

## Operating Systems Process Synchronisation

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## Concurrent Execution

#### Concurrent Execution

- Concurrent Execution is when two processes are executing at the same time
- Each cooperative processes may affect the execution of the other process

#### Concurrent Execution Example

int A;

Process 1

Process 2

```
A = 1;
if(A = = 1)
printf("Process 1 wins");
```

$$A = 2;$$
  
if( $A = = 2$ )  
printf("Process 2 wins");

#### Concurrent Execution Example

- The variable **A** is shared by both processes
- When both processes are run concurrently on one processor, which one "wins"?
  - the outcome of the concurrent execution depends on which assignment takes place first (race condition)

#### What about threads?

• If we replaced the processes with threads the outcome will be still the same

#### **Atomic Operations**

- Is it possible to get a different value in the variable A if we try and execute the two assignments statements at the same time?
- E.g. A = 1 and A = 2 happen at the same time

#### Atomic Operations

- It is **not** possible.
- References and assignments are all atomic in the CPU
  - This means all read and write operations happen as a single step

#### Atomic Operations

- An atomic operation cannot be interrupted
- This is to prevent illogical things happening

#### **Atomic Instructions**

- This atomicity is provided by hardware
- Higher-level constructs are not atomic in general
  - A higher-level construct is any sequence of two or more instructions

## Higher-level Example

#### int B;

#### Process 1

```
B = 0;
while(B < 10) B++;
printf("Process 1 finished");
```

#### Process 2

```
B = 0;
while(B > -10) B--;
printf("Process 2 finished");
```

- +Variable B is shared
  - + But increments and decrements are atomic
  - + Will the process finish?

## Higher-level Example

#### int B;

#### Process 1

```
B = 0;
while(B < 10) B++;
printf("Process 1 finished");
```

#### Process 2

```
B = 0;
while(B > -10) B--;
printf("Process 2 finished");
```

- +The while sections above are not atomic
  - + The process theoretically might never reach 10 or -10

## Higher-level Example

int B;

Process 1

Process 2

```
B = 0;
while(B < 10) B++;
printf("Process 1 finished");
```

```
B = 0;
while(B > -10) B--;
printf("Process 2 finished");
```

 Process synchronisation is all about making high-level constructs behave atomically

# Mutual Exclusion & Critical Section

#### The Milk Problem

- Two flat mates sharing a fridge
- They want to have at most one bottle of milk in the fridge at any time

#### Possible Events

Time	Flatmate A	Flatmate B
10:00	Check the fridge: NO MILK	
10:05	Walk to Shop	Check the fridge: NO MILK
10:10	Arrive at the shop; buy milk	Walk to Shop
10:15	Arrive home; put milk in fridge	Arrive at the shop; buy milk
10:20		Arrive home; put milk in fridge
		TOO MUCH MILK

#### The Milk Problem

 The reason for this problem is that the behaviour of A and B is not atomic

 To solve this problem A and B must synchronise (cooperate)

#### Important Definitions

- Synchronisation: ensuring proper cooperation among processes (or threads), by relying on atomic operations
- Mutual exclusion (ME): ensuring that only one process at a time holds or modifies a shared resource
  - ME ensures atomicity

#### Important Definitions

 Critical section (CS): a section of code in a program in which shared resources are manipulated

 Mutual exclusion in a critical section requires serialisation of process access to the critical section

#### Milk Problem

- The critical section is
  - Check fridge, go shopping, put milk in fridge
- Mutual exclusion:
  - Only let one flatmate do this at a time

#### Locking and Mutual Exclusion

 Achieving mutual exclusion in a critical section always involve some sort of locking mechanism

 Locking is where we prevent someone else for doing something with the shared resource

#### Locking Rules

Locking involves three rules:

- 1. You must lock before you enter a critical section
- 2. You must unlock when leaving a critical section
- 3. You must wait when trying to enter critical section if it is locked

