Chapter 4: Processes

- Process Concept
- Process Scheduling
- Operations on Processes
- Cooperating Processes
- Interprocess Communication
- Communication in Client-Server Systems

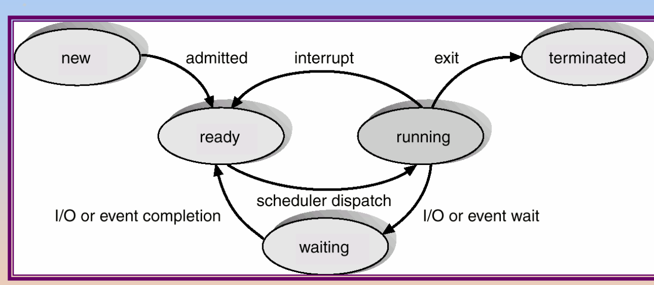
Process Concept

- 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.
- 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 process.
  - **terminated**: The process has finished execution.

Diagram of Process State



Process Control Block (PCB)

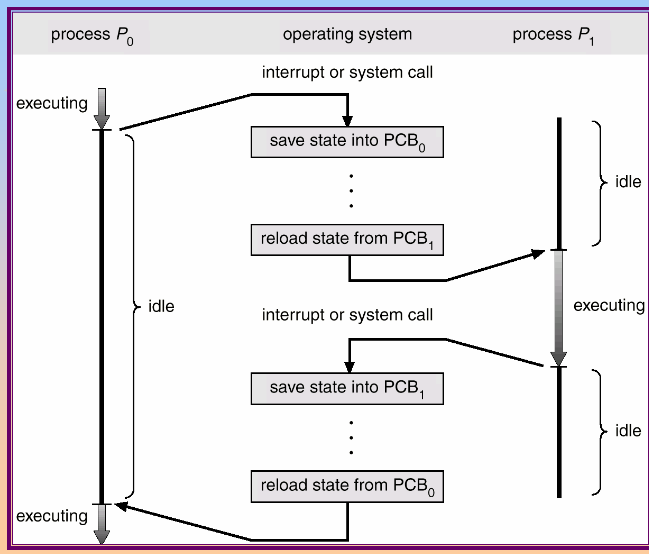
Information associated with each process.

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

Process Control Block (PCB)

pointer	process state
process number	
program counter	
registers	
memory limits	
list of open files	
⋮	

