

Process Synchronization

Bounded-Buffer

- Shared data

```
#define BUFFER_SIZE 10  
typedef struct {  
    . . .  
} item;  
item buffer[BUFFER_SIZE];  
int in = 0;  
int out = 0;  
int counter = 0;
```

Bounded-Buffer

- Producer process

item nextProduced;

```
while (1) {  
    while (counter == BUFFER_SIZE)  
        ; /* do nothing */  
    buffer[in] = nextProduced;  
    in = (in + 1) % BUFFER_SIZE;  
    counter++;  
}
```

Bounded-Buffer

- Consumer process

item nextConsumed;

```
while (1) {  
    while (counter == 0)  
        ; /* do nothing */  
    nextConsumed = buffer[out];  
    out = (out + 1) % BUFFER_SIZE;  
    counter--;  
}
```

Bounded Buffer

- The statements

counter++;
counter--;

must be performed *atomically*.

- Atomic operation means an operation that completes in its entirety without interruption.

Bounded Buffer

- The statement “**count++**” may be implemented in machine language as:

register1 = counter

register1 = register1 + 1

counter = register1

- The statement “**count—**” may be implemented as:

register2 = counter

register2 = register2 – 1

counter = register2

Bounded Buffer

- If both the producer and consumer attempt to update the buffer concurrently, the assembly language statements may get interleaved.
- Interleaving depends upon how the producer and consumer processes are scheduled.

Bounded Buffer

- Assume **counter** is initially 5. One interleaving of statements is:

producer: **register1 = counter** (*register1 = 5*)

producer: **register1 = register1 + 1** (*register1 = 6*)

consumer: **register2 = counter** (*register2 = 5*)

consumer: **register2 = register2 - 1** (*register2 = 4*)

producer: **counter = register1** (*counter = 6*)

consumer: **counter = register2** (*counter = 4*)

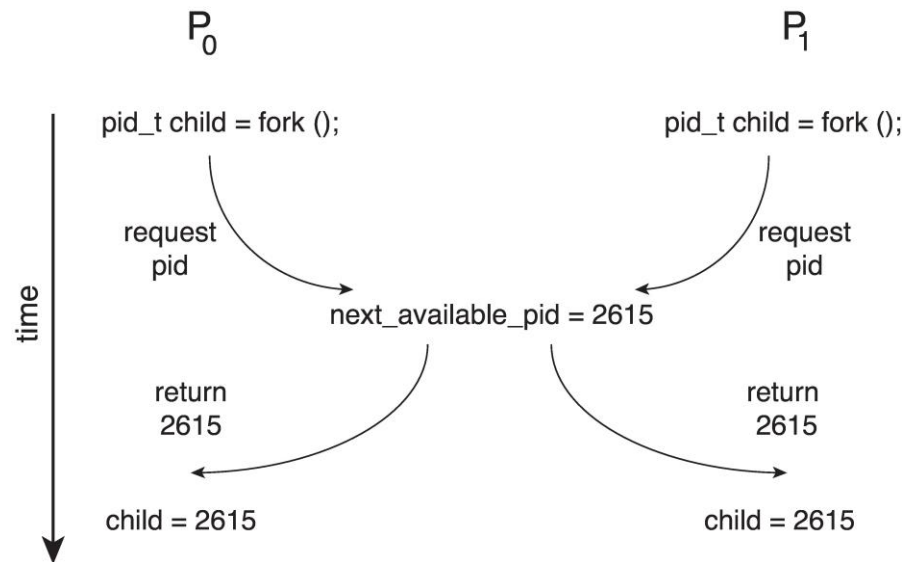
- The value of **count** may be either 4 or 6, where the correct result should be 5.

Race Condition

- **Race condition:** The situation where several processes access – and manipulate shared data concurrently. The final value of the shared data depends upon which process finishes last.
- To prevent race conditions, concurrent processes must be **synchronized**.

Race Condition

- Processes P_0 and P_1 are creating child processes using the `fork()` system call
- Race condition on kernel variable `next_available_pid` which represents the next available process identifier (pid)



- Unless there is a mechanism to prevent P_0 and P_1 from accessing the variable `next_available_pid` the same pid could be assigned to two different processes!

