Week 2: Processes and Threads

(Some slides are from **Silberschatz, Galvin and Gagne ©2013**, and Khattab)

Processes

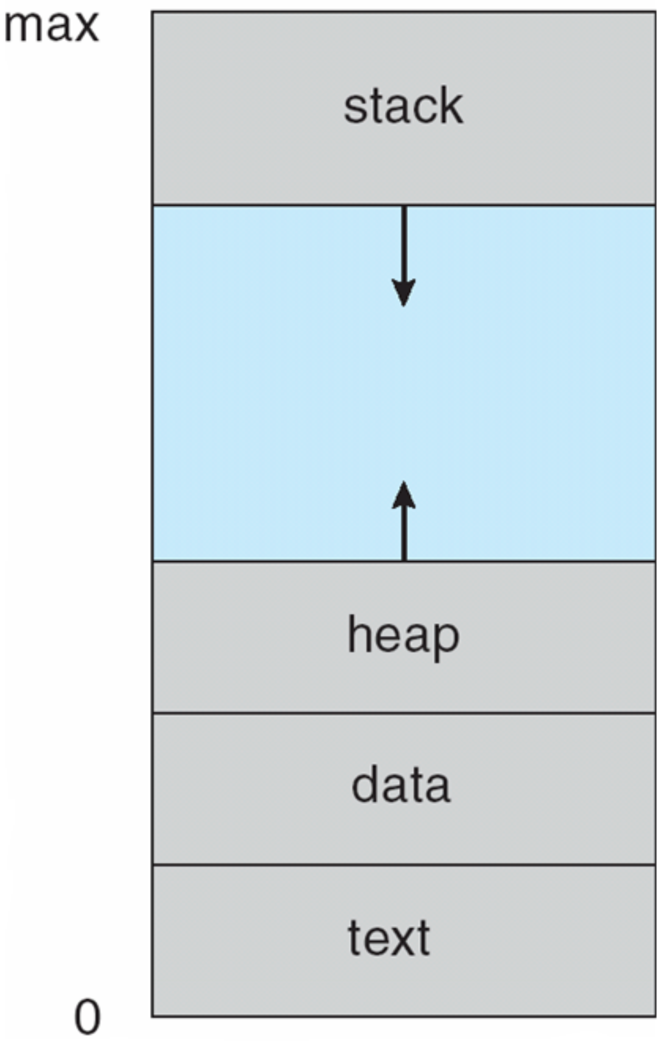
- Process Concept
- Process Scheduling
- Operations on Processes
- Interprocess Communication
- Examples of IPC Systems

Process Concept

- An operating system executes a variety of programs:
  - Batch system – **jobs**
  - Time-shared systems – **user programs** or **tasks**
- **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

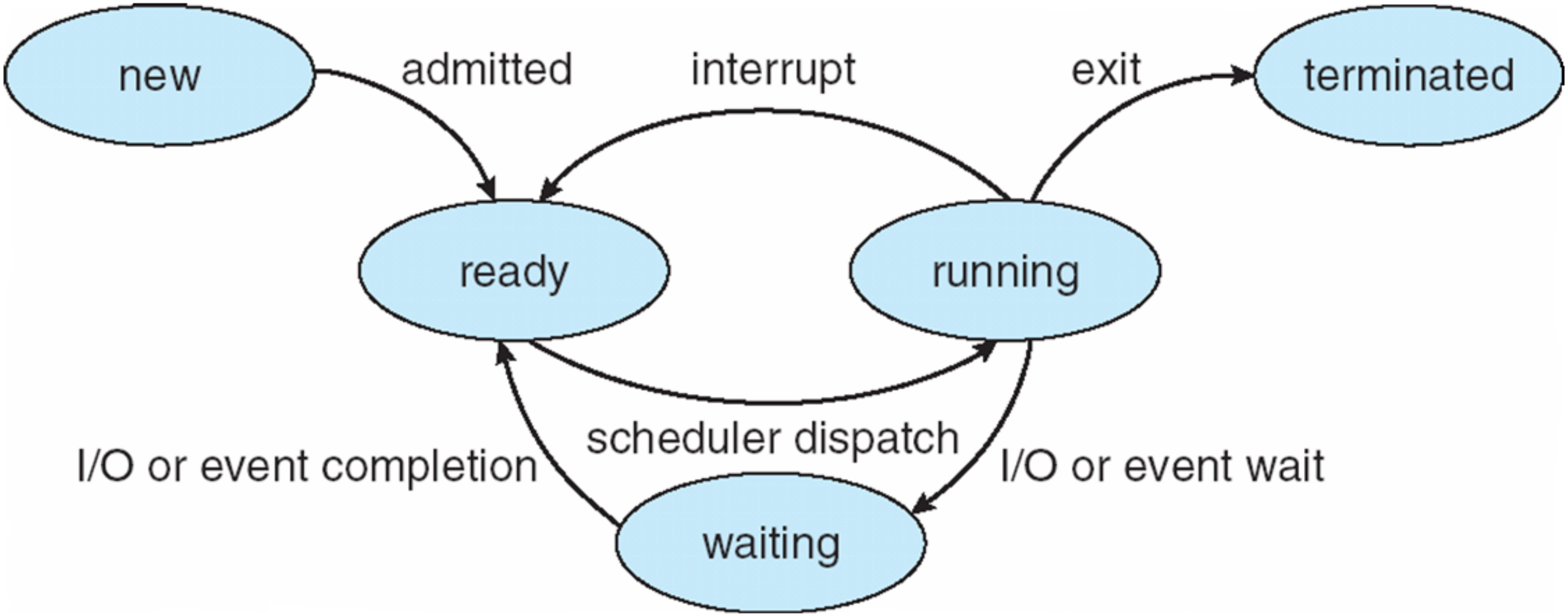
- A process is created by allocating memory and reading certain items from permanent storage
- Each process has an address space
- The memory is freed (OS can re-use it) when process is terminated…
- So, processes are created, run, and terminate. Is there more?



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



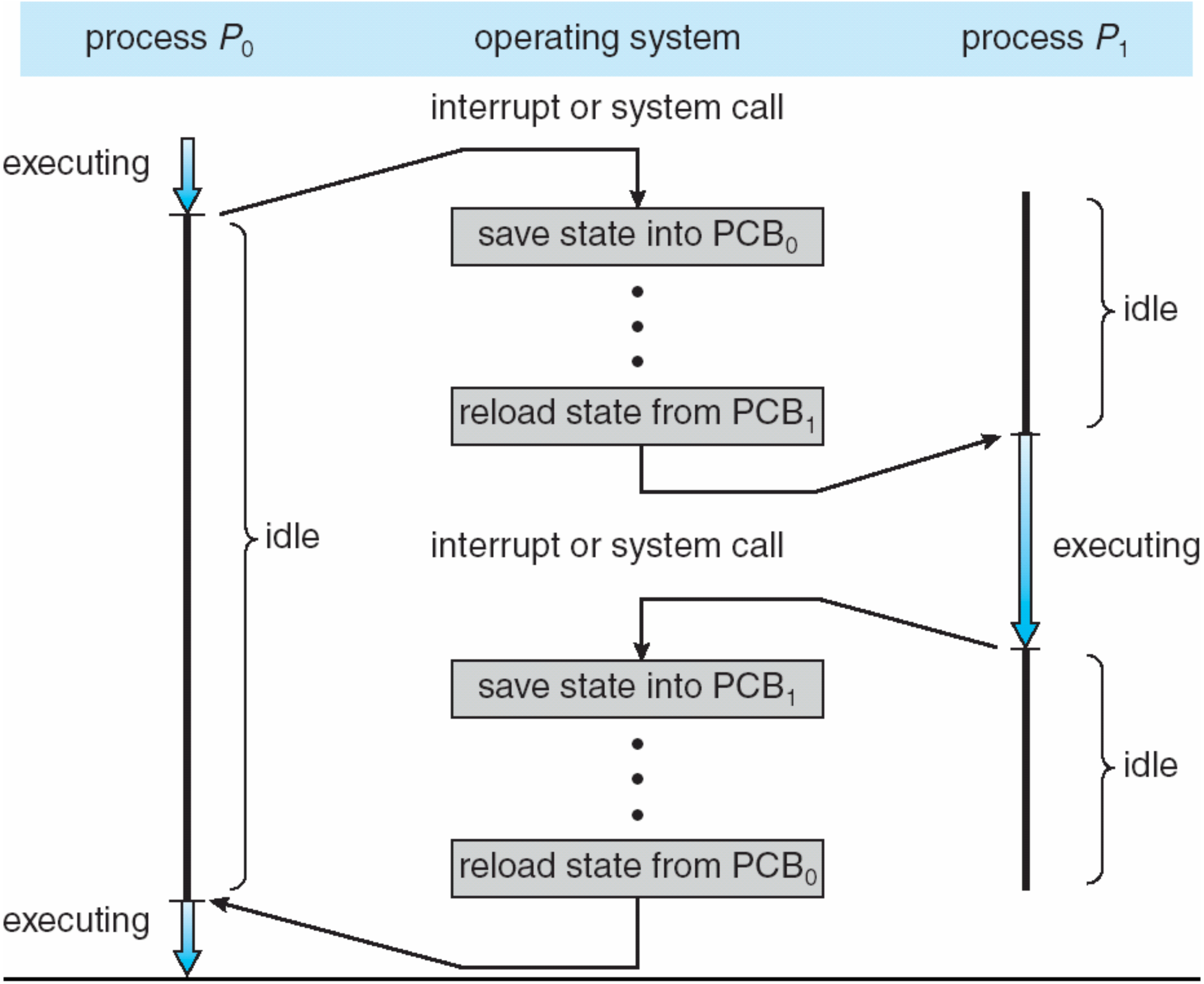
Process Control Block (PCB)

Information associated with each process

(also called **task control block**)

- Process state – running, waiting, etc
- Program counter – location of instruction to execute next
- CPU registers – contents of all process-centric registers
- CPU scheduling information- priorities, scheduling queue pointers
- Memory-management information – memory allocated to the process
- 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

CPU Switch From Process to Process



Similar process to switch from process to Interrup Service Routing (ISR), but usually the same stack is used.

