

# Operating Systems - Processes

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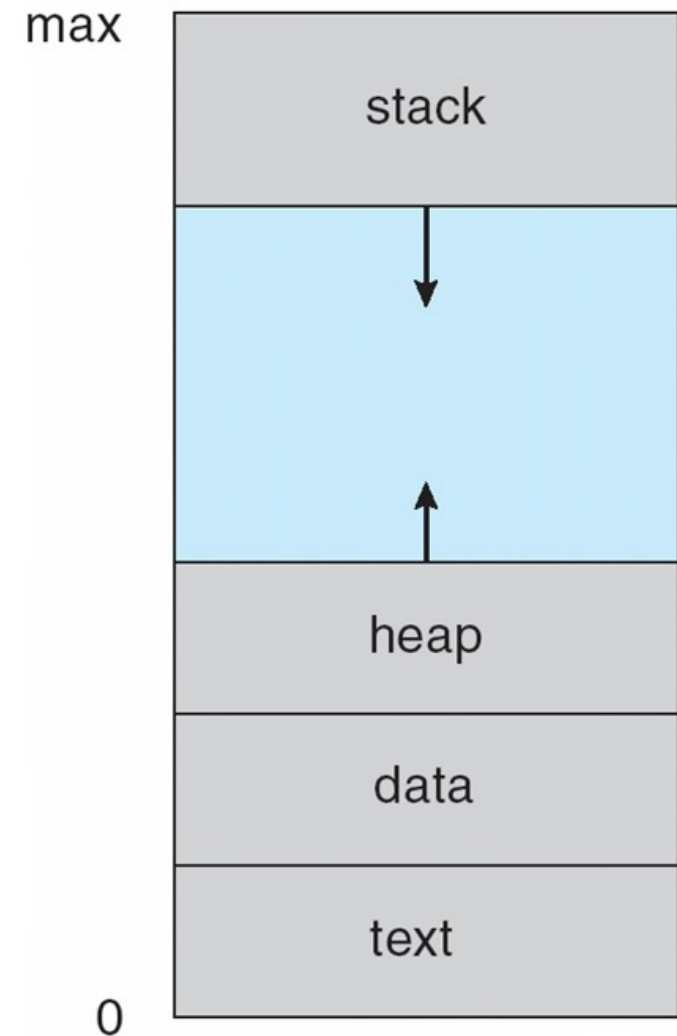
**Acknowledgements:** Material based on the textbook Operating Systems Concepts (Chapter 3)

# Process

- Process is a program in execution
- Program is ***passive*** entity stored on disk  
(**executable file**), process is ***active***
  - Program becomes process when executable file loaded into memory

# Process in Memory

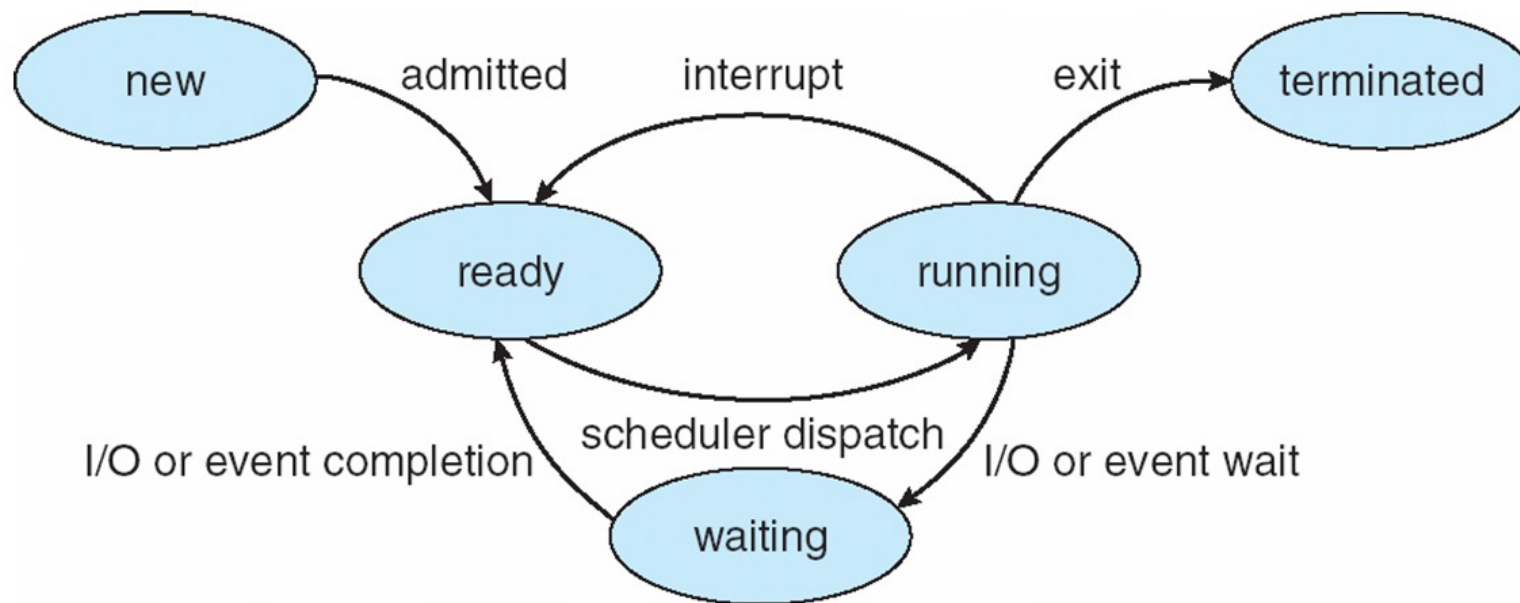
- **Text section** - compiled program code, read in from the non-volatile storage when the program is launched.
- **Data Section** - global and static variables, which are allocated and initialized prior to executing `main()`.
- **Heap** – Memory that is dynamically allocated during program run time and is managed via calls to `new`, `delete`, `malloc`, `free`, etc. in C.
- **Stack** - is used for local variables. Space on the stack is reserved for local variables when they are declared ( at function entrance or elsewhere, depending on the language ), and the space is freed up when the variables go out of scope.