#### Milk Problem Lock

1. Leave note before going shopping ("gone shopping")

2. Remove note after shopping

3. Don't go shopping if note has been left

## Milk Problem (1st Solution Attempt)

Let both A and B execute (in a closed loop)

```
if (no_milk) {
   if (no_note) {
     put note;
     buy milk;
     remove note;
   }
}
```

#### Milk Problem (1st Solution Attempt)

- Mutual exclusion is no guaranteed
  - A and B could execute "if(no\_note)" before the note is put on the fridge
- This is really hard to debug
  - It might work most of the time but occasionally fail

 As a workaround, let us change the meaning of the note:

- B buys if there is a note
- A buys if there is no note

```
Process A
    if (no_note) {
    if (no_milk) {
        buy milk;
        add note;
    }
}
Process B

if (no_note) {
    if (no_milk) {
        buy milk;
        remove note;
    }
}
```

- Is the critical section mutually exclusive?
- Yes, but what happens if B goes on holidays?
  - A cannot buy any milk!

- We have the same problem if B is very slow
  - The relative speed of processes can be an issue
- Processes must take turns to be in the critical section
  - This means that the same flatmate cannot buy milk twice in a row

- In order to try to avoid the last issue, let us use two notes (note\_A and note\_B) and some basic courtesy protocol
- Each process can now examine each other's status, but not modify it.

```
Process A Process B

put note_A; put note_B;

if(no_note_B) {

    if(no_milk) {

        buy milk;

        }

    }

remove note_A; remove note_B;
```

- Does this work?
- Better than before.
  - Relative speed is still an issue
  - What happens if they both leave notes at the exact same time?

- Two processes use slightly different code
  - One process stays the same as before
  - The other waits until the note is removed

```
Process A
```

#### Process B

```
put note_A; if(no_note_B)
                             put note_B; if(no_note_A) {
                               if(no milk) {
                                 buy milk;
  if(no milk)
    buy milk;
} else {
  while(note_B){ }
                             remove note B;
  if(no milk)
    buy milk;
remove note A;
```

- Is this a solution?
  - It was actually the first solution ever given to the mutual exclusion problem
- But it is not satisfactory

#### Issues with the Solution

- The solution is complicated and just for this problem
  - We need to pay careful attention to make sure that it really works
  - A similar solution might not be good for more complex problems

#### Issues with the Solution

- The solution is **asymmetric** 
  - Not everybody is performing the same steps
- The solution is not scalable
  - How would we make it work for more people sharing milk

#### Issues with the Solution

- The solution is inefficient
  - While A is waiting it is consuming processor time
    - Called busy-waiting
- The solution is not scalable
  - How would we make it work for more people sharing milk

#### Consequence

• Because of the problems with the 4<sup>th</sup> solution it is necessary to have standard synchronisation mechanisms in an operating system

These can automatically fulfill some minimum requirements

## Requirements for True Solution for CS

- 1. Mutual exclusion
  - One process at most inside the CS at any time

- 2. Bounded waiting (no starvation)
  - A process attempting to enter its CS will eventually do so

### Requirements for True Solution for CS

#### 3. Progress

- A process executing outside a CS cannot prevent another process from entering it
- If several processes are attempting to enter a CS at the same time the decision on which one goes in cannot be indefinitely postponed
- A process can't stay inside its CS forever (or exit in there)

### Requirements for True Solution for CS

- These conditions are necessary and sufficient for process synchronisation
  - Provided that basic operations are atomic
- No assumptions are made about: number of processes, relative speed of processes, or underlying hardware

## Desirable Properties of a ME Mechanism

- Simple
- Systematic and easy to use
  - E.g. just bracket the critical section
- Easy to maintain

## Desirable Properties of a ME Mechanism

#### Efficient

- Does not use a lot of resources while waiting
  - No busy-waiting
- Overhead due to entering and leaving critical sections has to be small
  - At least smaller than the work inside it
- Scalable:
  - It should work when many threads share the critical section

#### Implementations

- 1. There are three basic mechanisms for implementing mutual exclusion in critical sections
  - Semaphores
    - Simple, but hard to program with
    - Very low level