Critical Section Problem

- Consider system of n processes $\{p_0, p_1, \dots, p_{n-1}\}$
- Each process has **critical section** segment of code
 - Process may be changing common variables, updating table, writing file, etc.
 - When one process in critical section, no other may be in its critical section
- ***Critical section problem*** is to design protocol to solve this
- Each process must ask permission to enter critical section in **entry section**, may follow critical section with **exit section**, then **remainder section**

Critical Section

- General structure of process P_i

```
do {  
    entry section  
    critical section  
    exit section  
    remainder section  
} while (true);
```

Critical-Section Problem (Cont.)

Requirements for solution to critical-section problem

1. **Mutual Exclusion** - If process P_i is executing in its critical section, then no other processes can be executing in their critical sections
2. **Progress** - If no process is executing in its critical section and there exist some processes that wish to enter their critical section, then the selection of the process that will enter the critical section next cannot be postponed indefinitely
3. **Bounded Waiting** - A bound must exist on the number of times that other processes are allowed to enter their critical sections after a process has made a request to enter its critical section and before that request is granted
 - Assume that each process executes at a nonzero speed
 - No assumption concerning **relative speed** of the n processes

Two-Process Solutions: Algorithm 1

- Shared variables:
 - **int turn;**
initially **turn = 0**
 - **turn = i** $\Rightarrow P_i$ can enter its critical section
- Process P_i

```
do {  
    while (turn != i) ;  
    critical section  
    turn = j;  
    reminder section  
} while (1);
```
- Satisfies mutual exclusion, but not progress

Two-Process Solutions: Algorithm 2

- Shared variables
 - **boolean flag[2];**
initially **flag [0] = flag [1] = false.**
 - **flag [i] = true** $\Rightarrow P_i$ ready to enter its critical section
- Process P_i
 - do {**
 - flag[i] := true;**
 - while (flag[j]) ;**
critical section
 - flag [i] = false;**
remainder section
 - } while (1);**
- Satisfies mutual exclusion, but not progress requirement.

Two-Process Solutions: Algorithm 3

- Also known Peterson's Solution
- Combined shared variables of algorithms 1 and 2.
- Process P_i

```
do {  
    flag [i] := true;  
    turn = j;  
    while (flag [j] and turn = j) ;  
        critical section  
    flag [i] = false;  
        remainder section  
} while (1);
```
- Meets all three requirements; solves the critical-section problem for two processes.

Two-Process Solutions: Algorithm 3

- Also known **Peterson's Solution**
- Assume that the **load** and **store** machine-language instructions are atomic; that is, cannot be interrupted
- Combined shared variables of algorithms 1 and 2.
- The two processes share two variables:
 - `int turn;`
 - `boolean flag[2]`
- The variable **turn** indicates whose turn it is to enter the critical section
- The **flag** array is used to indicate if a process is ready to enter the critical section.
 - `flag[i] = true` implies that process P_i is ready!

Two-Process Solutions: Algorithm 3

```
while (true){  
  
    flag[i] = true;  
    turn = j;  
    while (flag[j] && turn == j)  
        ;  
  
    /* critical section */  
  
    flag[i] = false;  
  
    /* remainder section */  
  
}
```

Correctness of Peterson's Solution

- Provable that the three CS requirement are met:

1. Mutual exclusion is preserved

P_i enters CS only if:

either **flag[j] = false** or **turn = i**

2. Progress requirement is satisfied
3. Bounded-waiting requirement is met

Multiple-Process Solutions: Bakery Algorithm

Critical section for n processes

- Before entering its critical section, process receives a number. Holder of the smallest number enters the critical section.
- If processes P_i and P_j receive the same number, if $i < j$, then P_i is served first; else P_j is served first.
- The numbering scheme always generates numbers in increasing order of enumeration; i.e., 1,2,3,3,3,3,4,5...

