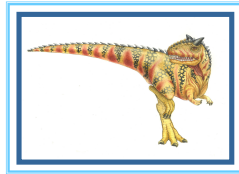


Chapter 6: Synchronization Tools



Chapter 6: Synchronization Tools

- Background
- The Critical-Section Problem
- Synchronization Hardware
- Mutex Locks
- Semaphores



Objectives

- Describe the **critical-section problem** and illustrate the **race condition**
- Illustrate hardware solutions to the critical-section problem using compare-and-swap operations, and atomic variables
- Demonstrate how mutex locks, semaphores, and condition variables can be used to solve the critical section problem



Background

- Processes can execute concurrently
 - Processes may be interrupted at any time, partially completing execution, due to a variety of reasons.
- Concurrent access to any shared data may result in **data inconsistency**
- Maintaining data consistency requires mechanism(s) to ensure the **orderly execution** of cooperating processes





Illustration of the Problem

- Think about the **Producer-Consumer** problem
- An integer **counter** is used to keep track of the number of buffers occupied.
 - Initially, **counter** is set to 0
 - It is **incremented** each time by the **producer** after it produces an item and places in the buffer
 - It is **decremented** each time by the **consumer** after it consumes an item in the buffer.



Producer-Consumer Problem

```
while (true) {
    /* produce an item in next produced */

    while (counter == BUFFER_SIZE) ;
        /* do nothing */

    buffer[in] = next_produced;
    in = (in + 1) % BUFFER_SIZE;
    counter++;
}
```

Producer

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

Consumer



Race Condition

- **counter++** could be implemented as

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

- **counter--** could be implemented as

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

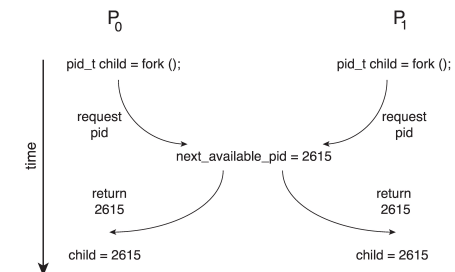
- Consider this execution interleaving with “count = 5” initially:

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	{counter = 6}
S5: consumer execute counter = register2	{counter = 4}



Race Condition

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



- Unless there is mutual exclusion, the same pid could be assigned to two different processes!





Critical Section Problem

- A **Race Condition** is an undesirable situation where several processes access and manipulate a shared data concurrently and the outcome of the executions depends on the particular order in which the accesses or executions take place
 - The results depend on the timing execution of programs. With some bad luck (i.e., context switches that occur at untimely points during execution), the result become **non-deterministic**
- Consider a system with n processes $\{P_0, P_1, \dots, P_{n-1}\}$
- A process has a **Critical Section** segment of code (can be short or long), during which
 - A process or thread may be changing shared variables, updating a table, writing a file, etc.
 - We need to ensure when one process is in Critical Section, no other can be in its critical section
 - In a way, **mutual exclusion** and **critical section** imply the same thing
- Critical section problem is to design a protocol to solve this
 - Specifically, each process must ask permissions before entering the critical section in **entry section**, may follow critical section with **exit section**, then **remainder section**



Critical Section

- The general structure of process P_i is

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



Solution to Critical-Section Problem

1. **Mutual exclusion** - If process P_i is executing in its critical section, no other processes can be executing in their critical sections
 2. **Progress** - If no process is executing in its critical section and there exist some processes that wish to enter their critical sections, the selection of a process that will enter the critical section next *cannot* be postponed *indefinitely* – selection of one process entering
 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 – any waiting process
- Assume that each process executes at a nonzero speed, and there is no assumption concerning **relative speed** of the n processes