# Process State

- As a process executes, it changes **state**
  - **new**: The process is being created
  - **ready**: The process is waiting to be assigned to a processor
  - **running**: Instructions are being executed
  - **waiting**: The process is waiting for some event to occur
  - **terminated**: The process has finished execution

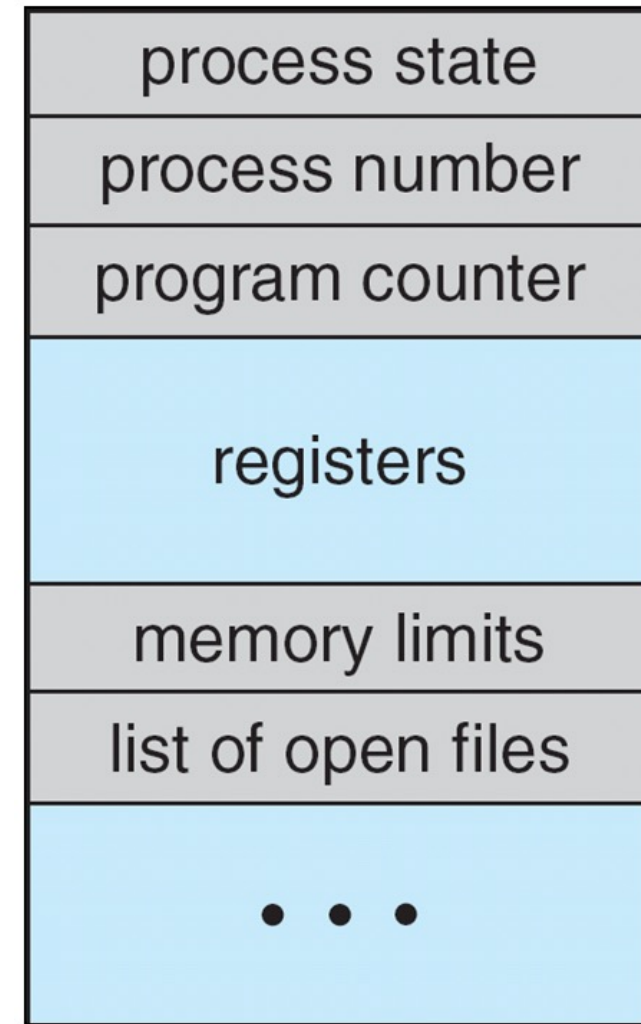
# Diagram of Process State



# Process Control Block (PCB)

PCB – Stores all the information associated with each process (also called **task control block**)

- **Process state** – running, waiting, etc
- **Process number** – Process ID
- CPU registers and program counter – contents of all process-centric registers
- CPU scheduling information- priorities, scheduling queue pointers
- Memory-management information – memory allocated to the process
- And much more ....



# Process Representation in Linux

Processes in Linux are referred to as tasks.

Represented by the C structure `task_struct`

```
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 */
```

