

OPERATING SYSTEM CONCEPTS

Chapter 6. Process Synchronization A/Prof. Kai Dong

Warm-up

What is the Output?

```
/* thread.c */
    #include <stdio h>
3
    #include < stdlib.h>
    #include <common.h>
5
6
    volatile int counter = 0.
    int loops;
8
    void *worker(void *arg) {
10
     int i:
     for (i = 0; i < loops; i++) {
11
     counter++:
13
     return NULL:
14
15
```

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
     if (argc != 2) {
     fprintf(stderr, "usage: threads <
           value >\n");
     exit(1):
4
     loops = atoi(argv[1]);
7
     pthread t p1, p2:
     printf("Initial value : %d\n".
           counter);
9
10
     Pthread create(&p1, NULL, worker,
            NULL):
11
     Pthread create(&p2, NULL, worker,
            NULL):
12
     Pthread join (p1, NULL);
13
     Pthread join (p2, NULL);
     printf("Final value: %d\n".
14
           counter):
15
     return 0:
16
```

Warm-up

Concurrency



```
prompt> gcc -o thread thread.c -Wall -pthread prompt> ./thread 1000
Initial value : 0
Final value : 2000

prompt> ./thread 100000
Initial value : 0
Final value : 143012
prompt> ./thread 100000
Initial value : 0
Final value : 137298
```

 Concurrency — Many problems arise, and must be addressed, when working on many things at once (i.e., concurrently) in the same program.

Objectives



- To present the concept of process synchronization.
- To introduce the critical-section problem, whose solutions can be used to ensure the consistency of shared data
- To present both software and hardware solutions of the critical-section problem
- To examine several classical process-synchronization problems
- To explore several tools that are used to solve process synchronization problems

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- 1. Background
- 2. The Critical-Section Problem
- 3. Mutex Locks
- 4. Locked Data Structures
- 5. Condition Variables
- 6. Semaphores
- Monitors



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Background



- Processes (and threads) can execute concurrently
- May be interrupted at any time, partially completing execution
- Concurrent access to shared data may result in data inconsistency
- Maintaining data consistency requires mechanisms to ensure the orderly execution of cooperating processes
- In our warm-up example, what data is shared?

Background

Result Indeterminate

One line of C code

```
1 counter ++
```

• is compiled as

```
1 mov 0x8049a1c, %eax ; register1 = counter
2 add $0x1, %eax ; register1 = register1 + 1
3 mov %eax, 0x8049a1c ; counter = register1
```

Consider this execution interleaving with counter = 50 initially:

```
SO:
        p1 executes register1 = counter
                                                (register1 = 50)
S1:
        p1 executes register1 = register1 + 1
                                                (register1 =51)
S2:
                                                (register2 = 50)
        p2 executes register2 = counter
S3:
        p2 executes register2 = register2 + 1
                                                (register2 = 51)
S4:
        p1 executes counter = register1
                                                (counter = 51)
S5:
        p2 executes counter = register2
                                                (counter = 51 NOT 52)
```

Because of multi-processors? Not really.

Background

Uncontrolled Scheduling

(after instruction)

os	Thread 1	Thread 2	PC	%eax	counter
	before critical section		100	0	50
	mov 0x8049a1c, %eax		105	50	50
	add \$0x1, %eax		108	51	50
interrupt					
save T1's state					
restore T2's state			100	0	50
		mov 0x8049a1c, %eax	105	50	50
		add \$0x1, %eax	108	51	50
		mov %eax, 0x8049a1c	113	51	51
interrupt					
save T2's state					
restore T1's state			108	51	50
	mov %eax, 0x8049a1c		113	51	51

- The heart of the problem: uncontrolled scheduling
- What if we had a super instruction "memory-add 0x8049a1c, \$0x1"?

Background Race Condition



Race condition

- Several processes (threads) access and manipulate the same data concurrently and the outcome of the execution depends on the particular order in which the access takes place.
- Result indeterminate

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- 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

- Multiple threads executing a segment of code, which can result in a race condition.
- Question: what codes are in critical section in previous examples?
- Critical section problem is to design protocol to avoid race condition.
- Each process must ask permission to enter critical section in **entry section**, may follow critical section with **exit section**, then **remainder section**





General structure of process P_i

An algorithm for process P_i and P_i

```
do {
    while (turn == j);
    critical section
    turn = j;
    remainder section
} while (true);
```

```
do {
   while (turn == i);
   critical section
   turn = i;
   remainder section
} while (true);
```

Is it a correct solution?

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
- 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 processes 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

Critical Section Handling in OS



- Two approaches depending on if kernel is preemptive or non-preemptive
 - Preemptive allows preemption of process when running in kernel mode
 - Non-preemptive runs until exits kernel mode, blocks, or voluntarily yields CPU
 - » Essentially free of race conditions in kernel mode
- Why would anyone favor a preemptive kernel over a non-preemptive one?
 - A preemptive kernel may be more responsive, since there is less risk that a kernel-mode process will run for an arbitrarily long period before relinquishing the processor to waiting processes.

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Controlling Scheduling

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- What we need: Hardware synchronization primitives.
 - Lock-related source codes are put around critical sections, thus ensure that any such critical section executes as if it were a single atomic instruction.
- A lock is just a variable.
- How to use a lock:
 - Declare a lock variable (e.g., mutex).
 - The lock variable holds the state of the lock.
 - It is either available (or unlocked or free), means that no thread holds the lock;
 - Or acquired (or locked or held), means that exactly one thread holds the lock.

Locks



• Algorithm for process P_i

```
1 do {
2 lock();
3 critical section
4 unlock();
5 remainder section
6 while (true);
```

• The semantic of the lock() and unlock() routines?

Semantic of lock() and unlock() Routines

- The semantic of the *lock()* routines.
 - Calling the routine lock() tries to acquire the lock.
 - If no other thread holds the lock (i.e., it is free), the thread will acquire
 the lock and enter the critical section; this thread is sometimes said to
 be the owner of the lock.
 - If another thread then calls lock() on that same lock variable, it will not return since the lock is held by its owner.
 - Other threads are prevented from entering the critical section while the first thread that holds the lock is in there.
- The semantic of the unlock() routines.
 - Once the owner of the lock calls unlock(), the lock is now available (free) again.
 - If no other threads are waiting for the lock, the state of the lock is simply changed to free; otherwise, one of the waiting threads will notice this change of the lock's state, acquire the lock, and enter the critical section.



Pthread Locks

Entry & Exit

