# CSE2008: Operating Systems

L15 L16 L17 & L18: Process Synchronization



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### Recap



- Introductory Concepts
- Process Fundamentals
- IPC
- CPU Scheduling Algorithms
- Multithreading Concepts

#### Outline



- Process synchronization
- Critical-Section Problem
- Peterson's Solution
- Synchronization Hardware
- Mutex Locks
- Semaphores
- Monitors
- Classic problems of Synchronization

#### Process synchronization

# pid\_t child = fork (); request pid next\_available\_pid = 2615 return 2615 child = 2615 child = 2615



- Preliminary Concept
  - Producer–Consumer Problem

```
while (true) {
    /* produce an item in next_produced */
    while (count == BUFFER_SIZE)
        ; /* do nothing */

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

```
while (true) {
    while (count == 0)
      ; /* do nothing */

    next_consumed = buffer[out];
    out = (out + 1) % BUFFER_SIZE;
    count--;

    /* consume the item in next_consumed */
}
```

```
register_1 = count

register_1 = register_1 + 1

count = register_1
```

```
producer
            execute
                         register_1 = count
                                                     \{register_1 = 5\}
                         register_1 = register_1 + 1
                                                    \{register_1 = 6\}
producer
            execute
            execute
                         register_2 = count
                                                     \{register_2 = 5\}
consumer
                         register_2 = register_2 - 1
                                                    \{register_2 = 4\}
consumer
            execute
                         count = register_1
producer
                                                     \{count = 6\}
             execute
                         count = register_2
consumer
            execute
                                                     \{count = 4\}
```

```
register_2 = count

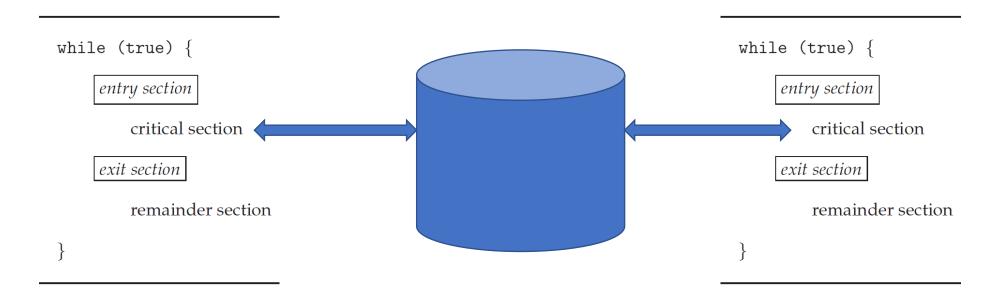
register_2 = register_2 - 1

count = register_2
```

#### Critical-Section Problem



- Critical-Section Problem
  - Critical-Section: A segment of code in which the process may be accessing and updating data that is shared with <u>at least</u> one other process



#### Critical-Section Problem



- Critical-Section Problem
  - A solution to the critical-section problem must satisfy the following three requirements:
    - **1.** Mutual exclusion  $\rightarrow$  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 some processes wish to enter their critical sections, then only those processes that are not executing in their remainder sections can participate in deciding which will enter its critical section next, and this selection cannot be postponed indefinitely
    - 3. Bounded waiting → There exists a bound, or limit, 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.



- Peterson's Solution
  - Restricted to two processes that alternate execution between their critical sections and remainder sections
    - The processes are numbered  $P_0$  and  $P_1$ . For convenience, when presenting  $P_i$ , we use  $P_j$  to denote the other process; that is, j equals 1 i
  - Requires the two processes to share two data items:

```
int turn;
boolean flag[2];

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

    /* critical section */
    flag[i] = false;

    /*remainder section */
}
```



- Peterson's Solution
  - To prove that this solution is correct, we need to show that:
    - 1. Mutual exclusion is preserved,
    - 2. The progress requirement is satisfied, and
    - 3. The bounded-waiting requirement is met.

int turn;
boolean flag[2];

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

   /* critical section */

   flag[i] = false;

   /*remainder section */
}
```



- Peterson's Solution
  - To prove that this solution is correct, we need to show that:
    - 1. Mutual exclusion is preserved,
    - 2. The progress requirement is satisfied, and
    - 3. The bounded-waiting requirement is met.