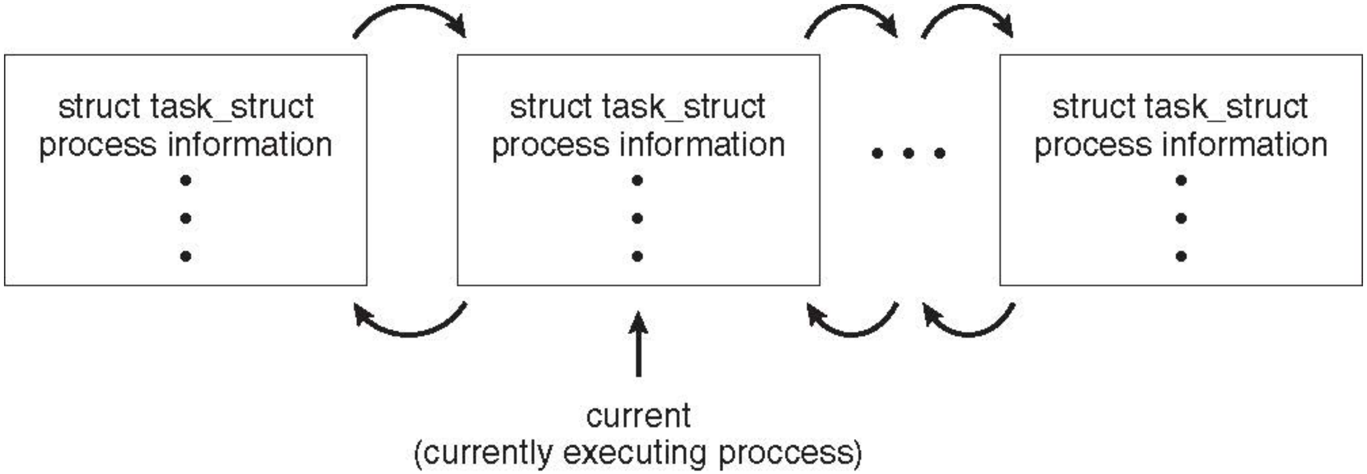
ISR does minimal work and set up the rest as a regular process for later.

Process Representation in Linux

Represented by the C structure `task_struct`

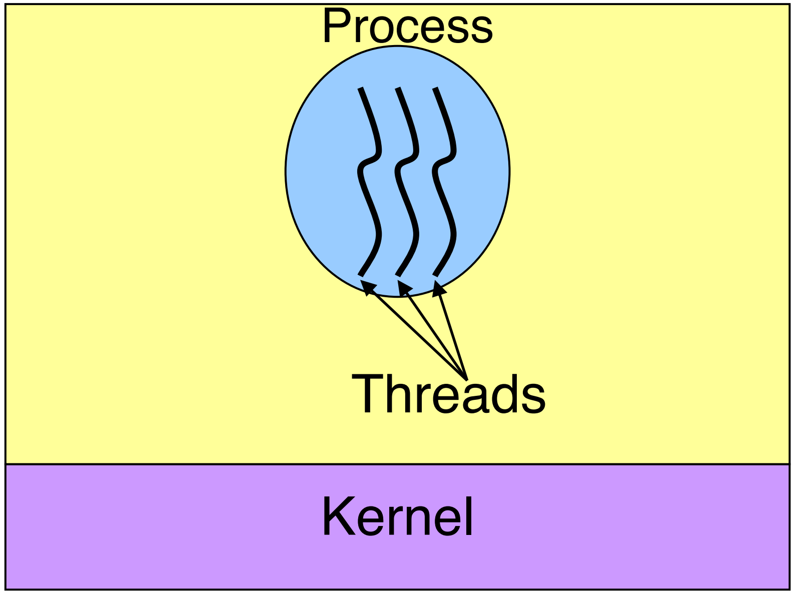
Example fields:

```
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 */
```



Threads

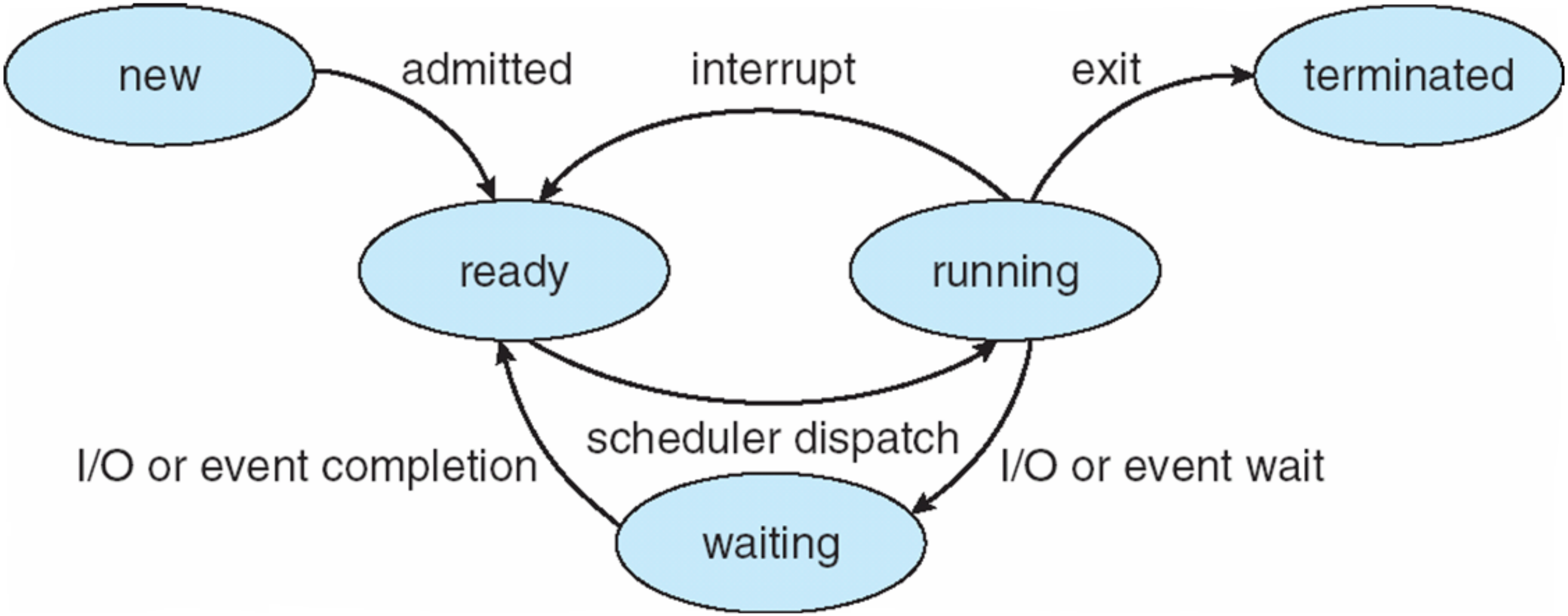
- So far, process has a single thread of execution
- Consider having multiple program counters per process
  - Multiple locations of execution at once
  - Multiple locations of control -> **threads**
- Must then have storage for thread details, multiple program counters in PCB
- More on threads later



