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Chapter Overview

- Processes
- States of a process
- Operations on processes
 fork(), exec(), kill(), signal()
- Threads and lightweight processes
 POSIX threads

Processes

Definition

- A process is a program executing a given sequential computation.
 - □ An *active entity* unlike a program
 - Think of the difference between a recipe in a cookbook and the activity of a cook preparing a dish according to the recipe!

Processes and programs (I)

- Can have one program and many processes
 - When several users execute the same program (text editor, compiler, and so forth) at the same time, each execution of the program constitutes a separate process
 - A program that *forks* another sequential computation gives birth to a new process.

Examples

Several executions of same program



A program forking a child



Processes and programs (II)

Can have one process and two—or more—programs
 A process that performs an exec() call replaces the program it was executing

Examples

One process executing two programs
 Typical of Unix/Linux processes



The UNIX shell

- Program that
 - Reads input from the keyboard
 - Creates the process that will execute the command.
 - Wait for the completion of the process it has created unless it was specified otherwise
- User-level program that you and I could write

Yes, we can

```
#!/usr/bin/python3
.....
    A very very basic shell in Python 3
      Check https://www.python-course.eu/forking.php
.....
import os
def changeDirectory(argc, argv) :
    if argc == 2:
        try :
            os.chdir(argv[1])
        except Exception :
            print("Pshell: " + argv[0] +
                   ": no such file or directory")
    elif argc == 1 :
        os.chdir(os.environ['HOME'])
    else :
        print("Pshell: cd: too many arguments")
def vanillaCase(argc, argv) :
    kidpid = os.fork()
    if kidpid == 0 :
        try :
            os.execvp(argv[0], argv)
        except Exception :
            print(argv[0]+": program not found")
    else :
        os.wait()
```

```
while (1) :
    argline = input("Pshell: ")
    argline.strip()
    argv = argline.split() # Break at spaces
    argc = len(argv)
    if argc == 0 :
        continue
    if argv[0] == 'exit' : # Exiting Pshell
        break
    elif argv[0] == 'cd' :
        # Changing current directory
        changeDirectory(argc, argv)
    else :
        vanillaCase(argc, argv)
```

A very basic UNIX shell

```
for (;;) {
      parse_input_line(arg_vector);
      if built in command(arg vector[0]) {
          do it(arg vector);
          continue;
      } // built-in command
      pathname = find_path(arg_vector[0]);
      create_process(pathname, arg_vector);
      if (interactive())
          wait for this child();
   } // for loop
```

Notes

All functions in italics are templates yet to be written

Real shells do more:

- □ I/O redirection
- □ Pipes (as in **Is -alg | more**)
- □ Command aliasing,
- □ Wildcard characters (as" *****")

□ ...

Importance of processes

- Processes are the basic entities managed by the operating system
 - OS provides to each process the illusion it has the whole machine for itself
 - □ Each process has a dedicated *address space*

The process address space

- Set of main memory locations allocated to the process
 - Other processes cannot access them
 - Process cannot access address spaces of other processes
- A process address space is the *playpen* or the *sandbox* of its owner

A last word

- There are many *quasi-synonyms* for process:
 - Job (very old programmers still use it)
 - Task
 - Program (strongly deprecated)

Process states

The five basic process states

- Processes go repeatedly through several stages during their execution
 - □ Waiting to get into main memory
 - □ Waiting for the CPU
 - □ Running
 - □ Blocked while waiting for the completion of a system call

The big diagram



This is fundamental material

Process arrival

- New process
 - □ Starts in NEW state
 - Gets allocated a Process Control Block (PCB) and main memory
 - □ Is put in the READY state waiting for CPU time

The ready state

- AKA the *ready queue*
- Contains all processes waiting for the CPU
- Organized as a *priority queue*
- Processes leave the priority queue when they get some CPU time
 - Move then to the RUNNING state

The running state (I)

- A process in the running state has exclusive use of the CPU until
 - □ It *terminates* and goes to the *TERMINATED* state
 - □ It does a *system call* and goes to the *BLOCKED* state
 - □ It is *interrupted* and returns to the *READY* state

The running state (II)

- Processes are forced to relinquish the CPU and return to the READY state when
 - A higher-priority process arrives in the ready queue and preempts the running process
 - Get out, I'm more urgent than you!
 - A *timer interrupt* indicates that the process has exceeded its time slice of CPU time

The blocked state (I)

