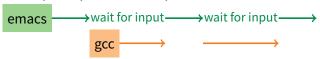
Processes

- A process is an instance of a program running
- Modern OSes run multiple processes simultaneously
- Examples (can all run simultaneously):
 - gcc file_A.c compiler running on file A
 - gcc file_B.c-compiler running on file B
 - emacs text editor
 - firefox web browser
- Non-examples (implemented as one process):
 - Multiple firefox windows or emacs frames (still one process)
- Why processes?
 - Simplicity of programming
 - Speed: Higher throughput, lower latency

Speed

Multiple processes can increase CPU utilization

- Overlap one process's computation with another's wait



Multiple processes can reduce latency

- Running A then B requires 100 sec for B to complete



- Running A and B concurrently makes B finish faster



A is slower than if it had whole machine to itself,
 but still < 100 sec unless both A and B completely CPU-bound

Processes in the real world

- Processes and parallelism have been a fact of life much longer than OSes have been around
 - E.g., say takes 1 worker 10 months to make 1 widget
 - Company may hire 100 workers to make 100 widgets
 - Latency for first widget ≫ 1/10 month
 - Throughput may be < 10 widgets per month (if can't perfectly parallelize task)
 - And 100 workers making 10,000 widgets may achieve > 10 widgets/month (e.g., if workers never idly wait for paint to dry)

A process's view of the world

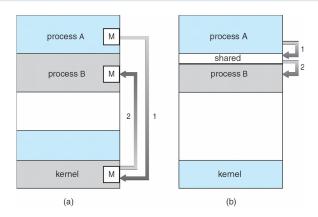
Each process has own view of machine

- Its own address space
- Its own open files
- Its own virtual CPU (through preemptive multitasking)
- *(char *)0xc000 different in P₁ & P₂
- Simplifies programming model
 - gcc does not care that firefox is running
- stack heap data text

max

- Sometimes want interaction between processes
 - Simplest is through files: emacs edits file, gcc compiles it
 - More complicated: Shell/command, Window manager/app.

Inter-Process Communication



- How can processes interact in real time?
 - (a) By passing messages through the kernel
 - (b) By sharing a region of physical memory
 - (c) Through asynchronous signals or alerts

Outline

- 1 (UNIX-centric) User view of processes
- 2 Kernel view of processes
- 3 Threads
- 4 Thread implementation details

Creating processes

- Original UNIX paper is a great reference on core system calls
- int fork (void);
 - Create new process that is exact copy of current one
 - Returns process ID of new process in "parent"
 - Returns 0 in "child"
- int waitpid (int pid, int *stat, int opt);
 - pid process to wait for, or -1 for any
 - stat will contain exit value, or signal
 - opt usually 0 or WNOHANG
 - Returns process ID or -1 on error

Deleting processes

- void exit (int status);
 - Current process ceases to exist
 - status shows up in waitpid (shifted)
 - By convention, status of 0 is success, non-zero error
- int kill (int pid, int sig);
 - Sends signal sig to process pid
 - SIGTERM most common value, kills process by default (but application can catch it for "cleanup")
 - SIGKILL stronger, kills process always

Running programs

- int execve (char *prog, char **argv, char **envp);
 - prog full pathname of program to run
 - argv argument vector that gets passed to main
 - envp environment variables, e.g., PATH, HOME

Generally called through a wrapper functions

- int execvp (char *prog, char **argv);
 Search PATH for prog, use current environment
- int execlp (char *prog, char *arg, ...);
 List arguments one at a time, finish with NULL
- Example: minish.c
 - Loop that reads a command, then executes it

minish.c (simplified)

```
pid_t pid; char **av;
void doexec () {
 execvp (av[0], av);
 perror (av[0]);
 exit (1);
   /* ... main loop: */
   for (::) {
     parse_next_line_of_input (&av, stdin);
     switch (pid = fork ()) {
     case -1:
       perror ("fork"); break;
     case 0:
       doexec ():
     default:
       waitpid (pid, NULL, 0); break;
```

