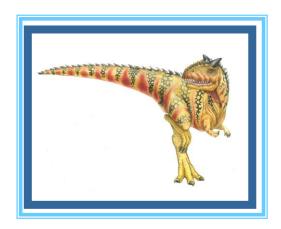
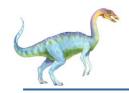
Processes Day3: Sep 2021

Kiran Waghmare





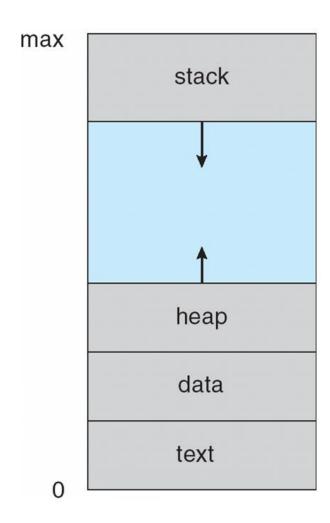
Agenda: Processes

- Preemptive and non preemptive
- Process mgmt
- □ Process life cycle
- Schedulers
- Scheduling algorithms
- ☐ Creation of fork, waitpid, exec system calls
- Orphan and zombie





Process in Memory







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
- A process includes:
 - program counter
 - stack
 - data section





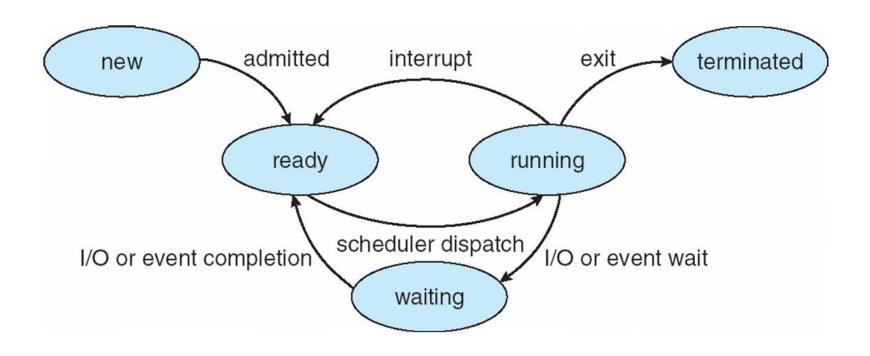
Process State

- 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





Diagram of Process State





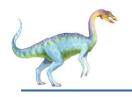


Process Control Block (PCB)

Information associated with each process

- Process state
- Program counter
- CPU registers
- CPU scheduling information
- Memory-management information
- Accounting information
- I/O status information





Process Control Block (PCB)

process state

process number

program counter

registers

memory limits

list of open files







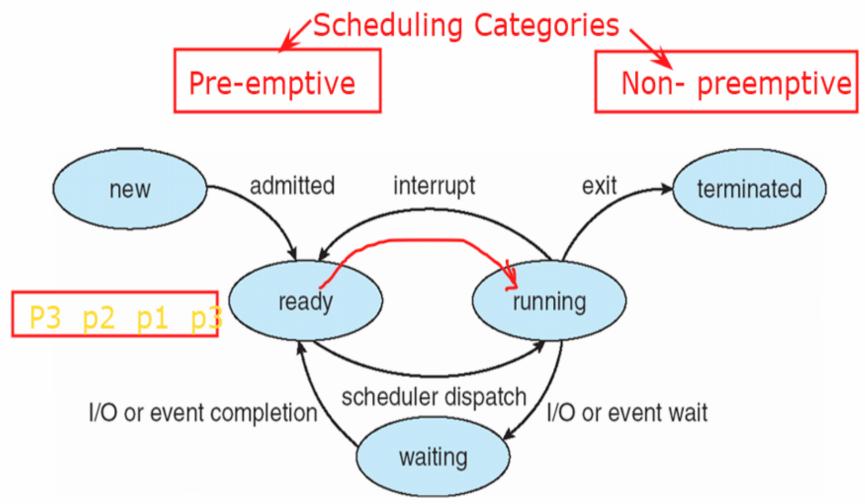
Process Scheduling

- ☐ When there are two or more runnable processes then it is decided by the Operating system which one to run first then it is referred to as Process Scheduling.
- A scheduler is used to make decisions by using some scheduling algorithm.
- ☐ Given below are the properties of a **Good Scheduling Algorithm**:
- Response time should be minimum for the users.
- The number of jobs processed per hour should be maximum i.e Good scheduling algorithm should give maximum throughput.
- The utilization of the CPU should be 100%.
- Each process should get a fair share of the CPU.