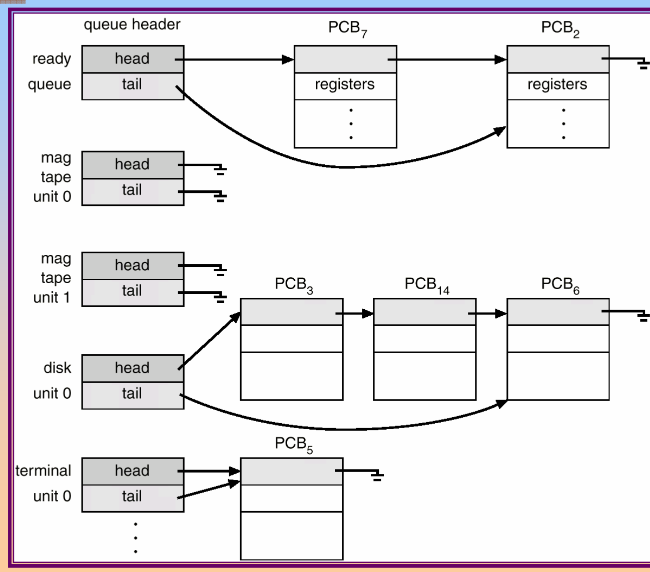
CPU Switch From Process to Process



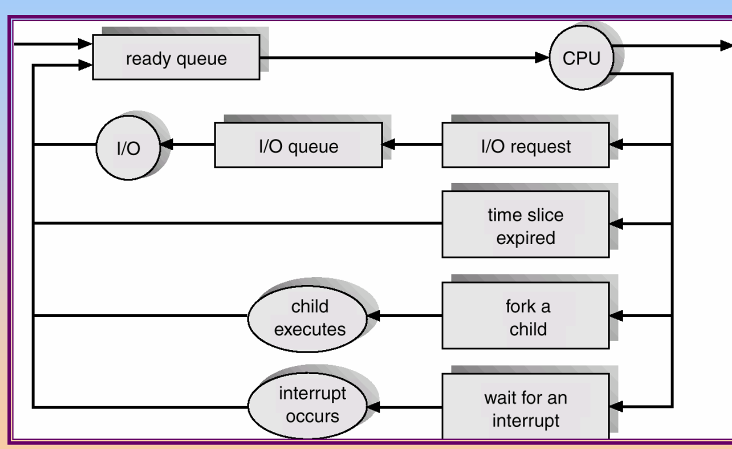
Process Scheduling Queues

- 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/O device.
- Process migration between the various queues.

Ready Queue And Various I/O Device Queues



Representation of Process Scheduling



Schedulers

- Long-term scheduler (or job scheduler) – selects which processes should be brought into the ready queue.
- Short-term scheduler (or CPU scheduler) – selects which process should be executed next and allocates CPU.

Schedulers (Cont.)

- Short-term scheduler is invoked very frequently (milliseconds) ⇒ (must be fast).
- Long-term scheduler is invoked very 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.

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.
- Context-switch time is overhead; the system does no useful work while switching.
- Time dependent on hardware support.

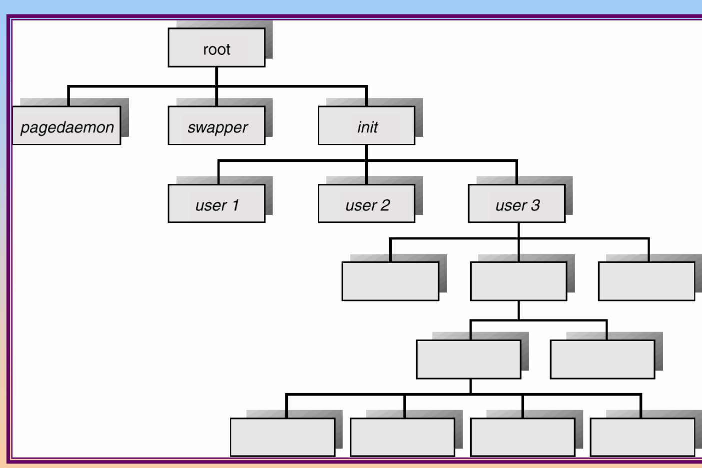
Process Creation

- Parent process create children processes, which, in turn create other processes, forming a tree of processes.
- 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.

Processes Tree on a UNIX System



Process Termination

- Process executes last statement and asks the operating system to decide 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.
  - Parent is exiting.
    - Operating system does not allow child to continue if its parent terminates.
    - Cascading termination.

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

Interprocess Communication (IPC)

- 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**
- **Non-blocking** is considered **asynchronous**
- **send** and **receive** primitives may be either blocking or non-blocking.

Buffering

- Queue of messages attached to the link; implemented in one of three ways.
  1. 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.

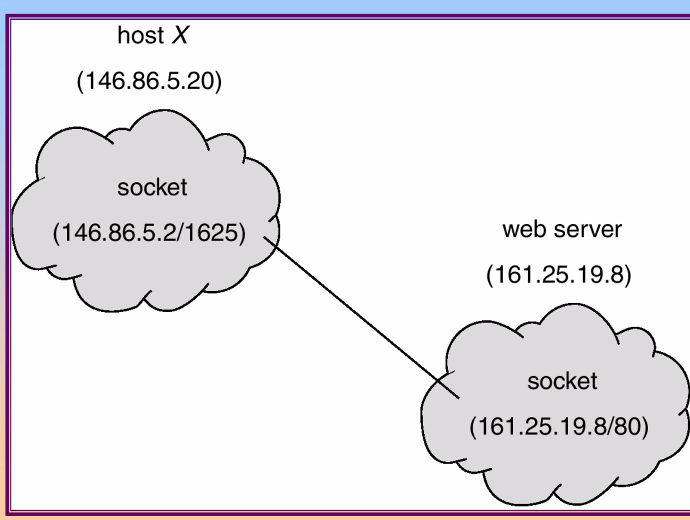
Client-Server Communication

- Sockets
- Remote Procedure Calls
- Remote Method Invocation (Java)