# Types of Processes

- 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



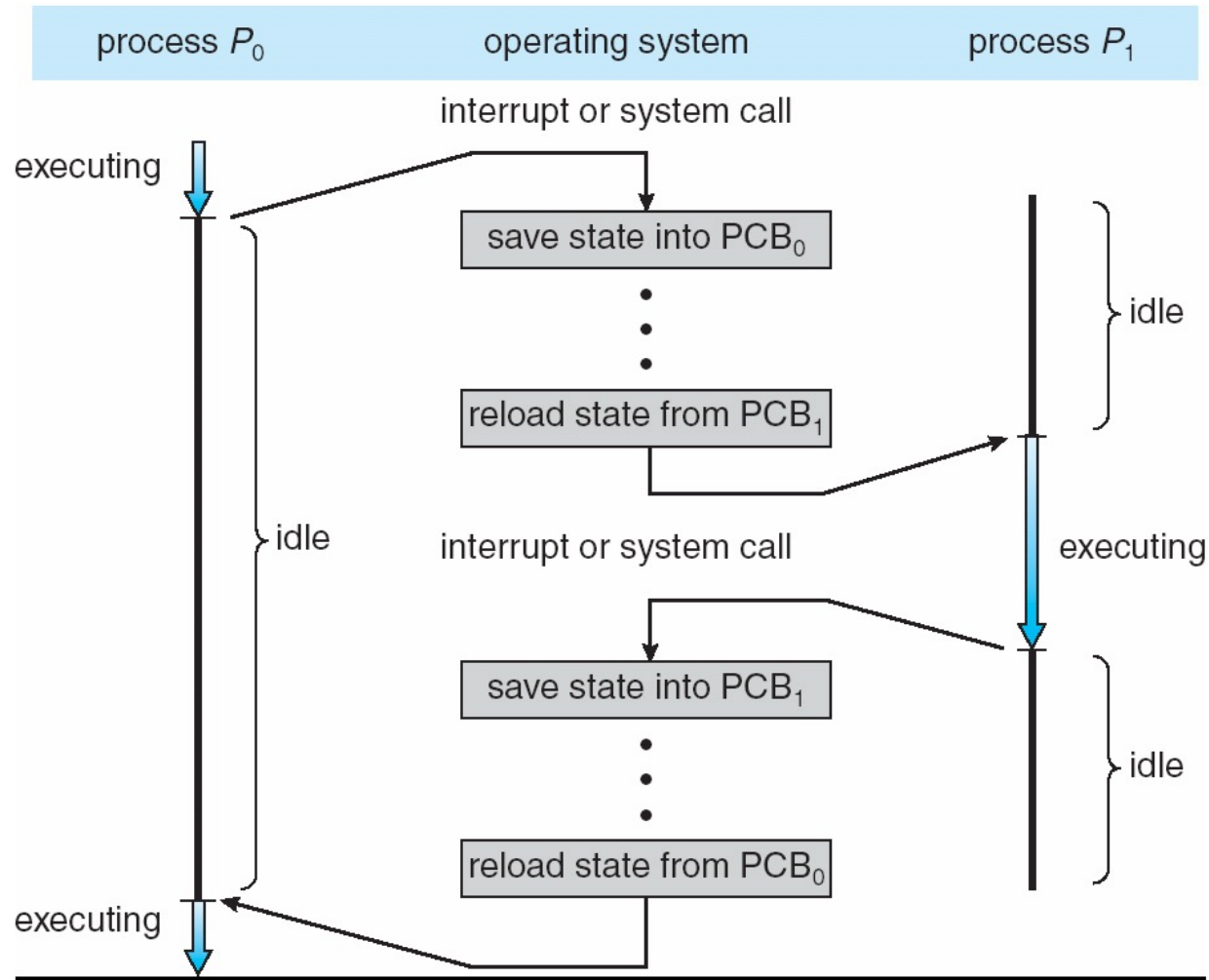
# Threads

- Modern systems allow a process to have multiple threads associated with it.
- These threads can execute concurrently.
- More on Threads in the next chapter.

# Context Switch

- **Context** of a process is represented in the PCB (value of CPU registers, the process state etc. See slide 3.9)
- When CPU switches to another process, the system must **save the context** of the old process and load the **saved context** for the new process. The process is called **context switching**
- Context-switch time is an 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