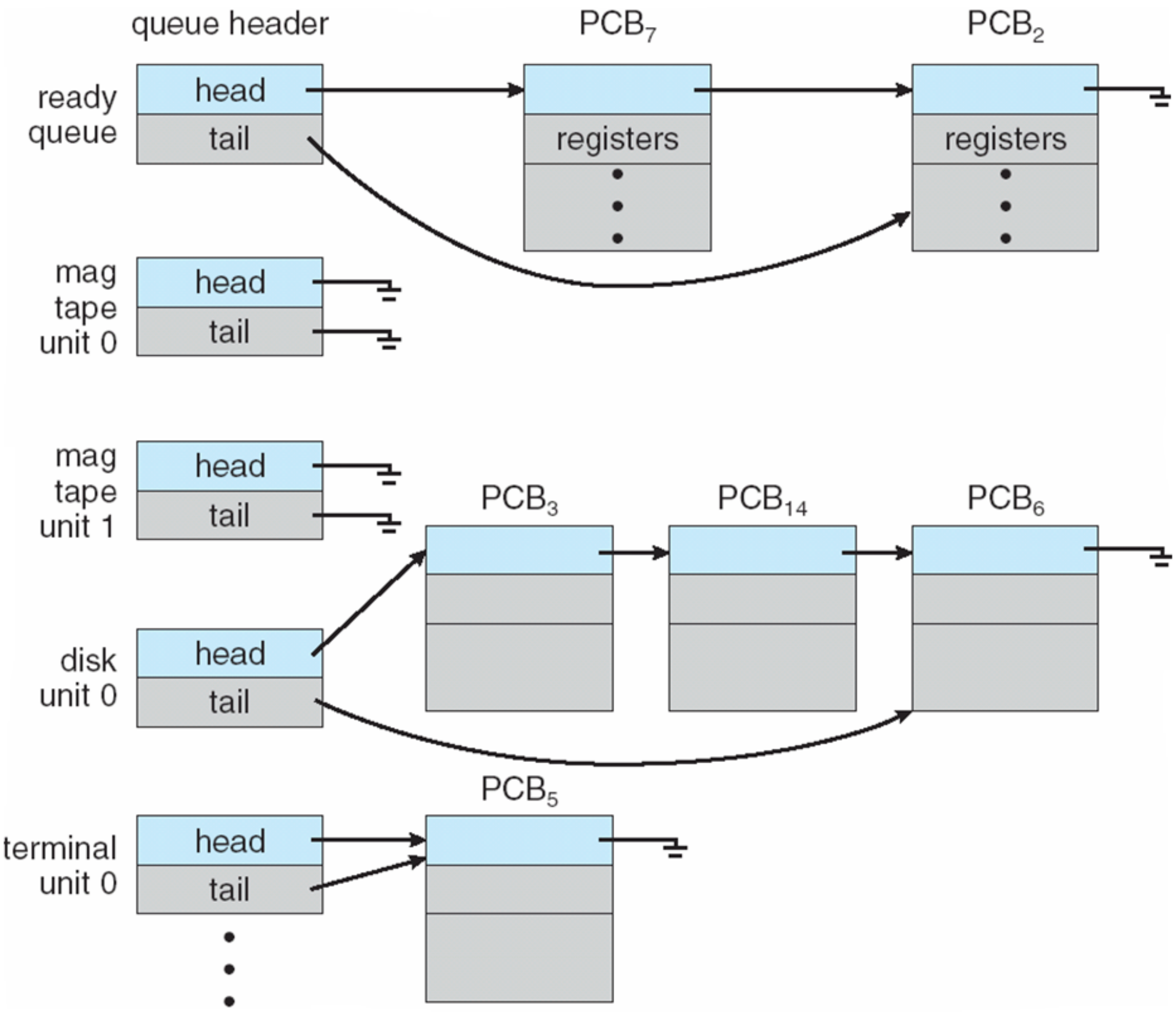
Process Scheduling and Implementation

- 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

Diagram of Process State

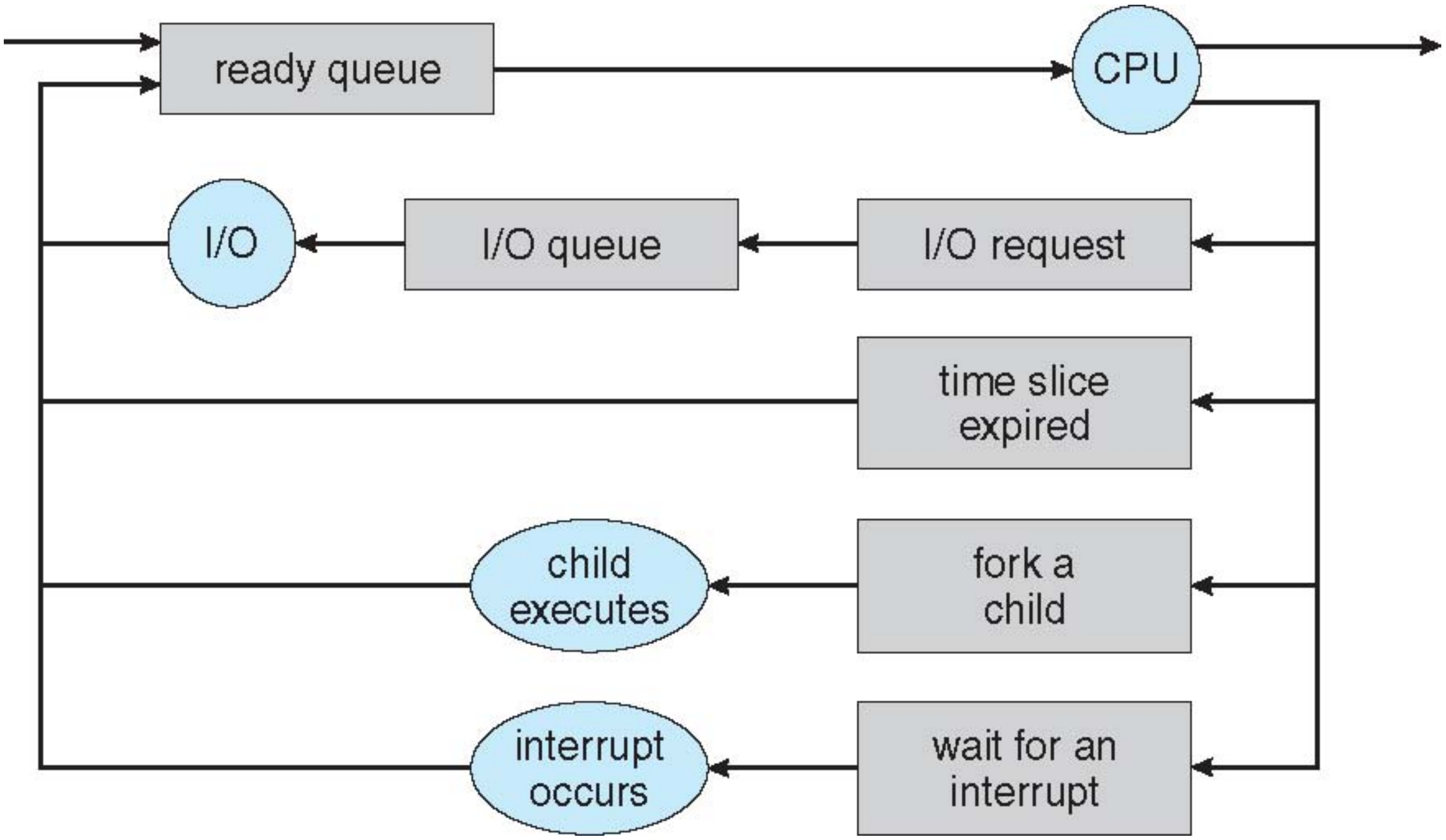


Ready Queue And Various I/O Device Queues



Representation of Process Scheduling

Queueing diagram represents queues, resources, flows

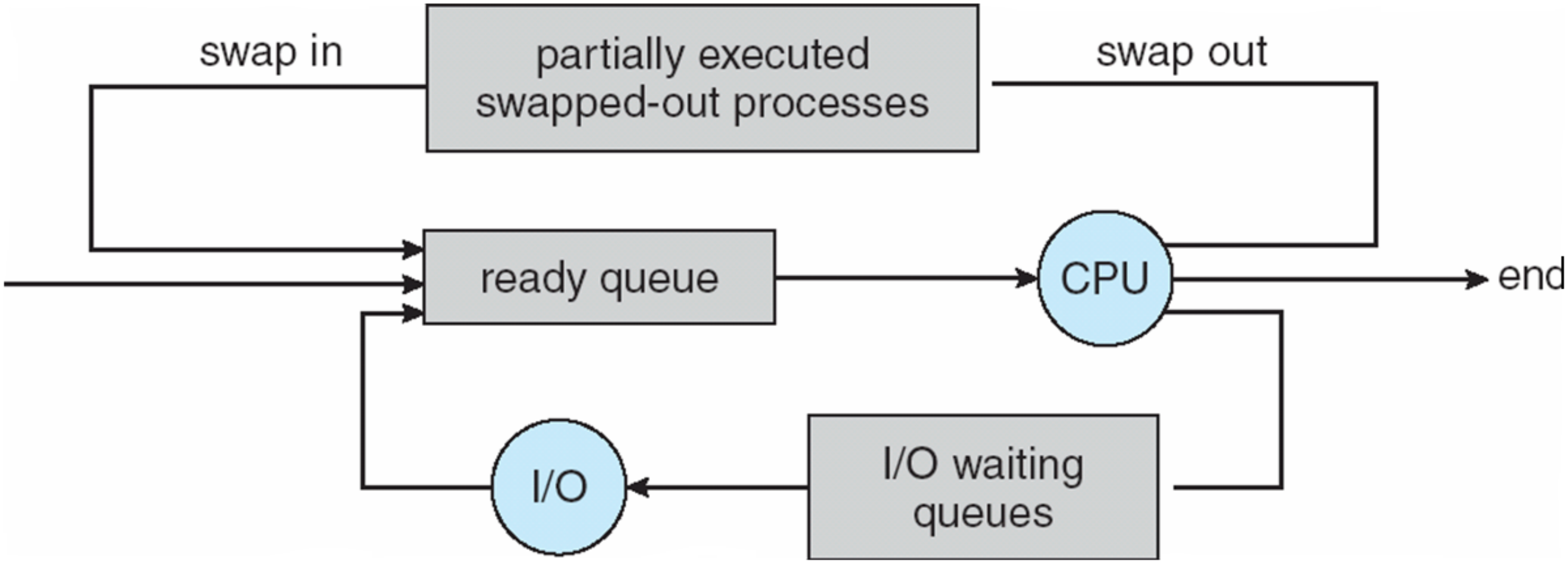


Schedulers

- **Short-term scheduler** (or **CPU scheduler**) – selects which process should be executed next and allocates CPU
    - invoked frequently (milliseconds) ⇒ must be fast
- **Long-term scheduler** (or **job scheduler**) – selects which processes should be brought into the ready queue
    - invoked infrequently (seconds, minutes) ⇒ may be slow
    - 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.*** ***WHY!?!?***

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

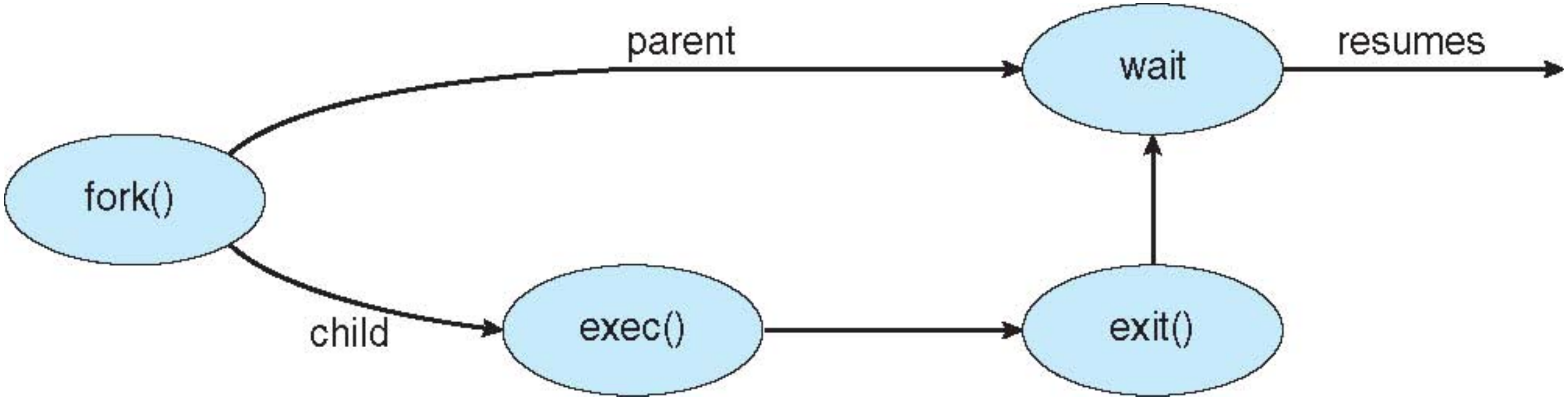
- System must provide mechanisms for:
  - process creation,
  - process termination,
  - and so on as detailed next