Multiple-Process Solutions: Bakery Algorithm

- Notation $<\equiv$ lexicographical order (ticket #, process id #)
 - $(a,b) < c,d$ if $a < c$ or if $a = c$ and $b < d$
 - $\max(a_0, \dots, a_{n-1})$ is a number, k , such that $k \geq a_i$ for $i = 0, \dots, n-1$
- Shared data

boolean choosing[n];

int number[n];

Data structures are initialized to **false** and **0** respectively

Multiple-Process Solutions: Bakery Algorithm

```
do {  
    choosing[i] = true;  
    number[i] = max(number[0], number[1], ..., number [n - 1])+1;  
    choosing[i] = false;  
    for (j = 0; j < n; j++) {  
        while (choosing[j]) ;  
        while ((number[j] != 0) && ((number[j],j) < (number[i],i))) ;  
    }  
    critical section  
    number[i] = 0;  
    remainder section  
} while (1);
```

Synchronization Hardware

- Test and modify the content of a word atomically

.

```
boolean TestAndSet(boolean &target) {  
    boolean rv = target;  
    target = true;  
  
    return rv;  
}
```

Mutual Exclusion with Test-and-Set

- Shared data:

boolean lock = false;

- Process P_i

do {

while (TestAndSet(lock)) ;

critical section

lock = false;

remainder section

}

The compare_and_swap Instruction

■ Definition

```
int compare_and_swap(int *value, int expected, int new_value)
{
    int temp = *value;
    if (*value == expected)
        *value = new_value;
    return temp;
}
```

■ Properties

- Executed atomically
- Returns the original value of passed parameter `value`
- Set the variable `value` the value of the passed parameter `new_value` but only if `*value == expected` is true. That is, the swap takes place only under this condition.

Solution using compare_and_swap

- Shared integer `lock` initialized to 0;
- Solution:

```
while (true){  
    while (compare_and_swap(&lock, 0, 1) != 0)  
        ; /* do nothing */  
  
    /* critical section */  
  
    lock = 0;  
  
    /* remainder section */  
}
```

- Does it solve the critical-section problem?

Bounded-waiting with compare-and-swap

```
while (true) {
    waiting[i] = true;
    key = 1;
    while (waiting[i] && key == 1)
        key = compare_and_swap(&lock, 0, 1);
    waiting[i] = false;
    /* critical section */
    j = (i + 1) % n;
    while ((j != i) && !waiting[j])
        j = (j + 1) % n;
    if (j == i)
        lock = 0;
    else
        waiting[j] = false;
    /* remainder section */
}
```

Memory Barrier

- **Memory model** are the memory guarantees a computer architecture makes to application programs.
- Memory models may be either:
 - **Strongly ordered** – where a memory modification of one processor is immediately visible to all other processors.
 - **Weakly ordered** – where a memory modification of one processor may not be immediately visible to all other processors.
- A **memory barrier** is an instruction that forces any change in memory to be propagated (made visible) to all other processors.

Memory Barrier Instructions

- When a memory barrier instruction is performed, the system ensures that all loads and stores are completed before any subsequent load or store operations are performed.
- Therefore, even if instructions were reordered, the memory barrier ensures that the store operations are completed in memory and visible to other processors before future load or store operations are performed.

Atomic Variables

- Typically, instructions such as compare-and-swap are used as building blocks for other synchronization tools.
- One tool is an **atomic variable** that provides *atomic* (uninterruptible) updates on basic data types such as integers and booleans.
- For example:
 - Let **sequence** be an atomic variable
 - Let **increment()** be operation on the atomic variable **sequence**
 - The Command:
increment(&sequence) ;
ensures **sequence** is incremented without interruption:

Atomic Variables

- The `increment()` function can be implemented as follows:

```
void increment(atomic_int *v)
{
    int temp;
    do {
        temp = *v;
    }
    while (temp != (compare_and_swap(v, temp, temp+1)) );
}
```

Mutex Locks

- Previous solutions are complicated and generally inaccessible to application programmers
- OS designers build software tools to solve critical section problem
- Simplest is mutex lock
 - Boolean variable indicating if lock is available or not
- Protect a critical section by
 - First **acquire()** a lock
 - Then **release()** the lock
- Calls to **acquire()** and **release()** must be atomic
 - Usually implemented via hardware atomic instructions such as compare-and-swap.
- But this solution requires **busy waiting**
 - This lock therefore called a **spinlock**