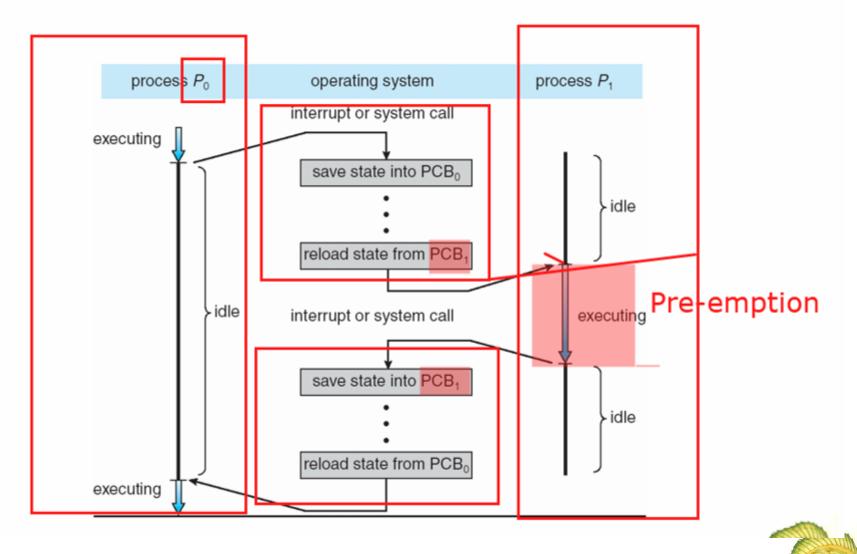


Diagram of Process State

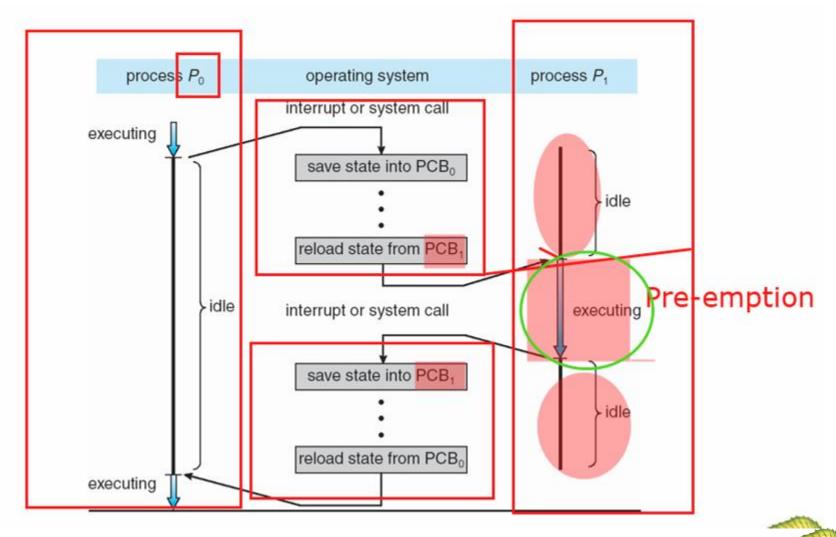














Process Scheduling Queues

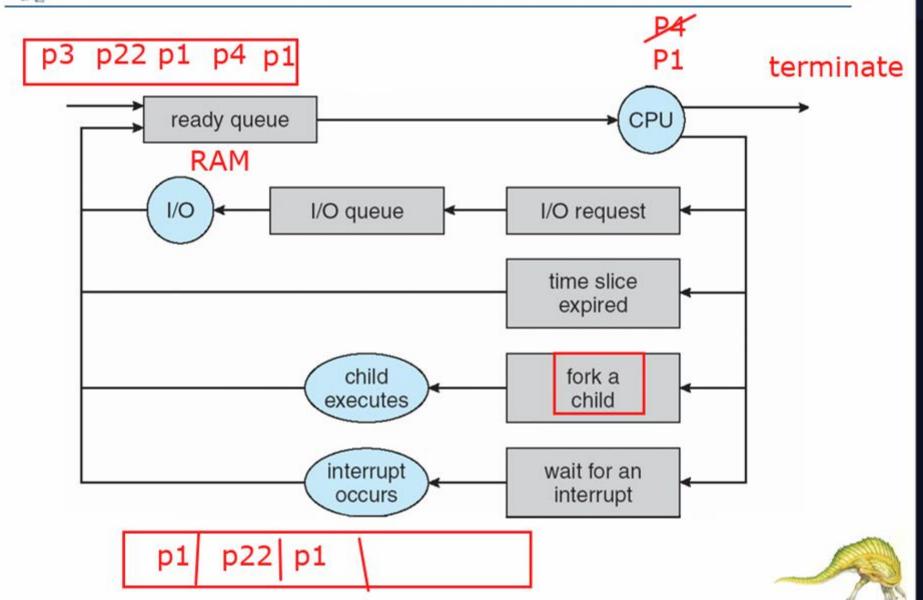
- □ Job queue set of all processes in the system
- Ready queue set of all processes residing in main memory, ready and waiting to execute