Process Creation

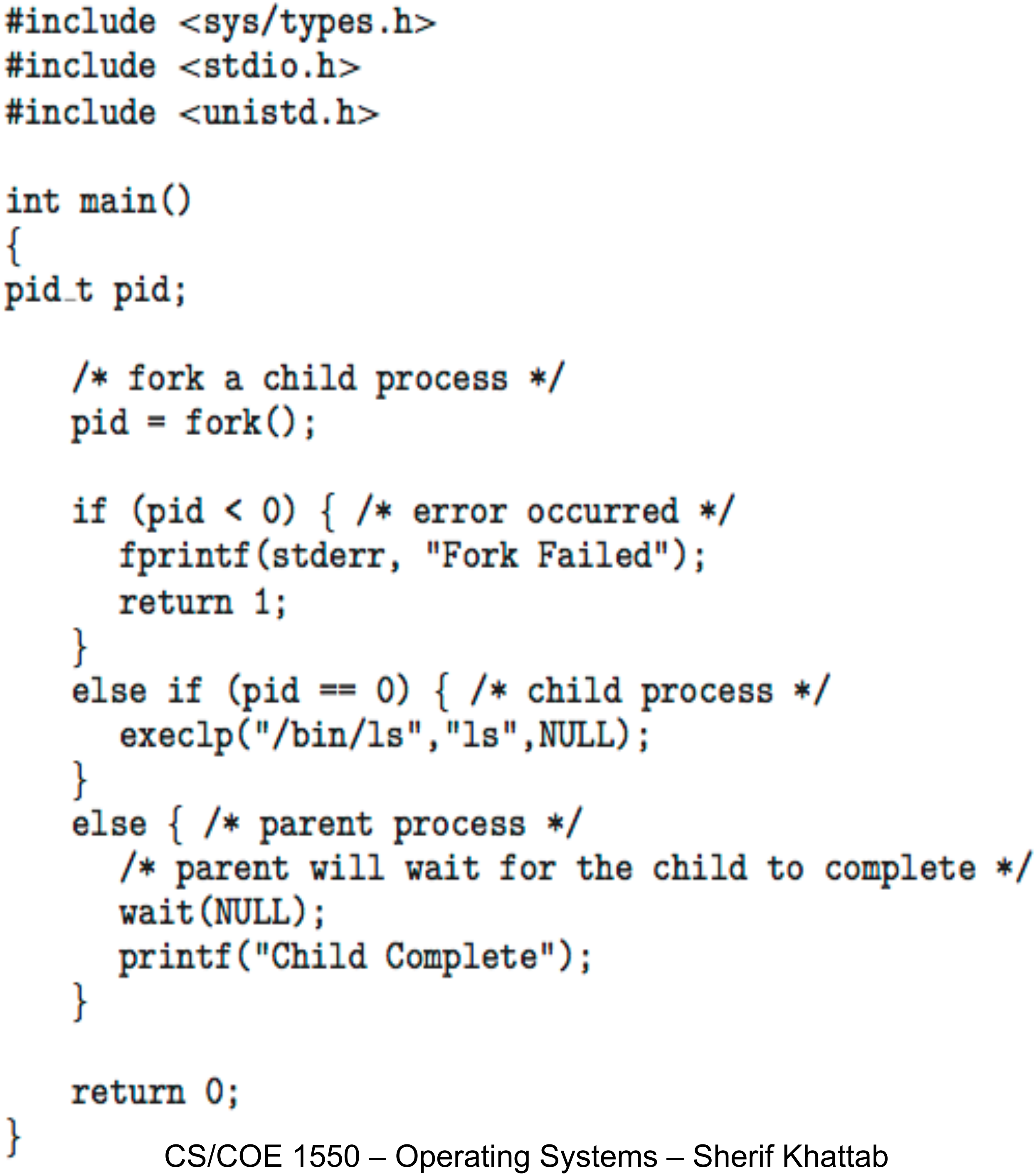
- **Parent** process creates **children** processes, which, in turn create other processes, forming a **tree** of processes
- Generally, process identified and managed via a **process identifier** (**pid**)
- Resource sharing options
  - Parent and children share all resources
  - Children share subset of parent's resources
  - Parent and child share no resources
- Execution options
  - Parent and children execute concurrently
  - Parent waits until children terminate

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 <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 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 a 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.
- 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);
```

- If no parent waiting (did not invoke **`wait()`**) process is a **zombie**
- If parent terminated without invoking **`wait`** , process is an **orphan**

Multiprocess Architecture – Web Browser

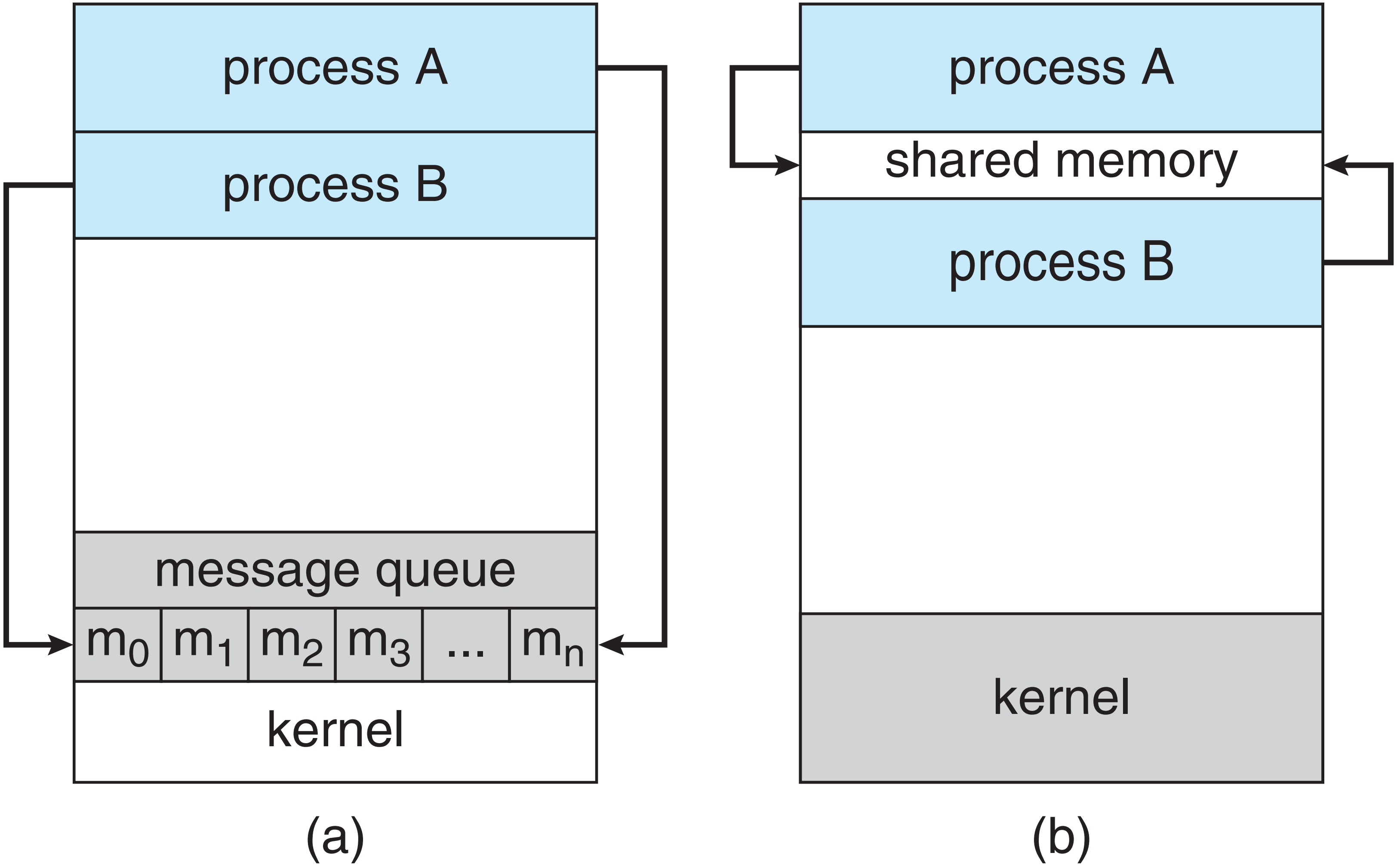
- If web browsers ran as single process
  - If one site causes trouble, entire browser can hang or crash
- Google Chrome Browser is multiprocess with 3 different types of processes:
  - **Browser** process manages user interface, disk and network I/O
  - **Renderer** process renders web pages, deals with HTML, Javascript. A new renderer created for each website opened
    - Runs in **sandbox** restricting disk and network I/O, minimizing effect of security exploits
  - **Plug-in** process for each type of plug-in

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

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



Producer-Consumer Problem

- Paradigm for cooperating processes, *producer* process produces information that is consumed by a *consumer* process

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

```
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

```
item next_consumed;

while (true) {
  while (in == out)
    ; /* do nothing */
  next_consumed = buffer[out];
  out = (out + 1) % BUFFER_SIZE;

  /* consume the item in next
consumed */
}
```

Interprocess Communication – Shared Memory

- Major issue is to provide a mechanism that will allow the user processes to synchronize their actions when they access shared memory.
- Synchronization is discussed in great details next week.

Interprocess Communication – Message Passing

- IPC facility provides two operations:
  - `send`(*message*)
  - `receive`(*message*)
- The *message* size is either fixed or variable

Direct Communication

- Processes must name each other explicitly:
  - **`send`** (*P, message*) – send a message to process P
  - **`receive`**(*Q, message*) – receive a message from process Q
- Properties of direct links
  - Links are established automatically (with send/recv)
  - 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

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 indirect 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
  1. Allow a link to be associated with at most two processes
  2. Allow only one process at a time to execute a receive operation
  3. Allow the system to select arbitrarily the receiver. Sender is notified who the receiver was
  4. Other solutions?

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
  - **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
  - **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**

Synchronization (Cont.)

Producer-consumer becomes trivial

```
message next_produced;
while (true) {
    /* produce an item in next produced */
send(next_produced);
}
```

```
message next_consumed;
while (true) {
    receive(next_consumed);

    /* consume the item in next consumed */
}
```

Buffering

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

Examples of IPC Systems - POSIX

- Process first creates shared memory segment

```
shm_fd = shm_open(name, O_CREAT | O_RDWR,
0666);
```

- Also used to open an existing segment to share it
- Set the size of the object

```
ftruncate(shm_fd, 4096);
```

- **Map the shared memory object**

```
ptr = mmap(0, 4096, PROT_WRITE,
          MAP_SHARED, shm_fd, 0);
```