```
int pthread_mutex_lock(pthread_mutex *mutex);
int pthread_mutex_unlock(pthread_mutex *mutex);
```

initialization

```
pthread_mutex_t lock = PTHREAD_MUTEX_INITIALIZER;
int rc = pthread_mutex_init(&lock, NULL);
assert(rc == 0);
```

Destruction

```
pthread_mutex_destroy(&lock);
pthread_mutex_destroy(lock);
```

Other versions

```
1  int pthread_mutex_trylock(pthread_mutex_t *mutex);
2  int pthread_mutex_trylock(pthread_mutex_t *mutex, struct timespec *
    abs_timeout);
```

Building A Lock

- How can OS build an efficient lock?
 - It depends, on which hardware synchronization primitives are used.
- Ways of Building A Lock
 - Without special hardware support
 - » Dekker's and Peterson's Algorithms
 - » Lamport's Bakery Algorithm
 - With hardware support
 - » Controlling Interrupts
 - » The test-and-set instruction (atomic exchange)
 - » The compare-and-swap instruction (compare-and-exchange)
 - » Load-Linked and Store-Conditional
 - » Fetch-And-Add
- Discussion on spin-waiting



Controlling Interrupts

- For single-processor systems:
 - One of the earliest solutions used to provide mutual exclusion was to disable interrupts for critical sections.

```
void lock() {
    DisableInterrupts();
}

void unlock() {
    EnableInterrupts();
}
```

- Disable/EnableInterrupts() are implemented by using special hardware instructions.
- Question: Is it a solution to the critical section problem?
 - Whether or not it satisfies: Mutual exclusion? Progress? Bounded Waiting?
- And what about Performance?

Controlling Interrupts (contd.)

- What are the negatives?
- This approach requires us to allow any calling thread to perform a privileged operation (turning interrupts on/off), and trust this facility is not abused.
 - A greedy program could call lock() at the beginning of its execution and thus monopolize the processor; worse, an errant or malicious program could call lock() and go into an endless loop.
- This approach does not work on multiprocessors.
 - Threads will be able to run on other processors, and thus could enter the critical section.
- This approach may lost interrupts.
 - E.g., if the CPU missed the fact that a disk device has finished a read request. How will the OS know to wake the process waiting for said read?
- This approach can be inefficient.
 - Codes that mask or unmask interrupts are executed slowly.

Peterson's Solution



- Good algorithmic description of solving the problem
- Two process solution
- Assume that the load and store machine-language instructions are atomic; that is, cannot be interrupted.
- The two processes share two variables:

```
1 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!

Peterson's Solution (contd.)



Algorithm for Process Pi

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

Algorithm for Process Pi

 Prove that the algorithm satisfies all requirements for the critical section problem

Why Failed?

Failed attempt #1

Failed attempt #2

Failed attempt #3

Why Failed? (Failed attemp #1)



Mutual exclusion	F
Progress	Т
Bounded waiting	F

Thread 1	Thread 2
while(flag[2]);	
interrupted: switch to Thread 2	
	while(flag[1]);
	flag[2] = true;
	critical section
	interrupted: switch to Thread 1
flag[1] = true;	
critical section	

Why Failed? (Failed attemp #2)



Mutual exclusion	Т
Progress	F
Bounded waiting	Т

Thread 1	Thread 2
	flag[2] = true;
	interrupted: switch to Thread 1
flag[1] = true;	
while (flag[2])	
blocked: switch to Thread 2	
	while (flag[1])
	blocked: switch to Thread 1

Why Failed? (Failed attemp #3)

Mutual exclusion	Т
Progress	F
Bounded waiting	Т



Thread 1

remainder section

(performing I/O)

blocked: switch to Thread 2

victim = 2;

Thread 2

while (victim == 2)

blocked: switch to Thread 1

. . .

(I/O interrupt)

victim = 1;

. . .

Bakery Algorithm

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- Peterson's solution is restricted to two processes that alternate execution between their critical sections and remainder sections.
- What if there are more than two cooperating processes?
- Bakery Algorithm Critical section for n processes
- Lamport envisioned a bakery with a numbering machine at its entrance so each customer is given a unique number. Numbers increase by one as customers enter the store. A global counter displays the number of the customer that is currently being served. All other customers must wait in a queue until the baker finishes serving the current customer and the next number is displayed. When the customer is done shopping and has disposed of his or her number, the clerk increments the number, allowing the next customer to be served. That customer must draw another number from the numbering machine in order to shop again.

Bakery Algorithm

- Before entering its critical section, process (customer) receives a number.
 Holder of the smallest number enters the critical section. (wait in a queue)
- 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. (a unique number)
- The numbering scheme always generates numbers in increasing order of enumeration; e.g., 1, 2, 3, 3, 3, 4, 5, · · ·
- Define two operators:
 - (a, b) < (c, d) if a < c or if a = c and b < d
 - $\max(a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}) = k$, i.e., $k \ge a_i, \forall i \in [0, n]$
- Shared data

```
boolean choosing[n]; // initialized to false
int number[n]; // initialized to 0
```

Bakery Algorithm (contd.)

```
do {
            choosing[i] = true;
            number[i] = max(number[0], number[1], \dots, number[n - 1]) + 1;
            choosing[i] = false:
4
            for (j = 0; j < n; j ++) {
                     while (choosing[i]);
6
                     while ((number[i] != 0) \&\& ((number[i], i) < (number[i], i))
                           );
8
                     critical section
9
            number[i] = 0:
10
11
                     remainder section
12
    } while (true):
```

- What part are entry section and exit section?
- What codes are in lock() and unlock()?
- What is the use of choosing[]? (why fail without choosing[]?)

Bakery Algorithm (Why fail without choosing[]?)