Device queues – set of processes waiting for an I/Q device

Processes migrate among the various queues

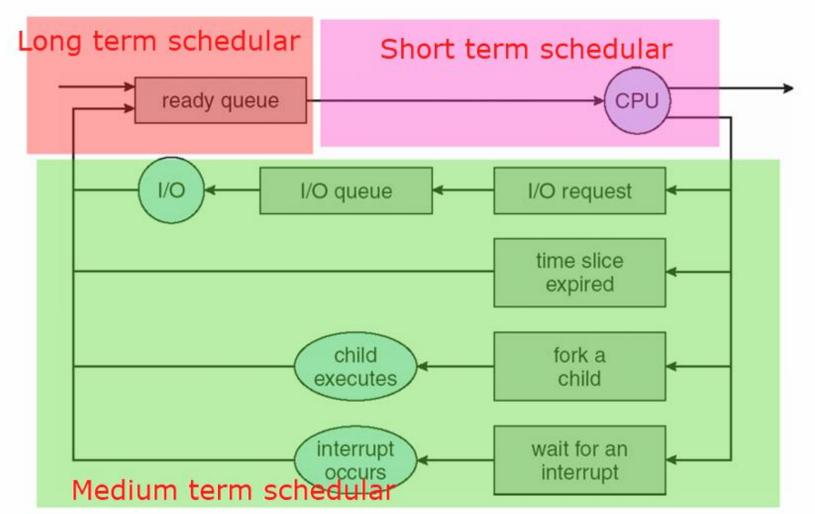


Representation of Process Scheduling





Representation of Process Scheduling







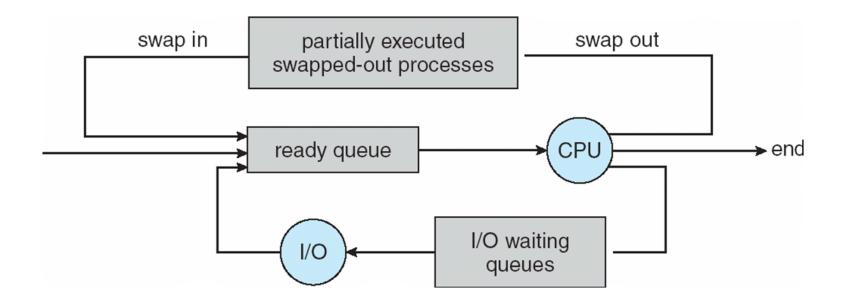
Types of Schedulers

- ☐ There are three types of schedulers available:
- Long Term Scheduler
- Short Term Scheduler
- Medium Term Scheduler





Addition of Medium Term Scheduling







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
- Time dependent on hardware support





```
#include<stdio.h>
void main(int argc, char *argv[])
   int pid;
  /* Fork another process */
  pid = fork();
   if(pid < 0)
     //Error occurred
     fprintf(stderr, "Fork Failed");
     exit(-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");
     exit(0);
```

GATE Numerical Tip: If fork is called for n times, the number of child processes or new processes created will be: 2^n - 1.





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
 - Parent and children share all resources
 - Children share subset of parent's resources
 - Parent and child share no resources
- Execution
 - Parent and children execute concurrently
 - Parent waits until children terminate





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





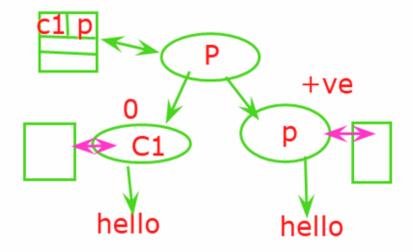
Process Operations

- -1. Process creation -fork,spawn
- -2. Process Termination

```
main()
{
fork();
printf("hello");
}
```

fork()

- -copy of parent, child
- -child: 0
- -Paarent: +ve







Process Operations

- -1. Process creation -fork,spawn
- -2. Process Termination

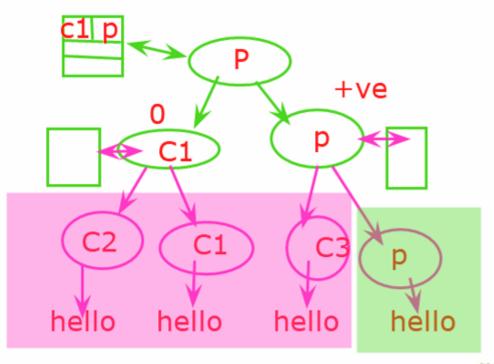
```
main()
{
  fork();
  fork();
  fork();
  printf("hello");
}
```

```
fork()
```

-copy of parent, child

-child: 0

-Paarent: +ve







Process Operations

- -1. Process creation -fork,spawn
- -2. Process Termination

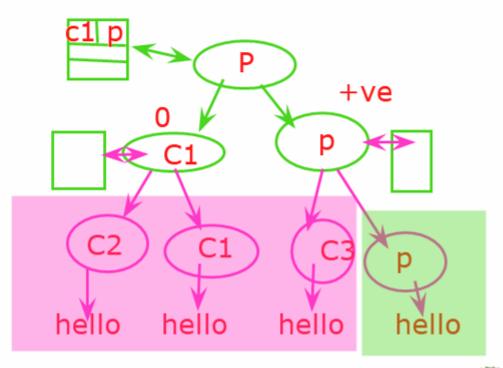
```
main()
{
fork();
fork();
fork();
printf("hello");
}
```

fork()