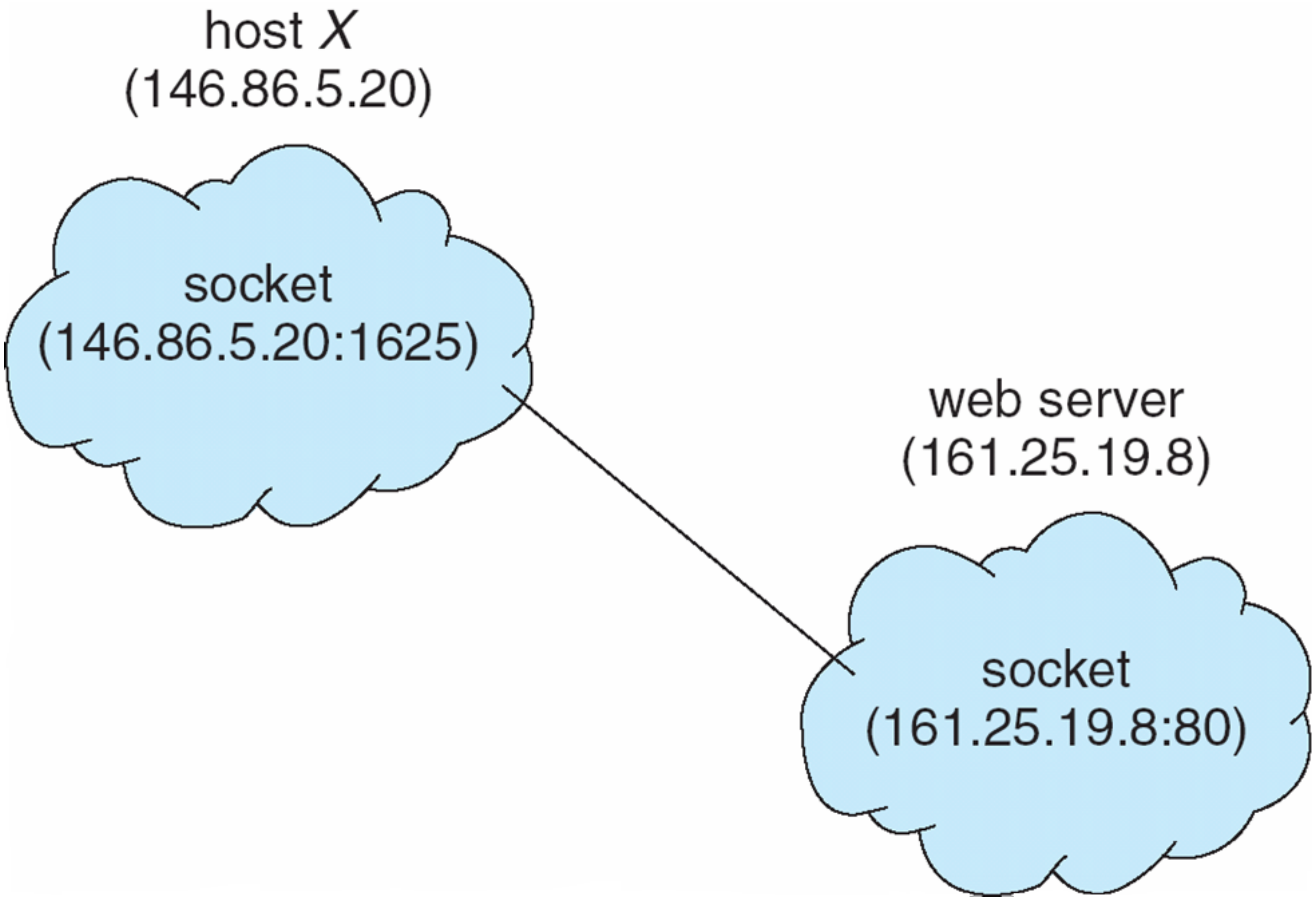
- Now the process could write to the shared memory

```
sprintf(ptr, "Writing to shared memory");
```

Communications in Client-Server Systems

- Sockets
- Remote Procedure Calls
- Pipes

Socket Communication

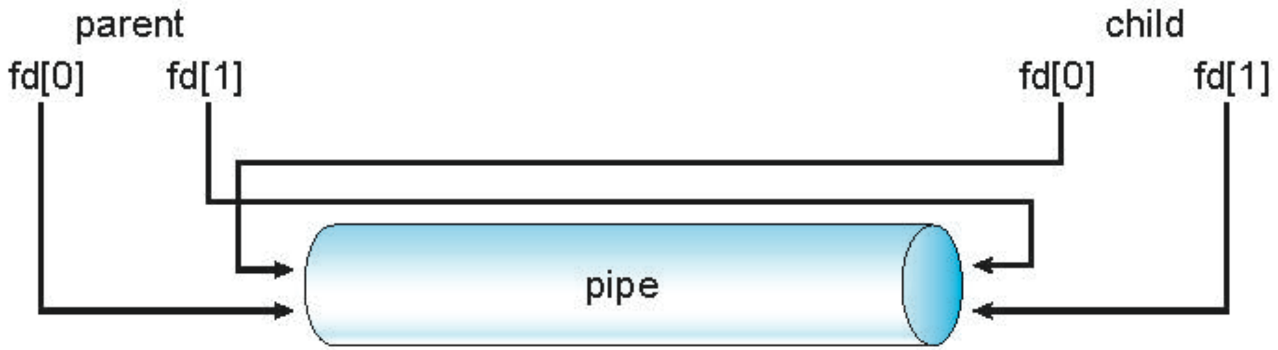


Pipes

- Acts as a conduit allowing two processes to communicate
- Ordinary pipes – cannot be accessed from outside the process that created it. Typically, a parent process creates a pipe and uses it to communicate with a child process that it created.
- Named pipes – can be accessed without a parent-child relationship.

Ordinary Pipes

- Ordinary Pipes allow communication in standard producer-consumer style
- Producer writes to one end (the **write-end** of the pipe)
- Consumer reads from the other end (the **read-end** of the pipe)
- Ordinary pipes are therefore unidirectional
- Require parent-child relationship between communicating processes



- Windows calls these **anonymous pipes**
- See Unix and Windows code samples in textbook

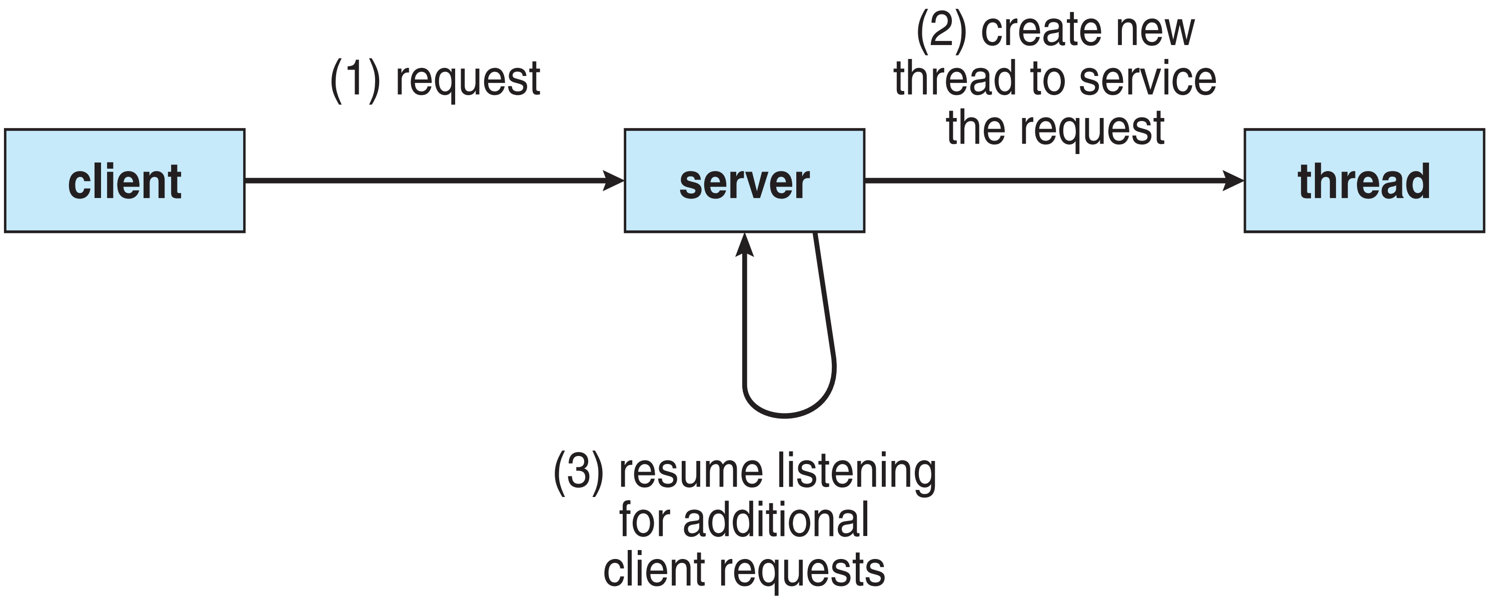
Named Pipes

- Named Pipes are more powerful than ordinary pipes
- Communication is bidirectional
- No parent-child relationship is necessary between the communicating processes
- Several processes can use the named pipe for communication
- Provided on both UNIX and Windows systems

Chapter 4: Threads

- Overview
- Multicore Programming
- Multithreading Models
- Thread Libraries
- Implicit Threading
- Threading Issues
- Operating System Examples

Multithreaded Server Architecture

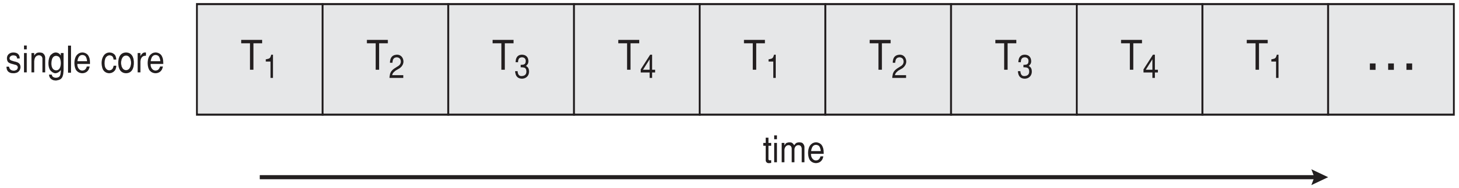

(1) request
(2) create new thread to service the request
client
server
thread
(3) resume listening for additional client requests

Concurrency vs. Parallelism

- ***Parallelism*** implies a system can perform more than one task simultaneously
- ***Concurrency*** supports more than one task making progress
  - Single processor / core, scheduler providing concurrency