# CPU Switch From Process to Process



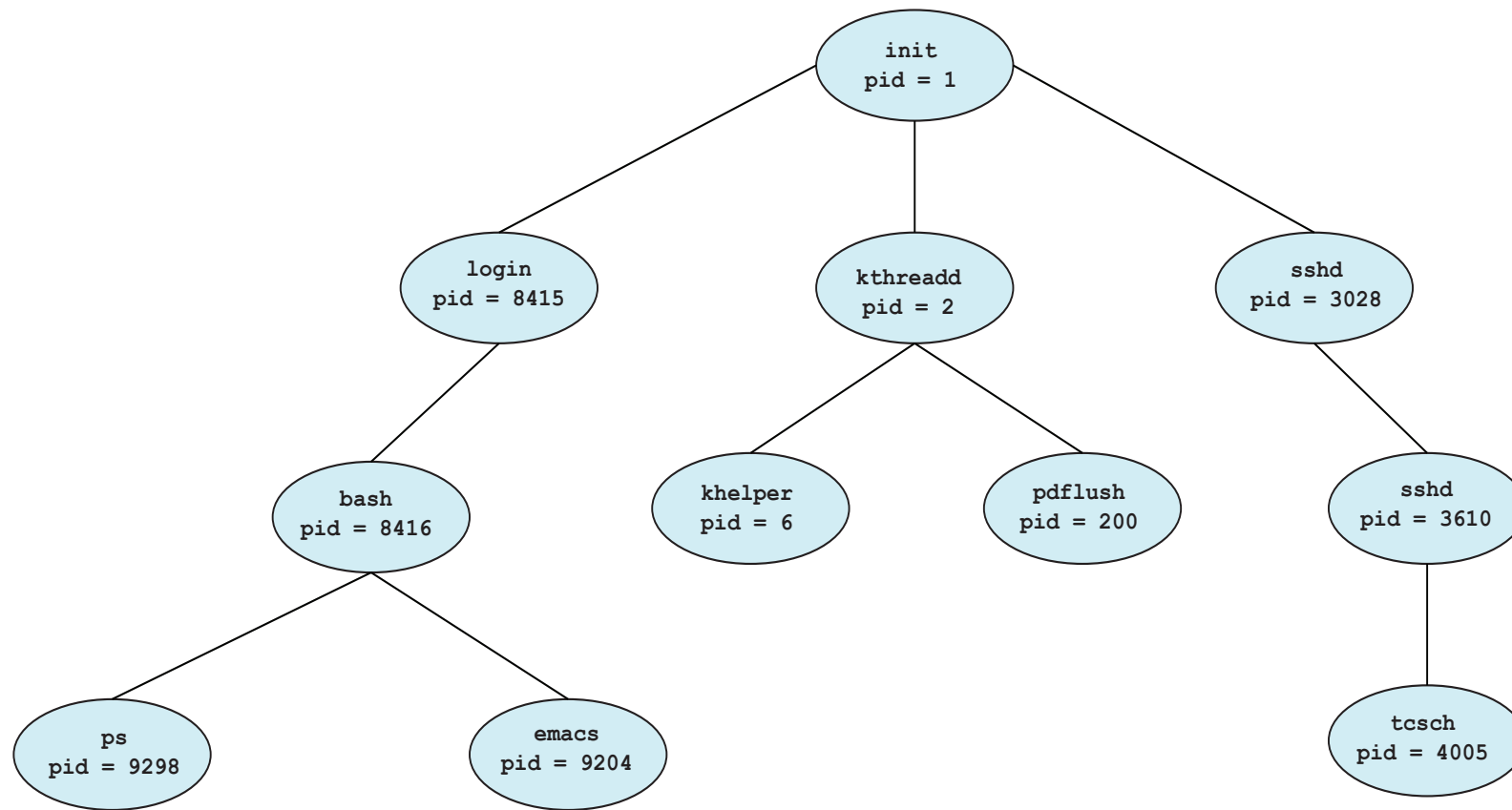
# Operations on Processes

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

# Process Creation

- Every process is given an integer identifier called the **process identifier (pid)**:
- A process (**parent process**) can create another process (**child process**).
- **Parent** process creates **child** processes (using system calls), which, in turn creates other processes, forming a **tree of processes** or **process tree**.
- In addition to PID of a process, its parent PID (termed as PPID) is stored as well.

# A Tree of Processes in Linux



- At system startup, **init** process is executed
  - Its process identifier is 1.
  - **init** then launches all system daemons and user logins, and becomes the parent of all other processes.

# Parent – Child Sharing

- **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

- **Address space sharing options:**

- Child is a duplicate of parent (has the same program and data as the parent)
- Child has a new program loaded into it

# Creating Processes in Linux/Unix

- `fork()` system call is used to create a new process
- `fork()` takes no arguments and returns a process ID (in the parent)
- The new process created by `fork` becomes the child process of the calling process.
- This child process has the same environment as its parent; that is, it is an exact copy of the parent with only a different process ID.
- After a new child process is created, both the parent and child will execute the next instruction following the `fork()` system call.



# Question?

How many processes (including the parent) are created when the below code is executed?  
Draw the process tree for the below code.

```
int main()
```

```
{
```

```
    fork() ;
```

```
    fork() ;
```

```
    fork() ;
```