Manipulating file descriptors

- int dup2 (int oldfd, int newfd);
 - Closes newfd, if it was a valid descriptor
 - Makes newfd an exact copy of oldfd
 - Two file descriptors will share same offset (1seek on one will affect both)
- int fcntl (int fd, F_SETFD, int val)
 - Sets close on exec flag if val = 1, clears if val = 0
 - Makes file descriptor non-inheritable by spawned programs
- Example: redirsh.c
 - Loop that reads a command and executes it
 - Recognizes command < input > output 2> errlog

redirsh.c

```
void doexec (void) {
  int fd;
  if (infile) { /* non-NULL for "command < infile" */
    if ((fd = open (infile, O_RDONLY)) < 0) {
     perror (infile):
     exit (1);
   if (fd != 0) {
     dup2 (fd, 0);
     close (fd);
  /* ... do same for outfile\rightarrowfd 1, errfile\rightarrowfd 2 ... */
  execvp (av[0], av);
  perror (av[0]);
  exit (1);
```

Pipes

- int pipe (int fds[2]);
 - Returns two file descriptors in fds [0] and fds [1]
 - Data written to fds[1] will be returned by read on fds[0]
 - When last copy of fds [1] closed, fds [0] will return EOF
 - Returns 0 on success, -1 on error

Operations on pipes

- read/write/close as with files
- When fds[1] closed, read(fds[0]) returns 0 bytes
- When fds[0] closed, write(fds[1]):
 - ▶ Kills process with SIGPIPE
 - Or if signal ignored, fails with EPIPE
- Example: pipesh.c
 - Sets up pipeline command1 | command2 | command3 ...

pipesh.c (simplified)

```
void doexec (void) {
 while (outcmd) {
   int pipefds[2]; pipe (pipefds);
   switch (fork ()) {
   case -1:
     perror ("fork"); exit (1);
   case 0:
     dup2 (pipefds[1], 1);
     close (pipefds[0]); close (pipefds[1]);
     outcmd = NULL;
     break;
   default:
     dup2 (pipefds[0], 0);
     close (pipefds[0]); close (pipefds[1]);
     parse_command_line (&av, &outcmd, outcmd);
     break:
```

Why fork?

- Most calls to fork followed by execve
- Could also combine into one spawn system call
- Occasionally useful to fork one process
 - Unix dump utility backs up file system to tape
 - If tape fills up, must restart at some logical point
 - Implemented by forking to revert to old state if tape ends
- Real win is simplicity of interface
 - Tons of things you might want to do to child: Manipulate file descriptors, set environment variables, reduce privileges, ...
 - Yet fork requires no arguments at all

Spawning a process without fork

- Without fork, needs tons of different options for new process
- Example: Windows CreateProcess system call
 - Also CreateProcessAsUser, CreateProcessWithLogonW, CreateProcessWithTokenW,...

```
BOOL WINAPI CreateProcess(
 _In_opt_ LPCTSTR lpApplicationName,
 _Inout_opt_ LPTSTR lpCommandLine,
 _In_opt_ LPSECURITY_ATTRIBUTES lpProcessAttributes,
              LPSECURITY_ATTRIBUTES lpThreadAttributes,
 _In_opt_
              BOOL bInheritHandles,
 _{
m In}_{
m }
 In
              DWORD dwCreationFlags,
 _In_opt_
              LPVOID lpEnvironment,
              LPCTSTR lpCurrentDirectory,
 _In_opt_
               LPSTARTUPINFO lpStartupInfo,
 _In_
              LPPROCESS_INFORMATION lpProcessInformation
 _Out_
```

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Implementing processes

Keep a data structure for each process

- Process Control Block (PCB)
- Called proc in Unix, task_struct in Linux

Tracks state of the process

- Running, ready (runnable), waiting, etc.