### Implementations

#### 2. Monitors

- Higher level mechanism
- Requires higher-level programming languages

#### 3. Messages

- Synchronisation without shared memory
- Uses IPC messages instead

# Semaphores

### Semaphore

- A semaphore is a protected integer variable S with an associated queue of waiting processes
- Only two atomic operations P() and V() can be performed on S

### Semaphore Operations

```
P(S)

V(S)

if (S > 0) {
    if (queue_not_empty) {
        nextInQueue();
    } else {
        addToQueue();
        S++
    }
}
```

### Semaphores

- Initial value of S is how many threads can enter critical section at the same time
- Processes in the queue are blocked
- The operations are **atomic**, so only one process at a time can execute them

### Mutual Exclusion using Semaphores

- To implement mutual exclusion using semaphores, we do the following:
  - Initialise S at 1
  - To enter critical section we execute P on its semaphore
  - When leaving the critical section we execute V on its semaphore

## Counting Semaphores

- If we initialise S > 1, more than one process at a time can get into the
  - This means that there is no mutual exclusion.
  - This is used in a particular type of semaphores called counting semaphores
- A semaphore with the initial value of 1, is also called a binary semaphore or mutex

## Why P and V?

- Dijkstra, who first proposed semaphores, was Dutch
- In Dutch
  - Proberen means to probe
  - Verhogen means to increment

## Creating Semaphores

- Creating semaphores is different for each language
- All will require an initial value
- Other information like who can access may also be required

## Semaphores Example

- Atomically increment a shared variable X by n concurrent processes
- Setup:

```
int x;
semaphore S(1, NULL);
```

• Code in threads:

```
P(S);
x = x + 1;
V(S);
```

## Semaphores for Milk problem

• Declare semaphore:

```
semaphore S(1, NULL);
```

Processes code:

```
P(S);
if(no_milk)
  buy_milk
V(S);
```

### The Produce/Consumer Problem

- This is a common synchronisation problem
- Consider a producer process supplying a resource to a consumer process
  - Producer: creates instances of a resource
  - Consumer: uses up instances of a resource

### The Produce/Consumer Problem

- Producer and consumer share a buffer
  - The producer put resources into the buffer
  - The consumer takes resources from the buffer
  - The buffer has a finite size

#### **Problem Constraints**

The consumer must wait for producer if the buffer is empty

Producer must wait for consumer if the buffer is full

### Synchronisation

- We need to keep the producer and consumer synchronised
  - The buffer is the critical section in this problem
  - We usually need mutually exclusive access to the buffer

## P/C Solution with Semaphores

#### **Producer**

```
while(true) {
  msg = produce();
  P(S);
  if (buffer full)
    wait();
  put msg(msg);
  V(S);
```

#### Consumer

```
while(true) {
  P(S);
  if (buffer empty)
    wait();
  msg=get msg();
  V(S);
  consume (msq);
```

## P/C Solution with Semaphores

- The solution cannot work
  - If the buffer is empty the consumer waits and the producer cannot add any items
  - If the buffer is full the producer waits and the consumer cannot remove any items
- These situations are called deadlock

## P/C Solution with Counting Semaphores

- We add two more semaphores to the code:
  - One to count the number of **empty** slots in the buffer
  - One to count the number of full slots in the buffer

## P/C Solution with Counting Semaphores

• Semaphores:

```
int N = buffer_size;
semaphore S(1, NULL);
semaphore full_s(0, NULL);
semaphore empty_s(N, NULL);
```

#### Producer

#### Consumer

```
while(true) {
                  while(true) {
  msg=produce();
                    P(full s);
                    P(S);
                    msg=get msg();
  P(empty s);
  P(S);
                    V(S);
                    V(empty_s);
  put msg(msg);
  V(S);
  V(full s);
                  consume msg(msg);
```

#### Questions

- True or false?
  - The value of a semaphore cannot be modified by an operation other than P or V
  - The initial value of a semaphore cannot be zero
- Is the order of Ps important? And the order of Vs?

