Operating Systems

5. Synchronization

Synchronization

- Many processes/threads interact (shared memory / message passing)
 - Results of interactions not guaranteed to be deterministic
 - Concurrent writes to the same address.
 - Result depends on the order of operations
- OS manage
 - Large number of resources
 - Common data structures
- Need to provide good coordination mechanisms
 - Access to the data structures
 - Ensure consistency
- Objective
 - Identify general synchronization problems
 - Provide OS support for synchronization

Example: Too Much Milk

Alice Bob

3:00 Look in fridge - no milk

3:05 Leave for shop Look in fridge - no milk

3:10 Arrive at shop Leave for shop

3:15 Leave shop Arrive at shop

3:20 Back home - put milk in fridge Leave shop

3:25 Back home - put milk in fridge

Oooops!

Problem: Need to ensure that only one process is doing something at a time (e.g., getting milk)

Example: Money Flies Away ...

BALANCE: 2000 €

Bank thread A Bank thread B

Read a := BALANCE Read b:= BALANCE

a := a + 500 b := b - 200

Write BALANCE := a Write BALANCE := b

Oooops!! BALANCE: 1800 €!!!!

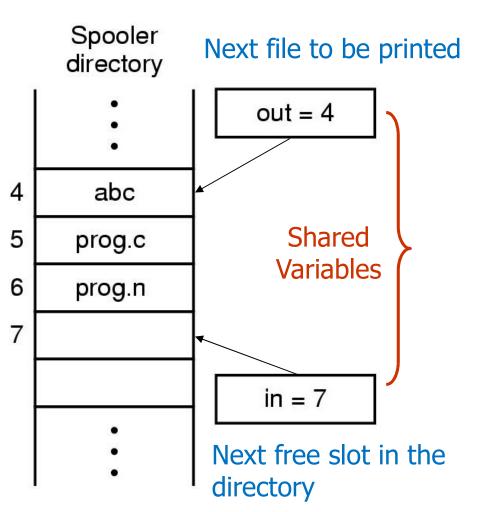
Problem: need to ensure that each process is executing its critical section (e.g updating BALANCE) exclusively (one at a time)

Example: Print Spooler

- If a process wishes to print a file
 - It adds its name in a Spooler Directory
- The printer process
 - Periodically checks the spooler directory
 - Prints a file
 - Removes its name from the directory

Example: Print Spooler

- If any process wants to print a file it will execute the following code
 - Read the value of in in a local variable next_free_slot
 - 2. Store the name of its file in the next_free_slot
 - 3. Increment next_free_slot
 - 4. Store back in in



Example: Print Spooler

print their files

next_free_slot_a = 7

who want

Spoole we and

direct eceive and

at the name of its file

the next_free_slot

Increment next_free process Built output

Spoole we and

cal value

at the name of its file

Spoole we and

the next_free_slot

Store back in in A.cpp

Process B ad the value of in in a cal variable next_free_slot

- 2. Store the name of its file in the next_free_slot
- 3 .Increment next free slot
- 4. Store back in in

 $next_free_slot_b = 7$

5-Synchronization

in = 8

Example: Producer/Consumer Problem

- An integer count that keeps track of the number of full buffers
- Initially, count is set to 0
 - Count is incremented by the producer after it produces a new buffer
 - Count is decremented by the consumer after it consumes a buffer

```
Producer
while (true) {
    /* produce an item and put in nextProduced */
    while (counter == BUFFER_SIZE)
        ; // do nothing
    buffer [in] = nextProduced;
    in = (in + 1) % BUFFER_SIZE;
    counter++;
}
```

Example: Producer/Consumer Problem

- An integer count that keeps track of the number of full buffers
- Initially, count is set to 0
 - Count is incremented by the producer after it produces a new buffer
 - Count is decremented by the consumer after it consumes a buffer

```
Consumer:
while (true) {
  while (counter == 0)
    ; // do nothing
  nextConsumed = buffer[out];
  out = (out + 1) % BUFFER_SIZE;
  counter--;
  /* consume the item in nextConsumed */
}
```

Producer/Consumer Problem – Race Condition

counter++ could be implemented as

```
- register1 = counter
- register1 = register1 + 1
- counter = register1
```

counter-- could be implemented as

```
- register2 = counter
- register2 = register2 - 1
- count = register2
```

Consider this execution interleaving with "count = 5" initially:

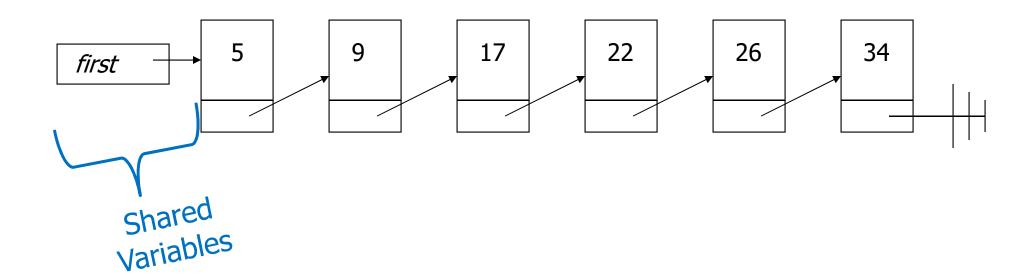
```
    S0: producer execute register1 = counter {register1 = 5}
    S1: producer execute register1 = register1 + 1 {register1 = 6}
    S2: consumer execute register2 = counter {register2 = 5}
    S3: consumer execute register2 = register2 - 1 {register2 = 4}
    S4: producer execute counter = register1 {count = 6}
    S5: consumer execute counter = register2 {count = 4}
```

Race Condition

- Race condition
 - Several processes access and manipulate the same data concurrently
 - Outcome of the execution depends on the particular order in which the access takes place
 - ➤ Debugging is not easy → Most test runs will run fine
- At any given time a process is either
 - Doing internal computation → no race conditions
 - Or accessing shared data that can lead to race conditions
- Part of the program where the shared memory is accessed is called Critical Region
- Races condition can be avoided
 - If no two processes are in the critical region at the same time

Examples of Race Condition

Adding node to a shared linked list



Critical-Section (CS) Problem

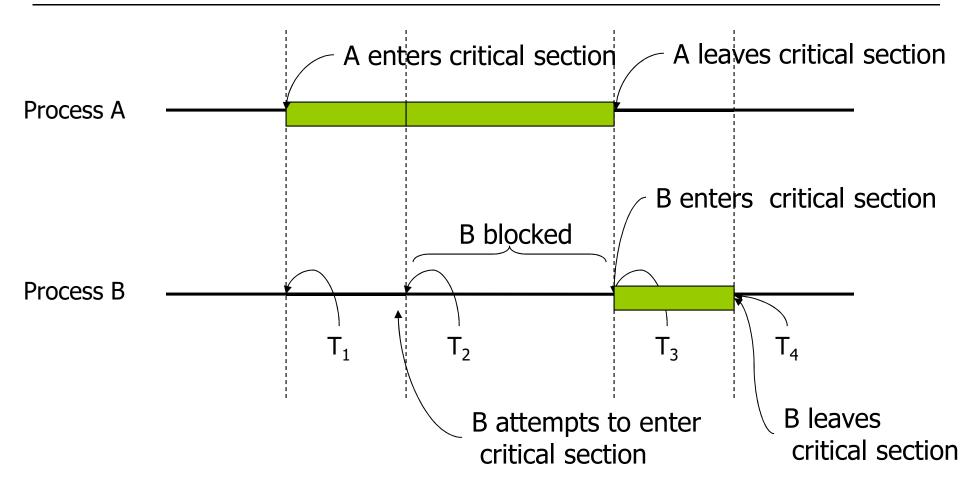
- n processes all competing to use some shared data / resource
- Each process has a code segment, called critical section, in which the shared data is accessed
- Problem: ensure that
 - Never two process are allowed to execute in their critical section at the same time
 - Access to the critical section must be an atomic action
- Structure of process P_i:

```
repeat
entry section
critical section
exit section
remainder section
until false;
```

Critical-Section (CS) – Example

```
void threadRoutine()
{
    int y, x, z;
    y = 3 + 5x;
    y = Global_Var;
    y = y + 1;
    Global_Var = y;
    ...
    ...
}
```

Critical-Section (CS)



Mutual Exclusion
At any given time, only one process is in the critical section

Requirements: Critical-Section (CS) Problem

Informally, the following are the requirements of CS problem

- No two processes may be simultaneously inside their critical sections
- No assumptions may be made about the speed or the number of processors
- No process running outside its critical section may block other processes
- No process should have to wait forever to enter its critical section

Requirements: Critical-Section Problem

- Mutual exclusion
 - Only one process at a time is allowed to execute in its critical section
- Progress
 - Processes cannot be prevented forever from entering CS
- Progress: Distinguish between
 - Fairness (no starvation): Every process makes progress
 - > Bounded waiting
 - Deadlock freedom: At least one process can make progress
 - > Process running outside the critical section should not have influence
- Assumptions
 - No process stays forever in CS
 - No assumption on the number of processors
 - No assumption on actual speed of processes

Requirements: Critical-Section Problem

- 1. Mutual exclusion
- 2. Progress
- 3. Bounded waiting
 - Before request by a process to enter its critical section is granted
 - A bound must exist on the number of times that other processes are allowed to enter their critical sections

Software Solution – Lock Variables

- Before entering a critical section a process should know if any other is already in the critical section or not
- Consider having a FLAG (also called lock)

```
FLAG = FALSEA process is in the critical section
```

- FLAG = TRUE
 - ➤ No process is in the critical section

```
// wait while someone else is in the
// critical region
1. while (FLAG == FALSE);
// stop others from entering critical region
2. FLAG = FALSE;
3. critical_section();
// after critical section let others enter
//the critical region
4. FLAG = TRUE;
5. noncritical_section();
```

