COMP 242 Class Notes

Handout 2: Process Management

1. Scheduling and Context Switching

We saw earlier that an operating system gives the illusion of concurrency in a single processor system by switching the CPU among different processes, running one for a period of time before moving to another. We now study two components of this switching:

(1) **Context Switching**, which consists of stopping one process and starting a new one.

(2) **Scheduling**, which consists of choosing a new process among the processes that are eligible for execution.

1.1. Xinu Scheduling Policy

A **scheduling policy** determines how a new process is chosen for execution. The policy should be distinguished from the mechanism used to enforce it. We describe here the Xinu scheduling policy. The mechanisms are described later.

The Xinu scheduling policy has three components:

(1) Each process is associated with a **priority**.

(2) The highest priority ready process is always chosen for execution.

(3) Among processes with equal priority scheduling is **round-robin**. By **round-robin** we mean that processes are selected one after another so that all members of a set have an opportunity to execute before any member has a second chance.

1.2. Process Table

The **process table** is a data structure maintained by the operating system to facilitate context switching and scheduling, and other activities discussed later. Each entry in the table, often called a **context block**, contains information about a process such as process name and state (discussed below), priority (discussed below), registers, and a semaphore it may be waiting on (discussed later)

In Xinu, the index of a process table entry associated with a process, serves to identify the process, and is known as the **process id** of the process.

1.3. Process State

The system associates a process with a **state**, which helps it keep track of what the process is doing. Two of these states, used for context switching and scheduling, are **current** and **ready**. Other states will be discussed later.

The single process currently receiving CPU service is in the *current* state; other processes eligible for CPU service are in the *ready* state (Some processes are not eligible for CPU service, for instance a process waiting on a semaphore).

1.4. Xinu Mechanism for Context Switching and Scheduling

The Xinu mechanism for context switching and scheduling consists of three components, which are described below.

Ready List

The ready processes in the system are kept in a 'queue' called the **ready list**. This list is sorted by the priority of the processes; the lowest priority process appears at the head of the list and the highest priority process is at the tail. Processes of the same priority are sorted by the order in which they are to get service. Thus when a new process is inserted, it is inserted not at the end of the list, but at a point determined by its priority. The current process is not on this list, its id is stored in a global integer variable called **currpid**.

resched

resched is a routine that is called by the current process when rescheduling is to take place. (We shall discuss later the conditions that determine when a rescheduling takes place)

The routine does the following:

(1) *Choosing a New Process*: It chooses the new process to execute based on the scheduling policy described above. Thus it looks at the process at the tail of the ready list. If the priority of this process is lower than the priority of the current process, then the current process, if it is executable, retains control of the CPU and the routine returns. (The scheduling policy dictates that a lower priority process in the ready list will be executed only if there are no higher priority processes in the list). Otherwise the process at the tail of the process is chosen as the new process and the following steps are taken.

(2) *Change of State of New Process*: The new process is removed from the ready list, its state is changed from *ready* to *current*.

(3) *Allocation of Time*: The new process is is allocated a time interval to execute (we shall study later how this is done). This time interval is the maximum time it will execute control before rescheduling takes place.

(4) *Change of State of Old Process*: The routine *resched* is never called directly by the user process. It is called indirectly by some other system provided routine such as *wait* on a semaphore. This routine may change the state of the process. For instance *wait* changes the state of process to *wait* (as we will discuss later). At the point *resched* is called, the process is executable only if its state is still *current*. *resched* uses this information to determine if the old process needs to be put in the ready list. If the state is *current* it changes it to *ready* and inserts the process in front of other processes with the same priority (so that it is picked last among processes with the same priority, thus ensuring round robin scheduling among processes with the same priority), and behind processes with lower priority (so that a higher priority process is scheduled before a lower priority one). Otherwise it leaves the process untouched since some other routine took care of changing the state of the process and putting it in an appropriate list.

(5) *Call to ctxsw*: Finally the routine *ctxsw* (discussed below) is called. This routine does work that cannot be done in a high level language (compared to assembly language) like C.

ctxsw

The routine **ctxsw**, described in the text (pg 60), does the following:

(1) Saves the registers of the old process in the process table entry for it. Registers R1-R5, the stack pointer, the program counter, and the process status are all saved. (Compare this with register saves in a procedure call) It has to be careful while saving a value for the PC. It does not save the address of any of the remaining instructions in *ctxsw* (why?). Instead, it saves the return address of ctxsw. Thus, when the old process is resumed, it starts executing after the statement in *Resched* that calls *ctxsw*.

(2) Loads the registers of the new process from the saved values in the process table entry for it. Again, care has to be taken with the program counter. This register can be loaded only after the rest of the state has been restored. The routine uses the *rtt* instruction to transfer return control to the new process. This instruction loads the PC and PS from values saved in the stack. Thus *ctxsw* makes sure that these values are stored in the stack. (What routine will the new process be executing when control is transferred to it?)

The Null Process

The code in *Resched*, when deciding on a new process to execute, does not bother to verify if the ready list is empty. It assumes that one process is always available To insure that a ready process always exists, Xinu creates an extra process, called the *null process*, when it initializes the system. This process has process id 0, its code consists of an infinite loop, and it has priority zero (why?).