-copy of parent, child

-child: 0

-Paarent : +ve

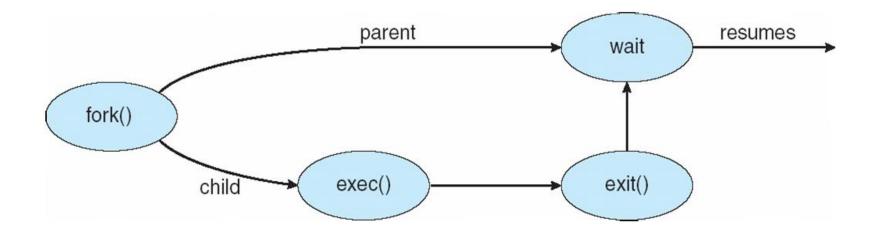


2^n-1





Process Creation







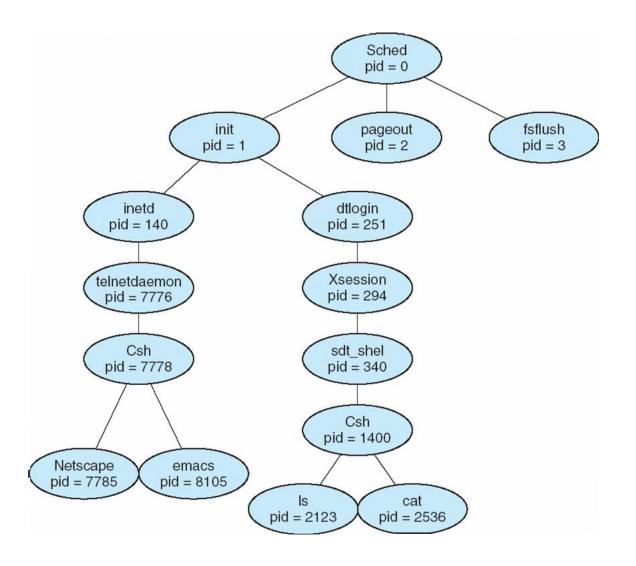
C Program Forking Separate Process

```
int main()
pid t pid;
   /* fork another process */
   pid = fork();
   if (pid < 0) { /* error occurred */
          fprintf(stderr, "Fork Failed");
          exit(-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");
          exit(0);
```





A tree of processes on a typical Solaris







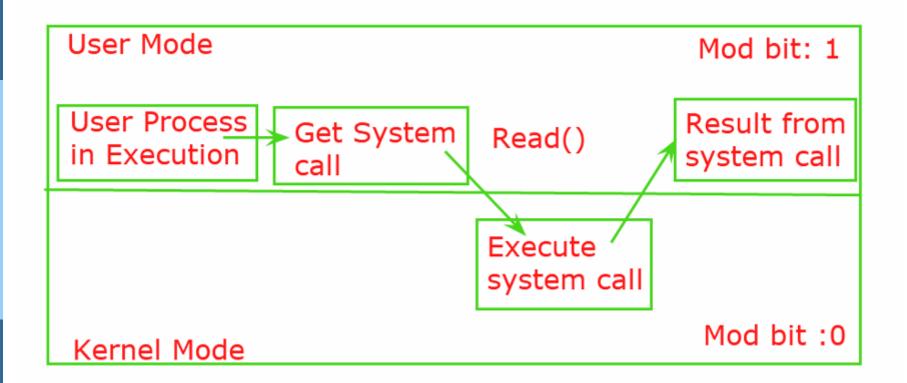
Process Termination

- Process executes last statement and asks the operating system to delete it (exit)
 - Output data from child to parent (via wait)
 - Process' resources are deallocated by operating system
- Parent may terminate execution of children processes (abort)
 - Child has exceeded allocated resources
 - Task assigned to child is no longer required
 - If parent is exiting
 - Some operating system do not allow child to continue if its parent terminates
 - All children terminated cascading termination





