# Systems and Networking – Unit I

B.Sc. in Applied Computer Science and Artificial Intelligence 2022-2023

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# OS Process Management So Far...

- How the OS abstracts processes from physical memory
  - Virtual Address Space (VAS)
- In which state a process can be while it is managed by the OS
- What data structure the OS uses to keep track of each process info
  - Process Control Block (PCB)

### Outline

- Process creation
- Process termination
- Process scheduling
- Process communication

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### Process Creation

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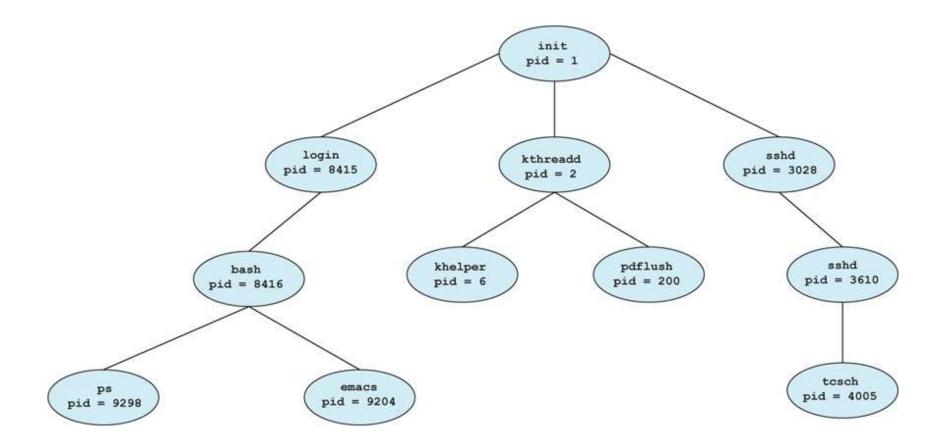
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- Each process is given an integer identifier (a.k.a. process identifier or PID)
- The parent PID (PPID) is also stored for each process

### Process Creation: UNIX/Linux

- On typical UNIX systems the process scheduler is named sched, and is given PID 0
- The first thing it does at system startup time is to launch init, which gives that process PID I
- init then launches all system daemons and user logins, and becomes the ultimate parent of all other processes
- Processes are created through the fork() system call

### Process Creation: UNIX/Linux



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    - This is the behavior of the **fork** system call in UNIX
  - The child process may have a **new program** loaded into its address space, with all new code and data segments
    - This is the behavior of the **spawn** system calls in Windows
    - UNIX systems implement this as a second step, using the **exec** system call

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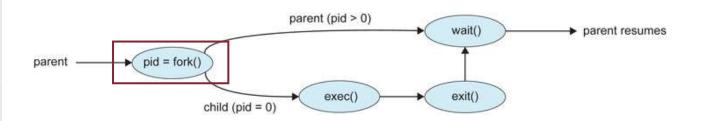
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- 2 options for the parent process after creating the child:
  - Wait for the child process to terminate before proceeding by issuing a wait system call, for either a specific child or for any child (usual behavior of UNIX shell)
  - Run concurrently with the child, continuing to process without being blocked (when a UNIX shell runs a process as a background task using "&")

### Process Creation: UNIX/Linux Code

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#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");
     exit(-1);
   else if (pid == 0) {/* child process *
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   else {/* parent process */
   /* parent will wait for the child to complete *
     wait(NULL);
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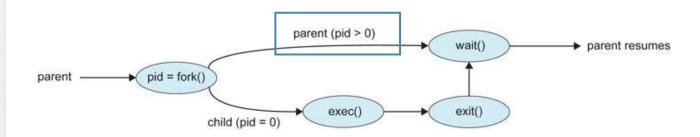
Figure 3.10 C program forking a separate process.