Sockets

- A socket is defined as an *endpoint for communication*.
- Concatenation of IP address and port
- The socket **161.25.19.8:1625** refers to port **1625** on host **161.25.19.8**
- Communication consists between a pair of sockets.

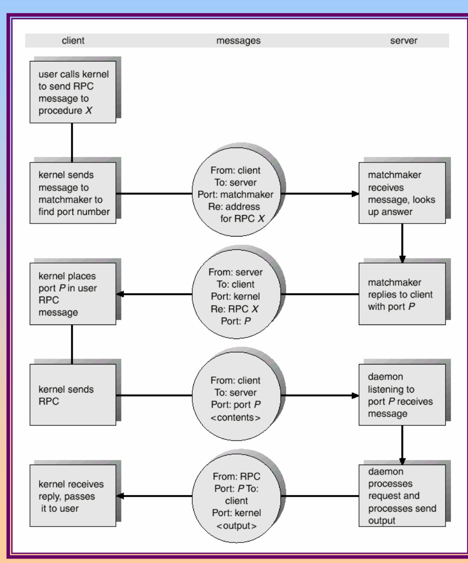
Socket Communication



Remote Procedure Calls

- Remote procedure call (RPC) abstracts procedure calls between processes on networked systems.
- **Stubs** – client-side proxy for the actual procedure on the server.
- The client-side stub locates the server and *marshalls* the parameters.
- The server-side stub receives this message, unpacks the marshalled parameters, and peforms the procedure on the server.

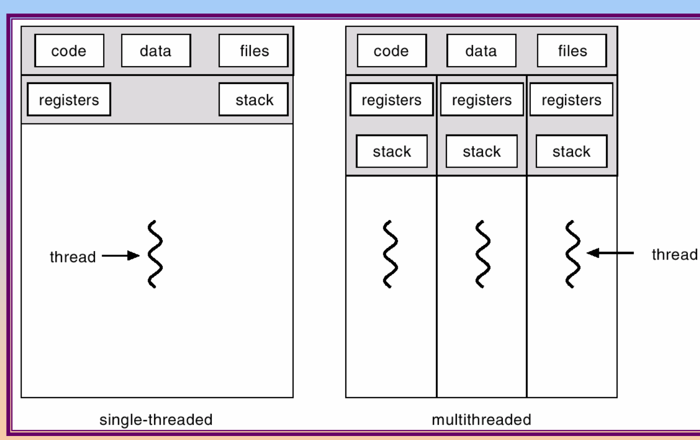
Execution of RPC



Chapter 5: Threads

- Overview
- Multithreading Models
- Threading Issues
- Pthreads
- Solaris 2 Threads
- Windows 2000 Threads
- Linux Threads
- Java Threads

Single and Multithreaded Processes



Benefits

- Responsiveness
- Resource Sharing
- Economy
- Utilization of MP Architectures

User Threads

- Thread management done by user-level threads library
- Examples
  - POSIX *Pthreads*
  - Mach *C-threads*
  - Solaris *threads*

Kernel Threads

- Supported by the Kernel
- Examples
  - Windows 95/98/NT/2000
  - Solaris
  - Tru64 UNIX
  - BeOS
  - Linux