User Vs Kernel Mode







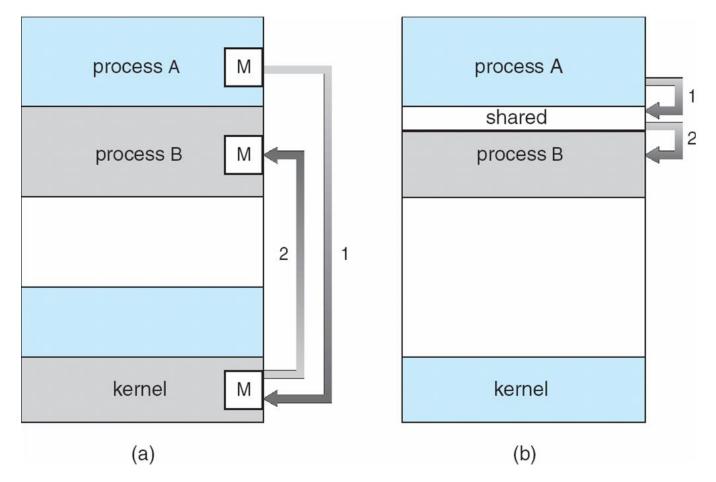
Interprocess Communication

- Processes within a system may be independent or cooperating
- Cooperating process can affect or be affected by other processes, including sharing data
- 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

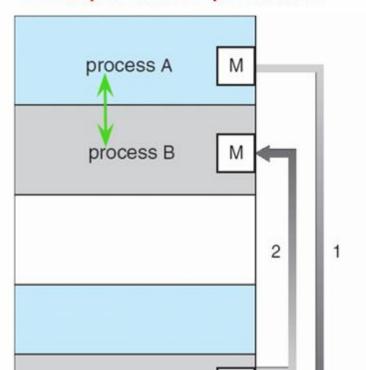






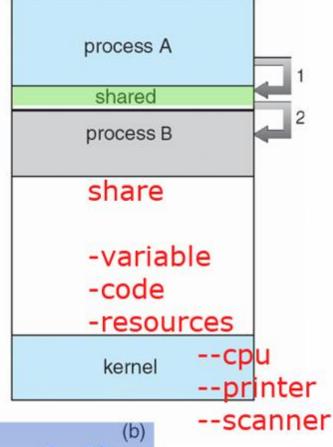
Communications Models

Independent process



M

Cooperative process



Process A

CDAC Mumbai: RITO CO S Saa B

kernel

Soln: Synchronization

Ask for same resource-->Racing cond



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





Producer-Consumer Problem

- □ Paradigm for cooperating processes, *producer* process produces information that is consumed by a *consumer* process
 - unbounded-buffer places no practical limit on the size of the buffer
 - bounded-buffer assumes that there is a fixed buffer size







Producer-Consumer Problem

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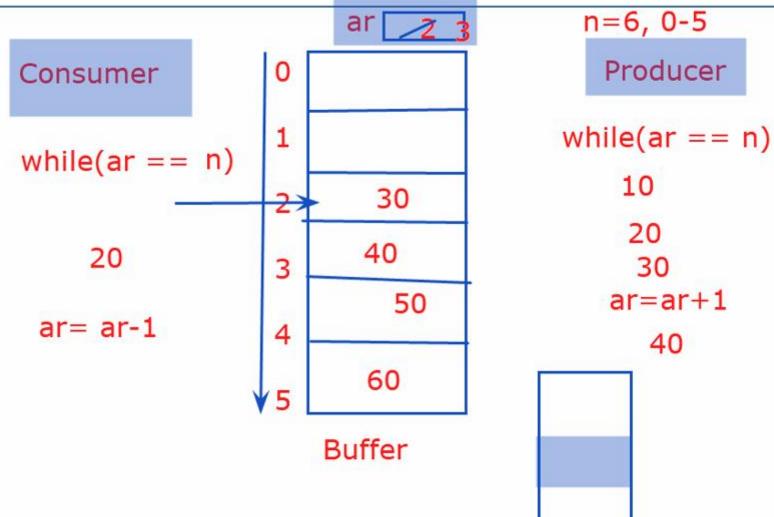
Buffer

Producer

$$while(ar == n)$$



Producer-Consumer Problem





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





Bounded-Buffer – Producer

```
while (true) {
    /* Produce an item */
    while (((in = (in + 1) % BUFFER SIZE count) == out)
    ;    /* do nothing -- no free buffers */
    buffer[in] = item;
    in = (in + 1) % BUFFER SIZE;
}
```





Bounded Buffer – Consumer

```
while (true) {
  while (in == out)
      ; // do nothing -- nothing to consume
  // remove an item from the buffer
  item = buffer[out];
  out = (out + 1) % BUFFER SIZE;
return item;
```





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
- IPC facility provides two operations:
 - send(message) message size fixed or variable
 - receive(message)
- ☐ If P and Q wish to communicate, they need to:
 - establish a communication link between them
 - exchange messages via send/receive
- Implementation of communication link
 - physical (e.g., shared memory, hardware bus)
 - logical (e.g., logical properties)





Synchronization

- Message passing may be either blocking or non-blocking
- Blocking is considered synchronous
 - Blocking send has the sender block until the message is received
 - Blocking receive has the receiver block until a message is available
- Non-blocking is considered asynchronous
 - Non-blocking send has the sender send the message and continue
 - Non-blocking receive has the receiver receive a valid message or null