Includes information necessary to run

- Registers, virtual memory mappings, etc.
- Open files (including memory mapped files)

Various other data about the process

 Credentials (user/group ID), signal mask, controlling terminal, priority, accounting statistics, whether being debugged, which system call binary emulation in use, ... Process state

Process ID

User id, etc.

Program counter

Registers

Address space

(VM data structs)

Open files

PCB

Process states



Process can be in one of several states

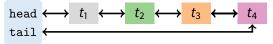
- new & terminated at beginning & end of life
- running currently executing (or will execute on kernel return)
- ready can run, but kernel has chosen different process to run
- waiting needs async event (e.g., disk operation) to proceed

Which process should kernel run?

- if 0 runnable, run idle loop (or halt CPU), if 1 runnable, run it
- if >1 runnable, must make scheduling decision

Scheduling

- How to pick which process to run
- Scan process table for first runnable?
 - Expensive. Weird priorities (small pids do better)
 - Divide into runnable and blocked processes
- FIFO?
 - Put threads on back of list, pull them from front:



- Priority?
 - Give some threads a better shot at the CPU

Scheduling policy

Want to balance multiple goals

- Fairness don't starve processes
- Priority reflect relative importance of procs
- Deadlines must do X (play audio) by certain time
- Throughput want good overall performance
- Efficiency minimize overhead of scheduler itself

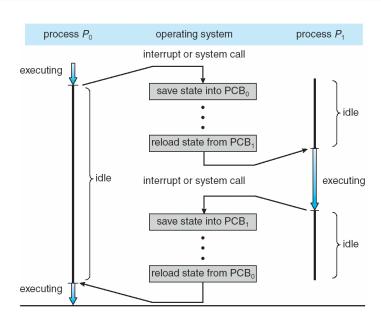
No universal policy

- Many variables, can't optimize for all
- Conflicting goals (e.g., throughput or priority vs. fairness)
- We will spend a whole lecture on this topic

Preemption

- Can preempt a process when kernel gets control
- Running process can vector control to kernel
 - System call, page fault, illegal instruction, etc.
 - May put current process to sleep—e.g., read from disk
 - May make other process runnable—e.g., fork, write to pipe
- Periodic timer interrupt
 - If running process used up quantum, schedule another
- Device interrupt
 - Disk request completed, or packet arrived on network
 - Previously waiting process becomes runnable
 - Schedule if higher priority than current running proc.
- Changing running process is called a context switch

Context switch



Context switch details

Very machine dependent. Typical things include:

- Save program counter and integer registers (always)
- Save floating point or other special registers
- Save condition codes
- Change virtual address translations

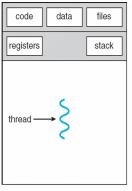
Non-negligible cost

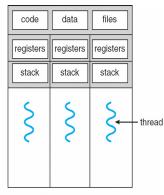
- Save/restore floating point registers expensive
 - Optimization: only save if process used floating point
- May require flushing TLB (memory translation hardware)
 - ▶ HW Optimization 1: don't flush kernel's own data from TLB
 - HW Optimization 2: use tag to avoid flushing any data
- Usually causes more cache misses (switch working sets)

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Threads





single-threaded process

multithreaded process

- A thread is a schedulable execution context
 - Program counter, stack, registers, ...
- Simple programs use one thread per process
- But can also have multi-threaded programs
 - Multiple threads running in same process's address space

Why threads?