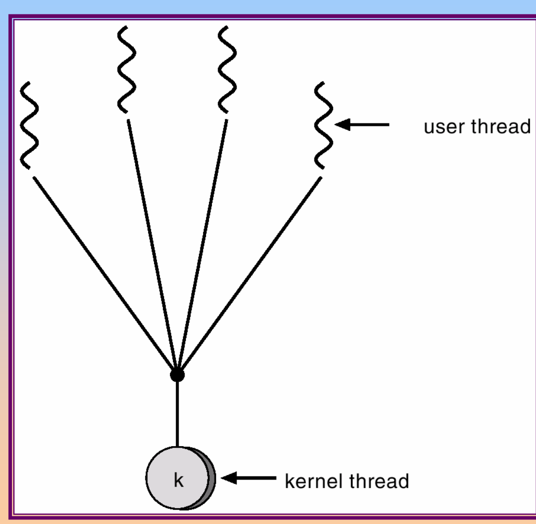
Multithreading Models

- Many-to-One
- One-to-One
- Many-to-Many

Many-to-One

- Many user-level threads mapped to single kernel thread.
- Used on systems that do not support kernel threads.

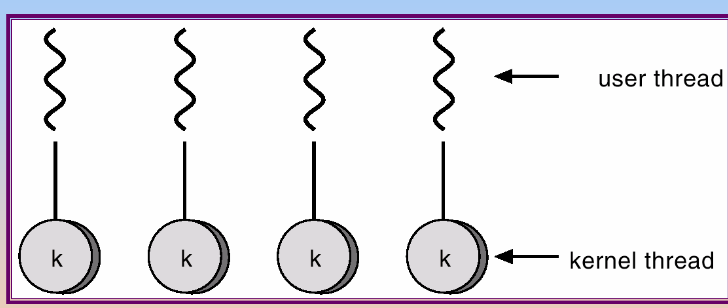
Many-to-One Model



One-to-One

- Each user-level thread maps to kernel thread.
- Examples
  - Windows 95/98/NT/2000
  - OS/2

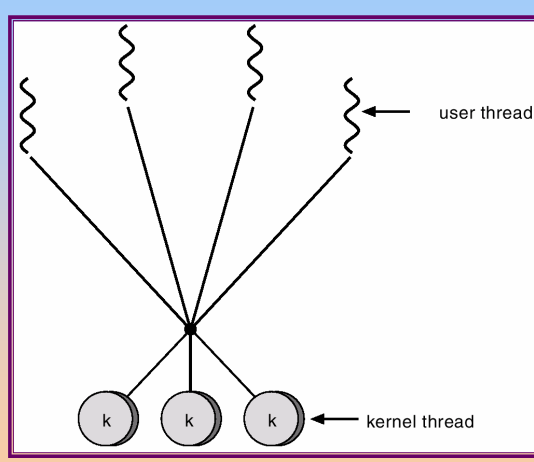
One-to-one Model



Many-to-Many Model

- Allows many user level threads to be mapped to many kernel threads.
- Allows the operating system to create a sufficient number of kernel threads.
- Solaris 2
- Windows NT/2000 with the *ThreadFiber* package

Many-to-Many Model



Threading Issues

- Semantics of fork() and exec() system calls.
- Thread cancellation.
- Signal handling
- Thread pools
- Thread specific data

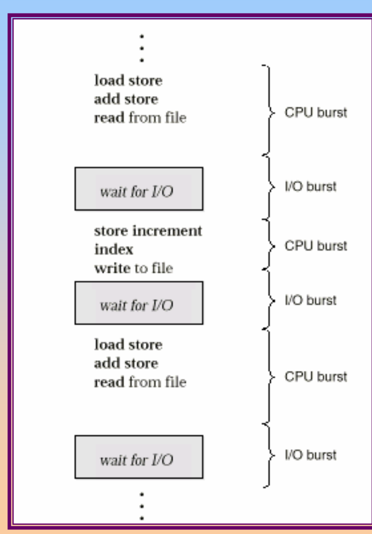
Chapter 6: CPU Scheduling

- Basic Concepts
- Scheduling Criteria
- Scheduling Algorithms
- Multiple-Processor Scheduling
- Real-Time Scheduling
- Algorithm Evaluation