- Contains all processes waiting for the completion of a system request:
 - □ I/O operation
 - □ Any other system call
- Process is said to be
 - □ *blocked* (Arpaci-Dusseau & Arpaci-Dusseau)
 - 🗆 waiting
 - □ *sleeping* (UNIX)

The blocked state (II)

- A system call that does not require callers to wait until its completion is said to be *non-blocking*
 - Calling processes are immediately returned to the **READY** state
- The blocked state is organized as a set of queues
 One queue per device, OS resource

The process control block (I)

- Contains all the information associated with a specific process:
 - □ **Process identification** (pid), argument vector, ...
 - UNIX pids are unique integers
 - □ Process state (new, ready, running, ...),
 - CPU scheduling information
 - Process priority, processors on which the process can run,

•••,

The process control block (II)

- □ *Program counter* and other CPU registers
 - Including the *Program Status Word* (PSW),
- Memory management information
 - Very system specific,
- □ Accounting information
 - CPU time used, system time used, ...
- I/O status information
 - List of opened files, allocated devices, ...

The process table

- System-wide table containing
 - □ **Process identification** (pid), argument vector, ...
 - Process current state
 - Process priority and other CPU scheduling information
 - □ A *pointer* to the remaining information.

Swapping

- Whenever the system is very loaded, we might want to expel from main memory or swap out
 - Low priority processes
 - Processes that have been waiting for a long time for an external event
 - User is out of the office

These processes are said to be swapped out or suspended.



Suspended processes

- Suspended processes
 - □ Do not reside in main memory
 - □ Continue to be included in the process table
- Can distinguish between two types of suspended processes:
 Waiting for the completion of some request (*blocked_suspended*)
 Ready to run (*ready_suspended*)
 - □ Ready to run (*ready_suspended*).

A warning

- A system should *not* swap out ready processes unless their priority is *very low*
- Otherwise swapping out ready processes can only be a desperate measure

Operations on processes

Process creation, deletion, ...

The six essential operations

- Process creation
 - fork()
 - □ exec()
- Process synchronization
 wait()
- Process termination
 - _____exit()
 - □ kill()
 - □ signal()

Process creation

- Two basic system calls
 - fork() creates a carbon-copy of calling process sharing its opened files
 - execv() overwrites the contents of the process address space
 with the contents of an executable file

fork() (I)

- First process of a system is created when the system is booted
- All other processes are forked by another process
 - □ Their *parent process*
 - □ Said to be *children* of that process

fork() (II)

- When a process forks, OS creates an *identical copy* of forking process with
 - □ A new address space
 - □ A *new PCB*
- The only resources shared by the parent and the child process are the opened files
fork() (III)

Parent: fork() Child: returns fork() fork() fork() **PID** of returns 0 child opened files

First example

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
main() {
    fork();
    cout << "Hello" << endl;
} // main</pre>
```

will print two lines as **cout** will be executed by **both** the parent and the child

How it works



Second example

```
main() {
  fork();
  fork();
   cout << "Hello" << endl;
} // main</pre>
```

will print four lines as **cout** will be executed by the parent, its two children and its grandchild

How it works



Something smarter

```
int pid;
pid = fork();
if (pid == 0) {
     // child process
      • • •
} else {
     // parent process
      • • •
```

First simplification

• • •

```
int pid;
pid = fork();
if (pid == 0) {
     // child process
      • • •
     _exit(0); // normal exit
} // if
// parent process continues
```

Second simplification

```
int pid;
if ((pid = fork()) == 0) {
    // child process
    ...
_exit(0); // normal exit
} // if
// parent process continues
```

Waiting for child completion

wait(0)

□ Waits for the completion of any child

□ No wait if any child has already completed

while (wait(0) != kidpid)

Waits for the completion of a specific child identified by its *pid*

An example (I)

#include <iostream>
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <sys/wait.h>
using namespace std;

```
An example (II)
```

```
main() {
      int pid;
      if((pid = fork()) == 0) {
          cout << "Hello !" << endl;</pre>
           _exit(0);
      } // child
      wait(0);
      cout << "Goodbye!" << endl;</pre>
  } // main
```

Why we needs loop

- UNIX keeps in its process table all processes that have terminated but their parents have not yet waited for their termination
 - □ They are called *zombie processes*
- The statement

```
while (kidpid != wait(0));
```

is a loop with an *empty body*

Putting everything together (I)