Lock Variables

```
Process 1
                           Process 2
                                                      FLAG = FALSE
1.while (FLAG == FALSE);
                           1.while (FLAG == FALSE):
2.FLAG = FALSE;
                           1.while (FLAG == FALSE);
                           2.FLAG = FALSE;
                           /3.critical section();
3.critical_section();
4.FLAG = TRUE;
5.noncritical section();
                               Timeout
  No two processes may be simultaneously inside
                   their critical sections
   Process 2 's Program counter is at Line 2
```

Process 1 forgot that it was Process 2 turn

Lock Variables

```
// wait while someone else is in the
// critical region
1. while (FLAG == FALSE);
// stop others from entering critical region
2. FLAG = FALSE;
3. critical_section();
// after critical section let others enter
//the critical region
4. FLAG = TRUE;
5. noncritical_section();
```

- Algorithm does not satisfy critical section requirements
 - Progress is ok, but does NOT satisfy mutual exclusion

Software Solution – Strict Alternation

- We need to remember "Who's turn it is?"
- If its Process 1's turn then Process 2 should wait
- If its Process 2's turn then Process 1 should wait

```
Process 1
while(TRUE)
{
    // wait for turn
    while (turn != 1);
    critical_section();
    turn = 2;
    noncritical_section();
}
```

```
Process 2
while(TRUE)
{
    // wait for turn
    while (turn != 2);
    critical_section();
    turn = 1;
    noncritical_section();
}
```

Strict Alternation

```
Process 2
        Process 1
                                                                  Turn = 1
                                     While(1)
        While(1)
                                     1.while (Turn != 2);
        1.while (Turn != 1);
                                    1.while (Turn != 2);
                                    2.critical_section();
        2.critical_section();
        3. \text{Turn} = 2;
                                     3.Turn = 1;
        4.moncritical section();
                                    4.noncritical_section();
                               7 imeout
    Only one Processis in the Critical Section at a time
          Process 2 's Program counter is at Line 2
Process 1 Busy Waits
                                5-Synchronization
                                                                              23
```

Strict Alternation

```
Process 1
while(TRUE)
{
    // wait for turn
    while (turn != 1);
    critical_section();
    turn = 2;
    noncritical_section();
}
```

```
Process 2
while(TRUE)
{
    // wait for turn
    while (turn != 2);
    critical_section();
    turn = 1;
    noncritical_section();
}
```

- What is the problem with strict alteration?
 - Satisfies mutual exclusion, but not progress

```
Process 1
while(TRUE)
{
    // wait for turn
    while (turn != 1);
    critical_section();
    turn = 2;
    noncritical_section();
}
```

```
Process 2
while(TRUE)
{
    // wait for turn

    while (turn != 2);
    critical_section();
    turn = 1;
    noncritical_section();
}
```

- Process 1
 - Runs, Enters its critical section, Exits critical section, Sets turn to 2
- Process 1 is now in its non-critical section
 - Assume this non-critical procedure takes a long time
- Process 2, which is a much faster process, now runs
 - Once it has left its critical section, sets turn to 1
- Process 2 executes its non-critical section very quickly and returns to the top of the procedure

```
Process 1
while(TRUE)
{
    // wait for turn
    while (turn != 1);
    critical_section();
    turn = 2;
    noncritical_section();
}
```

```
Process 2
while(TRUE)
{
    // wait for turn

    while (turn != 2);
    critical_section();
    turn = 1;
    noncritical_section();
}
```

- Process 1 is in its non-critical section
- Process 2 is waiting for turn to be set to 2
 - There is no reason why process 2 cannot enter its critical region as process 1 is not in its critical region

Strict Alternation

```
Process 1
while(TRUE)
{
    // wait for turn
    while (turn != 1);
    critical_section();
    turn = 2;
    noncritical_section();
}
```

```
Process 2
while(TRUE)
{
    // wait for turn
    while (turn != 2);
    critical_section();
    turn = 1;
    noncritical_section();
}
```

Problem with strict alteration

- Violation: No process running outside its critical section may block other processes
- This algorithm requires that the processes strictly alternate in entering the critical section
- Taking turns is not a good idea if one of the processes is slower

Yet Another Solution

- Strick alternation
 - Although it was Process 1's turn
 - But Process 1 was not interested
- Solution: Remember whether a process is interested in CS or not
 - Replace int turn with bool interested[2]
 - For example interested[0] = FALSE → Process 0 is not interested

```
Process 0
while(TRUE)
{
   interested[0] = TRUE;
   // wait for turn
   while(interested[1]!=FALSE);
   critical_section();
   interested[0] = FALSE;
   noncritical_section();
}
```

```
Process 1
while(TRUE)
{
   interested[1] = TRUE;
   // wait for turn
   while(interested[0]!=FALSE);
   critical_section();
   interested[1] = FALSE;
   noncritical_section();
}
```