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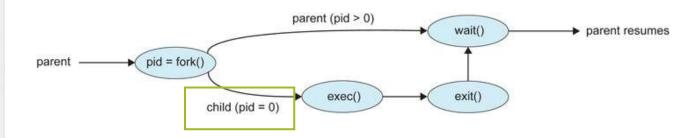


In the parent process, **fork()** returns the PID of the child

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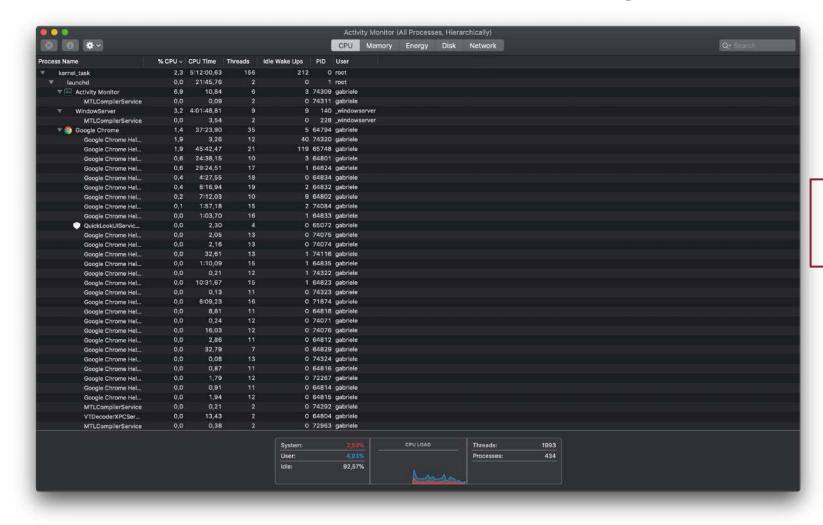
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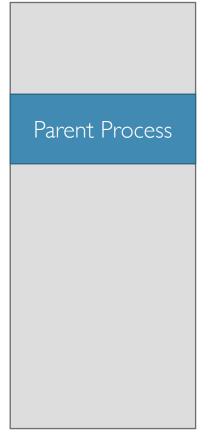


In the child process, it returns 0

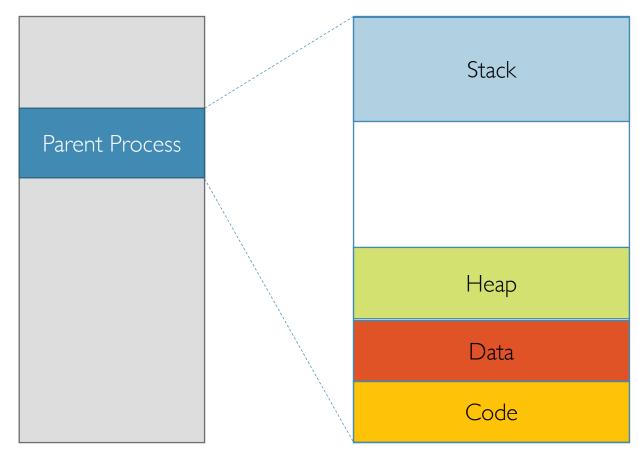
# Process Creation: Activity Monitor



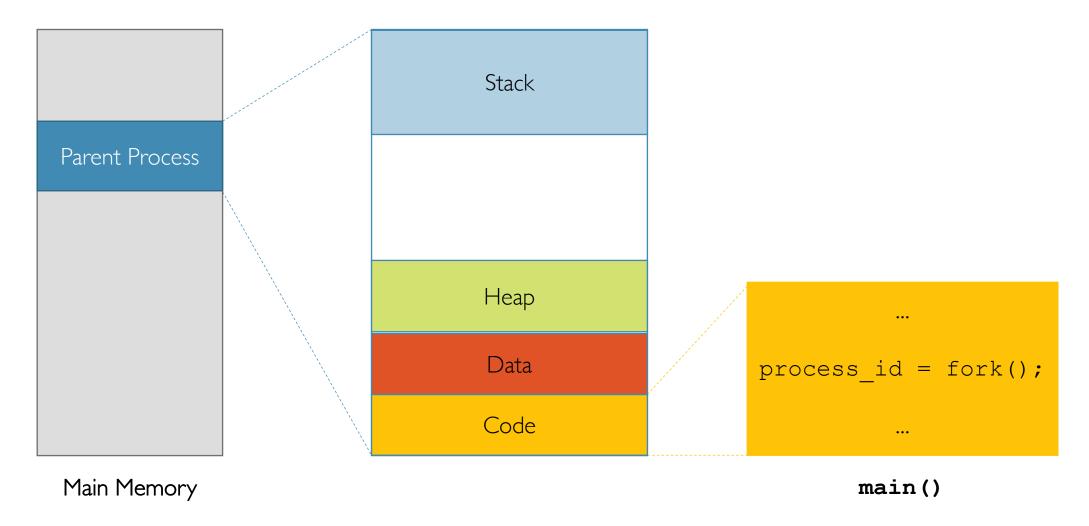
Hierarchy of Processes (i.e., process tree)