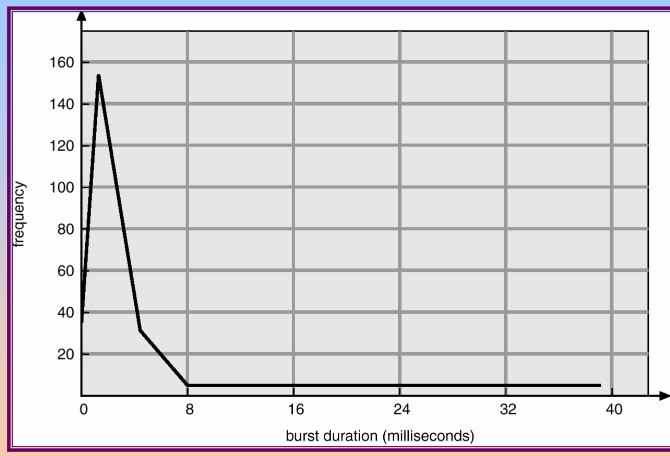
Basic Concepts

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

Alternating Sequence of CPU And I/O Bursts



Histogram of CPU-burst Times



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)

Optimization Criteria

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

First-Come, First-Served (FCFS) Scheduling

Process	Burst Time
P_1	24
P_2	3
P_3	3

- Suppose that the processes arrive in the order: P_1 , P_2 , P_3
  The Gantt Chart for the schedule is:

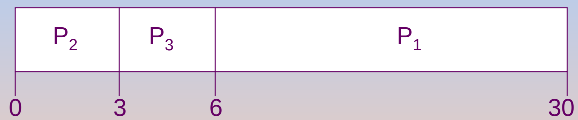
- Waiting time for $P_1 = 0$; $P_2 = 24$; $P_3 = 27$
- Average waiting time: $(0 + 24 + 27)/3 = 17$

FCFS Scheduling (Cont.)

Suppose that the processes arrive in the order

P_2 , P_3 , P_1 .

- The Gantt chart for the schedule is:



- Waiting time for $P_1 = 6$; $P_2 = 0$, $P_3 = 3$
- Average waiting time: (6 + 0 + 3)/3 = 3
- Much better than previous case.
- *Convoy effect* short process behind long process

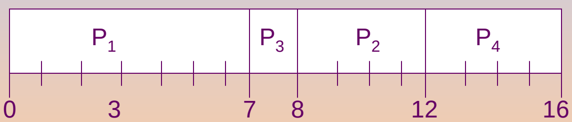
Shortest-Job-First (SJR) Scheduling

- Associate with each process the length of its next CPU burst. Use these lengths to schedule the process with the shortest time.
- Two schemes:
  - nonpreemptive – once CPU given to the process it cannot be preempted until completes its CPU burst.
  - preemptive – if a new process arrives with CPU burst length less than remaining time of current executing process, preempt. This scheme is know as the Shortest-Remaining-Time-First (SRTF).
- SJF is optimal – gives minimum average waiting time for a given set of processes.

Example of Non-Preemptive SJF

Process	Arrival Time	Burst Time
P_1	0.0	7
P_2	2.0	4
P_3	4.0	1
P_4	5.0	4

- SJF (non-preemptive)

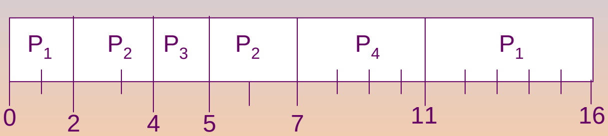


- Average waiting time = (0 + 6 + 3 + 7)/4 - 4

Example of Preemptive SJF

Process	Arrival Time	Burst Time
P_1	0.0	7
P_2	2.0	4
P_3	4.0	1
P_4	5.0	4

- SJF (preemptive)