- Most popular abstraction for concurrency
 - Lighter-weight abstraction than processes
 - All threads in one process share memory, file descriptors, etc.
- Allows one process to use multiple CPUs or cores
- Allows program to overlap I/O and computation
 - Same benefit as OS running emacs & gcc simultaneously
 - E.g., threaded web server services clients simultaneously:

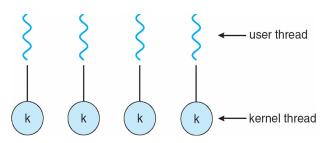
```
for (;;) {
  fd = accept_client ();
  thread_create (service_client, &fd);
}
```

- Most kernels have threads, too
 - Typically at least one kernel thread for every process

Thread package API

- tid thread_create (void (*fn) (void *), void *);
 - Create a new thread, run fn with arg
- void thread_exit ();
 - Destroy current thread
- void thread_join (tid thread);
 - Wait for thread thread to exit
- Plus lots of support for synchronization [in 3 weeks]
- See [Birell] for good introduction
- Can have preemptive or non-preemptive threads
 - Preemptive causes more race conditions
 - Non-preemptive can't take advantage of multiple CPUs
 - Before prevalent SMPs, most kernels non-preemptive

Kernel threads



- Can implement thread_create as a system call
- To add thread_create to an OS that doesn't have it:
 - Start with process abstraction in kernel
 - thread_create like process creation with features stripped out
 - ▶ Keep same address space, file table, etc., in new process
 - ▶ rfork/clone syscalls actually allow individual control
- Faster than a process, but still very heavy weight

Limitations of kernel-level threads

Every thread operation must go through kernel

- create, exit, join, synchronize, or switch for any reason
- On my laptop: syscall takes 100 cycles, fn call 5 cycles
- Result: threads 10x-30x slower when implemented in kernel

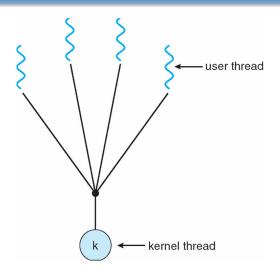
One-size fits all thread implementation

- Kernel threads must please all people
- Maybe pay for fancy features (priority, etc.) you don't need

General heavy-weight memory requirements

- E.g., requires a fixed-size stack within kernel
- Other data structures designed for heavier-weight processes

Alternative: User threads



- Implement as user-level library (a.k.a. green threads)
 - One kernel thread per process
 - thread_create, thread_exit, etc., just library functions

Implementing user-level threads

- Allocate a new stack for each thread_create
- Keep a queue of runnable threads
- Replace networking system calls (read/write/etc.)
 - If operation would block, switch and run different thread
- Schedule periodic timer signal (setitimer)
 - Switch to another thread on timer signals (preemption)
- Multi-threaded web server example
 - Thread calls read to get data from remote web browser
 - "Fake" read function makes read syscall in non-blocking mode
 - No data? schedule another thread
 - On timer or when idle check which connections have new data

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Background: calling conventions

Registers divided into 2 groups

- Functions free to clobber caller-saved regs (%eax [return val], %edx, & %ecx on x86)
- But must restore callee-saved ones to original value upon return (on x86, %ebx, %esi, %edi, plus %ebp and %esp)
- sp register always base of stack
 - Frame pointer (fp) is old sp
- Local variables stored in registers and on stack
- Function arguments go in caller-saved regs and on stack
 - With 32-bit x86, all arguments on stack

Call arguments

return addr

old frame ptr

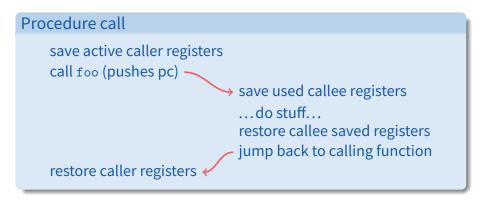
registers

Local vars and temps

sp --->

fp

Background: procedure calls



- Caller must save some state across function call
 - Return address, caller-saved registers
- Other state does not need to be saved
 - Callee-saved regs, global variables, stack pointer

Pintos thread implementation

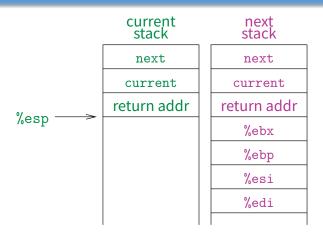
- Pintos implements user processes on top of its own threads
 - Same technique can be used to implement user-level threads, too
- Per-thread state in thread control block structure

```
struct thread {
    ...
    uint8_t *stack; /* Saved stack pointer. */
    ...
};
uint32_t thread_stack_ofs = offsetof(struct thread, stack);
```