2. Process Resumption and Suspension

Process **suspension** and **resumption** are used to *temporarily* stop a process from executing and then restart it again.

2.1. Semantics

(1) A process may suspend itself or another process may suspend it.

(2) A process to be suspended should be in the *ready* or *current* state.

(3) Suspended processes go into the *suspended* state.

(4) A process can be resumed only if it is in the *suspended* state.

(5) A resumed process goes to the *ready* state (why not to the *current* state?)

Look at transition diagram in figure 5.1 in the text book.

2.2. Implementation

Process resumption and suspension are implemented by the procedures *resume* and *suspend* respectively.

Procedure resume

(1) Takes as argument the process id of the process to be resumed.

(2) Returns an error value if argument is not a valid process id or is not in the suspended state.

(3) If no errors are found, it returns the priority of the suspended process at the time that resume was called.

(4) Puts the process in the *ready* list.

(5) Asks for rescheduling. (why?)

(6) Stores the value of the priority of the resumed process *before* the process is rescheduled (why does this value have to be stored?).

(7) Disables interrupts while accessing the process table to read the priority of the resumed process. If interrupts are not disabled, a clock interrupt may ask for rescheduling. Thus some other process may change the priority of the resumed process before the resuming process has a chance to read the priority.

Procedure suspend

(1) Takes as argument the process id of process to be suspended.

(2) Returns an error value if process id is invalid or process is not in the ready or current state. Otherwise returns the priority of the process just before suspend terminates.

(3) Changes state of process to *suspended*.

(4) If process is in the *ready* state it is removed from the ready list. (Should it put the process in some other list?)

(5) If process is in the *current* state, it calls *resched* (why?).

(6) disables interrupts while accessing process table.

3. Process Termination

(1) A process may terminate a) when it finishes execution of its procedure or b) as a result of a **kill** request made by the same or another process.

(2) Process termination involves releasing resources held by the process and removing all traces of it.

3.1. Implementation

The procedure **kill** handles both kinds of process termination. It may be explicitly called by a process that makes a *kill* request or it may be called implicitly when a process terminates normally.

Tasks Performed

(Error checking, ensuring mutual exclusion while accessing process table, and other functions common to *resume* and *suspend* will not be mentioned in the remaining implementation descriptions)

(1) returns stack space.

(2) frees process table entry, making it available for reuse.

(3) remove process from any list it is on,

(4) increments semaphore count if necessary,

(5) reschedules if process killed itself.

4. Process Creation

(1) An existing process requests for a new process to be created.

(2) The new process does not begin execution but is in the *suspended* state.

4.1. Implementation

Implemented by routine *create (procaddr, ssize, priority, name, nargs, args)*.

Arguments

(1) procedure to be executed

(2) stack size

(3) priority

(4) name

(5) number of args and args

4.2. Tasks Done

(1) Create stack space

(2) Create process table entry

(3) Fill priority, name, registers and other fields of process table entry. (what values should the PC and initial state contain?)

(4) Simulate a call to procedure to be executed. Copy arguments to the stack of the new process and fill return address of a routine (*userret*) that calls the *kill* procedure. Thus kill also handles normal termination.

(5) Returns process id.

5. System Calls

These are procedure calls that a user program may make to access the services provided by the OS. So far we have seen four system calls: *create*, *kill*, *resume*, and *suspend*. We now discuss some other miscellaneous calls:

Getpid

This routine returns the process id of the process making the calls.

Getprio (pid)

Returns the priority of a process.

Chprio (pid, newprio)

Change the priority of a process.

6. Need for Multiprocessing

Why do we need multiprocessing, when computation, instead of being speeded, may actually be slowed down in a single processor system (because of context switching overhead and overhead of making system calls such as *create* and *terminate*)? Why is sequential processing not sufficient?

Multiprocessing is useful for several reasons, which are discussed below.

6.1. Time Sharing

In the absence of multiprocessing, a single application is run at a time. Thus a single user is serviced at a time. Multiprocessing is necessary for time sharing systems, which allow several users to get service simultaneously.

6.2. Different Applications per User

It is also useful to have several applications running simultaneously on behalf of the same user. For instance an editor and a compiler could run together. The editor could be higher priority so that the compiler runs only when the editor is waiting for user input.

6.3. Several Processes per Application

A single application can be broken up into several parts, each one associated with a separate process. This division of labour often makes the program easier to write. As an example consider a screen manager that displays several windows simultaneously and accepts user input from each window. In a sequential processing system, exactly one process is assigned to this application. The program for this process would look as follows:

```
initialize all windows.
loop
        wait for user input
        determine the window to which it applies
        restore state of window
        service input
        save state
end loop
```

In a multiprocess system, a process could be associated with each window. The state of a window is stored in the variables of its process, and the operating system is responsible for saving and restoring this state. Thus each process is concerned only with servicing input, and not with saving and restoring state.

6.4. Concurrent Computing

The different processes can execute on different computers in a multiprocessing system. Thus computation may be speeded up. As an example consider a checkers-playing application that evaluates different board positions. Each board position could be evaluated by a different process running on a different computer.