Main Memory



Main Memory



Parent Process Child Process

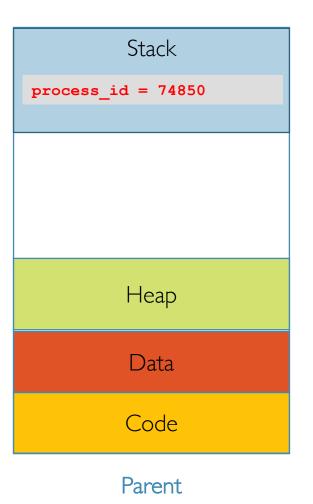
Main Memory

Stack process id = 74850Heap Data Code Parent

Stack process\_id = 0 Heap Data Code Child

Parent Process Child Process

Main Memory



Heap Data

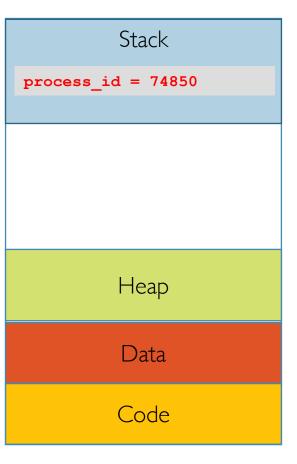
Code Child PID = 74850

Stack

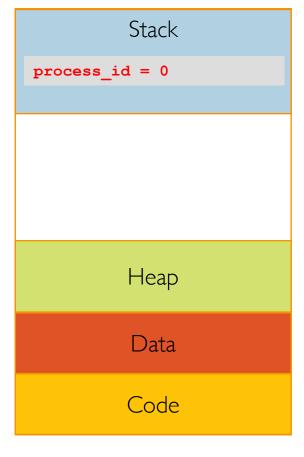
process\_id = 0

Parent Process Child Process

Main Memory



Parent
PID = 74849

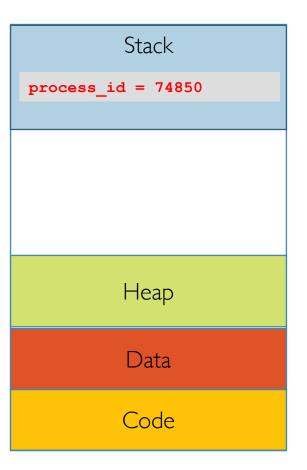


Child
PID = 74850

parentID = 74849

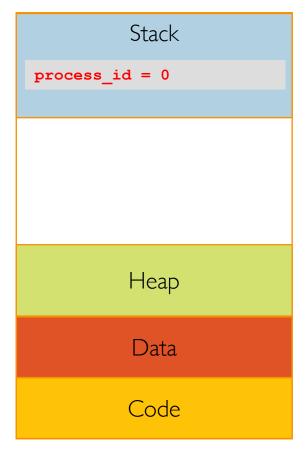
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Parent
PID = 74849

parentID = 65784



Child PID = 74850parentID = 74849

## Process Creation: Code Example

```
#include <iostream>
#include <unistd.h>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    cout << "Current process ID is: " << getpid() << endl;</pre>
    cout << "\nCurrent parent's process ID is: " << getppid() << endl;</pre>
    int pid;
    pid = fork();
    // both the parent and the child processes will resume from this point onward
    if (pid == 0) { // child
        cout << "\nThis is the child process with process ID = "</pre>
             << getpid() << endl;
        cout << "\nThis is the child process with parent's process ID = "</pre>
             << getppid() << endl;
    else { // parent
        sleep(1); // to ensure the child process finishes before the parent
        cout << "\nThis is the parent process with process ID = "</pre>
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    return 0;
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```

What happens if the child sleeps rather than the parent?

### Process Creation: What's Next?

- So far, we have seen how **fork** system call is able to make a complete copy of an existing process
- However, this ability alone is not that useful, right?
- Our ultimate goal is to create new yet different processes, not just copies of a single one!

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  - the former creates a new process, whilst the latter execute the new process
  - e.g., try typing **emacs** on your shell
- NOTE: adding "&" at the end of the command will run the child process in parallel with the parent shell (background)

# Process Creation and Execution: Example