Mutual exclusion	F
Progress	Т
Bounded waiting	Т

Thread i Thread j $max(\cdots)$ interrupted: switch to Thread j $number[j] = max(\cdots)$ while ((number[i]!=0) && (\cdots)) critical section interrupted: switch to Thread i $number[i] = max(\cdots)$ while ((\cdots) && ((number[j],j)<(number[i],i))) critical section

Conclusion



- Developing locks that work without special hardware support became all the rage for a while, giving theory-types a lot of problems to work on.
- This line of work became quite useless when people realized it is much easier to assume a little hardware support.
- Further, algorithms like the ones above don't work on modern hardware (due
 to relaxed memory consistency models), thus making them even less useful
 than they were before.

Motivation of Test-And-Set: Why Failed?



A failed attempt — why failed?

```
typedef struct __lock_t { int flags; } lock_t;
    void init(lock t *mutex) {
             mutex \rightarrow flag = 0; // 0 \rightarrow lock is available, 1 \rightarrow held
4
6
    void lock(lock t *mutex) {
             while (mutex>flag == 1) //TEST the flag
9
                                      // spin-wait (do nothing)
10
             mutex->flag = 1; // now SET it!
11
13
    void unlock(lock t *mutex) {
             mutex -> flag = 0;
14
15
```

Why Failed? (contd.)

Mutual exclusion	F
Progress	Т.
Bounded waiting	F



Thread 1 Thread 2

call lock()

while (flag == 1)

interrupt: switch to Thread 2

call lock()

while (flag == 1)

flag = 1

critical section

interrupt: switch to Thread 1

flag = 1

critical section

Test And Set



• Hardware support: Some form of test-and-set instruction.

```
int TestAndSet(int *old_ptr, int new) {
    int old = *old_ptr;

    *old_ptr = new;
    return old;
}
```

- It returns the old value pointed to by the ptr, and simultaneously updates said value to new.
- The key is that this sequence of operations is performed atomically.
- Test-and-set enables you to test the old value (which is what is returned)
 while simultaneously setting the memory location to a new value.
- Question: Can you build a lock based on this instruction?

Test And Set (contd.)

```
typedef struct __lock_t { int flag; } lock_t;
2
    void init(lock t *lock) {
3
4
              lock \rightarrow flag = 0: // 0 \rightarrow available . 1 \rightarrow held
6
    void lock(lock t *lock) {
7
8
              while (TestAndSet(&lock -> flag, 1) == 1)
9
                                 // spin-waiting
10
11
12
    void unlock(lock t *lock) {
              lock -> flag = 0;
13
14
```

- Evaluating this spin lock:
 - Mutual exclusion? Yes
 - Progress? Yes
 - Bounded waiting? No

Compare And Swap



- Hardware support: compare-and-swap atomic instruction
- To test whether the value at the address specified by ptr is equal to expected;
 if so, update the memory location pointed to by ptr with the new value. If not, do nothing.

```
int CompareAndSwap(int *ptr, int expected, int new) {
   int actual = *ptr;
   if (actual == expected)
        *ptr = new;
   return actual;
}
```

Question: Can you build a lock based on this instruction?

Compare And Swap (contd.)

```
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```

- Evaluating this spin lock.
 - Mutual exclusion? Yes
 - Progress? Yes
 - Bounded waiting? No
- Compare-and-swap is more powerful than test-and-set. Can be used to achieve lock-free synchronization.

Compare And Swap (contd.)



- Lock-free synchronization
- How to implement a concurrent counter?
 - lock(); update counter; unlock();
 - Discussion: Can you build a Class like AtomicInteger?

```
int CompareAndSwap(int *ptr, int expected, int new) {
    int actual = *ptr;
    if (actual == expected) {
        *ptr = new;
        return 1;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Compare And Swap (contd.)



• An alternative approach that does not require explicit locking:

```
void AtomicIncrement(int *counter, int amount) {
    do {
        int old = *counter;
    } while (CompareAndSwap(counter, old, old+amount) == 0);
}
```

- Benefits: No deadlock can arise.
- We will detail deadlocks later in Chapter 7.

Load-Linked and Store-Conditional

```
int LoadLinked(int *ptr) {
             return *ptr;
 4
    int StoreConditional(int *ptr, int value) {
6
             if (no one has updated *ptr since the LoadLinked to this address) {
                     *ptr = value:
8
                     return 1:
                                    // success!
9
             } else return 0; // failed to update
10
11
12
    void lock(lock t *lock) {
             while (true) {
13
                     while (LoadLinked(&lock->flag) == 1)
14
                                    // spin-waiting
16
                     if (StoreConditional(&lock -> flag, 1) == 1)
                             return:
18
19
20
21
    /* or a simplified version */
    void lock(lock t *lock) {
             while (LoadLinked(&lock -> flag) | | !StoreConditional(&lock -> flag, 1))
24
                                      // spin-waiting
25
```

How to Satisfy Bounded Waiting?

```
/* C-like pseudo code */
    Initially Boolean waiting[i] = false: lock = false:
2
3
4
    lock() {
5
             waiting[i] = true:
6
             while (waiting[i] && (TestAndSet(lock, 1) == 1));
             waiting[i] = false;
7
8
9
10
    unlock() {
             i = (i + 1) \% n:
11
12
             while ((j != i) && ! waiting[j])
13
                     i = (i + 1) \% n;
             if (i == i)
14
                     lock = false:
15
16
             else
                     waiting[i] = false;
17
18
```

Fetch And Add

 Atomically increments a value while returning the old value at a particular address.

```
int FetchAndAdd(int *ptr) {
             int old = *ptr;
             *ptr = old + 1:
4
             return old:
6
    /* ticket lock */
8
    typedef struct __lock_t { int ticket; int turn; } lock_t;
    void lock init(lock t *lock) {
             lock -> ticket = 0:
10
11
             lock -> turn = 0:
12
    void lock(lock t *lock) {
13
             int mvturn = FetchAndAdd(&lock -> ticket):
14
15
             while (lock->turn != myturn);
16
    void unlock(lock t *lock) {
17
18
             lock -> turn = lock -> turn + 1;
19
```

Spin-Waiting



- When a thread waits to acquire a lock that is already held, it endlessly checks the value of flag, a technique known as spin-waiting.
- Hardware support for locks Spin locks are simple and they work, and can
 be fair (as with the case of the ticket lock), but also can be quite inefficient.
- Think about N threads contending for a lock; N 1 time slices may be wasted.
- How to solve this problem?
- Hints: some OS support like de-scheduling.