Yet Another Solution

DEADLOCK

Peterson's Algorithm

- Combine previous two algorithms
 - int turn with bool interested

```
Process P;
while(TRUE)
{
  interested[i] = TRUE;
  turn = j;
  // wait
  while(interested[j]==TRUE && turn == j );
  critical_section();
  interested[i] = FALSE;
  noncritical_section();
}
```

Peterson's Algorithm

```
Process 0
while(TRUE)
  interested[0] = TRUE;
 turn = 1;
 // wait
                        &&
 while(intere F
                                 T == 1 );
 critical_section();
 interested[0] = FALSE;
 noncritical_section();
                                        Timeout
Process 1
while(TRUE)
  interested[1] = TRUE;
 turn = 0;
 // wait
 while(interest F
                                      0);
                          &&
  critical_section();
  interested[1] = FALSE;
  noncritical_section();
                                5-Synchronization
```

Peterson's Algorithm

```
Process 0
while(TRUE)
  interested[0] = TRUE;
  turn = 1;
  // wait
                         &&
                                  F = 1 );
  while(interes T
  critical_section();
  interested[0] = FALSE;
  noncritical section();
                                                   Can not be TRUE at the
                                                          same time.
                                        Timeout
Process 1
                                                    Thus used to break tie
while(TRUE)
  interested[1] = TRUE;
  turn = 0;
  // wait
                        &&
  while(intere F
  critical section();
  interested[1] = FALSE;
  noncritical section();
}
                                    5-Synchronization
```

Lamport's Bakery Algorithm (For n processes)

Idea

- Before entering its critical section, each process receives a number
- Holder of the smallest number enters the critical section
 - Fairness
 - No deadlock
- If processes P_i and P_i receive the same number
 - if i <j, then P_i is served first
 - else P_j is served first
- While processes are trying to enter CS
 - The numbering scheme generates numbers in increasing order of enumeration; i.e., 1,2,3,3,3,4,5

Lamport's Bakery Algorithm

- Peterson's algorithm solves the critical-section problem for two processes
 - For multiple processes, bakery algorithm is used

```
Shared var choosing: array [0..n - 1] of boolean (init false);
           number: array [0..n - 1] of integer (init 0),
Process P<sub>i</sub>
1: repeat
      choosing[i] := true;
 2:
 3:
      number[i] := max(number[0], number[1], ..., number[n - 1]) + 1;
      choosing[i] := false;
 4:
 5:
      for j := 0 to n - 1 do begin
        while choosing[j] do no-op;
 6:
        while number[j] \neq 0 and (number[j],j) < (number[i], i) do
 7:
8:
            no-op;
9:
     end;
10:
     critical section
11: number[i] := 0;
     remainder section
12:
13: until false;
```

CS Problem: Software-based Solutions

- Peterson and Bakery algorithms solve critical section problem
- These algorithms are not used in practice
 - Mutual exclusion depends on the order of steps in the software based algorithms
 - However, modern Compilers often reorder instructions to enhance performance

Mutual Exclusion: Hardware Support

Interrupt Disabling

- A process runs until it invokes an operating-system service or until it is interrupted
- Disabling interrupts guarantees mutual exclusion

```
while(true){
    /* disable interrupts */
        critical section
    /* enable interrupts */
        remainder section
}
```

Disadvantage

- Processor is limited in its ability to interleave programs
- Multiprocessors: Disable interrupts on one processor will not guarantee mutual exclusion
- User programs cannot directly disabled interrupts

Mutual Exclusion: Other Hardware Support

- Special Machine Instructions
 - Performed in a single instruction cycle: Reading and writing in one atomic step
- Not subject to interference from other instructions
 - Uniprocessor system: Executed without interrupt
 - Multiprocessor system: Executed with locked system bus

Test and Set (TSL)

```
Test and Set Instruction
1: boolean testset (int & i) {
2:    if (i == 0) {
3:        i = 1;
4:        return false;
5:    }
6:    else return true;
7: }
```

```
Test and Set Instruction
1: boolean testset (Boolean *target) {
2:   boolean rv = *target;
3:   *target = true;
4:   return rv;
5: }
```

- Atomic processor instructions
- Idea: Only one process at a time succeeds to set lock=1

Test and Set (TSL)

```
Test and Set Instruction
1: boolean testset(int& i) {
2:    if (i == 0) {
3:        i = 1;
4:        return false;
5:    }
6:    else return true;
7: }
```

```
1: void P(int i){
     while (true) {
2:
3:
        while (testset(bolt));
4:
        critical section
      bolt = 0;
5:
      remainder section
6:
7: }
8: }
   void main()
9:
10: {
11:
      bolt =0;
13: parbegin(P(1), ..., P(N));
14: }
```

- Atomic processor instructions
- Idea: Only one process at a time succeeds to set lock=1