Solution to CS Problem Using Mutex Locks

```
while (true) {  
    acquire lock  
    critical section  
    release lock  
    remainder section  
}
```

Semaphore

- Synchronization tool that provides more sophisticated ways (than Mutex locks) for processes to synchronize their activities.
- Semaphore **S** – integer variable
- Can only be accessed via two indivisible (atomic) operations
 - **wait()** and **signal()**
 - ▶ Originally called **P()** and **V()**
- Definition of the **wait()** operation

```
wait(S) {  
    while (S <= 0)  
        ; // busy wait  
    S--;  
}
```

- Definition of the **signal()** operation

```
signal(S) {  
    S++;  
}
```

Semaphore (Cont.)

- **Counting semaphore** – integer value can range over an unrestricted domain
- **Binary semaphore** – integer value can range only between 0 and 1
 - Same as a **mutex lock**
- Can implement a counting semaphore **S** as a binary semaphore
- With semaphores we can solve various synchronization problems

Semaphore Usage Example

- Solution to the CS Problem

- Create a semaphore “**mutex**” initialized to 1

```
wait(mutex) ;
```

```
CS
```

```
signal(mutex) ;
```

- Consider P_1 and P_2 that with two statements S_1 and S_2 and the requirement that S_1 to happen before S_2

- Create a semaphore “**synch**” initialized to 0

```
P1:
```

```
S1;
```

```
signal(synch) ;
```

```
P2:
```

```
wait(synch);
```

```
S2;
```

Semaphore Implementation

- Must guarantee that no two processes can execute the **wait()** and **signal()** on the same semaphore at the same time
- Thus, the implementation becomes the critical section problem where the **wait** and **signal** code are placed in the critical section
- Could now have **busy waiting** in critical section implementation
 - But implementation code is short
 - Little busy waiting if critical section rarely occupied
- Note that applications may spend lots of time in critical sections and therefore this is not a good solution

Semaphore Implementation with no Busy waiting

- With each semaphore there is an associated waiting queue
- Each entry in a waiting queue has two data items:
 - Value (of type integer)
 - Pointer to next record in the list
- Two operations:
 - **block** – place the process invoking the operation on the appropriate waiting queue
 - **wakeup** – remove one of processes in the waiting queue and place it in the ready queue

Implementation with no Busy waiting (Cont.)

- Waiting queue

```
typedef struct {  
    int value;  
    struct process *list;  
} semaphore;
```

Implementation with no Busy waiting (Cont.)

```
wait(semaphore *S) {
    S->value--;
    if (S->value < 0) {
        add this process to S->list;
        block();
    }
}

signal(semaphore *S) {
    S->value++;
    if (S->value <= 0) {
        remove a process P from S->list;
        wakeup(P);
    }
}
```


Problems with Semaphores

- Incorrect use of semaphore operations:
 - `signal(mutex) ... wait(mutex)`
 - `wait(mutex) ... wait(mutex)`
 - Omitting of `wait(mutex)` and/or `signal(mutex)`
- These – and others – are examples of what can occur when semaphores and other synchronization tools are used incorrectly.

Monitors

- A high-level abstraction that provides a convenient and effective mechanism for process synchronization
- *Abstract data type*, internal variables only accessible by code within the procedure
- Only one process may be active within the monitor at a time
- Pseudocode syntax of a monitor:

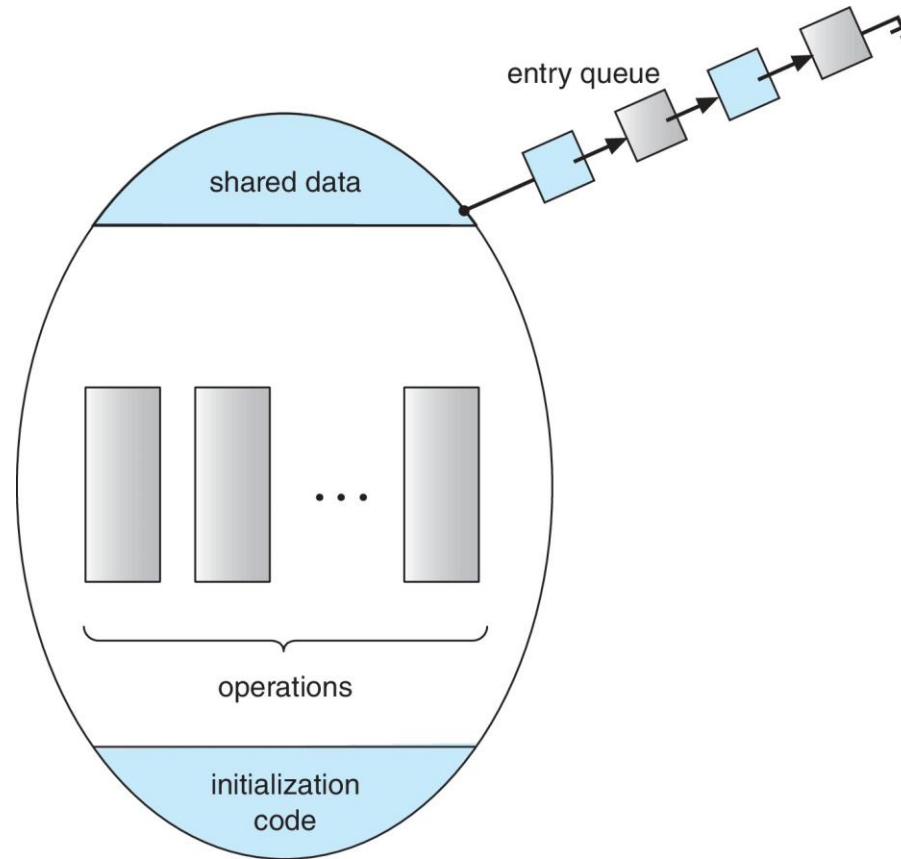
```
monitor monitor-name
{
    // shared variable declarations
    function P1 (...) { ... }

    function P2 (...) { ... }

    function Pn (...) {.....}

    initialization code (...) { ... }
}
```