Yield

- Assuming an OS primitive yield().
- yield() is simply a system call that moves the caller from the running state to the ready state. Process de-schedules itself.

- Better than spin, but still inefficient.
- Think about N threads contending for a lock; N 1 threads may execute the run-and-yield pattern.
- Starvation



Using Queues



- The real problem:
 - The scheduler determines which thread runs next.
 - Solution: exert some control over scheduling.
- A queue can be used to keep track of which threads are waiting to acquire the lock.
- E.g. two calls provided by Solaris.
 - park() puts a calling thread to sleep.
 - unpark(threadID) wakes a particular thread as designated by threadID.

park() and unpark()

```
typedef struct lock t {
2
     int flag;
3
     int guard;
     aueue t *a:
5
    } lock t;
6
    void lock_init(lock_t *m) {
8
     m->flag = 0;
9
     m->guard = 0;
     queue init (m->a):
10
11
```

```
void lock (lock t *m) {
2
      while (TestAndSet(&m->guard, 1)
           == 1): // acquire guard
      if (m->flag == 0) {
     m->flag = 1;
     m->guard = 0; // release guard
     } else {
     queue add(m->q, gettid());
8
     setpark(); // will be introduced
     m->guard = 0: // release guard
10
     park();
11
13
14
    void unlock (lock t *m) {
15
     while (TestAndSet(&m-guard, 1) ==
            1): // acquire guard
16
      if (queue empty (m->q))
     m->flag = 0:
18
      else
19
     unpark (queue remove (m->q));
20
     m->guard = 0; // release guard
21
```

setpark()



- Race condition before the call to park(): With just a wrong timing switch, the subsequent park by the first thread would then sleep forever (potentially).
- A third system call: setpark()
- A thread indicates it is about to park.
- If it then happens to be interrupted and another thread calls unpark() before park() is actually called, the subsequent park() returns immediately instead of sleeping.

```
queue_add(m->q, gettid());
setpark();
m->guard = 0;
```

Is spin avoided? No, but the time spent spinning is quite limited.

Spin-Waiting (contd.)



- when can spin-waiting be useful?
 - No context switch is required
 - On multi processor systems, one thread can spin on one processor while another thread performs its critical section on another processor.
- Two-phase locks in Linux
 - In the first phase, the lock spins for a while, hoping that it can acquire the lock.
 - If the lock is not acquired during the first spin phase, a second phase is entered, where the caller is put to sleep, and only woken up when the lock becomes free later.

Spin-Waiting (contd.)

- Correctness reason to avoid spinning: priority inversion A higher-priority thread waiting for a lock held by lower-priority thread.
- If the lock is a spin lock, the higher priority thread spins forever, and the system is hung.
- With more threads and priority levels, the problem becomes more complicated.
 - Imagine three threads, T₁, T₂, and T₃, with T₃ at the highest priority, and T₁ the lowest.
 - T₁ grabs a lock.
 - T_3 starts and tries to acquire the lock that T1 holds, and gets stuck waiting.
 - T₂ starts. Now T₃, which is at higher priority than T₂, is stuck waiting for T₁, which may never run now that T₂ is running.
- priority inheritance a higher-priority thread waiting for a lower-priority thread can temporarily boost the lower thread's priority, thus enabling it to run and overcoming the inversion.

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- How to add locks to a data structure to make it usable by threads makes the structure thread safe.
- Consider both correctness and Performance
 - Concurrent Counter
 - Concurrent Linked List
 - Concurrent Queue
 - Concurrent Hash Table

Non-concurrent Counter

```
typedef struct __counter_t {
             int value:
3
    } counter t;
4
5
    void init(counter t *c) {
6
             c->value = 0;
8
    void increment(counter t *c) {
10
             c->value++;
11
12
13
    void decrement(counter t *c) {
14
             c->value --;
15
16
17
    int get(counter t *c) {
18
             return c->value:
19
```

Concurrent Counter

```
typedef struct __counter t {
             int value:
             pthread mutex t lock:
4
    } counter t:
    void init(counter t *c) {
6
             c \rightarrow value = 0;
             pthread mutex init(&c->lock, NULL):
 7
8
9
    void increment(counter t *c) {
             pthread mutex lock(&c->lock):
10
             c->value++:
11
12
             pthread mutex unlock(&c->lock);
13
    void decrement(counter t *c) {
14
15
             pthread mutex lock(&c->lock);
16
             c->value --;
             pthread mutex unlock(&c->lock):
17
18
19
    int get(counter t *c) {
             pthread mutex lock(&c->lock):
20
             int rc = c->value:
21
22
             pthread mutex unlock(&c->lock);
             return rc:
24
```

Concurrent Counter (contd.)



- Performance is still a problem
 - A single thread completes in 0.03 seconds, where two threads complete in more than 5 seconds!
- Sloppy counter

Sloppy Counter

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- local counter + local lock
- global counter + global lock

Time	L ₁	L ₂	L ₃	L ₄	G
0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1	1	0
2	1	0	2	1	0
3	2	0	3	1	0
4	3	0	3	2	0
5	4	1	3	3	0
6	5→0	1	3	4	5 (from L ₁)
7	0	2	4	5→0	10 (from L ₄)

Sloppy Counter (contd.)

```
typedef struct counter t {
     int global;
3
     pthread mutex t glock:
     int local[NUMCPUS];
4
     pthread mutex t [lock[NUMCPUS]:
5
     int threshold:
6
7
    } counter t;
8
9
    void init(counter t *c. int
          threshold) {
     c->threshold = threshold:
10
11
     c \rightarrow global = 0:
12
     Pthread mutex init(&c->glock,
           NULL):
     for (int i = 0: i < NUMCPUS: i
13
            ++) {
14
     c \rightarrow local[i] = 0:
15
      pthread_mutex_init(&c->llock[i],
           NULL):
16
```

```
void update(counter t *c, int
          threadID, int amt) {
     int cpu = threadID % NUMCPUS:
3
     pthread mutex lock(&c->llock[cpu
     c->local[cpu] += amt:
4
     if (c->local[cpu] >= c->threshold
6
     pthread mutex lock(&c->glock);
     c->global += c->local[cpu]:
     pthread mutex unlock(&c->glock);
     c \rightarrow local[cpu] = 0;
10
11
     pthread mutex unlock(&c->llock[
           cpu 1):
14
    int get(counter t *c) {
15
     pthread mutex lock(&c->glock):
     int rc = c->global:
16
     pthread mutex unlock(&c->glock);
18
     return rc:
19
```