```
#include <iostream>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <sys/wait.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    int current_pid = getpid();
    cout << "Current process ID is: " << current_pid << endl;</pre>
    string progStr;
    // read the name of the program we want to start
    getline(cin, progStr);
    const char *prog = progStr.c_str();
    int pid = fork();
    if (pid == 0) { // child
        execlp(prog, prog, 0); // load the program
        // if prog can actually be started, we will never get to the
        // following statement, as the child process will be replaced by prog!
        printf("Can't load the program %s\n", prog);
    else { // parent
        sleep(1); // give some time to the child process to starting up
        waitpid(pid, 0, 0); // wait for child process to terminate
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**execlp** loads the program whose name is read from **stdin** 

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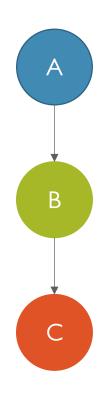
waitpid allows the parent to wait for a child process to finish

```
pid_t waitpid(pid_t pid, int *status, int options);
```

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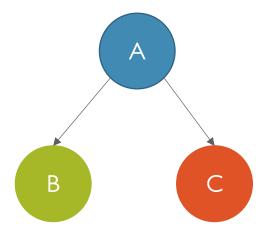
```
int pid = fork();
if (pid == 0) { // A's child (B)
   pid = fork();
    if(pid == 0) { // B's child (C)
        execlp(...);
    else { // B
else { // A
```

More generally, we will need *n-1* fork and if-else

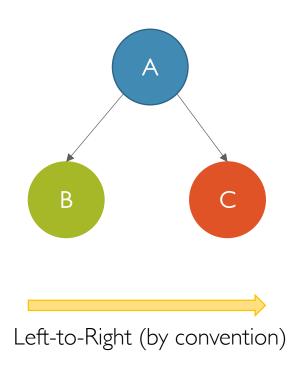
if we want to create a sequence of *n* processes



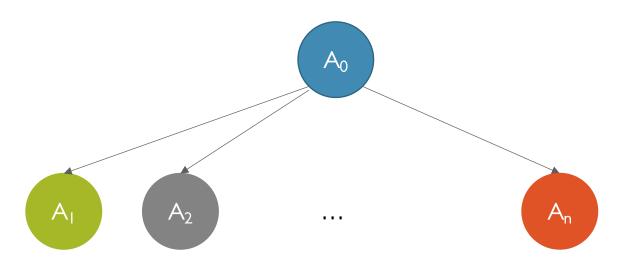
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More generally, if we want to create **n** child processes all having the same parent



```
for(int i=0;i<n;i++) {
    if(fork() == 0) { // A0's child
        ...
        execlp(...);
    }
    // else we are in the parent: keep forking
}
// back in the parent A0

// wait for all children to terminate
for(int i=0;i<n;i++) {
    wait(NULL);
}</pre>
```

#### Process Creation and Execution: Be Careful!

What will happen if we do the following?

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Infinite number of child processes growing with an exponential rate

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- wait/waitpid -> wait for any/a specific process to finish execution

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- Processes may request their own termination by making the exit system call, typically returning an int
- This int is passed along to the parent if it is doing a wait
- It is usually 0 on successful completion and some non-zero in the event of problems

- Processes may also be terminated by the system for a variety of reasons:
  - The inability of the system to deliver necessary system resources
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  - The inability of the system to deliver necessary system resources
  - In response to a kill command, or other un handled process interrupt
- A parent may kill its children if the task assigned to them is no longer needed
- If the parent exits, the system may or may not allow the child to continue without a parent
  - On UNIX systems, **orphaned** processes are generally inherited by **init**, which then proceeds to kill them

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- The process termination status and execution times are returned to the parent if this is waiting for the child to terminate
  - Or eventually to **init** if the process becomes an **orphan**
- Processes which are trying to terminate but cannot because their parent is not waiting for them are called **zombies** 
  - Eventually inherited by init as orphans and killed