Each Pi enters its critical section only if either flag[j] == false or turn == i. Also note that, if both processes can be executing in their critical sections at the same time, then flag[0] == flag[1] == true. These two observations imply that  $P_0$  and  $P_1$  could not have successfully executed their while statements at about the same time, since the value of turn can be either 0 or 1 but cannot be both. Hence, one of the processes—say,  $P_j$ —must have successfully executed the while statement, whereas  $P_i$  had to execute at least one additional statement ("turn == j"). However, at that time, flag[j] == true and turn == j, and this condition will persist as long as  $P_j$  is in its critical section; as a result, **mutual exclusion** is preserved.

```
int turn;
boolean flag[2];
```

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

   /* critical section */

   flag[i] = false;

   /*remainder section */
}
```



- Peterson's Solution
  - To prove that this solution is correct, we need to show that:
    - . Mutual exclusion is preserved,
    - 2. The progress requirement is satisfied, and
    - 3. The bounded-waiting requirement is met.

A process Pi can be prevented from entering the critical section only if it is stuck in the while loop with the condition flag[j] == true and turn == j; this loop is the only one possible. If  $P_j$  is not ready to enter the critical section, then flag[j] == false, and  $P_i$  can enter its critical section. If  $P_j$  has set flag[j] to true and is also executing in its while statement, then either turn == i or turn == j. If turn == i, then  $P_i$  will enter the critical section. If turn == j, then  $P_j$  will enter the critical section. However, once  $P_j$  exits its critical section, it will reset flag[j] to false, allowing  $P_i$  to enter its critical section. If  $P_j$  resets flag[j] to true, it must also set turn to i. Thus, since  $P_i$  does not change the value of the variable turn while executing the while statement,  $P_i$  will enter the critical section (**progress**) after at most one entry by  $P_i$  (**bounded waiting**).

int turn;
boolean flag[2];

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

    /* critical section */

    flag[i] = false;

    /*remainder section */
}
```



- Memory Barriers
- Hardware Instructions
- Atomic Variables



- Memory Barriers
  - Memory Model:
    - Strongly ordered → where a memory modification on one processor is immediately visible to all other processors
    - 2. Weakly ordered → where modifications to memory on one processor may not be immediately visible to other processors
  - ➤ Instructions that can force any changes in memory to be propagated to all other processors, thereby ensuring that memory modifications are visible to threads running on other processors such instructions are known as memory barriers or memory fences.



- Hardware Instructions
  - test and set() instruction TAS

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

   return rv;
}
```

```
do {
   while (test_and_set(&lock))
    ; /* do nothing */

     /* critical section */

   lock = false;

     /* remainder section */
} while (true);
```



- Hardware Instructions
  - compare\_and\_swap() instruction CAS

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



- Hardware Instructions
  - compare\_and\_swap() instruction CAS

**Self Study:** Analyse how this algorithm satisfies all the critical-section requirements!

```
while (true) {
  waiting[i] = true;
  kev = 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

```
increment(&sequence);
where the increment() function is implemented using the CAS instruction:
    void increment(atomic_int *v)
    {
        int temp;

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

#### Mutex Locks



```
while (true) {
                                     acquire lock
                                        critical section
                                     release lock
                                        remainder section
acquire() {
                                                         release() {
    while (!available)
                                                            available = true;
      ; /* busy wait */
```

available = false;

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

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



- Categories of Semaphores
  - Counting semaphore

    The value of it can range over an unrestricted domain
  - Binary semaphore
    The value of a binary semaphore can range only between 0 and 1



- Semaphore Usage
  - Example:
    - Let us assume that two concurrently running processes: P<sub>1</sub> with a statement S<sub>1</sub> and P<sub>2</sub> with a statement S<sub>2</sub>
    - Also assume that we require that S<sub>2</sub> be executed only after S<sub>1</sub> has completed