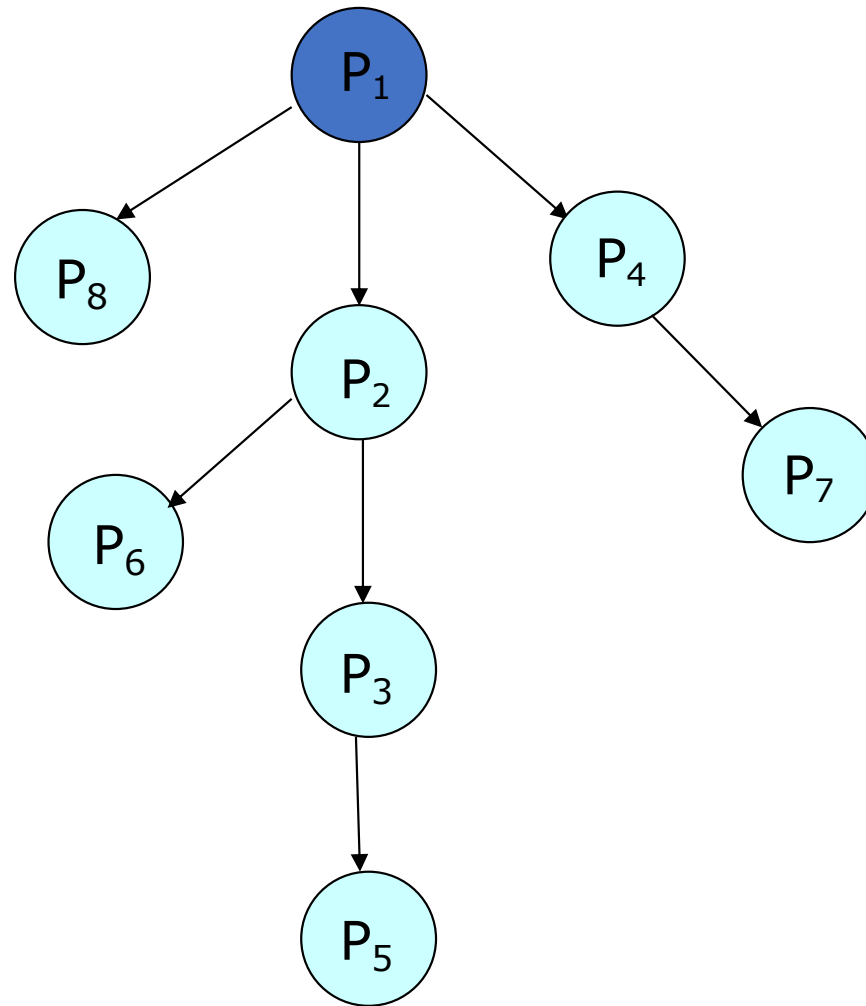
```
    return 0 ;
```

```
}
```

After executing this `fork()`, the child process created from it, executes instructions starting from the next statement; that is, `fork()`.

`return 0;` return the exit status of main, where 0 indicates the program executed normally.

## Process tree for question in slide 19



# Creating Processes in Linux/Unix

- How do we distinguish between a child process and parent process?
- `fork()` returns a zero in the child process
- `fork()` returns the PID of the child process in parent
- Only if the creation of the child process was unsuccessful, `fork()` returns a negative value.

## `getpid()` and `getppid()`

- Every process can query its own PID using the `getpid()`.
- Every process can query its parent PID using `getppid()`.

# Question?

**How many processes (including the parent) are created when the below code is executed?**  
**Draw the process tree for the below code.**

```
int main()
```

```
{
```

```
    pid_t pid;
```

```
    pid = fork();
```

```
    if(pid == 0) { /*Child process*/
```

```
        printf("Child Process with PID: %d\n",getpid());
```

```
    }
```

```
    else { /*Parent process*/
```

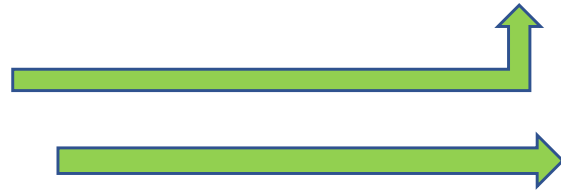
```
        printf("Parent Process with PID: %d\n",getpid());
```

```
    }
```

```
    return 0;
```

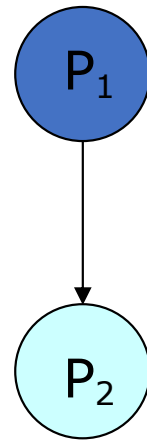
```
}
```

pid\_t is the type to store Process ID



fork() returns the PID of the child process in the parent process and returns 0 in the child process.

# Process tree for question in slide 22



## exec() system call

- The **exec()** system call used right after **fork()** enables the child process to execute a different program than the one it inherits from its parent process.
- This act is also referred to as an **overlay**.
- There is a family of exec() functions, all of which have slightly different characteristics. See the Linux manual for more details.

# Process Termination

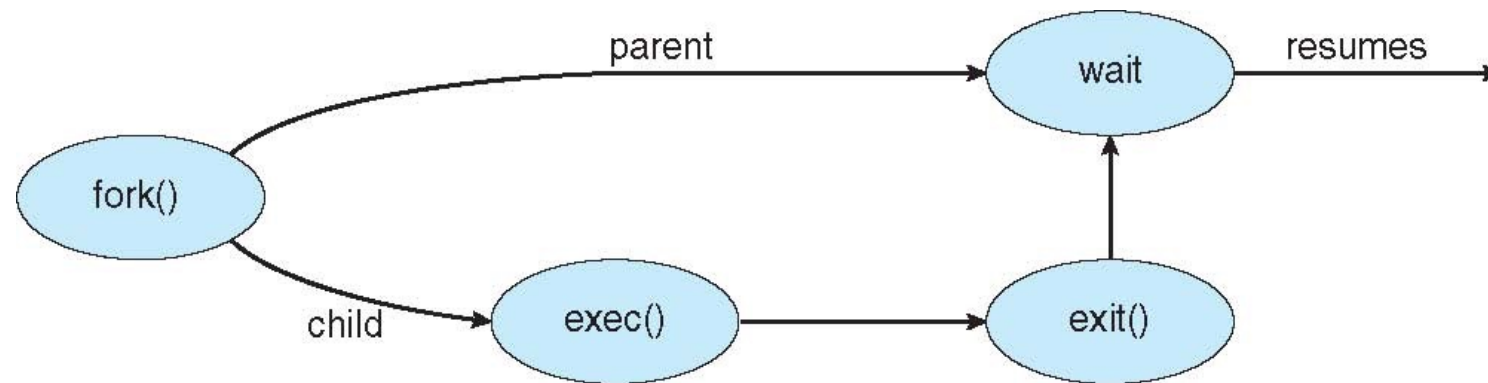
- After executing the last statement, a process is terminated
  - Implicitly – using the **return** statement
  - Explicitly – using the **exit()** system call
- Process' resources are deallocated by operating system
- Parent may terminate the execution of children processes using the **abort()** system 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 exist 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.