Exchange (Swap)

```
Exchange Instruction
1: void exchange(int& mem1,int& mem2)
2: {
3:    int temp = mem1;
4:    mem1 = mem2;
5:    mem2 = temp;
6: }
```

```
1: void P(int i){
2:
    while (true) {
       int key = 1;
3:
      while(key) {
4:
5:
        exchange(bolt,key);
6:
      critical section
7:
8:
       exchange(bolt,key);
      remainder section
9:
10: }
11:}
12: void main(){
     bolt =0;
13:
     parbegin(P(1), ..., P(N));
14:
15: }
```

- Atomic processor instructions
- Idea: Only one process at a time will be able to set key = 0

Mutual Exclusion Using Machine Instructions

Advantages

- Applicable to any number of processes on single or multiple CPUs sharing main memory
- It is simple and therefore easy to verify

Disadvantages

- Busy-waiting consumes processor time
- Starvation is possible
 - A process leaves a CS
 - More than one process is waiting
- Deadlock possible if used in priority-based scheduling systems: Ex. scenario
 - Low priority process has the critical region
 - Higher priority process needs it
 - The higher priority process will obtain the CPU to wait for the critical region

Avoiding Starvation

Bounded waiting with Test and Set instruction

```
do {
   waiting[i] = TRUE;
   key = TRUE;
   while (waiting[i] && key)
      key = TestAndSet(&lock);
   waiting[i] = FALSE;
   // critical section
   j = (i + 1) \% n;
   while ((j != i) && !waiting[j])
      j = (j + 1) \% n;
   if (j == i)
      lock = FALSE;
   else
      waiting[j] = FALSE;
   // remainder section
} while (TRUE);
```

Priority Inversion

- Consider three processes
 - Process L with low priority that requires a resource R
 - Process H with high priority that also requires a resource R
 - Process M with medium priority
- If H starts after L has acquired resource R
 - H has to wait to run until L relinquishes resource R
- Now when M starts
 - M is higher priority unblocked process, it will be scheduled before L
 - Since L has been preempted by M, L cannot relinquish R
 - M will run until it is finished
 - > Then L will run at least up to a point where it can relinquish R
 - > Then H will run
- Priority inversion: Process with the medium priority ran before a process with high priority

Priority Inheritance

- If high priority process has to wait for some resource shared with an executing low priority process
- Low priority process is temporarily assigned the priority of the highest waiting priority process
- Medium priority processes are prevented from pre-empting (originally) low priority process avoiding priority inversion

Semaphores

- Higher-level synchronization construct
 - Designed by Edsger Dijkstra in 1960's



Semaphores

- Synchronization variable accessed by
 - System calls of the operating system
 - Associated with a queue of blocked processes
- Accessible via atomic wait() and signal() operations
 - Originally called P() and V()

wait(): Process blocks until a signal is received

signal(): Another process can make progress: Process in the queue,
 next process calling wait()

- Different semaphore semantics possible
 - Binary: Only one process at a time makes progress
 - General (counting): n processes at a time make progress

Binary Semaphore

- Wait: Process blocks if state of semaphore is 0
- Signal: Unblocks a process or sets the state of the semaphore to 1

```
wait () / P() {
   while S <= 0; // no-op
   S--;
}</pre>
```

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

An atomic operation that waits for semaphore to become positive then decrements it by 1

An atomic operation that increments semaphore by 1

How to avoid busy waiting?

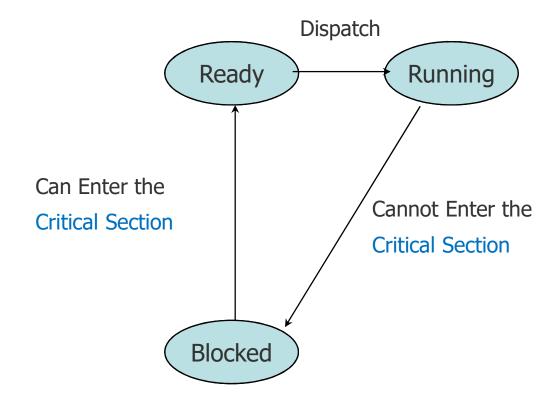
Busy-waiting

- Problem with hardware and software based implementations
 - If one thread already has the lock, and another thread T wants to acquire the lock
 - Acquiring thread T waste CPU's time by executing the Idle loop

To avoid CPU time

- If a thread (process) T cannot enter critical section
 - T's status should be changed from Running to Blocked
 - T should be removed from the ready list and entered in a block list
- When T enters critical section
 - T's status should be changed from Blocked to Ready/Running
 - T should be entered in the ready list

Busy-waiting



No CPU time wastage

Sleep/Block and Wakeup Implementation

- sleep()/block() and wakeup() can be two system calls
- When a process P_i determines that it can not enter the CS it calls sleep()/block()
 - Pi entered in the block list
- When the other process finishes with the CS, it wakes up P_i, wakeup(P_i)
 - P_i entered in the ready list
- wakeup() takes a single input parameter, which is the ID of the process to be unblocked