Critical-Section Problem in Kernel

- **Kernel code** - the code the operating system is running, is subject to several possible race conditions
 - A kernel data structure that maintains a list of all open files can be updated by multiple kernel processes, i.e., two processes were to open files simultaneously
 - Other kernel data structures such as the one maintaining memory allocation, process lists, interrupt handling and etc.
- Two general approaches are used to handle critical sections in operating system, depending on whether the kernel is preemptive or non-preemptive
 - **Preemptive** – allows preemption of process when running in the kernel mode, not free from the *race condition*, and increasingly more difficult in SMP architectures.
 - **Non-preemptive** – runs until exiting the kernel mode, blocks, or voluntarily yields CPU. This is essentially free of race conditions in the kernel mode, possibly used in single-processor system





Synchronization Tools

- Many systems provide hardware support for implementing the critical section code. On uniprocessor systems – it could simply disable interrupts, currently running code would execute without being pre-empted or interrupted. But this is generally too inefficient on multiprocessor systems
- Operating systems provide hardware and high level API support for critical section code

Programs	Share Programs
Hardware	Load/Store, Disable Interrupts, Test&Set, Compare&Swap
High level APIs	Locks, Semaphores



Synchronization Hardware

- Modern OS provides special **atomic** hardware instructions
 - ▶ **Atomic** = non-interruptible
- There are two commonly used hardware instructions
 - Either test a memory word and set a value – **Test_and_Set()**
 - Or swap contents of two memory words – **Compare_and_Swap()**



test_and_set Instruction

- Definition:

```
boolean test_and_set (boolean *target)
{
    boolean rv = *target;
    *target = TRUE;
    return rv;
}
```



Solution using test_and_set()

- Shared boolean variable **lock**, initialized to **FALSE**
- Solution:

```
do {
    while (test_and_set(&lock))
        ; /* do nothing */
    /* critical section */
    lock = false;
    /* remainder section */
} while (true);
```





compare_and_swap Instruction

■ Definition:

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



Solution using compare_and_swap

- Shared Boolean variable lock initialized to FALSE; Each process has a local Boolean variable key

■ Solution:

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



Bounded-waiting Mutual Exclusion with test_and_set

```
do {
    waiting[i] = true;
    key = true;
    while (waiting[i] && key)
        key = test_and_set(&lock);
    waiting[i] = false;
    /* critical section */
    j = (i + 1) % n;
    while ((j != i) && !waiting[j])
        j = (j + 1) % n;
    if (j == i)
        lock = false; /* no one is waiting, so release the lock */
    else
        waiting[j] = false; /* Unblock process j */
    /* remainder section */
} while (true);
```



Sketch Proof

- **Mutual-exclusion:** P_i enters its critical section only if either `waiting[i]==false` or `key==false`. The value of `key` can become false only if `test_and_set()` is executed. Only the first process to execute `test_and_set()` will find `key==false`; all others must wait. The variable `waiting[i]` can become false only if another process leaves its critical section; only one `waiting[i]` is set to false, thus maintaining the mutual-exclusion requirement.
- **Progress:** since a process exiting its critical section either sets `lock` to false or sets `waiting[j]` to false. Both allow a process that is waiting to enter its critical section to proceed.
- **Bounded-waiting:** when a process leaves its critical section, it scans the array `waiting` in cyclic order $\{i+1, i+2, \dots, n-1, 0, 1, \dots, i-1\}$. It designates the first process in this ordering that is in the entry section (`waiting[j]==true`) as the next one to enter the critical section. Any process waiting to enter its critical section will thus do so within $n-1$ turns.