# Process creation using the fork() system call



# Child Process – Termination status

- When a child process terminates, the parent can know the child's exit status using the `wait()` system call.
- The call returns status information and the pid of the terminated process

```
pid = wait(&status);
```

- Unix maintains a **table of processes**. This table contains the list of all processes running and includes the process status.
- If a parent process terminates, its entry is removed from the table.
- If a child process terminates, its entry is removed from the table only after the parent process invokes a `wait()`.
- If no parent waiting (did not invoke `wait()`) process is a **zombie**
- If parent terminated without invoking `wait()`, process is an **orphan**

# 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();

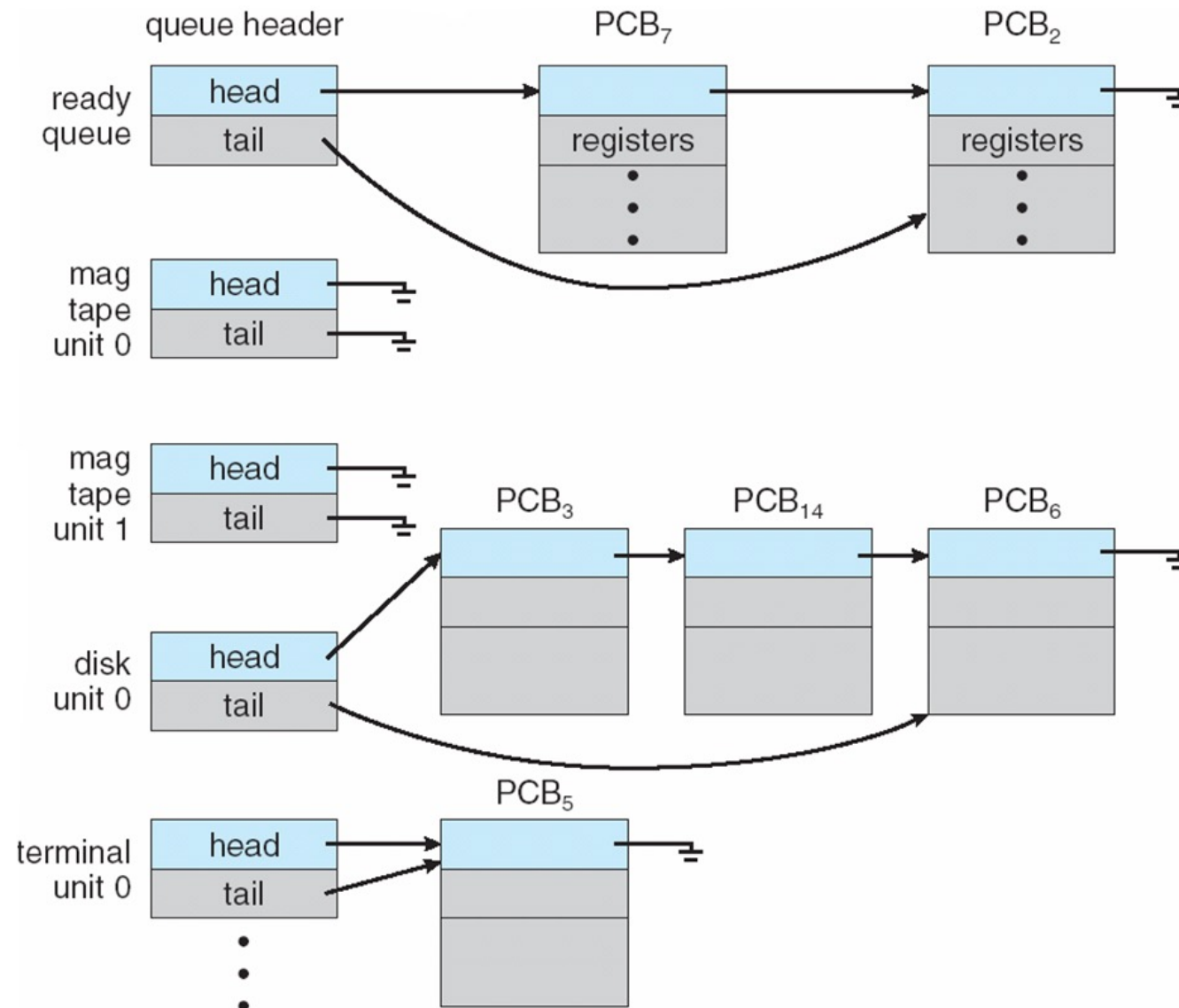
    if (pid < 0) { /* error occurred */
        fprintf(stderr, "Fork Failed");
        return 1;
    }
    else if (pid == 0) { /* child process */
        execlp("/bin/ls", "ls", NULL);
    }
    else { /* parent process */
        /* parent will wait for the child to complete */
        wait(NULL);
 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

