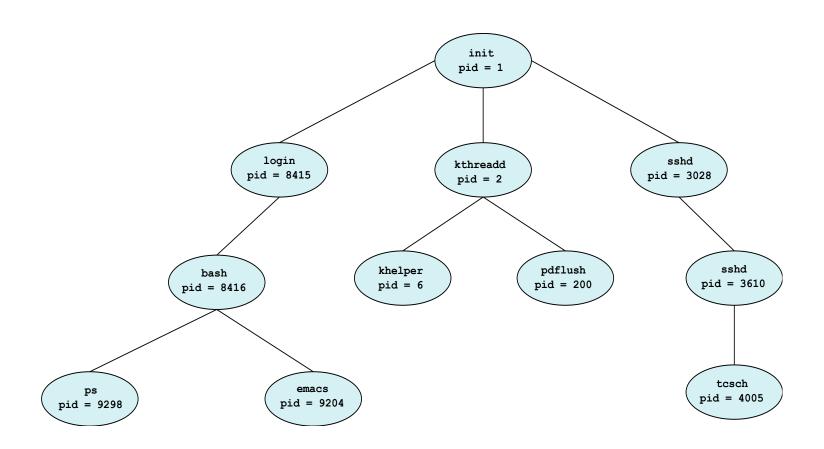
Process Creation

- 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

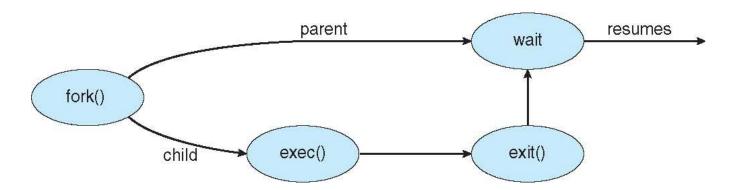






Process Creation (Cont.)

- 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 <stdio.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <unistd.h>
int main()
{
    // make two process which run same
    // program after this instruction
    pid t p = fork();
    if(p<0){
      perror("fork fail");
      exit(1);
    printf("Hello world!, process id(pid) = %d \n",getpid());
    return 0;
```





fork() Return Value

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <unistd.h>
void forkexample()
{
    pid t p;
    p = fork();
    if(p<0)
      perror("fork fail");
      exit(1);
    // child process because return value zero
    else if ( p == 0)
        printf("Hello from Child!\n");
    // parent process because return value non-zero.
    else
        printf("Hello from Parent!\n");
int main()
    forkexample();
    return 0;
```





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

- When a process terminates
 - Its resources are deallocated by the operating system.
 - However, its entry in the process table must remain there until the parent calls wait()
 - Because the process table contains the process's exit status.
- If a child process that has terminated, but whose parent has not yet called wait(), is known as a zombie process
- If a parent did not invoke wait() and instead terminated
 - Leaving its child processes as orphans.
 - init process as the new parent to orphan processes which process periodically invokes wait()





Interprocess Communication

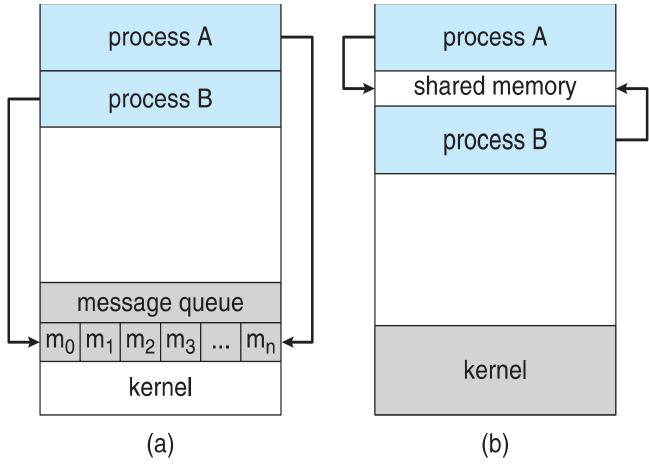
- Processes within a system may be independent or cooperating
- Independent process cannot affect or be affected by the execution of another process
- Cooperating process can affect or be affected by the execution of another process
- Reasons for cooperating processes:
 - Information sharing
 - Computation speedup
 - Modularity
 - Convenience
- □ Cooperating processes need interprocess communication (IPC)
- Two models of IPC
 - Shared memory
 - Message passing





Communications Models

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

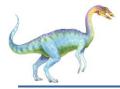




Producer-Consumer Problem

- Shared Memory System
 - Requires communicating processes to establish a region of shared memory
 - Normally, OS prevents one process from accessing another process's memory
 - Shared memory requires that two or more processes agree to remove this restriction
- Paradigm for cooperating processes, producer process produces information that is consumed by a consumer process
- Example: Compiler -> Assembler -> Loader
 - 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;
```

- Solution is correct, but can only use (BUFFER_SIZE-1) elements
- ☐ *in* points to the next **free** position in the buffer
- out points to the first full position in the buffer





Bounded-Buffer – Producer

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

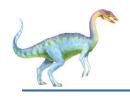
    buffer[in] = next_produced;
    in = (in + 1) % BUFFER_SIZE;
}
```





Bounded Buffer – Consumer





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 future lectures.





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
- Useful special for distributed environment
 - Communicating processes reside on different computers connected by a network.
 - Example: Internet chat program communicating by exchanging messages
- □ IPC facility provides two operations:
 - send(message)
 - receive(message)
- The message size is either fixed or variable

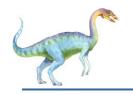




Message Passing (Cont.)

- ☐ 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

Naming

- Processes must refer to 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





Direct Communication

- □ *Symmetry* in addressing
 - Both the sender and receiver processes must name each other to communicate
- □ *Asymmetry* in addressing
 - Sender names the recipient
 - Recipient is not required to name the sender
 - send(P, message)—Send a message to process P
 - □ receive(id, message) Receive a message from any process
 - Variable id is set to the name of the process with which communication has taken place





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.

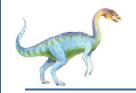




Synchronization

- Message passing may be either blocking or non-blocking
- Blocking is considered synchronous
 - Blocking send -- the sender is blocked until the message is received by the receiving process or mailbox
 - 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 its operation
 - 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





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



End of Chapter 3

