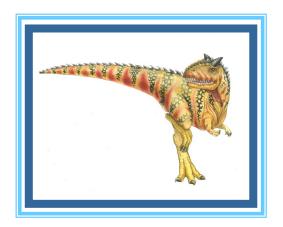
Chapter 6: Synchronization Tools

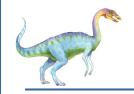




Chapter 6: Synchronization Tools

- Background
- The Critical-Section Problem
- Peterson's Solution
- Hardware Support for Synchronization
- Mutex Locks
- Semaphores
- Monitors
- Liveness

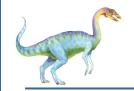




Objectives

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

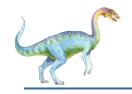




Background

- Processes 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
- Illustration of the problem: Suppose that we wanted to provide a solution to the consumer-producer problem that fills all the buffers. We can do so by having an integer counter that keeps track of the number of full buffers. Initially, counter is set to 0. It is incremented by the producer after it produces a new buffer and is decremented by the consumer after it consumes a buffer.





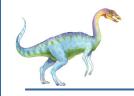
Producer

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

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

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

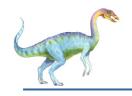




Consumer

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





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 "counter = 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}

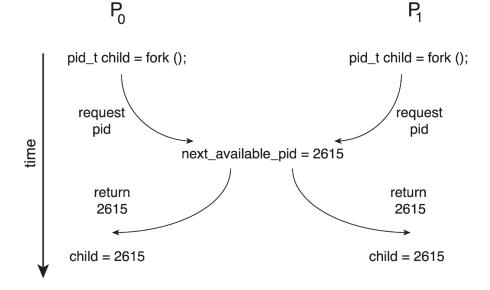
S5: consumer execute counter = register2 {counter = 4}
```





Race Condition

- □ Processes P₀ and P₁ are creating child processs using the fork() system call
- □ Race condition on kernel variable next_available_pid which represents the next available process identifier (pid)



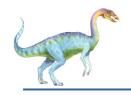
Unless there is mutual exclusion, the same pid could be assigned to two different processes!



Critical Section Problem

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





Critical Section

 \square General structure of process P_i

```
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, then no other processes can be executing in their critical sections
- 2. **Progress** If no process is executing in its critical section and there exist some processes that wish to enter their critical section, then the selection of the 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



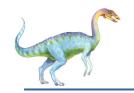


Critical-Section Handling in OS

Two approaches depending on if kernel is preemptive or nonpreemptive

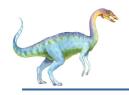
- ☐ Preemptive allows preemption of process when running in kernel mode
- Non-preemptive runs until exits kernel mode, blocks, or voluntarily yields CPU
 - Essentially free of race conditions in kernel mode





- Not guaranteed to work on modern architectures! (But 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:
 - 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!





Algorithm for Process Pi

```
while (true) {
    flag[i] = true;
    turn = j;
    while (flag[j] && turn = = j)
    ;

    /* critical section */

    flag[i] = false;

    /* remainder section */
}
```





Peterson's Solution (Cont.)

- Provable that the three CS requirement are met:
 - 1. Mutual exclusion is preserved

```
P<sub>i</sub> enters CS only if:
   either flag[j] = false or turn = i
```

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





- Although useful for demonstrating an algorithm, Peterson's Solution is not guaranteed to work on modern architectures.
- Understanding why it will not work is also useful for better understanding race conditions.
- To improve performance, processors and/or compilers may reorder operations that have no dependencies.
- For single-threaded this is ok as the result will always be the same.
- For multithreaded the reordering may produce inconsistent or unexpected results!





■ Two threads share the data:

```
boolean flag = false;
int x = 0;
```

☐ Thread 1 performs

```
while (!flag)
   ;
print x
```

Thread 2 performs

$$x = 100;$$
 flag = true

What is the expected output?

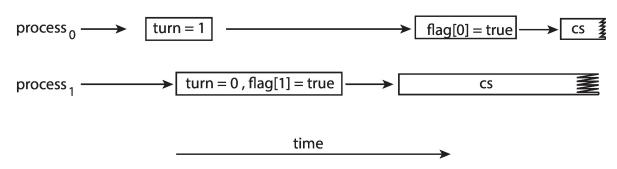




- 100 is the expected output.
- □ However, the operations for Thread 2 may be reordered:

```
flag = true; x = 100;
```

- If this occurs, the output may be 0!
- The effects of instruction reordering in Peterson's Solution



This allows both processes to be in their critical section at the same time!