A Simple Concurrent Linked List



```
typedef struct __node_t {
2
             int key;
             struct node t *next;
4
    } node t:
5
    typedef struct __list_t {
6
             node t *head;
8
             pthread_mutex_t lock;
9
    } list t;
10
    void List_Init(list_t *L) {
11
12
            L->head = NULL:
13
             pthread mutex init(&L->lock, NULL);
14
```

A Simple Concurrent Linked List (contd.)

```
int List Insert(list t *L. int kev) {
             pthread mutex lock(&L->lock):
 3
             node t *new = malloc(size of (node t));
 4
             if (new == NULL) {
                      pthread mutex unlock(&L->lock):
6
                      return -1:
8
             new->kev = kev:
             new->next = L->head:
9
10
             L->head = new:
             pthread mutex unlock(&L->lock):
11
             return 0:
    int List Lookup(list t *L, int key) {
14
15
             pthread_mutex_lock(&L->lock);
             node t *curr = L->head;
16
             while (curr) {
                      if (curr->kev == kev) {
18
                              pthread mutex unlock(&L->lock):
19
20
                              return 0:
21
                      curr = curr->next:
             pthread mutex unlock(&L->lock);
24
             return -1:
26
```

Scaling Linked Lists



- Hand-over-hand locking (a.k.a. lock coupling)
- Instead of having a single lock for the entire list, you instead add a lock per node of the list.
- When traversing the list, the code first grabs the next node's lock and then releases the current node's lock
- High degree of concurrency in list operations. In practice, it is hard to make such a structure faster than the simple single lock approach. (Surprise? Guess why.)
- A hybrid would be worth investigating.

Concurrent Queue

• Instead of adding a big lock, any approach more concurrently?

```
typedef struct __node_t {
             int value:
3
             struct node t *next;
4
    } node t:
6
    typedef struct queue t {
7
             node t *head:
8
             node t *tail:
9
             pthread mutex t headLock;
10
             pthread mutex t tailLock:
11
    } aueue t:
12
    void Queue Init(queue t *q) {
13
             node t *tmp = malloc(sizeof(node t)):
14
15
             tmp \rightarrow next = NULL
16
             q->head = q->tail = tmp;
17
             pthread mutex init(&g->headLock, NULL):
18
             pthread mutex init(&g->tailLock . NULL):
19
```

Concurrent Queue (contd.)

```
void Queue Enqueue(queue t *q. int value) {
             node t *tmp = malloc(sizeof(node t));
3
             assert (tmp != NULL);
4
             tmp->value = value:
             tmp->next = NULL;
6
             pthread mutex lock(&g->tailLock);
             g->tail->next = tmp:
8
             q->tail = tmp:
9
             pthread mutex unlock(&q->tailLock);
10
11
12
    int Queue Dequeue (queue t *q, int *value) {
             pthread mutex lock(&g->headLock):
14
             node t *tmp = q->head:
             node t *newHead = tmp->next;
15
             if (newHead == NULL) {
16
                     pthread mutex unlock(&g->headLock):
                     return -1:
19
             *value = newHead->value:
21
             a -> head = newHead:
             pthread mutex unlock(&q->headLock);
             free (tmp):
24
             return 0:
25
```

Concurrent Hash Table

Instead of adding a big lock, any approach more concurrently?

```
#define BUCKETS (101)
 3
    typedef struct __hash_t {
             list t lists[BUCKETS];
 5
    } hash t:
6
    void Hash Init(hash t *h) {
8
             for (int i = 0; i < BUCKETS; i ++)
                     List Init(&h->lists[i]):
9
11
    int Hash_Insert(hash_t *h, int key) {
13
             int bucket = kev % BUCKETS:
             return List Insert(&h->lists[buckets], key);
14
15
16
17
    int Hash Lookup (hash t *h, int key) {
18
             int bucket = key % BUCKETS;
             return List Lookup(&H->lists[bucket], kev):
19
20
```

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Implementing pthread_join()



• Two problems:

```
void *child(void *arg) {
2
            pintf("child\n");
            // Problem #1: how to indicate we are done?
4
            return NULL:
6
7
    int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
8
            printf("parent: begin\n");
9
            pthread t c;
            pthread create(&c. NULL, child, NULL):
10
11
            // Problem #2: how to wait for child?
12
            printf("parent: end\n");
            return 0:
14
```

Implementing pthread_join() (contd.)

Using a shared variable:

```
void *child(void *arg) {
             pintf("child\n");
            done = 1;
4
             return NULL:
6
    int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
             printf("parent: begin\n");
9
             pthread t c;
             pthread_create(&c, NULL, child, NULL);
             while (done == 0)
11
             printf("parent: end\n"):
14
             return 0:
15
```

- Correct, but
- Waste of CPU time spin-waiting.
- Do we need a lock here? Not a critical section.

Implementing pthread_join() (contd.)



- A condition variable is an explicit queue
- The POSIX calls:
 - wait(): put itself to sleep;
 - signal(): wake a sleeping thread waiting on this condition.

```
pthread_cond_wait(pthread_cond_t *c, pthread_mutex_t *m);
pthread_cond_signal(pthread_cond_t *c);
```

Implementing pthread_join() (contd.)

```
int done = 0:
    pthread mutex m =
          PTHREAD MUTEX INITIALIZER;
3
    pthread cond t c =
          PTHREAD COND INITIALIZER:
4
    void thr exit() {
     pthread mutex lock(&m):
7
     done = 1:
8
     pthread cond signal(&c);
     pthread mutex unlock(&m):
10
11
    void *child(void *arg) {
12
13
     printf("child\n"):
14
     thr exit();
15
     return NULL;
16
```

```
void thr_join() {
     pthread mutex lock(&m);
     while (done == 0)
      pthread cond wait(&c. &m):
4
     pthread mutex unlock(&m);
6
7
    int main(int argc. char *argv[]) {
     printf("parent: begin\n");
10
     pthread_t p;
     pthread create(&p. NULL, child.
11
           NULL):
12
     thr join();
     printf("parent: end\n"):
14
     return 0;
15
```

Implementing pthread_join() (contd.)