Binary Semaphore

- Wait: Process blocks if state of semaphore is 0
- Signal: Unblocks a process or sets the state of the semaphore to 1

```
struct bin sem t {
    enum {zero, one} value;
    queueType queue;
    /* Can be linked list of PCB */
};
int wait(bin sem t s) {
   if (s.value==1)
        s.value=0;
   else{
       /* block and place current
          process in s.queue */
       state(current) = BLOCKED
       append(s.queue, current)
```

```
int signal(bin_sem_t s) {
   if (isempty(s.queue))
      s.value=1;
   else{
      /* unblock and remove first
        process from s */
      p=pop(s.queue);
      state(p) = READY/RUNNING
   }
}
```

Counting Semaphore

- Count: Determines no. of processes that can still pass semaphore
- Wait: Decreases count and blocks if count is < 0
- Signal: Unblocks a process or increases count

```
struct sem t {
   int count;
   queueType queue;
};
int wait(sem t s) {
   s.count--;
   if (s.count < 0)
      /* block and place current
          process in s.queue */
      state(current) = BLOCKED
      append(s.queue, current)
```

```
int signal(sem_t s) {
    s.count++;
    if (s.count ≤ 0){
        /* unblock and remove
            first process from s */
        p=pop(s.queue);
        state(p) = RUNNING/READY
    }
}
```

How to ensure atomicity?

Implementing Semaphores

- Problem: Concurrent calls of signal and wait
- Solution: Use hardware synchronization!
- Properties: Still limited busy waiting

```
int wait(sem_t s)
{
    /* mode switch */
    while (testset(s.flag));
    s.count--;
    if (s.count < 0) {
        /* block and place current
            process in s.queue */
        state(current) = BLOCKED
        append(s.queue, current)
    }
    s.flag=0;
}</pre>
```

```
int signal(sem_t s) {
    /* mode switch */
    while (testset(s.flag));
    s.count++;
    if (s.count ≤ 0) {
        /* unblock and remove
            first process from s */
        p=pop(s.queue);
        state(p) = RUNNING
    }
    s.flag=0;
}
```

Critical Section Using Semaphores

```
Shared var mutex of semaphore (init =1)

Process P<sub>i</sub>:
1: repeat
2: wait(mutex)
3: critical section
4: signal(mutex);
5: remainder section
6: until false;
```

Properties:

- Again simple
- No busy waiting
- Fair if queues of semaphores are implemented fair

Bad Use of Semaphores Can Lead to Deadlocks!

Let S and Q be two semaphores initialized to 1

Synchronization Problems

Critical section synchronization very common

Problems

- Synchronization on many variables becomes increasingly complicated
- Deadlock because of bad programming likely to happen
- Idea: Understand useful synchronization patterns that match IPC patterns
 - Consumers/Producer problem
 - ➤ High degree of concurrency by decoupling of tasks
 - Dining Philosophers
 - > Coordinate access to resources
 - Readers Writers Problem
 - Coordinate access to shared data structures

Also known as bounded buffer problem



- Overall problem description
 - A buffer can hold N items
 - Producer pushes items into the buffer
 - Consumer pulls items from the buffer
 - Producer needs to wait when buffer is full
 - Consumer needs to wait when the buffer is empty

```
int BUFFER SIZE = 100; int count = 0;
void producer(void) { int item;
    while(TRUE) {
        produce item(&item);
        if(count == BUFFER SIZE)
            sleep ();
        enter item(item);
        count++;
        if(count == 1)
            wakeup(consumer);
void consumer(void) { int item;
    while(TRUE) {
        if(count == 0)
            sleep ():
        remove item(&item);
        count--;
        if(count == BUFFER_SIZE - 1)
            wakeup(producer);
        consume item(&item);
                                   5-Synchronization
}
```

- Producer must wait for consumer to empty buffers
- Consumer must wait for producer to fill buffers
- A thread can manipulate buffer queue at a time

- Synchronization between producer and consumer
 - Use of three separate semaphores
- 1. Producer must wait for consumer to empty buffers, if all full
 - Semaphore empty initialized to the value N
- 2. Consumer must wait for producer to fill buffers, if none full
 - Semaphore full initialized to the value 0
- 3. Producer/consumer can manipulate buffer queue at a time
 - Semaphore mutex initialized to the value 1

- Semaphore empty initialized to the value N
- Semaphore full initialized to the value 0
- Semaphore mutex initialized to the value 1

Producer: void producer(void) { int item; while(TRUE) { produce_item(&item); wait (empty); wait(mutex); enter_item(item); signal(mutex); signal(full);

```
Consumer:
void consumer(void) {
    int item;
    while(TRUE) {
        wait(full);
        wait(mutex);
        remove_item(&item);
        signal(mutex);
        signal(empty);
        consume item(&item);
```

Changing Order of Semaphores

```
Producer:
void producer(void) {
    int item;
    while(TRUE) {
        produce_item(&item);
        wait (mutex);
        wait(empty);
        enter_item(item);
        signal(mutex);
        signal(full);
}
```

```
Consumer:
void consumer(void) {
    int item;
    while(TRUE) {
        wait(full);
        wait(mutex);
        remove_item(&item);
        signal(mutex);
        signal(empty);
        consume_item(&item);
```