Concurrency vs. Parallelism

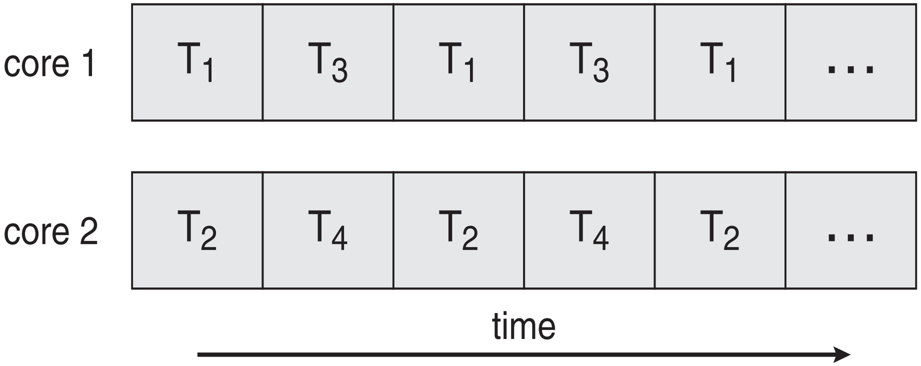
- Concurrent execution on single-core system:



single core	T_1	T_2	T_3	T_4	T_1	T_2	T_3	T_4	T_1	…

time

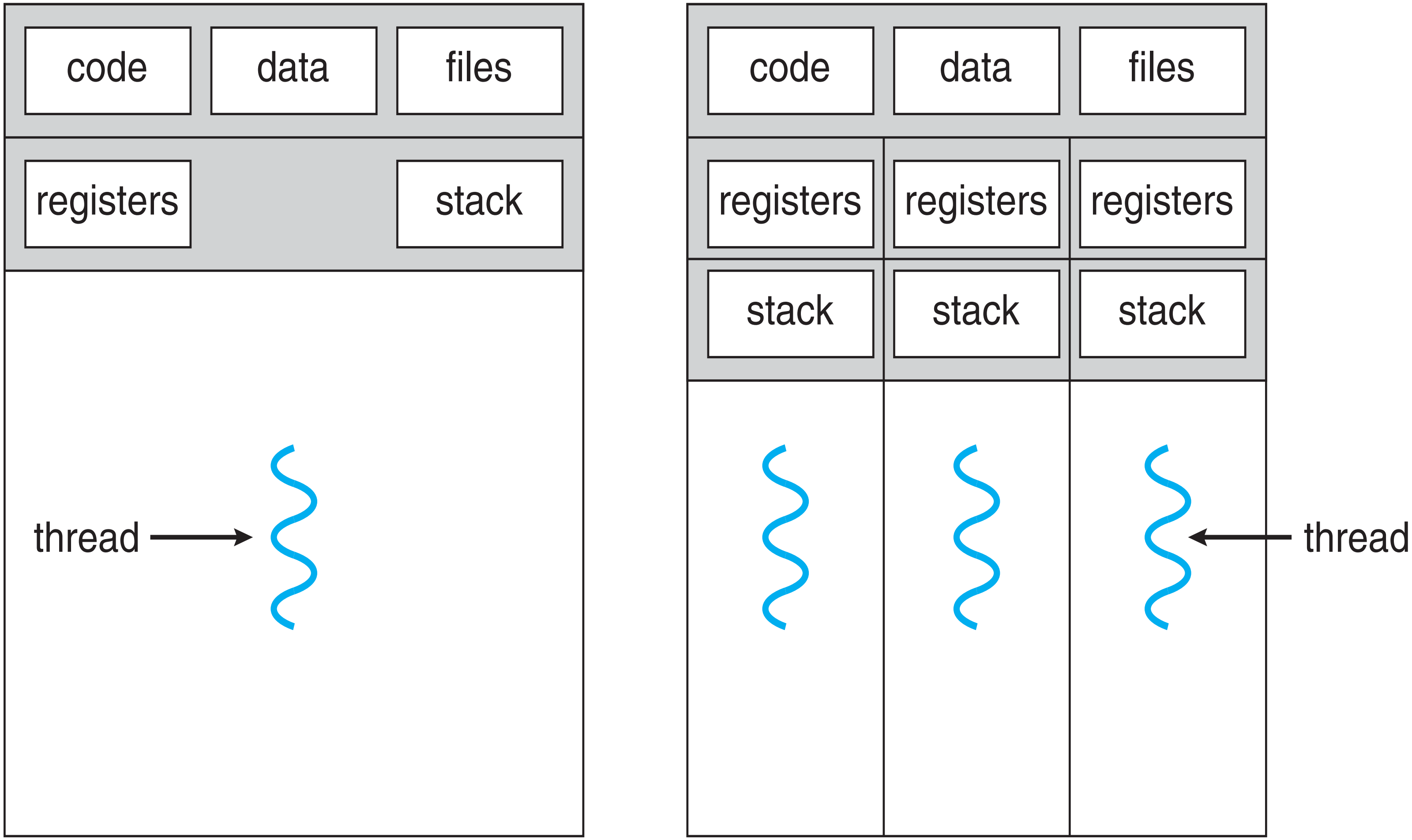
- Parallelism on a multi-core system:



core 1	T_1	T_3	T_1	T_3	T_1	…
core 2	T_2	T_4	T_2	T_4	T_2	…

time

Single and Multithreaded Processes



single-threaded process

multithreaded process

Amdahl’s Law

- Identifies performance gains from adding additional cores to an application that has both serial and parallel components
- ***S*** is serial portion
- ***N*** processing cores

$$speedup \leq \frac{1}{S + \frac{(1-S)}{N}}$$

- That is, if application is 75% parallel / 25% serial, moving from 1 to 2 cores results in speedup of 1.6 times
- As *N* approaches infinity, speedup approaches 1 / *S*

User Threads and Kernel Threads

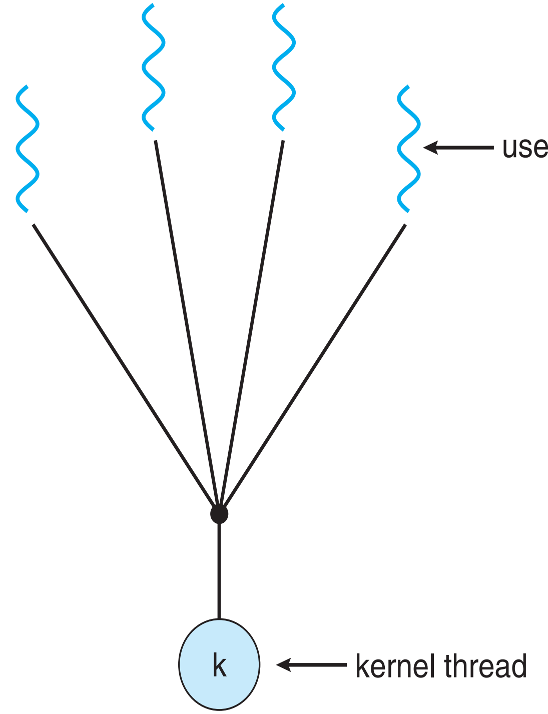
- **User threads** - management done by user-level threads library
- Three primary thread libraries:
  - POSIX **Pthreads**
  - Windows threads
  - Java threads
- **Kernel threads** - Supported by the Kernel

Multithreading Models

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

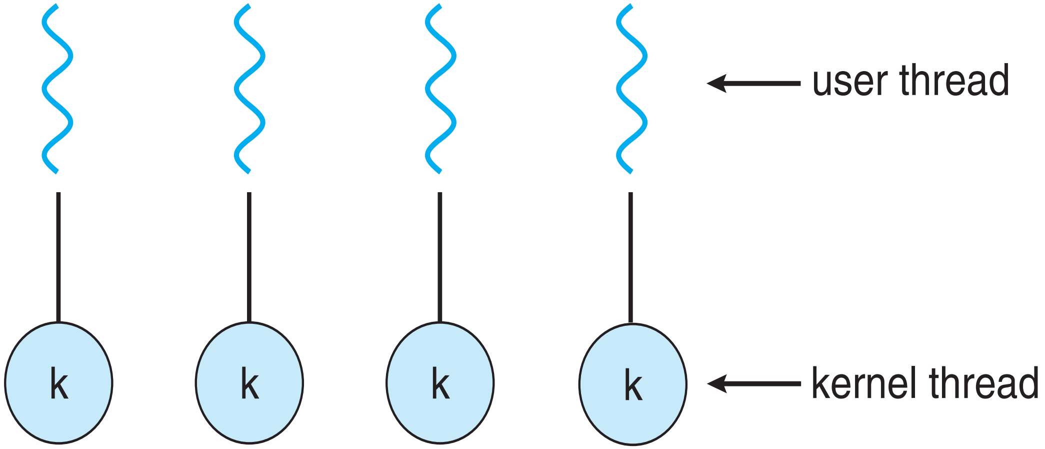
Many-to-One

- Many user-level threads mapped to single kernel thread
- One thread blocking causes all to block
- Multiple threads may not run in parallel on muticore system because only one may be in kernel at a time
- Few systems currently use this model
- Examples:
  - **Solaris Green Threads**
  - **GNU Portable Threads**



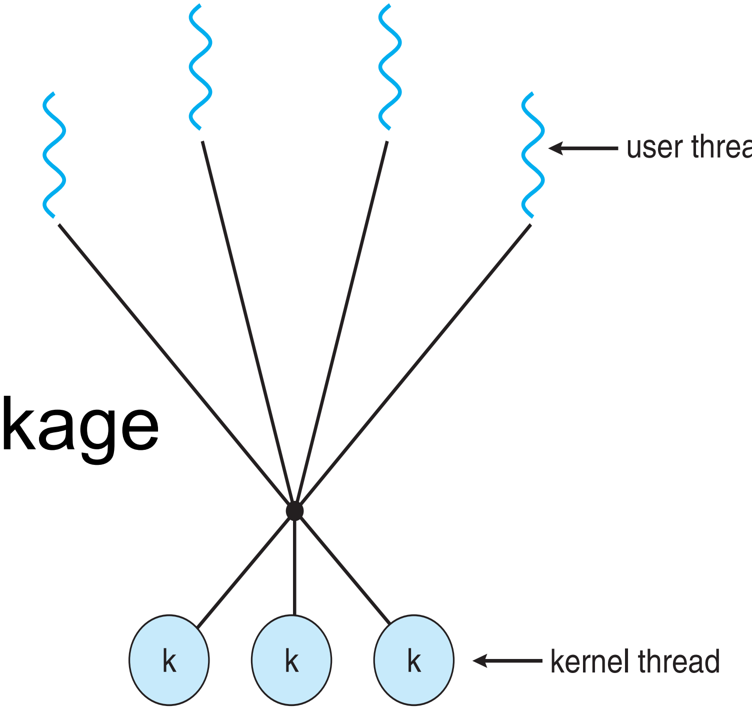
One-to-One

- Each user-level thread maps to a kernel thread
- Creating a user-level thread creates a kernel thread
- More concurrency than many-to-one
- Number of threads per process sometimes restricted due to overhead
- Examples
  - Windows
  - Linux
  - Solaris 9 and later