    return 0;
}
```

# Process Scheduling

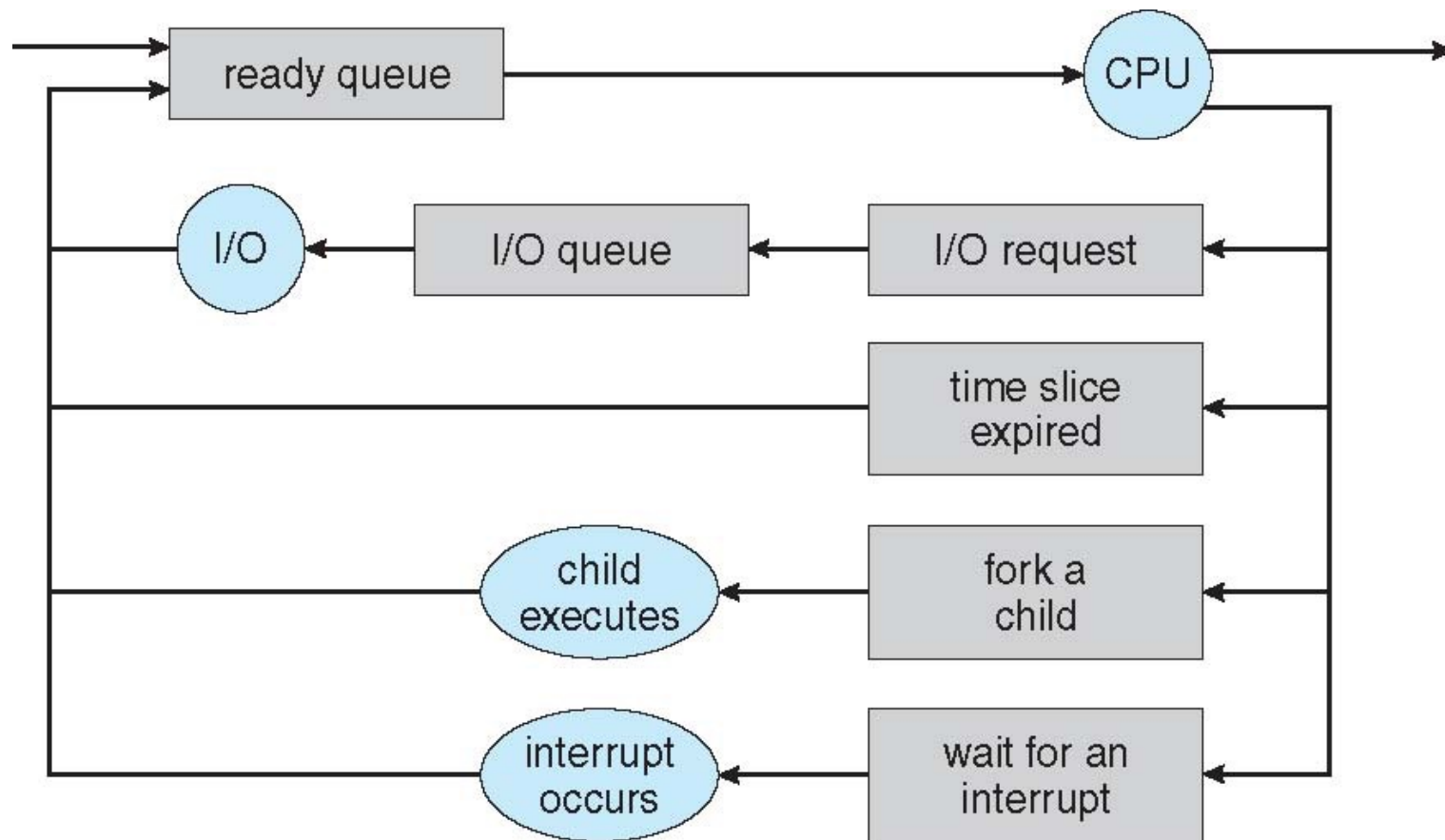
- Goal: Maximize CPU use, quickly switch processes onto CPU for time sharing
- Process scheduler must meet the above objectives by implementing suitable scheduling policies.
- Operating System maintains **scheduling queues** of processes
  - **Job queue** – set of all processes in the system
  - **Ready 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. Usually a separate device queue for each device.
- Processes migrate among the various queues
- **Scheduler**: selects a process from a queue.

# 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)  $\Rightarrow$  (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). Therefore, can use sophisticated scheduling algorithms.
  - Typically, seen on a process intensive systems.
  - The long-term scheduler controls the **degree of multiprogramming and good process mix**
- **Swapping:** is the term used for removing a process from main memory store on disk and later bring it back in from disk to continue execution
- **Medium – term scheduler:** used to queue swapped jobs
  - can be added if degree of multiple programming needs to decrease.