# Monitors

## The Problem with Semaphores

Semaphores are nice but they have an important problem

- Using more than one semaphore can lead to deadlocks, if order of Ps not correctly set
- It is difficult to program with semaphores

#### Monitors

- Monitors are higher-level sync primitives
  - A monitor is a collection of procedures, variables and data grouped together in a special kind of structure
  - Their aim is to avoid the problems that can arise when protecting critical sections with semaphores

## **Example Monitor**

```
monitor example {
    int i;
                      (Internal data)
    condition c; (Condition variable)
    void p() {
                      (Monitor procedure)
```

#### Monitor Rules

- Processes may call monitor procedures whenever they wish
- Processes can't access internal monitor data (variables, etc.) using external procedures

#### Monitor Rules

- Only one process can be active inside a monitor
- Mutual exclusion inside the monitor is guaranteed by the compiler

### Blocking in Monitors

- Mutual Exclusion is implemented using internal condition variables
- Conditions have two operations
  - Wait
  - Signal

### wait(condition)

- This is executed when the monitor discovers that a process cannot proceed
  - The monitor **blocks** a process calling wait() and makes it wait on condition
  - Another process can then be allowed into the monitor
  - A process that calls wait() is always blocked

### signal(condition)

- This is executed to wake up a process that is waiting on condition
- After executing signal() the calling process must exit the monitor immediately
  - This guarantees mutual exclusion

- Requires two conditions:
  - Buffer is full
  - Buffer is empty
- Requires some internal data so we know when it is empty or full

- Requires two operations
  - Put a message in the buffer
  - Remove a message from the buffer

```
monitor pr co {
    int count;
    condition full s, empty s;
    void put(msg) {
        if(count == N)
             wait(empty s);
        put msg(msg);
        count++;
        if(count == 1)
             signal(full s);
```

```
msg get() {
    if (count==0)
        wait(full s);
     msg=get msg();
     count--;
     if(count==N-1)
          signal(empty_s);
```

#### Producer and Consumer Code

#### Producer

```
while(true) {
   msg=produce();
   pr_co.put(msg);
}
```

#### Consumer

```
while(true) {
   msg=pr_co.get();
   consume_msg(msg);
}
```

#### Producer and Consumer Code

- Simplest possible consumer and producer code
- Monitor takes care of any issues, not producer or consumer

# Messages

#### Messages System

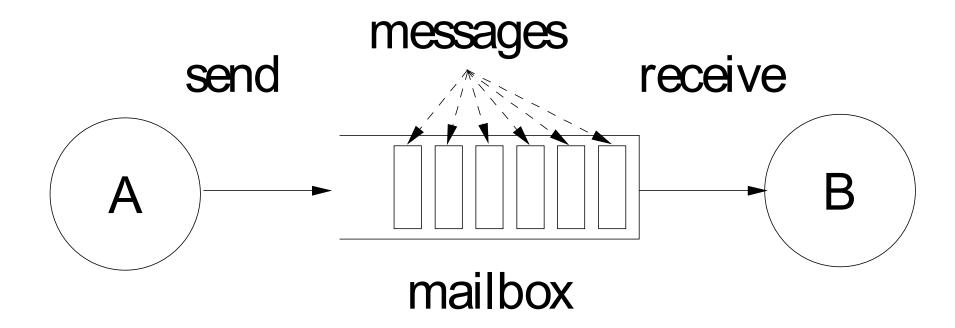
- Synchronisation with both semaphores and monitors relies on shared memory
- The message system is a mechanism for inter-process communication (IPC), that can also be relied upon for synchronisation without having to share memory

#### Message System

- Elements in the message system:
  - message: information that can be exchanged between two (or more) processes or threads
  - mailbox: a place where messages are stored between the time they are sent and the time they are received

### Message System Scheme

• Process A sends messages to process B using a mailbox



#### Message System Scheme

- One process or the other owns the data
  - Never two at the same time
- If processes need to send messages both ways, we need two mailboxes