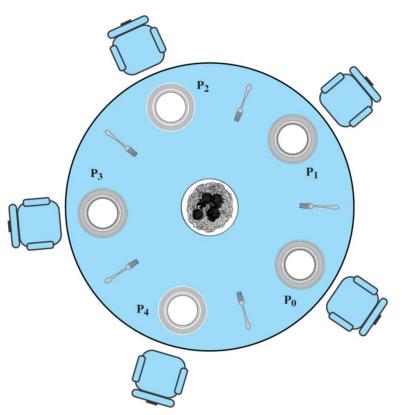
DEADLOCK

Dining Philosophers Problem [E.W. Dijkstra, 1965]

 Simplest form of the resource allocation problem

Intuition:

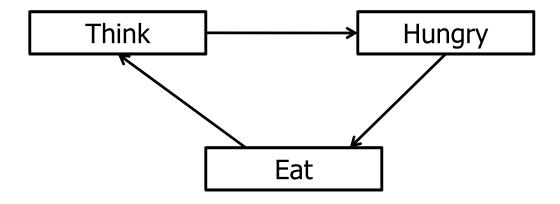
- Philosophers ~ Processes which aim to execute code
- Food ~ code which requires exclusive access to resources
- Forks ~ conflicts on shared resources
- Hungry philosophers
 - Try to exclusively acquire forks shared with neighbors
- Eat after they have aquired both forks
 - Release forks after eating
- Think if not interested to eat



Dining Philosophers Problem: States and Properties

Goal

- No deadlocks
- Hungry philosophers will eventually be able to eat



States of a philosopher

Dining Philosophers Problem Using Semaphores

- Represent each fork with a semaphore
 - Semaphore fork[5] initialized to 1

```
Structure of Philosopher i
do {
    wait ( fork[i] );
    wait ( fork[ (i + 1) % 5] );
    // eat
    signal ( fork[i] );
    signal (fork[ (i + 1) % 5] );
    // think
} while (TRUE);
```

- Solution guarantees that no two neighbors eat simultaneously
 - Deadlock can be occur

Semaphores Summary

- Semaphores can be used to solve any of traditional synchronization problems
- Semaphore have some drawbacks
 - They are essentially shared global variables
 - > Can potentially be accessed anywhere in program
 - No connection between the semaphore and the data being controlled by the semaphore
 - Used both for critical sections (mutual exclusion) and coordination (scheduling)
 - No control or guarantee of proper usage
- Sometimes hard to use and prone to bugs
 - Another approach: Use programming language support

Goal: Avoid problems of managing multiple semaphores

Monitor is a programming language construct (not OS)

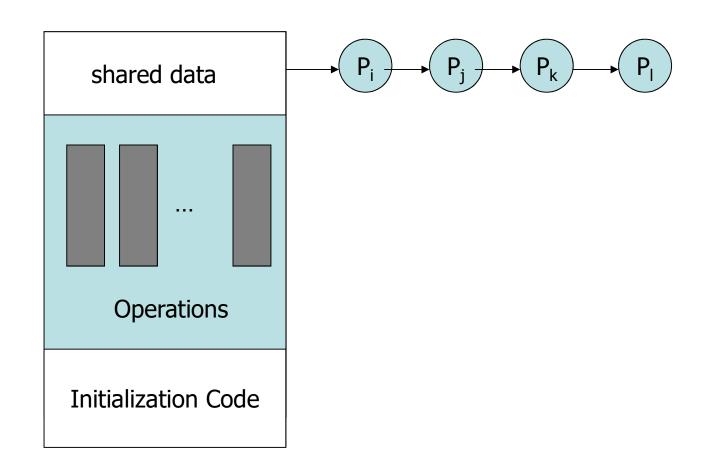
- Controls access to shared data
- Synchronization code added by compiler, enforced at runtime

```
monitor name
{
   // shared variable
   procedure P1 ( ... ) {
   procedure PN (...){
   initialization (...) {
```

A monitor guarantees mutual exclusion

- Only one thread can execute any monitor procedure at any time
 - The thread is "in the monitor"
- If a second thread invokes a monitor procedure when a first thread is already executing one, it blocks
 - So the monitor has to have a wait queue...
- If a thread within a monitor blocks, another one can enter

```
monitor name
{
   // shared variable
   procedure P1 ( ... ) {
   procedure PN (...){
   initialization (...) {
```



- A monitor has four components
 - Initialization
 - Share (private) data
 - Monitor procedures
 - Monitor entry queue
- A monitor looks like a class with
 - Constructors, private data and methods
 - Only major difference is that classes do not have entry queues

Mutual Exclusion With a Monitor

```
monitor mutual_exclusion{
   procedure CS();
        Critical Section
   end;
}

Process P<sub>i</sub>:
1: REPEAT
2: CS();
3: Remainder Section
4: UNTIL false;
```