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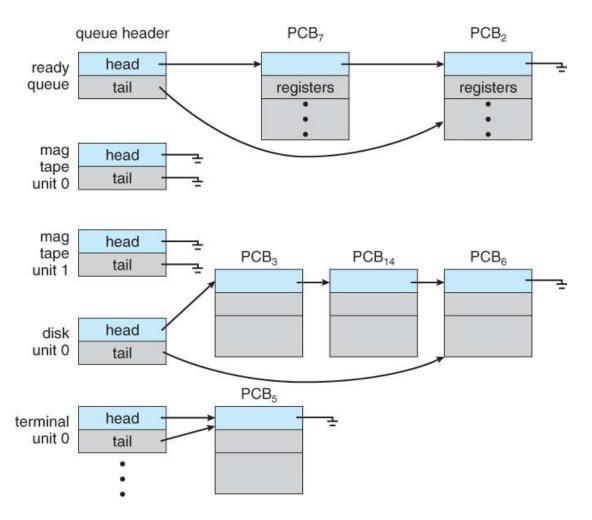
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- Note that these objectives can be conflicting!
  - Every time the OS steps in to swap processes it takes up time on the CPU to do so, which is thereby "lost" from doing any useful productive work

### Process State Queues

- The OS mantains the PCBs of all the processes in state queues
- There is one queue for each of the 5 states a process can be in
- There is typically one queue for each I/O device (where processes wait for a device to become available or to deliver data)
- When the OS change the status of a process (e.g., from ready to running) the PCB is unlinked from the current queue and moved to the new one
- The OS may use different policies to manage each state queue

### Process State Queues: Example



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  - The Running Queue is bound by the number of cores available on the system
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- What about the other queues?
  - They are basically unbounded as there is no theoretical limit on the number processes in new/ready/waiting/terminated states

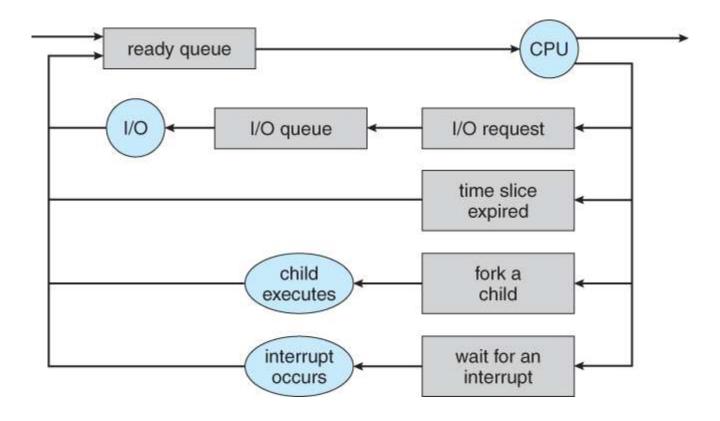
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- An efficient scheduling system will select a good mix of CPU-bound processes and I/O bound processes

# Schedulers: Queuing Diagram



### Context Switch: What?

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  - starting a ready process consists of loading all of its internal state (PC, SP, other registers, etc.) from its PCB

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#### Context Switch: When?

- A context switch occurs due to any incoming trap
  - system calls, exceptions, or HW interrupts
- Whenever a trap arrives, the CPU must:
  - perform a state-save of the currently running process
  - switch into kernel mode to handle the interrupt
  - perform a state-restore of the interrupted process

#### Context Switch: Fairness

- I/O-bound processes eventually get switched due to I/O requests
- CPU-bound processes, instead, could theoretically never issue any I/O requests
- To avoid CPU-bound processes hog the CPU, context switch is also triggered via HW timer interrupts (time quantum or slice)

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  - in practice, it can happen more frequently than that (e.g., due to I/O requests)
- Can be easily implemented in HW through timer interrupt
- Mechanism used by modern time-sharing multi-tasking OSs to increase system responsiveness (pseudo-parallelism)