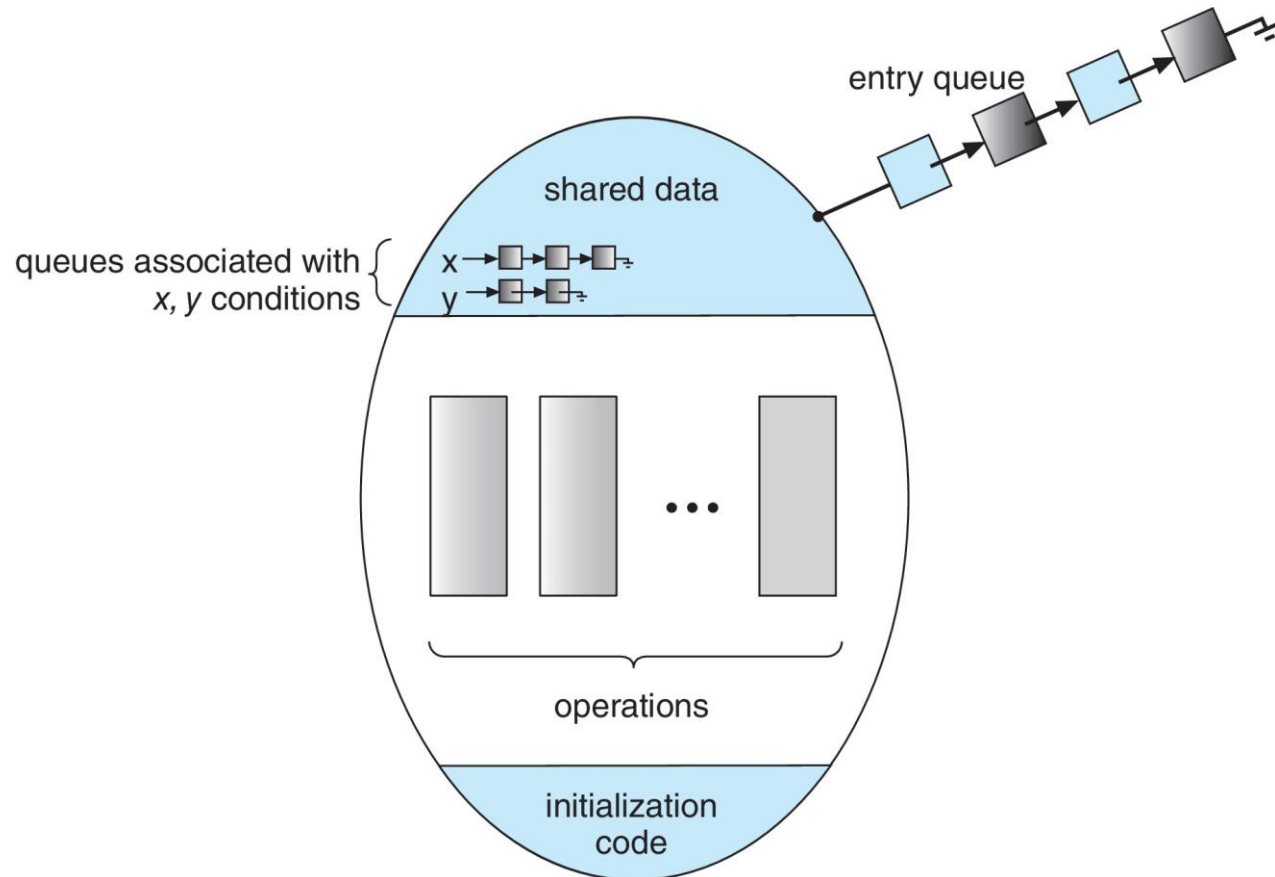
Schematic view of a Monitor



Condition Variables

- `condition x, y;`
- Two operations are allowed on a condition variable:
 - `x.wait()` – a process that invokes the operation is suspended until `x.signal()`
 - `x.signal()` – resumes one of processes (if any) that invoked `x.wait()`
 - ▶ If no `x.wait()` on the variable, then it has no effect on the variable

Monitor with Condition Variables



Condition Variables Choices

- If process P invokes **`x.signal()`** , and process Q is suspended in **`x.wait()`** , what should happen next?
 - Both Q and P cannot execute in parallel. If Q is resumed, then P must wait
- Options include
 - **Signal and wait** – P waits until Q either leaves the monitor or it waits for another condition
 - **Signal and continue** – Q waits until P either leaves the monitor or it waits for another condition
 - Both have pros and cons – language implementer can decide
 - Monitors implemented in Concurrent Pascal compromise
 - ▶ P executing signal immediately leaves the monitor, Q is resumed
 - Implemented in other languages including Mesa, C#, Java

Monitor Implementation Using Semaphores

- Variables

```
semaphore mutex;  // (initially = 1)
semaphore next;   // (initially = 0)
int next_count = 0; // number of processes waiting
                    inside the monitor
```

- Each function F will be replaced by

```
wait(mutex);
...
body of F;
...
if (next_count > 0)
    signal(next);
else
    signal(mutex);
```

- Mutual exclusion within a monitor is ensured

Implementation – Condition Variables

- For each condition variable **x**, we have:

```
semaphore x_sem; // (initially = 0)
int x_count = 0;
```

- The operation **x.wait()** can be implemented as:

```
x_count++;
if (next_count > 0)
    signal(next);
else
    signal(mutex);
wait(x_sem);
x_count--;
```


Implementation (Cont.)

- The operation `x.signal()` can be implemented as:

```
if (x_count > 0) {  
    next_count++;  
    signal(x_sem);  
    wait(next);  
    next_count--;  
}
```

Resuming Processes within a Monitor

- If several processes queued on condition variable ***x***, and ***x.signal()*** is executed, which process should be resumed?
- FCFS frequently not adequate
- **conditional-wait** construct of the form ***x.wait(c)***
 - Where ***c*** is **priority number**
 - Process with lowest number (highest priority) is scheduled next

Single Resource allocation

- Allocate a single resource among competing processes using priority numbers that specify the maximum time a process plans to use the resource

```
R.acquire(t) ;  
    ...  
    access the resource ;  
    ...  
  
R.release ;
```

- Where R is an instance of type **ResourceAllocator**

A Monitor to Allocate Single Resource

```
monitor ResourceAllocator
{
    boolean busy;
    condition x;
    void acquire(int time) {
        if (busy)
            x.wait(time);
        busy = true;
    }
    void release() {
        busy = FALSE;
        x.signal();
    }
    initialization code() {
        busy = false;
    }
}
```

Single Resource Monitor (Cont.)