Monitors Example

```
Monitor account {
    double balance;

    double withdraw(amount) {
        balance = balance - amount;
        return balance;
    }
}
```

- Threads are blocked while waiting to get into monitor
- When first thread exists, another can enter

Condition Variables in Monitors

- Similar concept to semaphores
- Condition variable associated with a queue

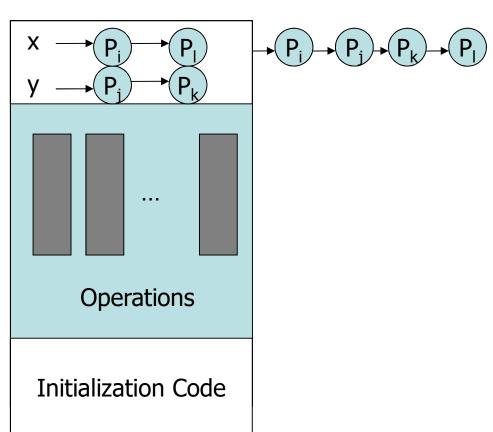
condition x; // declaration

x.wait()

Process which invokes this operation is blocked

x.signal()

- A blocked process can resume execution
 - If no process issue x.wait () on variable x, then it has no effect on the variable



```
monitor ProducerConsumer {
    int itemCount;
    condition full, empty;
    procedure initialization( ){
        itemCount = 0;
    procedure add(item) {
        if (itemCount == BUFFER SIZE)
            full.wait( );
        putItemIntoBuffer(item);
        itemCount = itemCount + 1;
        if (itemCount == 1)
            empty.signal();
    procedure remove() {
        if (itemCount == 0)
            empty.wait( );
```

```
item = removeItemFromBuffer();
        itemCount = itemCount - 1;
        if (itemCount == BUFFER SIZE - 1)
            full.signal( );
        return item;
procedure producer() {
    while (true) {
        item = produceItem();
        ProducerConsumer.add(item);
procedure consumer() {
    while (true) {
        item = ProducerConsumer.remove();
        consumeItem(item);
```

Signal Semantics

What happens if P executes x.signal() & has still code to execute?

Two possibilities

- Hoare monitors (Concurrent Pascal, original)
 - Signal and wait: P either waits for Q to leave the monitor or waits for some other condition
 - The condition that Q was anticipating is guaranteed to hold > if (empty) wait(condition);
- Mesa monitors (Mesa, Java)
 - Signal and continue: Q either waits until P leaves the monitor or for some other condition
 - Condition is not necessarily true when Q runs again > while (empty) wait(condition);

Condition Variables vs. Semaphores

Semaphore

- Can be used anywhere in a program, but should not be used in a monitor
- wait() does not always block the caller (i.e., when the semaphore counter is greater than zero)
- signal() either releases a blocked thread, if there is one, or increases the semaphore counter
- If signal() releases a blocked thread, the caller and the released thread both continue

Condition variables

- Can only be used in monitors
- wait() always blocks the caller
- signal() either releases a blocked thread, if there is one, or the signal is lost as if it never happens
- If signal() releases a blocked thread. Only one of the caller or the released thread can continue, but not both

Dining Philosophers Problem Revisited

```
monitor DiningPhilosophers {
    enum {THINK,HUNGRY,EAT) 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 & right neighbors
        test((i + 4) \% 5);
        test((i + 1) \% 5);
    initialization code() {
        for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
            state[i] = THINKING;
```

```
void test (int i) {
                                      if ((state[(i+4)%5] != EATING) &&
                                          (state[i] == HUNGRY) &&
                                          (state[(i+1)%5] != EATING)) {
                                         state[i] = EATING ;
                                         self[i].signal();
                              Function of Philosopher i
                              Void philosopher(int i) {
                                  while (true) {
                                      DiningPhilosophers.pickup (i);
                                     // EAT
                                     DiningPhilosophers.putdown (i);
                                     // THINK
No deadlock but starvation is possible
```

Condition Variables and Locks

Condition variables are also used without monitors in conjunction with blocking locks

```
procedure() {
    Acquire(lock);
    /* Do something including signal and wait*/
    Release(lock);
}
```

- A monitor is "just like" a module whose state includes a condition variable and a lock
 - Difference is syntactic; with monitors, compiler adds the code
- It is "just as if" each procedure in the module calls acquire() on entry and release() on exit
 - But can be done anywhere in procedure, at finer granularity

Condition Variables and Locks – Example

```
Lock lock;
Condition cond;
int AddToQueue() {
   lock.Acquire();  // Lock before using shared data
    put item on queue; // Ok to access shared data
   cond.signal();
   lock.Release(); // Unlock after done with shared data
}
int RemoveFromQueue() {
   lock.Acquire();
   while nothing on queue
       cond.wait(&lock); //Atomically release lock and block until signal
                          //Automatically re-acquire lock before it returns
                          // Difference in syntax, e.g., wait(cond, lock)
   remove item from queue;
   lock.Release();
   return item;
}
```

Any Question So Far?