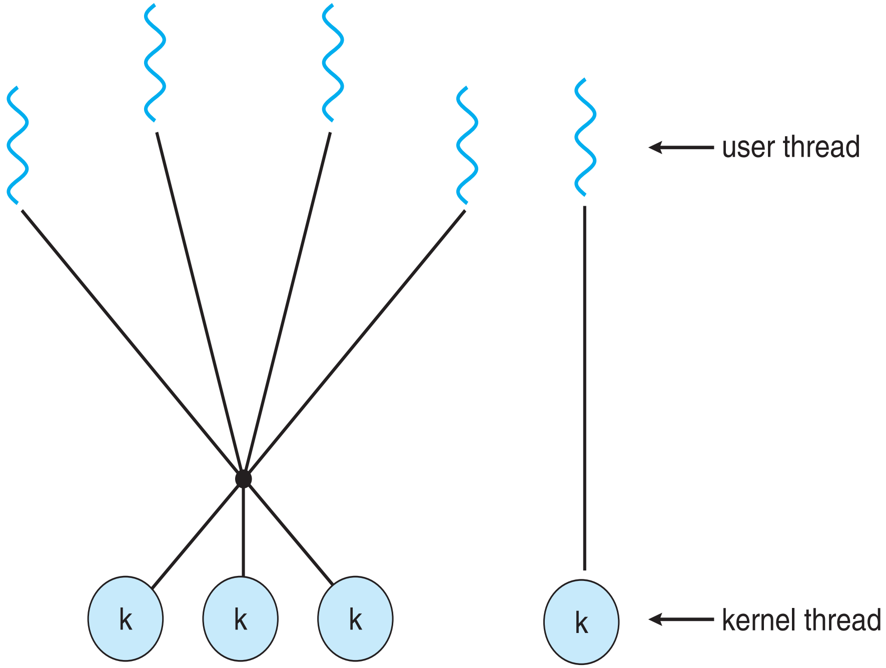
Many-to-Many Model

- Allows many user level threads to be mapped to many kernel threads
- Allows the operating system to create a sufficient number of kernel threads
- Examples:
  - Solaris prior to version 9
  - Windows with the *ThreadFiber* package



Two-level Model

- Similar to M:M, except that it allows a user thread to be **bound** to kernel thread
- Examples
  - IRIX
  - HP-UX
  - Tru64 UNIX
  - Solaris 8 and earlier



Thread Libraries

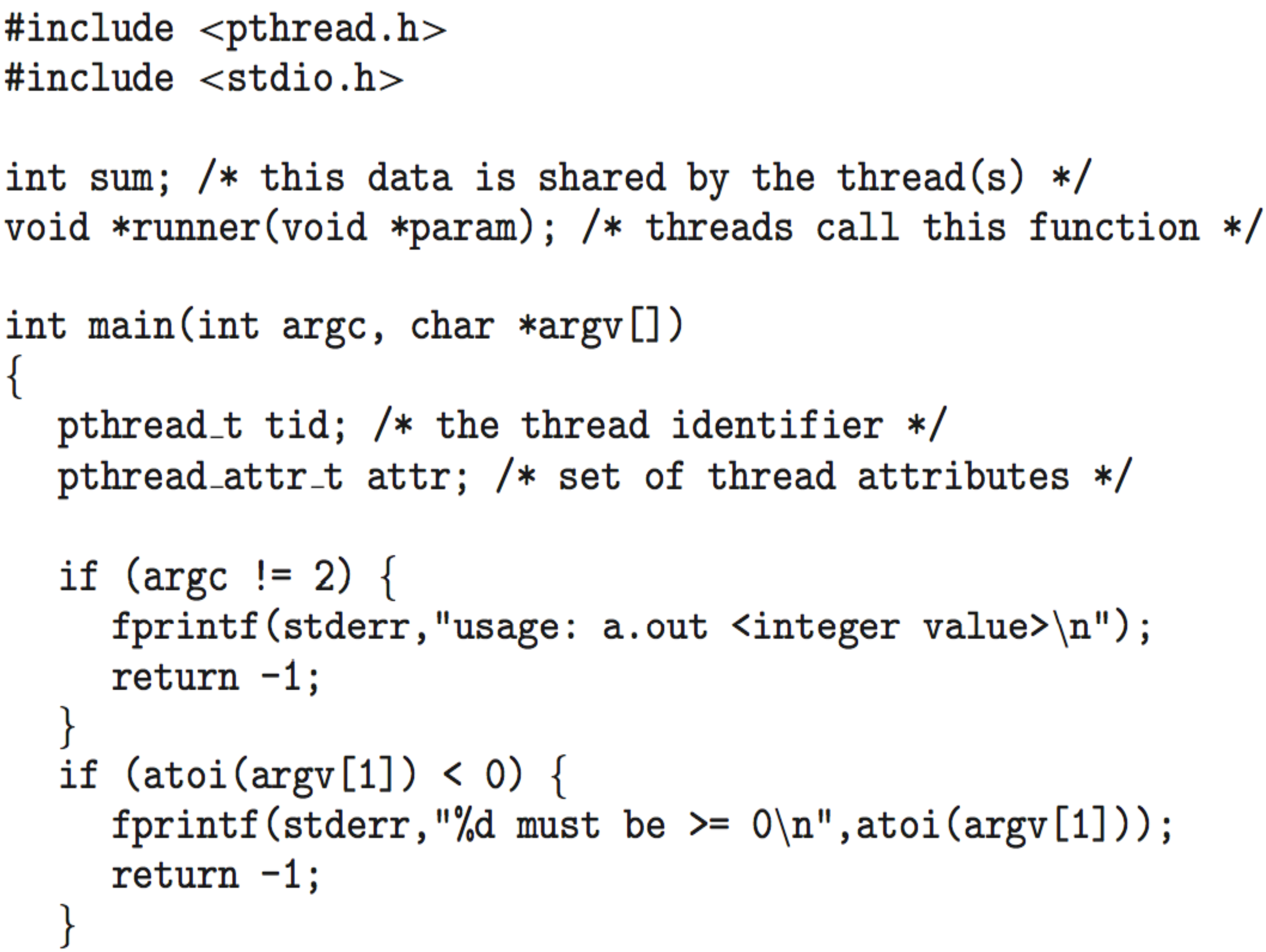
Two primary ways of implementing

- Library entirely in user space
- Kernel-level library supported by the OS

Pthreads

- May be provided either as user-level or kernel-level
- A POSIX standard (IEEE 1003.1c) API for thread creation and synchronization
- ***Specification***, not ***implementation***
- Common in UNIX operating systems (Solaris, Linux, Mac OS X)

Pthreads Example



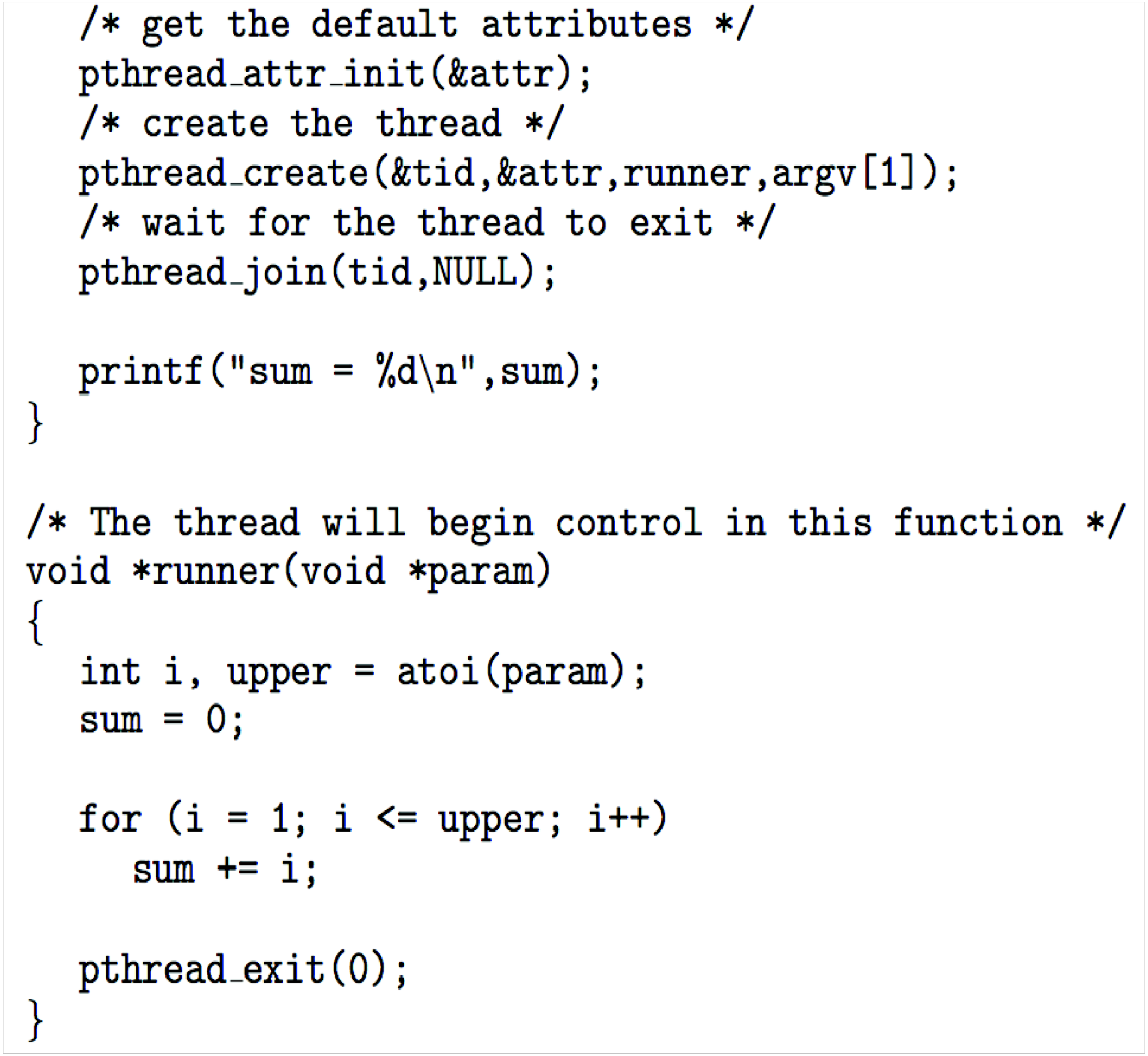
```
#include <pthread.h>
#include <stdio.h>

int sum; /* this data is shared by the thread(s) */
void *runner(void *param); /* threads call this function */

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
  pthread_t tid; /* the thread identifier */
  pthread_attr_t attr; /* set of thread attributes */

  if (argc != 2) {
    fprintf(stderr,"usage: a.out <integer value>\n");
    return -1;
  }
  if (atoi(argv[1]) < 0) {
    fprintf(stderr,"%d must be >= 0\n",atoi(argv[1]));
    return -1;
  }
```