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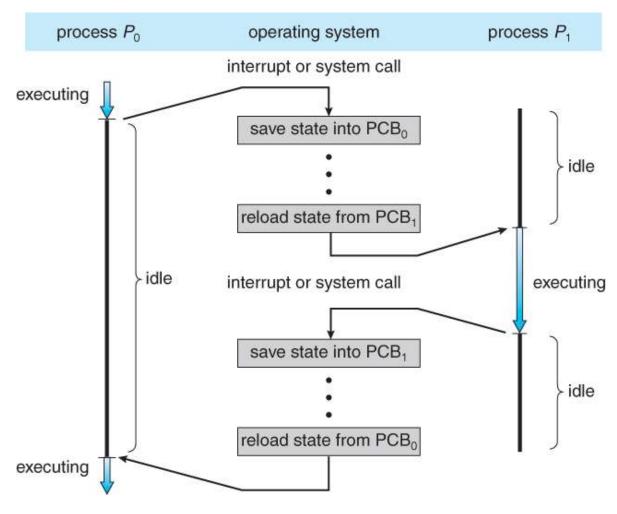
Trade-off

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• Typical values of time slice are between 10 and 100 ms, and context switch takes around 10  $\mu$ s, so the overhead is small relative to time slice

Trade-off

## Context Switch: Example



### Outline

- Process creation
- Process termination
- Process scheduling
- Process communication

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- Independent processes → operate concurrently on a system and can neither affect or be affected by other processes
- Cooperating processes  $\rightarrow$  can affect or be affected by other processes in order to achieve a common task

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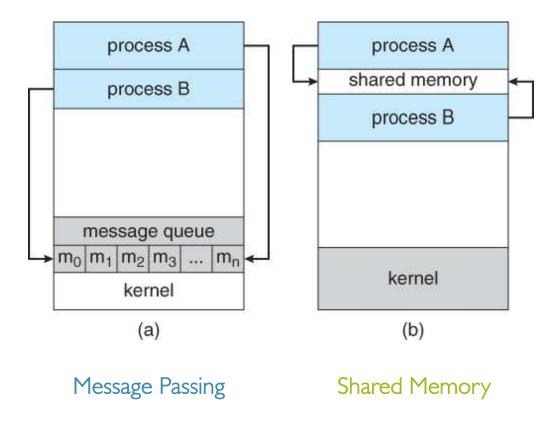
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- Modularity → The most efficient architecture may be to break a system down into cooperating modules
- Convenience → Even a single user may be multi-tasking, such as editing, compiling, printing, and running the same code in different windows

## Cooperating Processes: Communication

• 2 possible ways for cooperating processes to communicate:



## Shared Memory vs. Message Passing

#### Shared Memory

- Faster once it is set up, as no system calls are needed
- More complicated to set up, and doesn't work as well across multiple computers
- Preferable when (large amount of) information must be shared on the same computer

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#### Message Passing

- Slower as it requires system calls for every message transfer
- Simpler to set up and works well across multiple computers
- Preferable when the amount and/or frequency of data transfers is small, or when multiple computers are involved

## Shared Memory Systems

- The memory to be shared is initially within the address space of a particular process
- This needs to make system calls in order to make that memory publicly available to other processes
- Other processes must make their own system calls to attach the shared memory onto their address space

## Message Passing Systems

- Must support at least system calls for sending and receiving messages
- A communication link must be established between the cooperating processes before messages can be sent
- 3 key issues to be solved:
  - direct or indirect communication (i.e., naming)
  - synchronous or asynchronous communication
  - automatic or explicit buffering

## Message Passing Systems: Naming

- Direct communication → the sender must know the name of the receiver to which it wishes to send a message
  - one-to-one link between every sender-receiver pair
  - for symmetric communication, the receiver must also know the name of the sender

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- Direct communication → the sender must know the name of the receiver to which it wishes to send a message
  - one-to-one link between every sender-receiver pair
  - for symmetric communication, the receiver must also know the name of the sender
- Indirect communication  $\rightarrow$  uses shared mailboxes or ports
  - multiple processes can share the same mailbox or port
  - only one process can read any given message in a mailbox
  - the OS must provide system calls to create and delete mailboxes, and to send and receive messages to/from mailboxes

# Message Passing Systems: Buffering and Synchronization

Zero capacity 

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- Bounded capacity There is a pre-determined finite capacity in the queue, so senders must block if the queue is full, otherwise may be either blocking or non-blocking
- Unbounded capacity The queue has a theoretical infinite capacity, so senders are never forced to block

## Summary

- Process are created programmatically via system calls (e.g., fork/exec)
- Scheduling policies to maximize CPU utilization for process execution
- Context switch to intertwine the execution of multiple processes
- Process communication either via message passing or shared memory