Synchronization Hardware

- Many systems provide hardware support for implementing the critical section code.
- Uniprocessors could disable interrupts
 - Currently running code would execute without preemption
 - Generally too inefficient on multiprocessor systems
 - Operating systems using this not broadly scalable
- We will look at three forms of hardware support:
 - 1. Memory barriers
 - 2. Hardware instructions
 - 3. Atomic variables





Memory Barriers

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





Memory Barrier

- We could add a memory barrier to the following instructions to ensure Thread 1 outputs 100:
- Thread 1 now performs

```
while (!flag)
    memory_barrier();
print x
```

Thread 2 now performs

```
x = 100;
memory_barrier();
flag = true
```

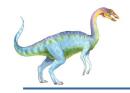




Hardware Instructions

- Special hardware instructions that allow us to either test-and-modify the content of a word, or to swap the contents of two words atomically (uninterruptibly.)
- Test-and-Set instruction
- Compare-and-Swap instruction





test_and_set Instruction

Definition:

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

- 1. Executed atomically
- 2. Returns the original value of passed parameter
- 3. Set the new value of passed parameter to true





Solution using test_and_set()

- Shared boolean variable lock, initialized to false
- Solution:





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;
}
```

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





Solution using compare_and_swap

- Shared integer lock initialized to 0;
- Solution:

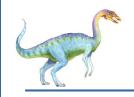
```
while (true) {
    while (compare_and_swap(&lock, 0, 1) != 0)
        ; /* do nothing */

    /* critical section */

    lock = 0;

    /* remainder section */
}
```





Bounded-waiting Mutual Exclusion with compare-and-swap

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





Atomic Variables

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

```
increment(&sequence);
```





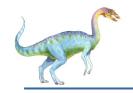
Atomic Variables

☐ The increment() function can be implemented as follows:

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

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





Mutex Locks

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





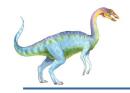
Solution to Critical-section Problem Using Locks

```
while (true) {
    acquire lock
    critical section

    release lock

    remainder section
}
```



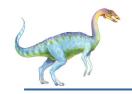


Mutex Lock Definitions

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

These two functions must be implemented atomically. Both test-and-set and compare-and-swap can be used to implement these functions.





Semaphore

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

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

Definition of the signal() operation

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





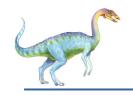
Semaphore Usage

- Counting semaphore integer value can range over an unrestricted domain
- □ Binary semaphore integer value can range only between 0 and 1
 - Same as a mutex lock
- Can solve various synchronization problems
- Consider P_1 and P_2 that require S_1 to happen before S_2 Create a semaphore "synch" initialized to 0

```
P1:
    S<sub>1</sub>;
    signal(synch);
P2:
    wait(synch);
    S<sub>2</sub>;
```

 \square Can implement a counting semaphore S as a binary semaphore

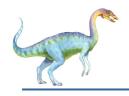




Semaphore Implementation

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



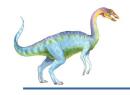


Semaphore Implementation with no Busy waiting

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

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

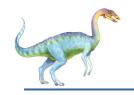




Implementation with no Busy waiting (Cont.)

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

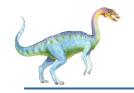




Problems with Semaphores

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





Monitors

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

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

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

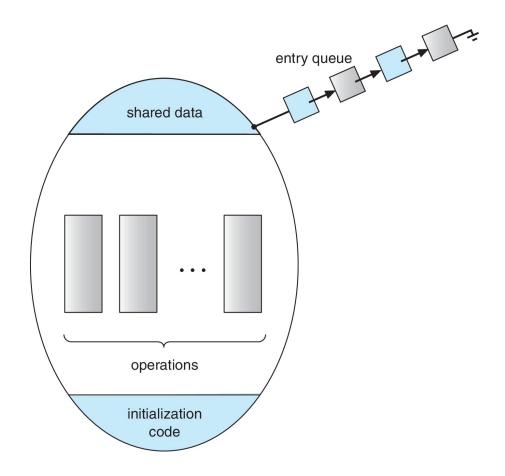
    function Pn (...) { .....}

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

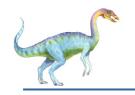




Schematic view of a Monitor



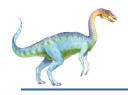




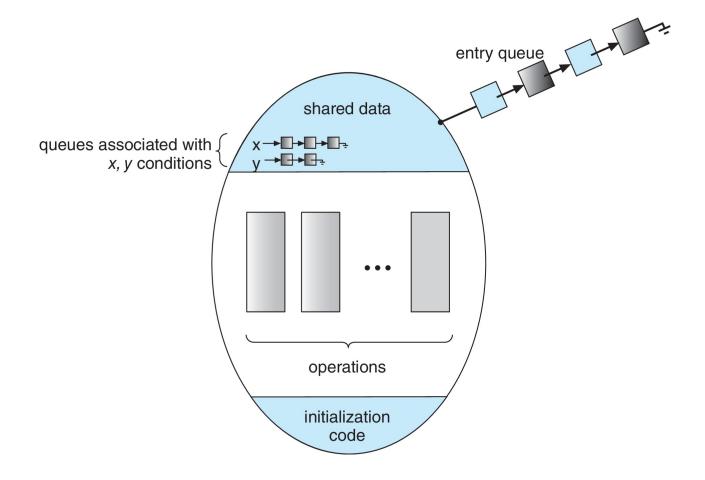
Condition Variables

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

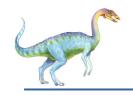




Monitor with Condition Variables







Condition Variables Choices

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

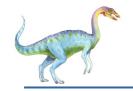




Liveness

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





Liveness

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

```
P_0 P_1 wait(S); wait(Q); wait(Q); wait(S); ... signal(S); 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, P₀ and P₁ are deadlocked.





Liveness

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





Priority Inheritance Protocol

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



End of Chapter 6