Pthreads Example (Cont.)



```
   /* get the default attributes */
   pthread_attr_init(&attr);
   /* create the thread */
   pthread_create(&tid,&attr,runner,argv[1]);
   /* wait for the thread to exit */
   pthread_join(tid,NULL);

   printf("sum = %d\n",sum);
}

/* The thread will begin control in this function */
void *runner(void *param)
{
   int i, upper = atoi(param);
   sum = 0;

   for (i = 1; i <= upper; i++)
      sum += i;

   pthread_exit(0);
}
```

Implicit Threading

- Creation and management of threads done by compilers and run-time libraries rather than programmers
- Three methods explored
  - Thread Pools
  - OpenMP
  - Grand Central Dispatch

Thread Pools

- Create a number of threads in a pool where they await work
- Advantages:
  - Usually slightly faster to service a request with an existing thread than create a new thread
  - Allows the number of threads in the application(s) to be bound by the size of the pool
  - Separating task to be performed from mechanics of creating task allows different strategies for running task
    - Ex:Tasks could be scheduled to run periodically

OpenMP

- Set of compiler directives and an API for C, C++, FORTRAN
- Provides support for parallel programming in shared-memory environments
- Identifies **parallel regions** – blocks of code that can run in parallel

```
#pragma omp parallel
```

Create as many threads as there are cores

```
#pragma omp parallel for for(i=0;i<N;i++) {
    c[i] = a[i] + b[i];
}
```

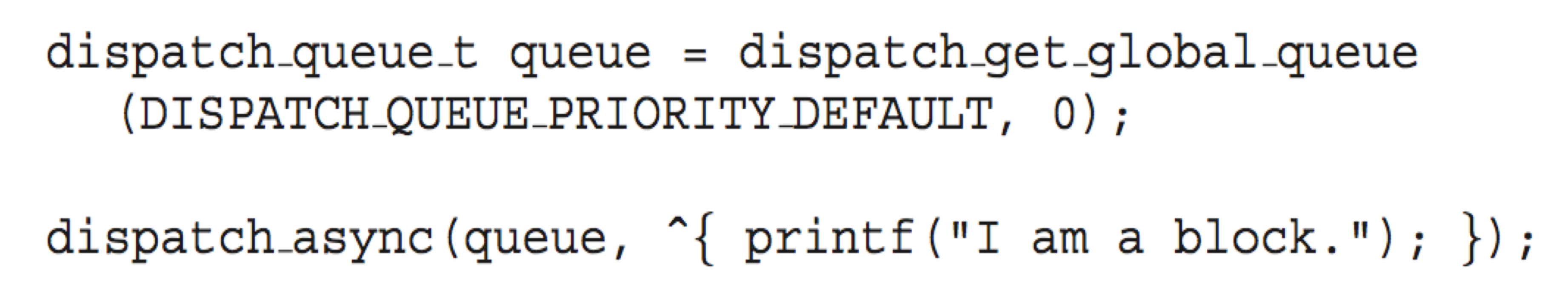
Run for loop in parallel

Grand Central Dispatch

- Apple technology for Mac OS X and iOS operating systems
- Extensions to C, C++ languages, API, and run-time library
- Allows identification of parallel sections
- Manages most of the details of threading
- Block is in “^{ }” - **`^{ printf("I am a block"); }`**
- Blocks placed in dispatch queue
  - Assigned to available thread in thread pool when removed from queue

Grand Central Dispatch

- Two types of dispatch queues:
  - serial – blocks removed in FIFO order, queue is per process, called **main queue**
    - Programmers can create additional serial queues within program
  - concurrent – removed in FIFO order but several may be removed at a time
    - Three system wide queues with priorities low, default, high



```
dispatch_queue_t queue = dispatch_get_global_queue
   (DISPATCH_QUEUE_PRIORITY_DEFAULT, 0);

dispatch_async(queue, ^{ printf("I am a block."); });
```

Semantics of fork() and exec()

- Does **`fork()`** duplicate only the calling thread or all threads?
  - Some UNIXes have two versions of fork
- **`exec()`** usually works as normal – replace the running process including all threads

Signal Handling

- **Signals** are used in UNIX systems to notify a process that a particular event has occurred.
- A **signal handler** is used to process signals
  - Signal is generated by a particular event
  - Signal is delivered to a process
  - Signal is handled by one of two signal handlers:
    - default
    - user-defined
- Every signal has **default handler** that the kernel runs when handling the signal
  - **User-defined signal handler** can override default
  - For single-threaded, signal delivered to process

Signal Handling (Cont.)

Where should a signal be delivered for multi-threaded?

- Deliver the signal to the thread to which the signal applies
- Deliver the signal to every thread in the process
- Deliver the signal to certain threads in the process
- Assign a specific thread to receive all signals for the process

Thread Cancellation

- Terminating a thread before it has finished
- Thread to be canceled is **target thread**
- Two general approaches:
  - **Asynchronous cancellation** terminates the target thread immediately
  - **Deferred cancellation** allows the target thread to periodically check if it should be cancelled

Thread Cancellation (Cont.)

- Invoking thread cancellation requests cancellation, but actual cancellation depends on thread state
- If thread has cancellation disabled, cancellation remains pending until thread enables it
- Default type is deferred
  - Cancellation only occurs when thread reaches **cancellation point**
    - `pthread_testcancel()`
    - Then **cleanup handler** is invoked
- On Linux systems, thread cancellation is handled through signals

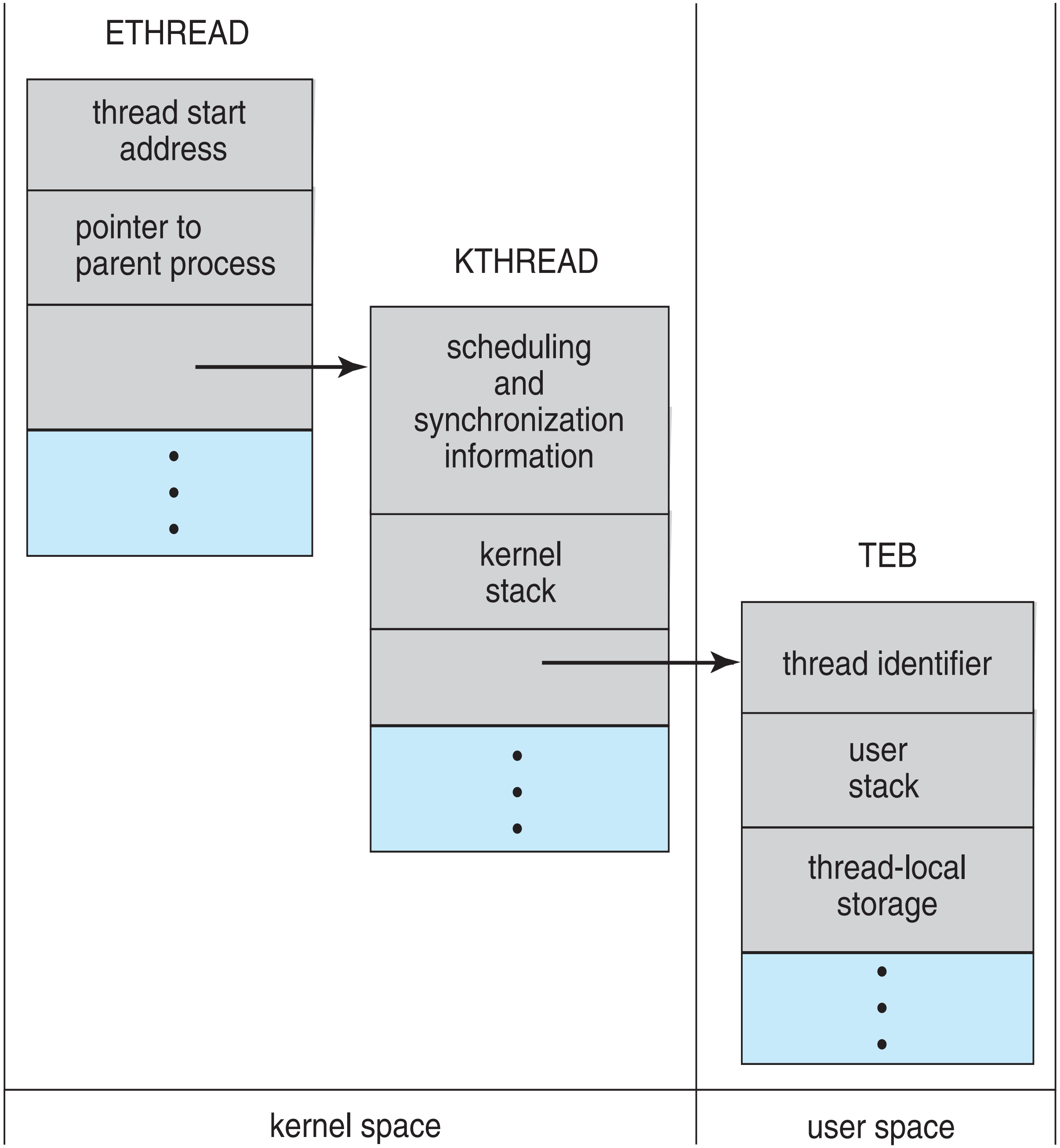
Thread-Local Storage

- **Thread-local storage** (**TLS**) allows each thread to have its own copy of data
- Useful when you do not have control over the thread creation process (i.e., when using a thread pool)
- Different from local variables
  - Local variables visible only during single function invocation
  - TLS visible across function invocations
- Similar to `static` data
  - TLS is unique to each thread

Scheduler Activations

- Both M:M and Two-level models require communication to maintain the appropriate number of kernel threads allocated to the application
- Typically use an intermediate data structure between user and kernel threads – **lightweight process** (**LWP**)
  - Appears to be a virtual processor on which process can schedule user thread to run
  - Each LWP attached to kernel thread
  - How many LWPs to create?
- Scheduler activations provide **upcalls** - a communication mechanism from the kernel to the **upcall handler** in the thread library
- This communication allows an application to maintain the correct number of kernel threads

Windows Threads Data Structures



Linux Threads

- Linux refers to them as ***tasks*** rather than ***threads***
- Thread creation is done through **`clone()`** system call
- **`clone()`** allows a child task to share the address space of the parent task (process)