- Usage:
 acquire
 ...
 release
- Incorrect use of monitor operations
 - **release()** ... **acquire()**
 - **acquire()** ... **acquire()**
 - Omitting of **acquire()** and/or **release()**

Liveness

- Processes may have to wait indefinitely while trying to acquire a synchronization tool such as a mutex lock or semaphore.
- Waiting indefinitely violates the progress and bounded-waiting criteria.
- **Liveness** refers to a set of properties that a system must satisfy to ensure processes make progress.
- Indefinite waiting is an example of a liveness failure.

Liveness

- **Deadlock** – two or more processes are waiting indefinitely for an event that can be caused by only one of the waiting processes
- Let S and Q be two semaphores initialized to 1

P_0	P_1
<code>wait(S) ;</code>	<code>wait(Q) ;</code>
<code>wait(Q) ;</code>	<code>wait(S) ;</code>
<code>...</code>	<code>...</code>
<code>signal(S) ;</code>	<code>signal(Q) ;</code>
<code>signal(Q) ;</code>	<code>signal(S) ;</code>

- Consider if P_0 executes `wait(S)` and P_1 `wait(Q)`. When P_0 executes `wait(Q)`, it must wait until P_1 executes `signal(Q)`
- However, P_1 is waiting until P_0 execute `signal(S)`.
- Since these `signal()` operations will never be executed, P_0 and P_1 are **deadlocked**.

Liveness

- Other forms of deadlock:
- **Starvation** – indefinite blocking
 - A process may never be removed from the semaphore queue in which it is suspended
- **Priority Inversion** – Scheduling problem when lower-priority process holds a lock needed by higher-priority process
- Solved via **priority-inheritance protocol**

Priority Inheritance Protocol

- Consider the scenario with three processes **P1**, **P2**, and **P3**. **P1** has the highest priority, **P2** the next highest, and **P3** the lowest.
- Assume a resource **P3** is assigned a resource **R** that **P1** wants.
 - Thus, **P1** must wait for **P3** to finish using the resource. However, **P2** becomes runnable and preempts **P3**.
 - What has happened is that **P2** - a process with a lower priority than **P1** - has indirectly prevented **P3** from gaining access to the resource.
- To prevent this from occurring, a **priority inheritance protocol** is used. This simply allows the priority of the highest thread waiting to access a shared resource to be assigned to the thread currently using the resource. Thus, the current owner of the resource is assigned the priority of the highest priority thread wishing to acquire the resource.

Classical Problems of Synchronization

- Classical problems used to test newly-proposed synchronization schemes
 - Bounded-Buffer Problem
 - Readers and Writers Problem
 - Dining-Philosophers Problem

Bounded-Buffer Problem

- n buffers, each can hold one item
- Semaphore **mutex** initialized to the value 1
- Semaphore **full** initialized to the value 0
- Semaphore **empty** initialized to the value n

Bounded Buffer Problem (Cont.)

- The structure of the producer process

```
while (true) {  
    ...  
    /* produce an item in next_produced */  
    ...  
    wait(empty) ;  
    wait(mutex) ;  
    ...  
    /* add next produced to the buffer */  
    ...  
    signal(mutex) ;  
    signal(full) ;  
}
```

Bounded Buffer Problem (Cont.)