```
S_1; wait(synch); S_2;
```



- Semaphore Implementation
  - Modified definitions of the wait() and signal() operations [to avoid busy waiting]

When a process executes the wait() operation and finds that the semaphore value is not positive, it must wait. However, rather than engaging in busy waiting, the process can suspend itself. The suspend operation places a process into a waiting queue associated with the semaphore, and the state of the process is switched to the waiting state. Then control is transferred to the CPU scheduler, which selects another process to execute.



- Pros and Cons
  - Pros provides a convenient and effective mechanism for process synchronization
  - Cons incorrect usage can result in timing errors that are difficult to detect
    - Example:

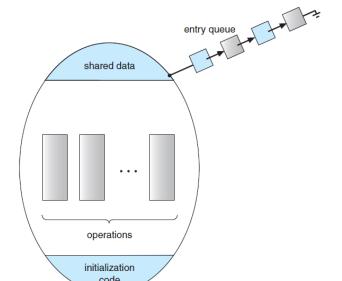
Suppose that a program interchanges the order in which the wait() and signal() operations on the semaphore mutex are executed, resulting in the following execution:

```
signal(mutex);
    ...
    critical section
    ...
wait(mutex);
wait(mutex);
wait(mutex);
```

#### **Monitors**



- An ADT (abstract data type) that includes a set of programmer-defined operations that are provided with mutual exclusion within the monitor
- Also declares the variables whose values define the state of an instance of that type, along with the bodies of functions that operate on those variables



```
monitor monitor name
  /* shared variable declarations */
  function P1 ( . . . ) {
  function P2 ( . . . ) {
  function Pn ( . . . ) {
  initialization_code ( . . . ) {
```

#### **Monitors**

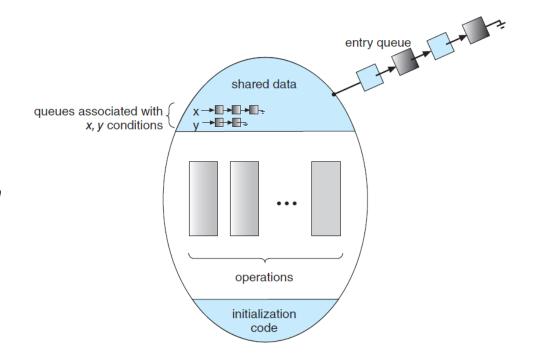


- The condition construct
  - A programmer who needs to write a tailor-made synchronization scheme can define one or more variables of type condition:

condition x, y;

The only operations that can be invoked on a condition variable are **Wait()** and **Signal()**.

The operation **x.wait()**; means that the process invoking this operation is suspended until another process invokes **x.signal()**;



#### Monitors



- The condition construct
  - A programmer who needs to write a tailor-made synchronization scheme can define one or more variables of type condition:

condition x, y;

The only operations that can be invoked on a condition variable are **Wait()** and **Signal()**.

The operation **x.wait()**; means that the process invoking this operation is suspended until another process invokes **x.signal()**;

Now suppose that, when the x.signal() operation is invoked by a process P, there exists a suspended process Q associated with condition x.

- → Two possibilities exist:
  - 1. Signal and wait. P either waits until Q leaves the monitor or waits for another condition.
  - **2. Signal and continue.** *Q either* waits until *P leaves the monitor* or waits for another condition.



- The Bounded-Buffer Problem
- The Readers–Writers Problem
- The Dining-Philosophers Problem



- The Bounded-Buffer Problem
  - Let us assume that the producer and consumer processes share the following data structures:

```
int n;
semaphore mutex = 1;
semaphore empty = n;
semaphore full = 0
```



- The Readers–Writers Problem
  - Readers the processes that want only to read the database
  - Writers the processes that want to update the database

If at least one process among the set of concurrent processes is a writer then chaos may occur

To ensure that these difficulties do not arise, we require that the writers have exclusive access to the shared database while writing to the database

This synchronization problem is referred to as the readers—writers problem.

- **The first readers—writers problem** No reader be kept waiting unless a writer has already obtained permission to use the shared object
- **The second readers—writers problem** If a writer is waiting to access the object, no new readers may start reading



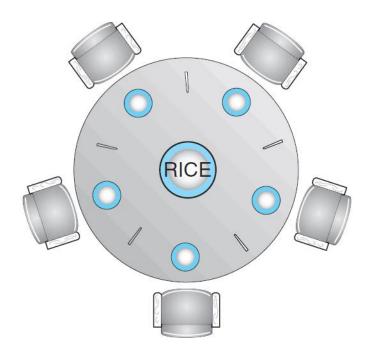
- The Readers–Writers Problem
  - Solution to the first readers-writers problem
    - The reader processes share the following data structures:

```
semaphore rw_mutex = 1;
semaphore mutex = 1;
int read_count = 0;
```

Codes for a writer process and a reader process:



The Dining-Philosophers Problem

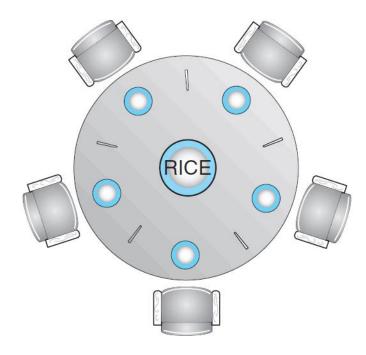


#### **Semaphore Solution**

- The shared data: semaphore chopstick[5];
- The structure of philosopher i:



The Dining-Philosophers Problem



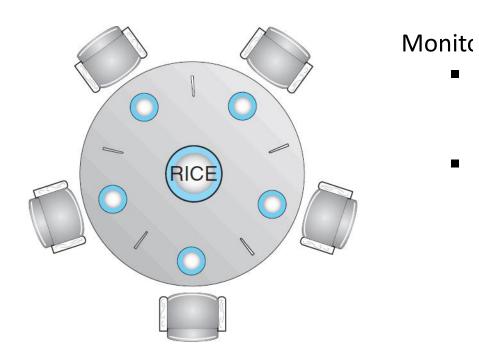
#### **Monitor Solution**

- The data structure: enum {THINKING, HUNGRY, EATING} state[5]; condition self[5];
- The structure of philosopher i:

```
monitor DiningPhilosophers
 enum {THINKING, HUNGRY, EATING} state[5];
 condition self[5];
  void pickup(int i) {
    state[i] = HUNGRY;
    test(i);
    if (state[i] != EATING)
      self[i].wait();
  void putdown(int i) {
    state[i] = THINKING;
    test((i + 4) % 5);
    test((i + 1) % 5);
  void test(int i) {
    if ((state[(i + 4) % 5] != EATING) &&
     (state[i] == HUNGRY) &&
     (state[(i + 1) % 5] != EATING)) {
        state[i] = EATING;
        self[i].signal();
 initialization_code() {
    for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
      state[i] = THINKING;
```

# Classic problems of !

The Dining-Philosophers Prob

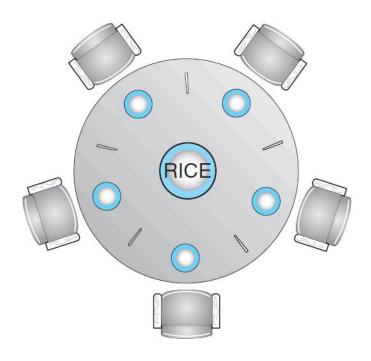


monitor DiningPhilosophers enum {THINKING, HUNGRY, EATING} state[5]; condition self[5]; void pickup(int i) { state[i] = HUNGRY; test(i); if (state[i] != EATING) self[i].wait(); void putdown(int i) { state[i] = THINKING; test((i + 4) % 5);test((i + 1) % 5);void test(int i) { if ((state[(i + 4) % 5] != EATING) && (state[i] == HUNGRY) && (state[(i + 1) % 5] != EATING)) { state[i] = EATING; self[i].signal(); initialization\_code() { for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) state[i] = THINKING;





The Dining-Philosophers Problem



#### **Monitor Solution**

- The data structure: enum {THINKING, HUNGRY, EATING} state[5]; condition self[5];
- The Philosopher i must invoke the operations pickup() and putdown() in the following sequence:

```
DiningPhilosophers.pickup(i);
...
eat
...
DiningPhilosophers.putdown(i);
```

#### Reference



 Abraham Silberschatz, Peter B. Galvin, Greg Gagne, "Operating System Concepts", Addison Wesley, 10th edition, 2018

• Chapter 6: Section 6.1 – 6.7

• Chapter 7: Section 7.1 – 7.2

#### Next



Deadlock



# Thank You