- Condition variable is always with a lock and a flag
- Why are the following codes broken?

```
void thr exit() {
     pthread_mutex_lock(&m);
3
     pthread cond signal(&c);
     pthread mutex unlock(&m);
4
6
    void thr join() {
     pthread mutex lock(&m):
8
     pthread_cond_wait(&c, &m);
9
     pthread mutex unlock(&m);
11
13
    /* broken code #1 */
```

```
void thr_exit() {
    done = 1;
    pthread_cond_signal(&c);
}

void thr_join() {
    if (done == 0)
    pthread_cond_wait(&c);
}

/* broken code #2 */
```

The Producer-Consumer Problem

```
/* Let's begin with only 1 producer, 1 consumer, buffer size = 1 */
    cond t cond:
3
4
    mutex t mutex
    void *producer(void *arg) {
6
             for (int i = 0; i < loops; i ++) {
                     pthread mutex lock(&mutex):
8
                     if (count == 1)
9
                             pthread cond wait(&cond, &mutex);
                     put():
                                              // produce
10
                     pthread_cond_signal(&cond);
11
12
                     pthread mutex unlock(&mutex);
14
    void *consumer(void *arg) {
16
             for (int i = 0; i < loops; i ++) {
                     pthread mutex lock(&mutex):
18
                     if (count == 0)
                             pthread cond wait(&cond, &mutex);
19
                     get():
                                              // consume
                     pthread_cond_signal(&cond);
21
22
                     pthread mutex unlock(&mutex);
24
```

The Producer-Consumer Problem (contd.)

Problematic with more threads



T_{c1}	State	T _{c2}	State	T_p	State	Count	Comment
lock	Running		Ready		Ready	0	
wait	Waiting		Ready		Ready	0	Nothing to get
	Waiting		Ready	lock	Running	0	
	Waiting		Ready	put	Running	1	Buffer now full
	Ready		Ready	signal	Running	1	T _{c1} awoken
	Ready		Ready	unlock	Running	1	
	Ready		Ready	lock	Running	1	
	Ready		Ready	wait	Waiting	1	Buffer full
	Ready	lock	Running		Waiting	1	T _{c2} sneaks in
	Ready	get	Running		Waiting	0	T _{c2} grabs data
	Ready	signal	Running		Ready	0	T _p awoken
	Ready	unlock	Running		Ready	О	
get	Running		Ready		Ready	0	No data!

```
/* Still broken */
    cond t cond;
 4
    mutex t mutex
    void *producer(void *arg) {
6
            for (int i = 0; i < loops; i ++) {
                     pthread mutex lock(&mutex);
                     while (count == 1)
                                        // use "while" instead of "if"
8
9
                             pthread cond wait(&cond, &mutex);
10
                     put();
                                              // produce
11
                     pthread_cond_signal(&cond);
                     pthread mutex unlock(&mutex):
14
15
    void *consumer(void *arg) {
16
            for (int i = 0; i < loops; i ++) {
                     pthread mutex lock(&mutex);
                     while (count == 0) // use "while" instead of "if"
18
19
                             pthread cond wait(&cond, &mutex);
20
                     get();
                                              // consume
21
                     pthread_cond_signal(&cond);
                     pthread mutex unlock(&mutex);
24
```

T_{c1}	State	T_{c2}	State	Tp	State	Count	Comment
lock	Running		Ready		Ready	0	3
wait	Waiting		Ready		Ready	0	Nothing to get
	Waiting	lock	Running		Ready	0	
	Waiting	wait	Waiting		Ready	0	Nothing to get
	Waiting		Waiting	lock	Running	0	
	Waiting		Waiting	put	Running	1	Buffer now full
	Ready		Waiting	signal	Running	1	T _{c1} awoken
	Ready		Waiting	unlock	Running	1	
	Ready		Waiting	lock	Running	1	
	Ready		Waiting	wait	Waiting	1	Buffer full
while	Running		Waiting		Waiting	1	Recheck condition
get	Running		Waiting		Waiting	0	T _{c1} grabs data
signal	Running		Ready		Waiting	0	Oops, T _{c2} awoken
unlock	Running		Ready		Waiting	0	
lock	Running		Ready		Waiting	0	
wait	Waiting		Ready		Waiting	0	Nothing to get
	Waiting	while	Ready		Waiting	0	Recheck condition
	Waiting	wait	Waiting		Waiting	0	Everyone waiting! 74/105

```
/* buffer size = 1 */
    cond t empty, fill;
                                               // two condition variables
4
    mutex t mutex
    void *producer(void *arg) {
6
             for (int i = 0; i < loops; i ++) {
                     pthread mutex lock(&mutex);
                     while (count == 1)
8
9
                              pthread cond wait(&empty, &mutex);
10
                     put();
                                               // produce
11
                     pthread_cond_signal(& fill);
                     pthread mutex unlock(&mutex):
14
15
    void *consumer(void *arg) {
16
             for (int i = 0; i < loops; i ++) {
                     pthread mutex lock(&mutex);
                     while (count == 0)
18
19
                              pthread cond wait(& fill, &mutex);
20
                     get();
                                               // consume
21
                     pthread_cond_signal(&empty);
                     pthread mutex unlock(&mutex);
24
```

```
/* dealing with bounded buffer instead of single buffer */
    cond t empty, fill;
                                              // still two condition variables
 4
    mutex t mutex
    void *producer(void *arg) {
6
             for (int i = 0; i < loops; i ++) {
                     pthread mutex lock(&mutex);
                     while (count == MAX) // remember: always use "while"
8
9
                             pthread cond wait(&empty, &mutex);
                     put();
                                              // produce
11
                     pthread_cond_signal(& fill);
                     pthread mutex unlock(&mutex):
14
15
    void *consumer(void *arg) {
             for (int i = 0; i < loops; i ++) {
16
                     pthread mutex lock(&mutex);
                     while (count == 0)
18
19
                             pthread cond wait(& fill, &mutex);
20
                     get();
                                              // consume
21
                     pthread_cond_signal(&empty);
                     pthread mutex unlock(&mutex);
24
```

Covering Condition



- Consider a memory allocation scenario:
 - Assume there are 0 bytes free;
 - Thread T_a calls allocate(100)
 - Thread T_b calls allocate(10)
 - Thread T_c calls free(50)
- Which thread to signal?
 - What if T_a is awoken?
- pthread_cond_broadcast(), to wake up all waiting threads.