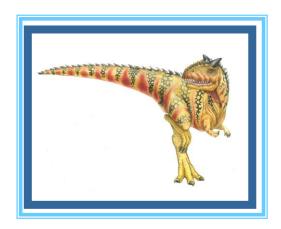


Buffering

- Queue of messages attached to the link; implemented in one of three ways
 - Zero capacity 0 messages
 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



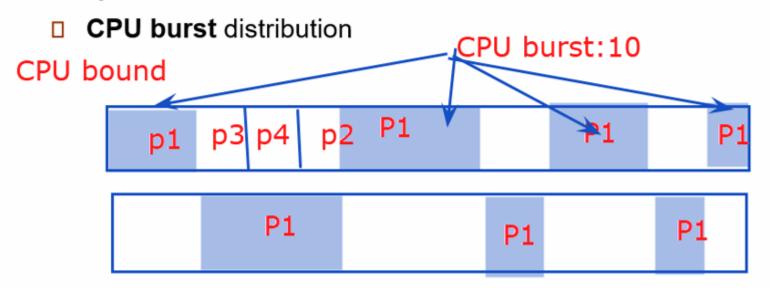
CPU Scheduling





Basic Concepts

- Maximum CPU utilization obtained with multiprogramming
- CPU-I/O Burst Cycle Process execution consists of a cycle of CPU execution and I/O wait

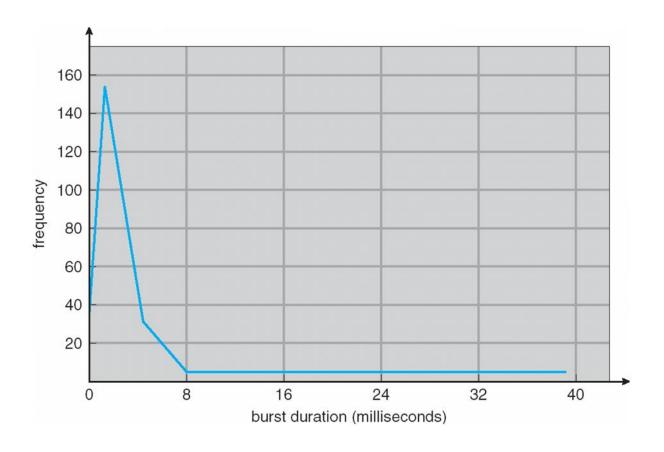


I/o bound





Histogram of CPU-burst Times

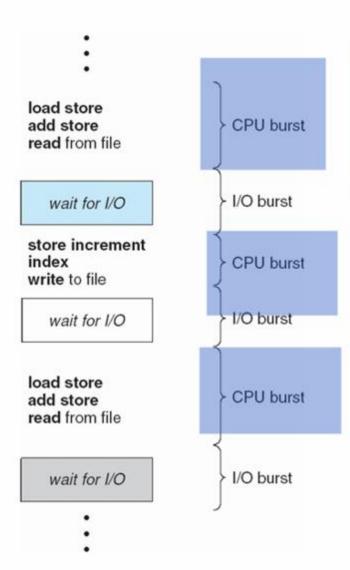








Alternating Sequence of CPU And I/O Bursts



- 1. Running -> waiting
- 2. Running -> Ready
- 3. waiting -> Ready

Scheduling





CPU Scheduler

- Selects from among the processes in memory that are ready to execute, and allocates the CPU to one of them
- CPU scheduling decisions may take place when a process:
 - 1. Switches from running to waiting state
 - 2. Switches from running to ready state
 - 3. Switches from waiting to ready
 - 4. Terminates
- Scheduling under 1 and 4 is nonpreemptive
- All other scheduling is preemptive





Dispatcher

- Dispatcher module gives control of the CPU to the process selected by the short-term scheduler; this involves:
 - switching context
 - switching to user mode
 - jumping to the proper location in the user program to restart that program
- Dispatch latency time it takes for the dispatcher to stop one process and start another running





Scheduling Criteria

- CPU utilization keep the CPU as busy as possible
- □ Throughput # of processes that complete their execution per time unit
- Turnaround time amount of time to execute a particular process
- Waiting time amount of time a process has been waiting in the ready queue
- Response time amount of time it takes from when a request was submitted until the first response is produced, not output (for time-sharing environment)



Scheduling Algorithm Optimization Criteria

- Max CPU utilization
- Max throughput
- Min turnaround time
- Min waiting time
- Min response time

```
Arrival Time:

Burst Time:

Completion Time:

Turn around Time: {Completion time -arrival time}

Waiting Time: {Turn around - burst time}

Response time: {Process with 1st cpu allotment -arrival time}
```



Scheduling Algorithm

Pre-emptive

SRTF

LRTF

Round Robin

Priority based

Non- pre-emptive

FCFS

SJF

LJF

HRRN

Multilevel Queue

Priority





Process	Burst Time	comp.T	TAT	WT	Resp T
	24	24	24	0	0
P		27	27	24	24
P _o	2	30	30	27	27

