

Last Class: Processes

- A process is the unit of execution.
- Processes are represented as Process Control Blocks in the OS
 - PCBs contain process state, scheduling and memory management information, etc
- A process is either New, Ready, Waiting, Running, or Terminated.
- On a uniprocessor, there is at most one running process at a time.
- The program currently executing on the CPU is changed by performing a context switch
- Processes communicate either with message passing or shared memory



Today: Threads

- What are threads?
- Where should we implement threads? In the kernel? In a user level threads package?
- How should we schedule threads (or processes) onto the CPU?

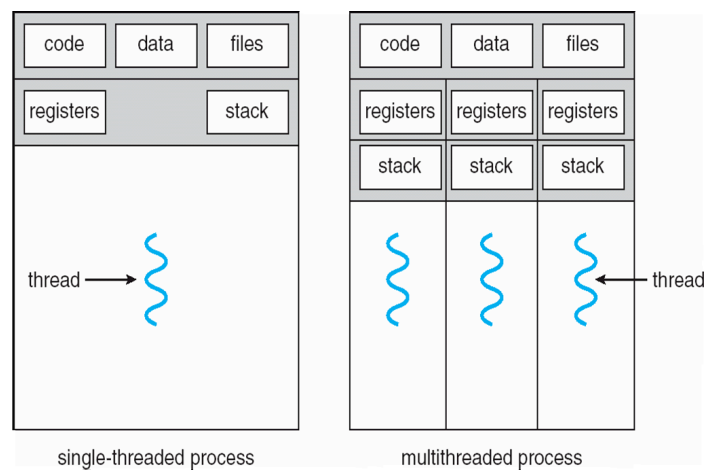


Processes versus Threads

- A **process** defines the address space, text, resources, etc.,
- A **thread** defines a single sequential execution stream within a process (PC, stack, registers).
- Threads extract the *thread of control* information from the process
- Threads are bound to a single process.
- Each process may have multiple threads of control within it.
 - The address space of a process is shared among all its threads
 - No system calls are required to cooperate among threads
 - Simpler than message passing and shared-memory

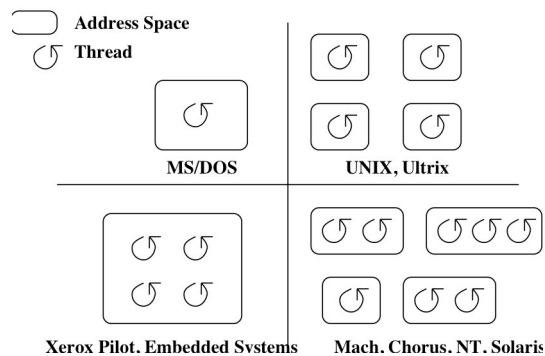


Single and Multithreaded Processes



Classifying Threaded Systems

Operating Systems can support one or many address spaces, and one or many threads per address space.



Example Threaded Program

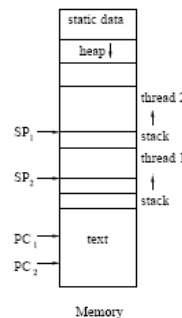
```

main()
  global in, out, n, buffer[n];
  in = 0; out = 0;
  fork_thread (producer());
  fork_thread (consumer());
end

producer
  repeat
    nextp = produced item
    while in+1 mod n = out do no-op
    buffer[in] = nextp; in = (in+1) mod n
  end

consumer
  repeat
    while in = out do no-op
    nextc = buffer[out]; out = (out+1) mod n
    consume item nextc
  end
    
```

One possible memory layout:



- Forking a thread can be a system call to the kernel, or a procedure call to a thread library (user code).



Kernel Threads

- A **kernel thread**, also known as a **lightweight process**, is a thread that the operating system knows about.
 - Switching between kernel threads of the same process requires a small context switch.
 - The values of registers, program counter, and stack pointer must be changed.
 - Memory management information does not need to be changed since the threads share an address space.
 - The kernel must manage and schedule threads (as well as processes), but it can use the same process scheduling algorithms.
- ➔ Switching between kernel threads is slightly faster than switching between processes.

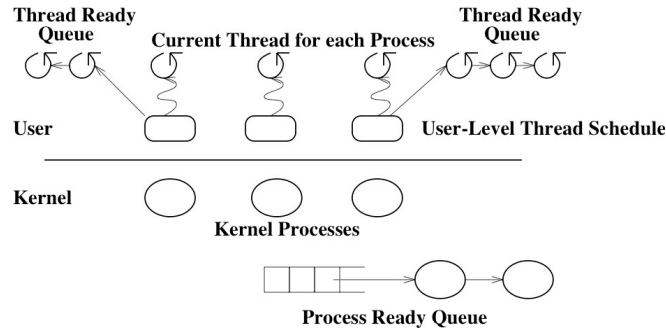


User-Level Threads

- A **user-level thread** is a thread that the OS does *not* know about.
- The OS only knows about the process containing the threads.
- The OS only schedules the process, not the threads within the process.
- The programmer uses a *thread library* to manage threads (create and delete them, synchronize them, and schedule them).