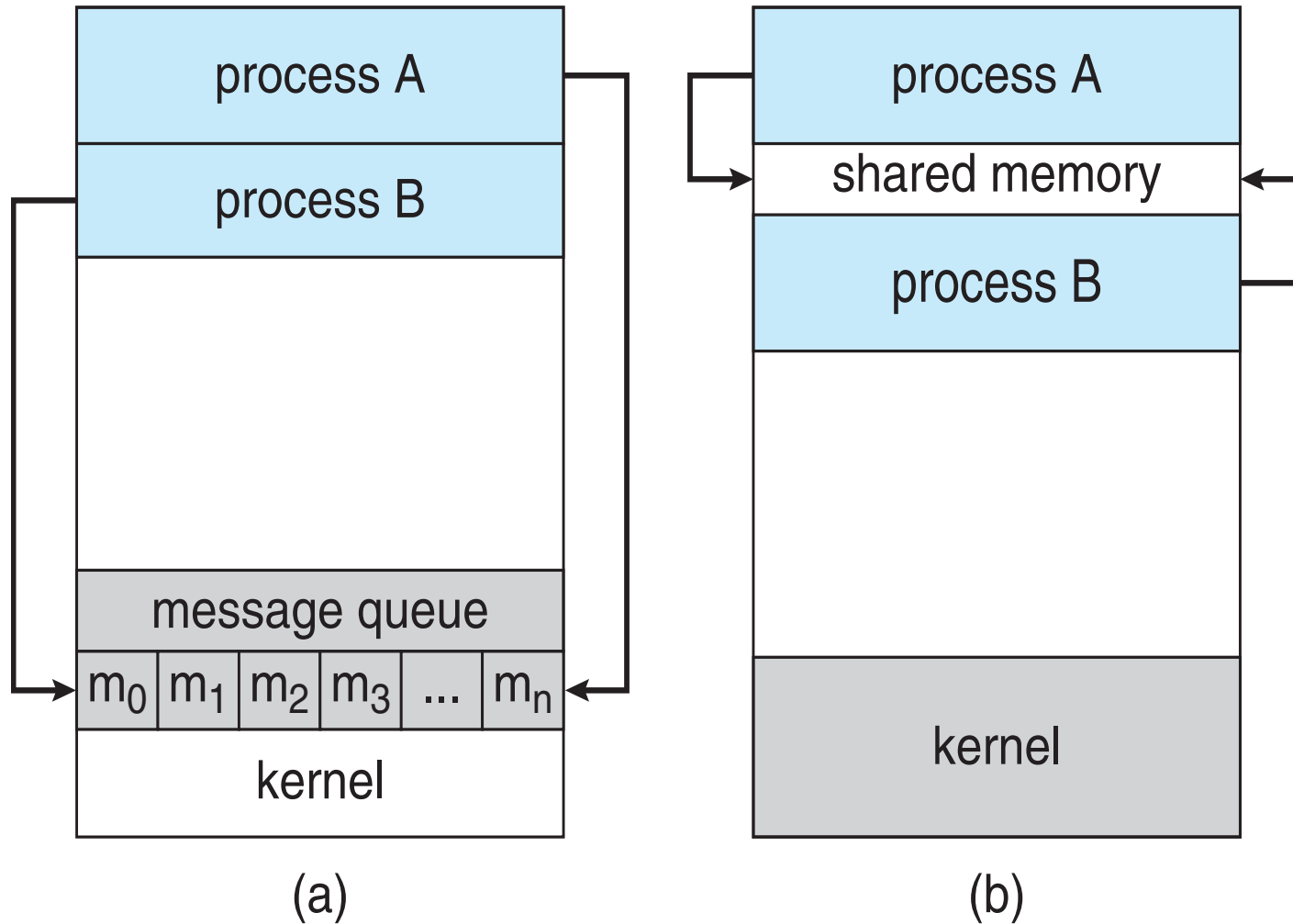
# Interprocess Communication (IPC)

- Processes within a system may be
  - ***Independent*** or
  - ***Cooperating*** (*it can affect or be affected by other processes, including sharing data*)
- Reasons for cooperating processes:
  - Information sharing, computation speedup, modularity and convenience
- Cooperating processes need **interprocess communication (IPC)**
- Two models of IPC
  - **Shared memory**
  - **Message passing**



# Communications Models

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



## IPC – Shared Memory

- An area of memory shared among the processes that wish to communicate
- The communication is under the **control of the user** processes not the operating system.
- It is more complicated to set up and doesn't work as well across multiple computers.
- Used for sharing large amount of data.
- Major issues – synchronize process actions when accessing shared memory.

## IPC – Message Passing

- Operating system provides message passing capability.
- As a result, Message Passing requires system calls for every message transfer, and is therefore slower.
- However, it is simpler to set up and works well across multiple computers.