Sequence: P1-P2-P3

P1		P2	P3	
0	24	2	7	_ 30

AWT: (0+24+27)/3=17

ATAT: 27

Res T: 17





Process	Burst Time
P_1	24
P_2	3
P_3	3

comp.T	TAT	WT	Resp T
24	24	0	0
27	27	24	24
30	30	27	27

Sequence: P2-P3-P1 Arrival time: 0



AWT: (0+24+27)/3=17

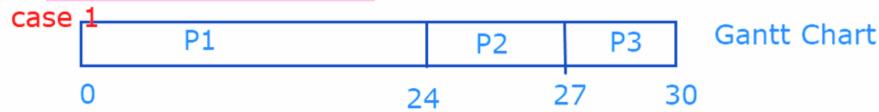
ATAT : 27 Res T : 17





Process	Burst Time	comp.T	TAT WT_	Resp T
P ₁	24	24 30	24 300 6	0 6
P_2	3	27 3	27 3 24 0	24 0
P_3	3	30 6	30 6 27	27 ₃

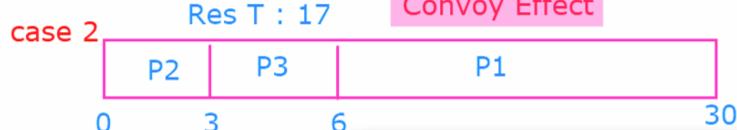




AWT: (0+24+27)/3=17

ATAT : 27

Convoy Effect

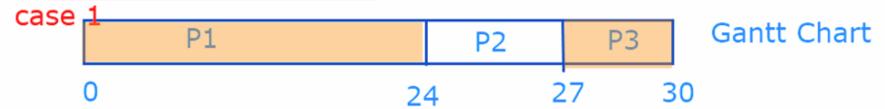






Process	Burst Time	comp.T	TAT WT	Resp T
P_1	24	24 30	24 300	6 0 6
P_2	3	27 3	27 3 24	0 24 0
P_3	3	30 6	30 6 27	3 27 3

Sequence: P2-P3-P1 Arrival time: 0



AWT: (0+24+27)/3=17

ATAT: 27

Res T: 17

Convoy Effect

AWT: (6+0+3)/3=3

case 2

P2

P3

P1

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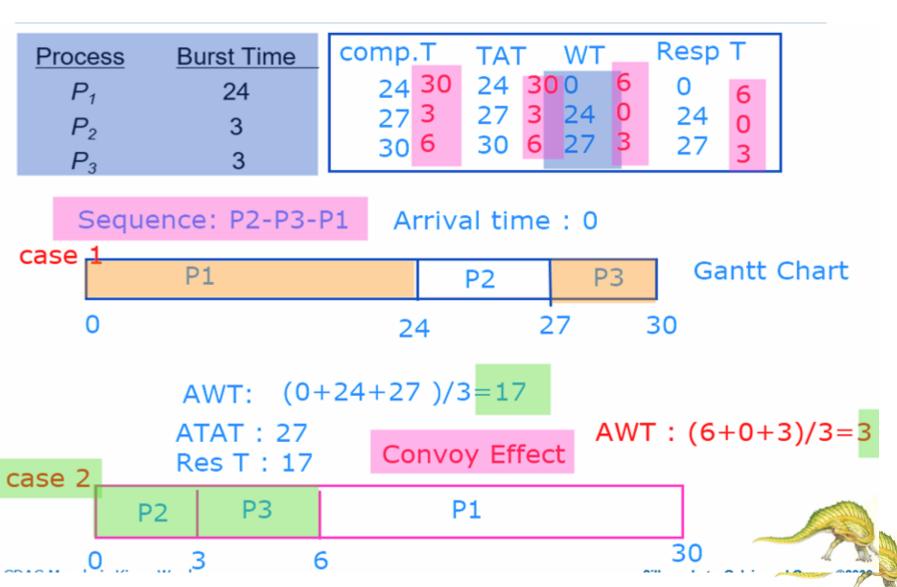
Shortest-Job-First (SJF) Scheduling

- Associate with each process the length of its next CPU burst. Use these lengths to schedule the process with the shortest time
- SJF is optimal gives minimum average waiting time for a given set of processes
 - The difficulty is knowing the length of the next CPU request





Case 2





Example of SJF

Process	Arrival Time	Burst Time
P_1	0.0	6
P_2	2.0	8
P_3	4.0	7
P_4	5.0	3





Priority Scheduling

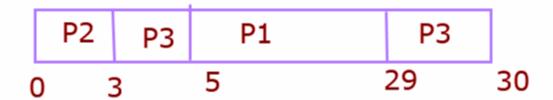
- A priority number (integer) is associated with each process
- □ The CPU is allocated to the process with the highest priority (smallest integer = highest priority)
 - Preemptive
 - nonpreemptive
- SJF is a priority scheduling where priority is the predicted next CPU burst time
- □ Problem = Starvation low priority processes may never execute
- Solution ≡ Aging as time progresses increase the priority of the process