User-Level Threads



User-Level Threads: Advantages

- There is no context switch involved when switching threads.
 - User-level thread scheduling is more flexible
 - A user-level code can define a problem dependent thread scheduling policy.
 - Each process might use a different scheduling algorithm for its own threads.
 - A thread can voluntarily give up the processor by telling the scheduler it will *yield* to other threads.
 - User-level threads do not require system calls to create them or context switches to move between them
- User-level threads are typically much faster than kernel threads

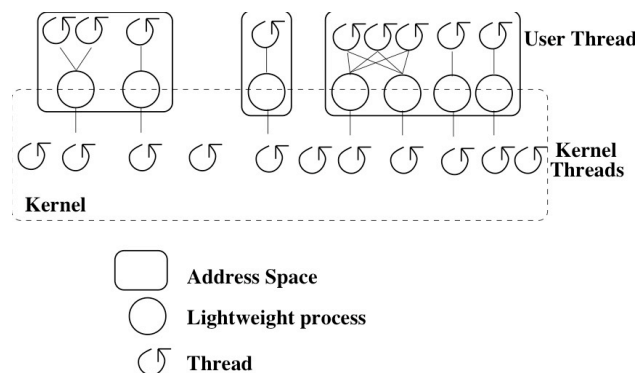


User-Level Threads: Disadvantages

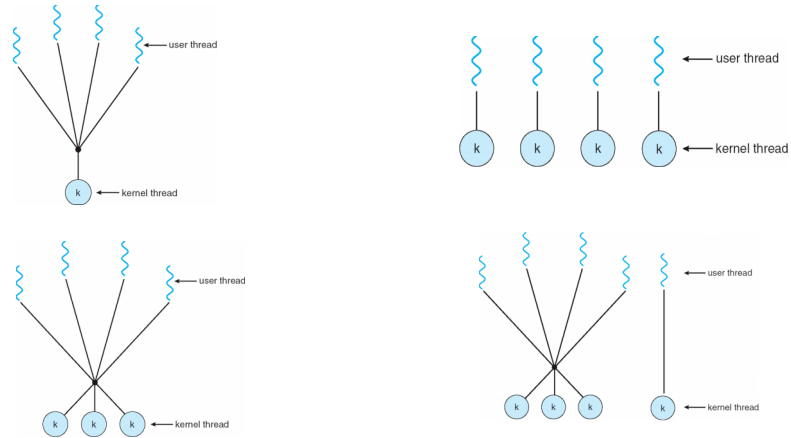
- Since the OS does not know about the existence of the user-level threads, it may make poor scheduling decisions:
 - It might run a process that only has idle threads.
 - If a user-level thread is waiting for I/O, the entire process will wait.
 - Solving this problem requires communication between the kernel and the user-level thread manager.
- Since the OS just knows about the process, it schedules the process the same way as other processes, regardless of the number of user threads.
- For kernel threads, the more threads a process creates, the more time slices the OS will dedicate to it.



Example: Kernel and User-Level Threads in Solaris



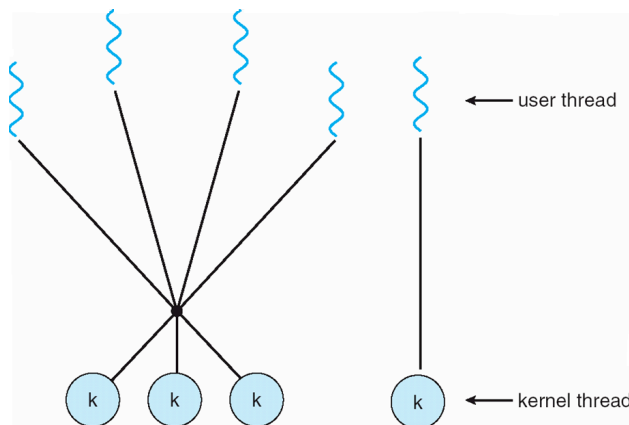
Threading Models



- Many-to-one, one-to-one, many-to-many and two-level



Two-level Model



Thread Libraries

- Thread library provides programmer with API for creating and managing threads
- 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
- API specifies behavior of the thread library, implementation is up to development of the library
- Common in UNIX operating systems (Solaris, Linux, Mac OS X)
- WIN32 Threads: Similar to Posix, but for Windows



Java Threads

- Java threads are managed by the JVM
- Typically implemented using the threads model provided by underlying OS
- Java threads may be created by:
 - Extending Thread class
 - Implementing the Runnable interface