- Average waiting time = (9 + 1 + 0 +2)/4 - 3

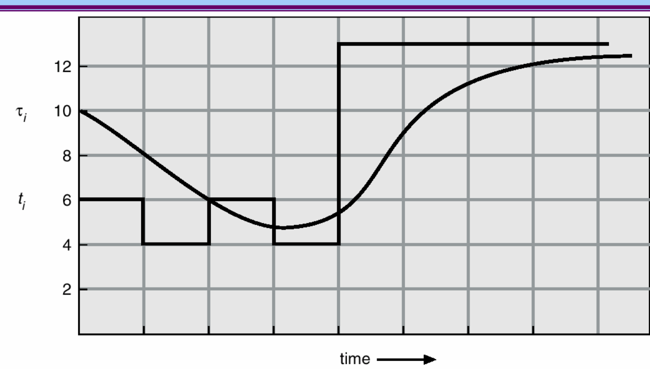
Determining Length of Next CPU Burst

- Can only estimate the length.
- Can be done by using the length of previous CPU bursts, using exponential averaging.

1. $t_n =$ actual lenght of n^{th} CPU burst
2. $\tau_{n+1} =$ predicted value for the next CPU burst
3. $\alpha, 0 \le \alpha \le 1$
4. Define :

$$\tau_{n=1} = \alpha\, t_n + (1-\alpha)\tau_n.$$

Prediction of the Length of the Next CPU Burst



CPU burst (t_i)		6	4	6	4	13	13	13	. . .
"guess" (τ_i)	10	8	6	6	5	9	11	12	. . .

Examples of Exponential Averaging

- $\alpha = 0$
  - $\tau_{n+1} = \tau_n$
  - Recent history does not count.
- $\alpha = 1$
  - $\tau_{n+1} = t_n$
  - Only the actual last CPU burst counts.
- If we expand the formula, we get:

$$\tau_{n+1} = \alpha\, t_n + (1 - \alpha)\, \alpha\, t_n -1 + \ldots$$
$$+ (1 - \alpha)^j\, \alpha\, t_n -1 + \ldots$$
$$+ (1 - \alpha)^{n=1}\, t_n\, \tau_0$$

- Since both α and $(1 - \alpha)$ are less than or equal to 1, each successive term has less weight than its predecessor.

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.

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* large ⇒ FIFO
  - *q* small ⇒ *q* must be large with respect to context switch, otherwise overhead is too high.

Example of RR with Time Quantum = 20

Process	Burst Time
P_1	53
P_2	17
P_3	68
P_4	24

- The Gantt chart is:

P_1	P_2	P_3	P_4	P_1	P_3	P_4	P_1	P_3	P_3

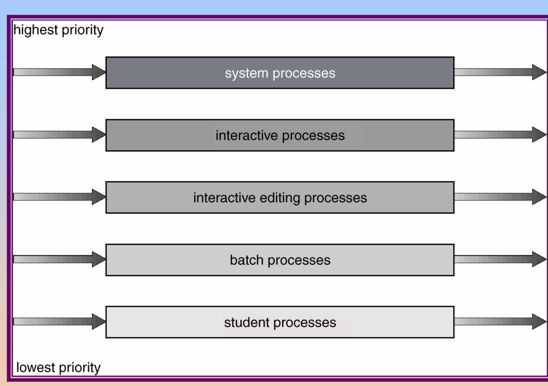
0 20 37 57 77 97 117 121 134 154 162

- Typically, higher average turnaround than SJF, but better *response*.

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



Multiple-Processor Scheduling

- CPU scheduling more complex when multiple CPUs are available.
- *Homogeneous processors* within a multiprocessor.
- *Load sharing*
- *Asymmetric multiprocessing* – only one processor accesses the system data structures, alleviating the need for data sharing.

Real-Time Scheduling

- *Hard real-time* systems – required to complete a critical task within a guaranteed amount of time.
- *Soft real-time* computing – requires that critical processes receive priority over less fortunate ones.

Algorithm Evaluation

- Deterministic modeling – takes a particular predetermined workload and defines the performance of each algorithm for that workload.
- Queueing models
- Implementation