Atomic Variables

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

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

```
void increment(atomic_int *v)
{
    int temp;

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



Mutex Locks

- OS builds software tools to solve the critical section problem
- The simplest tool that most OSes use is **mutex lock**
- To access the critical regions with it by first **acquire()** a lock then **release()** it afterwards
 - Boolean variable indicating if lock is available or not
- Calls to **acquire()** and **release()** must be **atomic** (non-interruptible)
 - Usually implemented via hardware atomic instructions
- But this solution requires **busy waiting**. This lock therefore called a **spinlock**
 - Spinlock** wastes CPU cycles due to busy waiting, but it has one advantage in that no context switch is required when a process must wait on a lock, and a context switch may take considerable time. Thus, when locks are expected to be held for short times, spinlock is useful
 - Spinlocks are often used in multiprocessor systems where one thread can “spin” on one processor while another thread performs its critical section on another processor



acquire() and release()

```
acquire() {
    while (!available)
        ; /* busy wait */
    available = false;;
}

release() {
    available = true;
}

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

Solutions based on the idea of **lock** to protect critical section

- Operations are **atomic** (non-interruptible) – at most one thread acquires a lock at a time
- Lock before entering critical section for accessing share data
- Unlock upon departure after accessing shared data
- Wait if locked - all synchronization involves busy waiting, should “sleep” if waiting for a long time



Semaphore

- Semaphore **S** – non-negative integer variable, can be considered as a generalized lock
 - First defined by Dijkstra in late 1960s. It can behave similarly as mutex lock, but more sophisticated in its usage - the main synchronization primitive used in original UNIX
- Two standard operations modify **S**: **wait()** and **signal()**
 - Originally called **P()** and **V()**, where **P()** stands for “**proberen**” (to test) and **V()** stands for “**verhogen**” (to increment) in Dutch
- It is critical that semaphore operations are executed atomically, which guarantees that no more than one process can execute **wait()** and **signal()** operations on the same semaphore at the same time.
- The semaphore can only be accessed via these two atomic operations except initialization

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

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





Semaphore Usage

- **Counting semaphore** – An integer value can range over an unrestricted domain
 - Counting semaphore can be used to control access to a given resource consisting of a finite number of instances; semaphore value is initialized to the number of resource available
- **Binary semaphore** – integer value can range only between 0 and 1
 - This can behave similar to **mutex locks**, can also be used in different ways

- This can also be used to solve various synchronization problems
- Consider P_1 and P_2 that shares a common semaphore **synch**, initialized to 0; it ensures that P_1 process executes S_1 before P_2 process executes S_2

P_1 :

```
S1;
signal(synch);
```

P_2 :

```
wait(synch);
S2;
```



Semaphore Implementation with no Busy waiting

- With each semaphore there is an associated **waiting queue**
- Each entry in a waiting queue has two data items:
 - value (of type integer)
 - pointer to next record on the queue
- Two operations:
 - **block** – place the process invoking the operation on the appropriate waiting queue
 - **wakeup** – remove one of processes in the waiting queue and place it in the ready queue
- Semaphore values may become negative, whereas this value can never be negative under the classical definition of semaphores with busy waiting.
- If a semaphore value is negative, its magnitude is the number of processes currently waiting on the semaphore.



Semaphore Implementation with no Busy waiting (Cont.)

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

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

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

Noticing that

- Increment and decrement are done before checking the semaphore value, unlike the busy waiting implementation
- The **sleep()** operation suspends the process that invokes it.
- The **wakeup(P)** operation resumes the execution of a suspended process P.



Deadlock and Starvation

- **Deadlock** – two or more processes are waiting indefinitely for an event that can be caused by only one of the waiting processes (details in Chapter 7)
- Let S and Q be two semaphores initialized to 1

P_0	P_1
wait (S);	wait (Q);
wait (Q);	wait (S);
...	...
signal (S);	signal (Q);
signal (Q);	signal (S);

- Consider if P_0 executes **wait**(S) and P_1 **wait**(Q). When P_0 executes **wait**(Q), it must wait until P_1 executes **signal**(Q). However, P_1 is waiting until P_0 execute **signal**(S). Since these **signal()** operations will never be executed, P_0 and P_1 are **deadlocked**, extremely difficult to debug
- **Starvation – indefinite blocking**
 - A process may never be removed from the semaphore queue, in which it is suspended. For instance, if we remove processes from the queue associated with a semaphore using LIFO (last-in, first-out) order or based on certain priorities.



End of Chapter 6