```
int kidpid;
if ((kidpid = fork()) == 0) {
       // child process
        exit(0); // normal exit
} // if
// parent waits for child
while (wait(0) != kidpid);
```

Must use the while loop if the process has already forked other children

exec

Whole set of exec() system calls

Most interesting are

□ execv(pathname, argv)

- execve(pathname, argv, envp)
- □ execvp(filename, argv)

All exec() calls perform the same two tasks

- Erase current address space of process
- □ Load specified executable

execv

- execv(pathname, argv)
 - □ char pathname[]
 - full pathname of file to be loaded:
 /bin/ls instead of ls
 - □ char argv[][]
 - the argument vector: passed to the program to be loaded

Argument vector (I)

- An array of pointers to the individual argument strings
 - □ arg_vector[0] contains the name of the program
 as it appears in the command line
 - □ Other entries are parameters
 - □ End of the array is indicated by a **NULL** pointer

Argument vector (II)

- char argv[][];
- char **argv;



execve() and execvp()

 execve(pathname, argv, envp)
 Third argument points to a list of environment variables

execvp(argv[0], argv)

Lets user specify a command name instead of a full pathname
 Looks for argv[0] in list of directories specified in environment variable PATH

Putting everything together (II)

```
int pid
if ((pid = fork()) == 0) {
   // child process
   . . .
   execvp(filename, argv);
   exit(1); // exec failed
 } // if
 while (pid != wait(0));
 // parent waits
```

Observations (I)

- Not cheap
 fork() makes a complete copy
 of parent address space
 Very costly in a virtual memory system
 exec() thrashes that address space
- Best solution is copy-on-write (COW)

Copy-on-write

Parent and child share same address space

When either of them modifies a page, other gets its **own copy** of original page



Copy-on-write as a lazy approach

Copy-on-write postpones address space copying until it is actually needed

Do the strict minimum

Lazy approach

- Betting that very little copying will be actually needed
 - An execv() will quickly follow

Opposite is eager approach

Observations (II)

- Neither fork()nor exec()affect opened file descriptors
 They remain unchanged
- Important for UNIX I/O redirection mechanism

How this happened

Fork was not that expensive on a minicomputer with a 16-bit address space

□ Never had to copy more than 64KB

- Using a fork/exec allowed a very easy implementation of I/O redirection
 - □ After the **fork()** thus in the child
 - □ Before the exec() while parent is still in control

A very basic shell (I)

```
for (;;) {
    parse_input_line(argv);
    if built_in(argv[0]) {
        do_it(arg_vector);
        continue;
    } //built_in command
    path = find_path(argv[0]);
```

A very basic shell (II)

if ((pid = fork()) == 0) { // put here I/0 // redirection code execv(path, argv); _exit(1); // execv failed } //child process if (interactive()) while (wait(0) != pid); } // main for loop

Comments

Shell built-in commands include

🗆 exit

terminates the shell

□ cd

changes current directory

Commands are assumed to be interactive

□ *Non-interactive* commands end with an "&"

Terminating a process (I)

- Sending a signal:
 - kill() has two arguments
 - The process id of the receiving process
 - A signal name or a signal number
- #include <signal.h>
 kill(this_pid, this_signal);
- Process receiving the signal will terminate

Terminating a process (II)



What should I do? AARGH!

Catching a signal (I)

- The process receiving signal can *catch* it by using signal()
 Will not terminate
- signal(a_signal, catch_it);
 - where catch_it points to a function that will be called whenever signal a_signal signal is received.
- The ninth signal, **SIGKIL**, cannot be caught.

Catching a signal (II)



Process is now **shielded** by **signal()** call

Lightweight processes/threads

Kernel supported threads, user-level threads, POSIX threads (pthreads)

Limitations of processes

Single threaded server:

Processes one request at a time

```
for (;;) {
    receive(&client, request);
    process_request(...);
    send(client, reply);
} // for
```

A basic question

What does a server do when it does not process client requests?

Three good answers

□ Nothing

□ It waits for client requests

□ It "sleeps"

Blocked state is sometimes called the sleep state

The problem

- Most client requests involve disk accesses
 File servers
 Authentications servers
- When this happens, the server remains in the BLOCKED state
 Cannot handle other customers' requests
- Could end doing nothing most of the time
- Poor throughput (and long delays)
An analogy

- In most fast-food restaurants, counter employees process customer orders one order at a time.
- Not be possible in a traditional restaurant
 - □ A server that would only be able to wait on one table at a time would be idle most of the time.

A first solution