- The structure of the consumer process

```
while (true) {  
    wait(full);  
    wait(mutex);  
  
    ...  
    /* remove an item from buffer to next_consumed */  
    ...  
    signal(mutex);  
    signal(empty);  
  
    ...  
    /* consume the item in next consumed */  
    ...  
}
```

Readers-Writers Problem

- A data set is shared among a number of concurrent processes
 - **Readers** – only read the data set; they do ***not*** perform any updates
 - **Writers** – can both read and write
- Problem – allow multiple readers to read at the same time
 - Only one single writer can access the shared data at the same time
- Several variations of how readers and writers are considered – all involve some form of priorities

Readers-Writers Problem (Cont.)

- Shared Data
 - Data set
 - Semaphore **rw_mutex** initialized to 1
 - Semaphore **mutex** initialized to 1
 - Integer **read_count** initialized to 0

Readers-Writers Problem (Cont.)

- The structure of a writer process

```
while (true) {  
    wait(rw_mutex);  
  
    ...  
    /* writing is performed */  
  
    ...  
    signal(rw_mutex);  
}
```


Readers-Writers Problem (Cont.)

- The structure of a reader process

```
while (true){
    wait(mutex);
    read_count++;
    if (read_count == 1) /* first reader */
        wait(rw_mutex);
    signal(mutex);

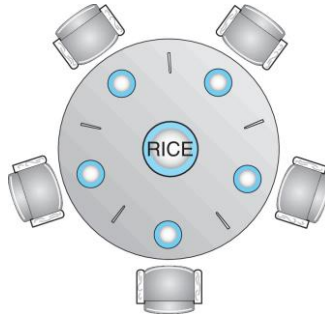
    ...
    /* reading is performed */
    ...
    wait(mutex);
    read_count--;
    if (read_count == 0) /* last reader */
        signal(rw_mutex);
    signal(mutex);
}
```

Readers-Writers Problem Variations

- The solution in previous slide can result in a situation where a writer process never writes. It is referred to as the “First reader-writer” problem.
- The “Second reader-writer” problem is a variation the first reader-writer problem that state:
 - Once a writer is ready to write, no “newly arrived reader” is allowed to read.
- Both the first and second may result in starvation. leading to even more variations
- Problem is solved on some systems by kernel providing reader-writer locks

Dining-Philosophers Problem

- N philosophers' sit at a round table with a bowl of rice in the middle.



- They spend their lives alternating thinking and eating.
- They do not interact with their neighbors.
- Occasionally try to pick up 2 chopsticks (one at a time) to eat from bowl
 - Need both to eat, then release both when done
- In the case of 5 philosophers, the shared data
 - ▶ Bowl of rice (data set)
 - ▶ Semaphore chopstick [5] initialized to 1

Dining-Philosophers Problem Algorithm

- Semaphore Solution
- The structure of Philosopher *i*:

```
while (true){  
    wait (chopstick[i] );  
    wait (chopstick[ (i + 1) % 5] );  
  
    /* eat for awhile */  
  
    signal (chopstick[i] );  
    signal (chopstick[ (i + 1) % 5] );  
  
    /* think for awhile */  
  
}
```

- What is the problem with this algorithm?

Monitor Solution to Dining Philosophers

```
monitor DiningPhilosophers
{
    enum { THINKING; HUNGRY, EATING} state [5] ;
    condition self [5];

    void pickup (int i) {
        state[i] = HUNGRY;
        test(i);
        if (state[i] != EATING) self[i].wait;
    }

    void putdown (int i) {
        state[i] = THINKING;
        // test left and right neighbors
        test((i + 4) % 5);
        test((i + 1) % 5);
    }
}
```

Solution to Dining Philosophers (Cont.)

```
void test (int i) {
    if ((state[(i + 4) % 5] != EATING) &&
        (state[i] == HUNGRY) &&
        (state[(i + 1) % 5] != EATING) ) {
        state[i] = EATING ;
        self[i].signal () ;
    }
}

initialization_code() {
    for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
        state[i] = THINKING;
}
}
```

Solution to Dining Philosophers (Cont.)

- Each philosopher “i” invokes the operations **pickup()** and **putdown()** in the following sequence:

```
DiningPhilosophers.pickup(i);
```

```
/** EAT **/
```

```
DiningPhilosophers.putdown(i);
```

- No deadlock, but starvation is possible

References

- Operating Systems Concepts by Silberschatz, Galvin, and Gagne