Examples

```
Pthreads:
    pthread_attr_init(&attr); /* set default attributes */
    pthread_create(&tid, &attr, sum, &param);

Win32 threads
ThreadHandle = CreateThread(NULL, 0, Sum, &Param, 0, &ThreadId);

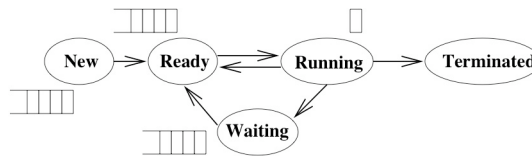
Java Threads:

Sum sumObject = new Sum();
Thread t = new Thread(new Summation(param, sumObject));
t.start(); // start the thread
```



Scheduling Processes

- **Multiprogramming:** running more than one process at a time enables the OS to increase system utilization and throughput by overlapping I/O and CPU activities.
- Process Execution State



- All of the processes that the OS is currently managing reside in one and only one of these state queues.



Scheduling Processes

- **Long Term Scheduling:** How does the OS determine the degree of multiprogramming, i.e., the number of jobs executing at once in the primary memory?
- Short Term Scheduling: How does (or should) the OS select a process from the ready queue to execute?
 - Policy Goals
 - Policy Options
 - Implementation considerations



Short Term Scheduling

- The kernel runs the scheduler at least when
 1. a process switches from running to waiting,
 2. an interrupt occurs, or
 3. a process is created or terminated.
- **Non-preemptive system:** the scheduler must wait for one of these events
- **Preemptive system:** the scheduler can interrupt a running process



Criteria for Comparing Scheduling Algorithms

- **CPU Utilization** The percentage of time that the CPU is busy.
- **Throughput** The number of processes completing in a unit of time.
- **Turnaround time** The length of time it takes to run a process from initialization to termination, including all the waiting time.
- **Waiting time** The total amount of time that a process is in the ready queue.
- **Response time** The time between when a process is ready to run and its next I/O request.



Scheduling Policies

Ideally, choose a CPU scheduler that optimizes all criteria simultaneously (utilization, throughput,..), but this is not generally possible

Instead, choose a scheduling algorithm based on its ability to satisfy a policy

- Minimize average response time - provide output to the user as quickly as possible and process their input as soon as it is received.
- Minimize variance of response time - in interactive systems, predictability may be more important than a low average with a high variance.
- Maximize throughput - two components
 - minimize overhead (OS overhead, context switching)
 - efficient use of system resources (CPU, I/O devices)
- Minimize waiting time - give each process the same amount of time on the processor. This might actually increase average response time.



Scheduling Policies

Simplifying Assumptions

- One process per user
- One thread per process
- Processes are independent

Researchers developed these algorithms in the 70's when these assumptions were more realistic, and it is still an open problem how to relax these assumptions.



Scheduling Algorithms: A Snapshot

FCFS: First Come, First Served

Round Robin: Use a time slice and preemption to alternate jobs.

SJF: Shortest Job First

Multilevel Feedback Queues: Round robin on each priority queue.

Lottery Scheduling: Jobs get tickets and scheduler randomly picks winning ticket.



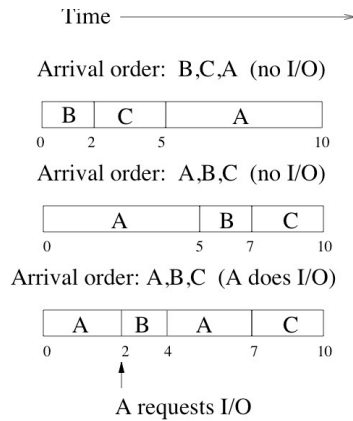
Scheduling Policies

FCFS: First-Come-First-Served (or FIFO: First-In-First-Out)

- The scheduler executes jobs to completion in arrival order.
- In early FCFS schedulers, the job did not relinquish the CPU even when it was doing I/O.
- We will assume a FCFS scheduler that runs when processes are blocked on I/O, but that is non-preemptive, i.e., the job keeps the CPU until it blocks (say on an I/O device).



FCFS Scheduling Policy: Example



- If processes arrive 1 time unit apart, what is the average wait time in these three cases?



FCFS: Advantages and Disadvantages

Advantage: simple

Disadvantages:

- average wait time is highly variable as short jobs may wait behind long jobs.
- may lead to poor overlap of I/O and CPU since CPU-bound processes will force I/O bound processes to wait for the CPU, leaving the I/O devices idle



Summary

- Thread: a single execution stream within a process
- Switching between user-level threads is faster than between kernel threads since a context switch is not required.
- User-level threads may result in the kernel making poor scheduling decisions, resulting in slower process execution than if kernel threads were used.
- Many scheduling algorithms exist. Selecting an algorithm is a policy decision and should be based on characteristics of processes being run and goals of operating system (minimize response time, maximize throughput, ...).