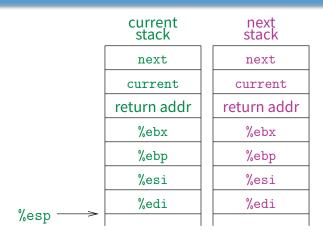
- C declaration for asm thread-switch function:
- Also thread initialization function to create new stack:

```
pushl %ebx; pushl %ebp
                               # Save callee-saved regs
pushl %esi; pushl %edi
mov thread_stack_ofs, %edx
                               # %edx = offset of stack field
                                        in thread struct
movl 20(%esp), %eax
                               # %eax = cur
movl %esp, (%eax,%edx,1)
                               # cur->stack = %esp
movl 24(%esp), %ecx
                              # \%ecx = next
movl (%ecx, %edx, 1), %esp
                               # %esp = next->stack
popl %edi; popl %esi
                               # Restore calle-saved regs
popl %ebp; popl %ebx
ret
                               # Resume execution
```

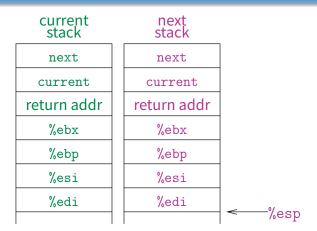
- This is actual code from Pintos switch. S (slightly reformatted)
 - See Thread Switching in documentation



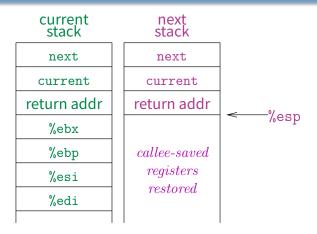
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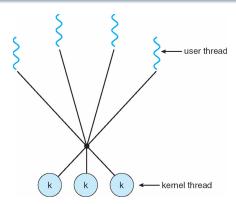


- This is actual code from Pintos switch. S (slightly reformatted)
 - See Thread Switching in documentation

Limitations of user-level threads

- A user-level thread library can do the same thing as Pintos
- Can't take advantage of multiple CPUs or cores
- A blocking system call blocks all threads
 - Can replace read to handle network connections
 - But usually OSes don't let you do this for disk
 - So one uncached disk read blocks all threads
- A page fault blocks all threads
- Possible deadlock if one thread blocks on another
 - May block entire process and make no progress
 - [More on deadlock in future lectures.]

User threads on kernel threads



- User threads implemented on kernel threads
 - Multiple kernel-level threads per process
 - thread_create, thread_exit still library functions as before
- Sometimes called n: m threading
 - Have n user threads per m kernel threads
 (Simple user-level threads are n : 1, kernel threads 1 : 1)

Limitations of *n* : *m* **threading**

- Many of same problems as n: 1 threads
 - Blocked threads, deadlock, ...
- Hard to keep same # ktrheads as available CPUs
 - Kernel knows how many CPUs available
 - Kernel knows which kernel-level threads are blocked
 - But tries to hide these things from applications for transparency
 - So user-level thread scheduler might think a thread is running while underlying kernel thread is blocked
- Kernel doesn't know relative importance of threads
 - Might preempt kthread in which library holds important lock

Lessons

- Threads best implemented as a library
 - But kernel threads not best interface on which to do this
- Better kernel interfaces have been suggested
 - See Scheduler Activations [Anderson et al.]
 - Maybe too complex to implement on existing OSes (some have added then removed such features, now Windows is trying it)
- Standard threads still fine for most purposes
 - Use kernel threads if I/O concurrency main goal
 - Use n: m threads for highly concurrent (e.g., scientific applications) with many thread switches
- But concurrency greatly increases complexity
 - More on that in concurrency, synchronization lectures...