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- n final state with
- A semaphore is an object with an integer value that we can manipulate with two routines: wait() and signal().
 - In the POSIX standard, these routines are sem_wait() and sem_post().
 - Historically, Dijkstra uses P() and V(). P() comes from "prolaag", a contraction of "probeer" (Dutch for "try") and "verlaag" ("decrease");
 V() comes from the Dutch word "verhoog" which means "increase".

Semaphore Implementation

• To overcome the need for busy waiting:

```
typedef struct {
             int value;
             struct process *list;
3
     } semaphore:
4
6
     wait(semaphore *s) {
             s->value --:
8
             if (s->value < 0) {
9
                      add this process to s->list;
                      block();
10
11
12
13
     signal(semaphore *s) {
14
15
             s->value ++:
16
             if (s->value <= 0) {
                      remove a process P from s->list:
18
                      wakeup(P):
19
20
```

Why Semaphores



Semaphore = Mutex + Integer + Condition Variable

- Functionality
 - A single primitive for all things related to synchronization
 - Both locks and condition variables
- Correctness and Convenience
 - Avoid errors can signal() first then wait().
 - Clean and organized making it easy to demonstrate their correctness.
 - Efficient.

Basic Synchronization Patterns



- Signaling
- Rendezvous
- Mutex
- Multiplex
- Barrier
- Reusable barrier
- Pairing

Signaling



```
1 /* Thread A */
2 statement a;
```

```
1 /* Thread B */
2 statement b;
```

How to guarantee that a happens before b?

```
1 /* Thread A */
2 statement a;
3 signal(s);
```

```
1 /* Thread B */
2 wait(s);
3 statement b;
```

• What should semaphore s initially be?

Rendezvous

```
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```

```
1 /* Thread A */
2 statement a1;
3 statement a2;
```

```
/* Thread B */
statement b1;
statement b2;
```

How to guarantee that a1 happens before b2, and b1 before a2?

• What should semaphores a, b initially be?

Rendezvous (contd.)



• Is it correct? — Yes, but probably less efficient.

```
1  /* Thread A */
2  statement a1; 2  statement b1;
3  signal(a); 3  wait(a);
4  wait(b); 4  signal(b);
5  statement a2; 5  statement b2;
```

Is it correct? — No, deadlock.

Mutex



```
1 /* Thread A */
2 count = count + 1;
```

```
1 /* Thread B */
2 count = count + 1;
```

 Add semaphores to the following example to enforce mutual exclusion to the shared variable count.

```
1  /* Thread A */
2  wait(mutex);
3  count = count + 1;
4  signal(mutex);
```

• What should semaphores mutex initially be?

Multiplex



 Generalize the previous solution so that it allows multiple threads to run in the critical section at the same time, but it enforces an upper limit (MAX) on the number of concurrent threads.

```
wait(multiplex);
count = count + 1;  // critical section
signal(multiplex);
```

What should semaphores multiplex initially be?

Barrier



Generalize the rendezvous solution. n threads should run the following code:

```
1 rendezvous;
2 critical point;
```

 How to ensure that no thread executes critical point until after all threads have executed rendezvous?

```
1 /* initialization */
2 int count = 0;
3 semaphore mutex = 1;
4 semaphore barrier = 0;
```

Barrier (contd.)



```
/* Bad barrier solution */
    rendezvous:
2
    wait (mutex);
    count = count + 1;
4
    if (count == n)
5
6
             signal (barrier);
    wait (barrier);
8
    signal (barrier);
9
    signal (mutex);
    critical point;
10
```

 Common source of deadlocks: blocking on a semaphore while holding a mutex.

Reusable Barrier (contd.)

```
semaphore barrier1 = 0, barrier2 = 0, mutex = 1:
2
3
    rendezvous:
    wait (mutex):
4
    count += 1;
    if (count == n)
7
             for (int i = 0; i < n; i ++)
8
                      signal (barrier1);
9
    signal (mutex);
    wait (barrier1):
10
    critical point;
11
12
    wait (mutex);
13
    count -= 1:
14
    if (count == 0)
15
             for (int i = 0; i < n; i ++)
16
                      signal (barrier2);
17
    signal (mutex);
18
    wait (barrier2);
```

Pairing

• Imagine that threads represent ballroom dancers and that two kinds of dancers, leaders and followers, wait in two queues before entering the dance floor. When a leader arrives, it checks to see if there is a follower waiting. If so, they can both proceed. Otherwise it waits. Similarly, when a follower arrives, it checks for a leader and either proceeds or waits, accordingly.

```
semaphore leader = 0, follower = 0;

/* leader */
signal(leader);
wait(follower);
dance();

semaphore leader = 0, follower = 0;

/* follower */
signal(follower);
wait(leader);
dance();
```

• How to ensure dance() are executed in pairs?

Pairing (contd.)

```
/* initialization */
int num_I = 0, num_f = 0;
semaphore leader = 0, follower = 0, pairing = 0, mutex = 1;
```

```
/* leader */
    wait (mutex):
3
    if (num f > 0) {
4
             num f --;
5
             signal (leader);
6
    else {
8
             num | ++:
             signal (mutex);
10
             wait (follower);
11
    dance():
12
13
    wait (pairing);
14
     signal (mutex);
```

```
/* follower */
    wait (mutex):
3
    if (num I > 0) {
4
             num I --;
5
              signal (follower);
    else {
             num f ++:
             signal (mutex);
10
             wait (leader);
11
12
    dance():
13
    signal (pairing);
14
             // no signal(mutex);
```

The Producer-Consumer Problem

```
semaphore empty = MAX, full = 0, mutex = 1;
2
3
     void *producer(void *args) {
4
             for (int i = 0: i < loops: i ++) {
                       wait (empty);
                       wait (mutex):
6
7
                       put():
8
                       signal (mutex);
9
                       signal (full);
10
11
12
     void *consumer(void *args) {
13
             for (int i = 0; i < loops; i ++) {
14
15
                      wait (full);
                      wait (mutex):
16
17
                       get():
18
                       signal (mutex);
19
                       signal (empty);
20
21
```

The Dining Philosophers



• There are five "philosophers" sitting around a table. Between each pair of philosophers is a single chopstick (and thus, five total). The philosophers each have times where they think, and don't need any chopsticks, and times where they eat. In order to eat, a philosopher needs two chopsticks, both the one on their left and the one on their right. The basic loop of each philosopher is as follows, assuming each has a unique identifier $p \in [0, 4]$:

```
think();

description

while (true) {
    think();
    getchopsticks();
    eat();
    putchopsticks();
}
```

The Dining Philosophers (contd.)