Priority Scheduling

Process		Burst Time
1 P ₁	5	24
2 P ₂	0	3
3 P_{3}	1	3







Round Robin (RR)

- Each process gets a small unit of CPU time (time quantum), usually 10-100 milliseconds. After this time has elapsed, the process is preempted and added to the end of the ready queue.
- □ If there are n processes in the ready queue and the time quantum is q, then each process gets 1/n of the CPU time in chunks of at most q time units at once. No process waits more than (n-1)q time units.
- Performance
 - $q \text{ large} \Rightarrow \text{FIFO}$
 - $\Box q \text{ small} \Rightarrow q \text{ must be large with respect to context switch, otherwise overhead is too high}$

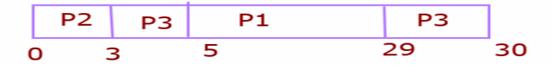


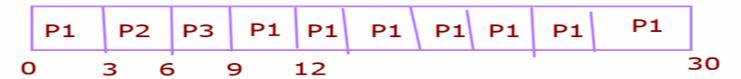


Example of RR with Time Quantum = 4

<u>Process</u>	Burst Time
P_1	24
P_2	3
P_3	3



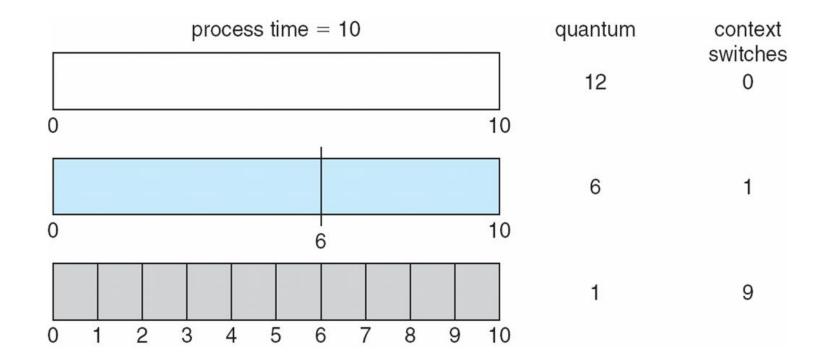








Time Quantum and Context Switch Time







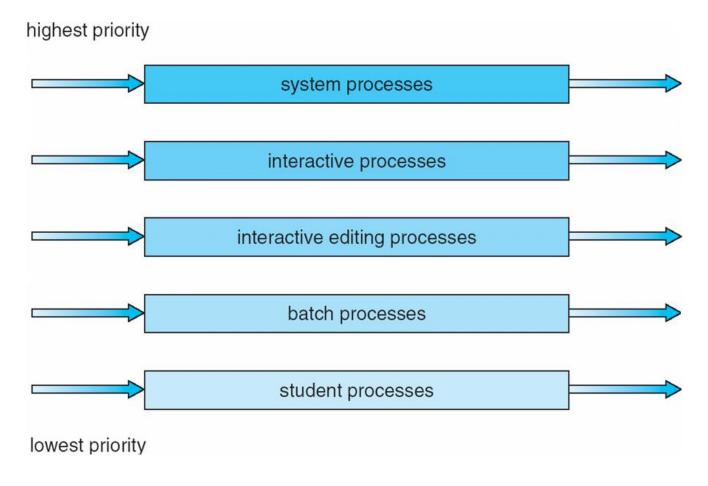
Multilevel Queue

- Ready queue is partitioned into separate queues: foreground (interactive) background (batch)
- Each queue has its own scheduling algorithm
 - ☐ foreground RR
 - background FCFS
- Scheduling must be done between the queues
 - Fixed priority scheduling; (i.e., serve all from foreground then from background). Possibility of starvation.
 - □ Time slice each queue gets a certain amount of CPU time which it can schedule amongst its processes; i.e., 80% to foreground in RR
 - 20% to background in FCFS





Multilevel Queue Scheduling







Multilevel Feedback Queue

- A process can move between the various queues; aging can be implemented this way
- Multilevel-feedback-queue scheduler defined by the following parameters:
 - number of queues
 - scheduling algorithms for each queue
 - method used to determine when to upgrade a process
 - method used to determine when to demote a process
 - method used to determine which queue a process will enter when that process needs service





Example of Multilevel Feedback Queue

- Three queues:
 - \square $Q_0 RR$ with time quantum 8 milliseconds
 - Q_1 RR time quantum 16 milliseconds
 - $Q_2 FCFS$
- Scheduling
 - □ A new job enters queue Q_0 which is served FCFS. When it gains CPU, job receives 8 milliseconds. If it does not finish in 8 milliseconds, job is moved to queue Q_1 .
 - At Q₁ job is again served FCFS and receives 16 additional milliseconds. If it still does not complete, it is preempted and moved to queue Q₂.





Multilevel Feedback Queues