#### Message System Operations

- Two basic operations
  - send(mailbox, message)
    - Put a message in the mailbox
  - receive(mailbox, message)
    - Remove a message from the mailbox
- In practice we also need the system calls create(mailbox) and delete(mailbox)

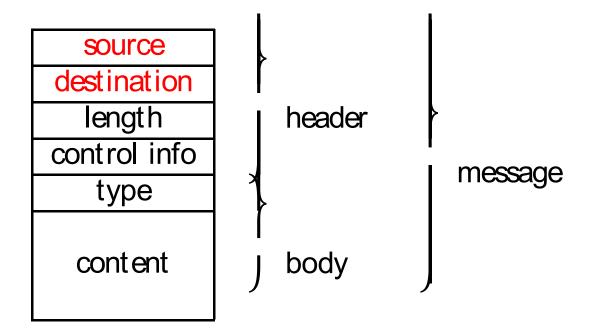
### Message System Addressing

- The message identifies source and destination processes
  - Through their PIDs
- There may be multiple destinations, or destination may be unspecified

#### Message Format

- Depends on the objectives of the system
  - fixed-length: minimise processing and storage overhead
  - variable-length: more flexible approach for operating systems

### Message Format



### Why Use Messages?

- Communicating processes sometimes need to be separate
  - They do not trust each other
  - The programs were written at different times by different programmers who knew nothing about each other
  - They run on different processors
  - Less error-prone without shared memory

### Mutual Exclusion with Messages

 Mutual exclusion must be guaranteed solely relying on the mailbox

- Two levels of synchronisation in a message system
  - Producer/Consumer Constraints
  - Execution flow constraints

#### Producer/Consumer Constraints

- •receive()
  - Calling thread waits when the mailbox is empty until a message is added
- •send()
  - Calling thread waits when mailbox is full until there is space for another message

#### **Execution Flow Constraints**

- Send and receive: could be blocking or non-blocking
  - Blocking send: when a process sends a message it blocks until the message is received at the destination.
  - Non-blocking send: After sending a message the sender continues with its processing without waiting for it to reach the destination

#### **Execution Flow Constraints**

- Send and receive: could be blocking or non-blocking
  - Blocking receive: When a process executes a receive it waits blocked until the receive is completed and the required message is received
  - Non-blocking receive: The process executing the receive proceeds without waiting for the message(!).

#### **Execution Flow Constraints**

- The most common combination is that of
  - Blocking Receive
  - Non-blocking send

### Mutual Exclusion using Messages

- Mutual exclusion can be achieved using a single shared mailbox
- Processes can enter the critical section whenever they receive a message
- Whenever they leave the critical section they must send a new message to the mailbox

#### Parent process

```
create mailbox(mbox);
send (mbox, NULL);
parallel {
  P(1);
  P(2);
  P(N);
```

- Creates N processes
- Empty message required to access critical section

#### Child Process

```
while(true) {
  receive(mbox, msg);

Critical Section
  send(mbox, NULL);
}
```

# P/C Algorithm Using Messages

 Not only we need to ensure mutual exclusion but also to keep a count

- For this two mailboxes are needed
  - one mailbox for consumers: data produced and consumed
  - one mailbox for producers: accountancy purposes

# P/C Algorithm Using Messages

- Producers generate data and send it to the consumers's mailbox
  - Only when the producer's mailbox indicates there is at least one free slot in the buffer
- Consumers take messages from the consumer's mailbox when available
  - Then send empty messages to the producer's mailbox to signal new free slot

#### Parent Process

```
create mailbox (cons mbox);
create mailbox (prod mbox);
for (i=0; i<N; i++)
  send (prod mbox, NULL);
parallel {
  producers();
  consumers();
```

#### **Producer Process**

```
while(true) {
   msg=produce();
   receive(prod_mbox, token);
   send(cons_mbox, msg);
}
```

#### Consumer Process

```
while(true) {
   receive(cons_mbox, msg);
   consume_msg(msg);
   send(prod_mbox, NULL);
}
```

#### **Next Class**

- Next Lecture:
  - Deadlock & Starvation
- Review Chapter 5