```
/* a failed solution, why failed? */
2
3
    int left(int p) { return p; }
    int right(int p) {return (p + 1) % 5; }
4
6
    void putchopsticks() {
             signal (chopsticks [left(p)]);
8
             signal (chopsticks [right(p)]);
9
10
    void getchopsticks() {
11
12
             wait (chopsticks [left(p)]);
             wait (chopsticks [right(p)]);
14
```

The Dining Philosophers (contd.)

```
/* a correct solution */
2
    int left(int p) { return p: }
4
     int right(int p) {return (p + 1) % 5; }
 5
6
     void putchopsticks() {
              signal (chopsticks [left(p)]);
8
             signal (chopsticks [right(p)]);
9
10
11
     void getchopsticks() {
              if (p == 4) {
                      wait (chopsticks [right(p)]);
14
                      wait (chopsticks [left(p)]);
15
16
              else {
                      wait (chopsticks [left(p)]);
18
                      wait (chopsticks [right (p)]);
19
20
```

The Readers-Writers Problem



- Imagine a number of concurrent operations, including reads and writes.
 - Writes change the state of the data
 - Reads do not Many reads can proceed concurrently, as long as we can guarantee that no write is on-going.
- The first readers-writers problem requires that, no reader be kept waiting unless a writer has already obtained permission to use the shared object.
- The second readers-writers problem requires that, once a writer is ready, that writer perform its write as soon as possible.

The First Readers-Writers Problem

```
semaphore write_mutex = 1;
semaphore readcount_mutex = 1;
int read_count = 0;
```

```
1 void write() {
2   do {
3      wait(write_mutex);
     /* writing */
5      signal(write_mutex);
6   }
7   while (true);
8 }
```

```
void read() {
     do {
      wait (readcount mutex);
      read count ++:
      if (read count == 1)
6
       wait (write mutex);
       signal(readcount mutex);
      /* reading */
      wait (readcount mutex);
10
      read count --;
       if (read count == 0)
11
        signal (write_mutex);
13
       signal(readcount mutex);
14
15
     while (true):
16
```

The No-starve Readers-Writers Problem

```
semaphore readcount_mutex= 1;
semaphore writemutex=1;
int read_count = 0;
semaphore readmutex =1;
```

```
void write() {
do {
   wait(readmutex);
   wait(writemutex);
   /* writing */
   signal(writemutex);
   signal(readmutex);
   y
   while (true);
}
```

```
void read() {
     do {
       wait (readmutex);
       signal (readmutex):
      wait (readcount mutex):
      read count ++;
       if (read count == 1)
       wait (writemutex):
8
       signal(readcount mutex);
10
      /* reading */
      wait (readcount mutex):
11
      read count --;
13
       if (read count == 0)
        signal (writemutex):
14
       signal(readcount mutex):
16
     while (true):
18
```

The Second Readers-Writers Problem

```
semaphore readcount_mutex= 1;
semaphore writemutex=1;
int write_count = read_count = 0;
semaphore writecount_mutex= 1;
semaphore readmutex=1;
```

```
void write() {
     do {
      wait (writecount mutex);
      write count ++;
       if (write count == 1)
       wait (readmutex):
       signal (writecount mutex);
      wait (writemutex):
      /* writing */
9
       signal (writemutex);
      wait (writecount mutex):
      write count --:
       if (write count == 0)
14
       signal (readmutex);
15
       signal (writecount mutex):
16
     while (true);
18
```

```
void read() {
     do {
      wait (readmutex):
4
      wait (readcount mutex);
      read count ++:
       if (read count == 1)
       wait (writemutex):
       signal(readcount mutex):
       signal (readmutex);
9
10
      /* reading */
11
      wait (readcount mutex);
      read count --:
13
      if (read count == 0)
14
        signal (writemutex);
       signal(readcount mutex):
16
     while (true);
18
```

Why and Why Not Semaphores



- Why semaphores?
 - Avoid errors/Clean and organized/Efficient.
 - Synchronization between Processes.
 - How about performance? Better than you can imagine.
- Why not semaphores?
 - Signaling all (broadcast) in CV.
 - Priority inheritance in mutex locks.

Contents

- Background
- 2. The Critical-Section Problem
- 3. Mutex Locks
- 4. Locked Data Structures
- Condition Variables
- 6. Semaphores
- 7. Monitors



Monitors

- Why monitors?
 - As object-oriented programming was gaining ground, people started to think about ways to merge synchronization into a more structured programming environment.
- With a monitor class the monitor guarantees that only one thread can be active within the monitor at a time.
- A Java Monitor add the keyword synchronized to the method or set of methods that you wish to use as a monitor

Monitors

Hoare Vs. Mesa



- Hoare Semantics:
- The signal() immediately wakes one waiting thread.
- Guess which one is more popular?
- Mesa semantics:
- The signal() move a single waiting thread to ready state.

Monitors

Hoare Vs. Mesa (contd.)

```
/* correct with Hoare semantic, but incorrect with Mesa semantic */
    monitor class BoundedBuffer {
    private:int buffer[MAX];
             int fill, use, fullEntires = 0:
4
             cond t empty, full;
6
    public: void produce(int element) {
                     if (fullEntires == MAX)
                     // correct with Mesa changing "if" to "while"
8
9
                             wait (& empty):
                     buffer[fill] = element:
10
                     fill = (fill + 1) \% MAX:
11
12
                     fullEntries ++:
                     signal(&full):
14
             int consume() {
15
                     if (fullEntries == 0)
16
                     // correct with Mesa changing "if" to "while"
                             wait(&full);
18
19
                     int tmp = buffer[use];
                     use = (use + 1) % MAX:
21
                     fullEntries --:
                     signal(&empty);
                     return tmp:
24
25
```