```
int pid;
for (;;) {
   receive(&client, request);
   if ((pid = fork())== 0) {
       process_request(...);
       send(client, reply);
       exit(0); // done
   } // if
} // for
```

The good and the bad news

• The good news:

□ Server can now handle several user requests in parallel

• The bad news:

- □ fork() is a very expensive system call
 - Has to create a new address space

A better solution

Provide a faster mechanism for creating cheaper processes:

Lightweight processes

□ Threads

How?

Lightweight processes and threads share the address space of their parent

□ No need to create a new address space

Most expensive step of fork() system call

Is it not dangerous?

To some extent because

□ No memory protection inside an address space

Lightweight processes can now interfere with each other

But

□ All lightweight process code is written by the same team

General Concept (I)

A thread or lightweight process

□ Does *not* have its *own address space*

□ Shares it with its parent and other peer threads in the same address space (*task*)

Each thread has a program counter, a set of registers and its own stack.

Everything else is shared

General Concept (II)





 A regular process (single-threaded) A process containing several threads

Implementation

Threads and LWPs can either be
 Kernel supported:

Mach, Linux, Windows NT and after

User-level:

Pthread library, …

Kernel-Supported Threads (I)

- Managed by the kernel through system calls
- One process table entry per thread
- This is the best solution for *multiprocessor architectures* Kernel can allocate *several processors* to a *single multithreaded task*

Kernel-Supported Threads (II)

Supported by Mach, Linux, Windows NT and more recent systems

Performance Issue:

- Switching between two threads in the same task involves a system call
- Results in two context switches

Linux Threads



clone (fn, stack, flags)

where

□ fn specifies function to be executed by new thread or process

- □ **stack** points to the stack it will use
- **flags** is a set of flags specifying various options
 - CLONE_VM for threads
 - Regular process if CLONE_VM is missing

User-Level Threads (I)

- User-level threads are managed by procedures within the task address space
 - □ The *thread library*
- One process table entry per task/address space
 Kernel is not even aware that process is multithreaded

User-Level Threads (II)

Can be retrofitted into an OS lacking thread support Portable thread libraries

No performance penalty:

- Switching between two threads of the same task is done cheaply within the task
- □ Same cost as a procedure call

User-Level Threads (III)

Programming issue:

- Each time a thread does a *blocking system call*, kernel will move the *whole process* to the *blocked state*
 - It does not know better
- □ Must then use *non-blocking* system calls
 - Complicates programmer's task

User-Level Threads (IV)



POSIX Threads

POSIX threads, or *pthreads*, started as pure user-level threads managed by the POSIX thread library

□ Gained later *some kernel support*

- Ported to various Unix and Windows systems (*Pthreads-win32*).
- Function names start with pthread_
- Calls tend to have a complex syntax

An Example (I)



#include <pthread.h>
static int count[2];

Static variables are shared by all threads

Other variables are stored on the private stack of each thread.

An Example (II)



```
void *child(void *arg) {
    int index;
    index = (int) arg; // required
    for(;;) {
        printf("Child count: %d\n",
             ++count[index]);
      sleep(1); // one second delay
     } // for loop
} // child
```

An Example (III)



NULL stack address specifies a new stack "anywhere"

An Example (IV)



```
i++; // now i == 1
while (count[i] < 12) {
    printf("Parent count: %d\n", ++count[i]);
    sleep(1); // one second delay
    } // while loop
    return 0;
} // main</pre>
```

Understanding pthread_create()



pthread_create() has four arguments

🗆 &tid

- Placeholder for thread_id
- - Stack address of new stack
 - NULL means can be put "anywhere"
- start_function
 - Void pointer to a function
- □ (void *) arg
 - Sole argument passed to start_function

Comparing the approaches

Feature	Kernel threads	User-level threads
Portability		
Multiprocessing		
Performance		
Ease of use		

Which approach is the most portable?

Feature	Kernel threads	User-level threads
Portability		
Multiprocessing		
Overhead		
Ease of use		

Which approach handles best multicores?

Feature	Kernel threads	User-level threads
Portability		
Multiprocessing		
Overhead		
Ease of use		

Which approach has the lowest overhead

Feature	Kernel threads	User-level threads
Portability		
Multiprocessing		
Overhead		
Ease of use		

Which approach is easier to use?

Feature	Kernel threads	User-level threads
Portability		
Multiprocessing		
Overhead		
Ease of use		

Conclusion

- No clear winner between kernel-supported and user-level threads
- Solaris (from Sun, now taken over by Oracle)
 Supports both *user-level threads* and *kernel threads* Lets programmers combine them as they need