

Operating System

**Chapter 5. Concurrency:
Mutual Exclusion and Synchronization**



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Concurrency: Key Terminologies



| | |
|-------------------------|--|
| atomic operation | A function or action implemented as a sequence of one or more instructions that appears to be indivisible; that is, no other process can see an intermediate state or interrupt the operation. The sequence of instruction is guaranteed to execute as a group, or not execute at all, having no visible effect on system state. Atomicity guarantees isolation from concurrent processes. |
| critical section | A section of code within a process that requires access to shared resources and that must not be executed while another process is in a corresponding section of code. |
| deadlock | A situation in which two or more processes are unable to proceed because each is waiting for one of the others to do something. |
| livelock | A situation in which two or more processes continuously change their states in response to changes in the other process(es) without doing any useful work. |
| mutual exclusion | The requirement that when one process is in a critical section that accesses shared resources, no other process may be in a critical section that accesses any of those shared resources. |
| race condition | A situation in which multiple threads or processes read and write a shared data item and the final result depends on the relative timing of their execution. |
| starvation | A situation in which a runnable process is overlooked indefinitely by the scheduler; although it is able to proceed, it is never chosen. |

Source: Pearson

Atomic Operation



□ “**Atomic**” means

- Indivisible, uninterruptable
- Must be performed atomically, which means either “success” or “failure”
 - *Success*: successfully change the system state
 - *Failure*: no effect on the system state

□ **Atomic operation**

- A function or action implemented as a single instruction or as a sequence of instructions that appears to be indivisible
 - No other processes can see an intermediate state
- Can be implemented by hardware or by software
- HW-level atomic operations
 - Test-and-set, fetch-and-add, compare-and-swap, load-link/store-conditional
- SW-level solutions
 - Running a group of instructions in a *critical section*

□ **Atomicity is generally enforced by *mutual exclusion***

- To guarantee isolation from concurrent processes

Mutual Exclusion & Critical Section

□ Mutual exclusion

- The problem of ensuring that only one process or thread must be in a *critical section* at the same time

□ Critical section

- A piece of code that has an access to a shared resource

HW Support for Mutual Exclusion



- **Disable interrupt on an entry to a critical section**
 - The simplest approach
 - No context switching guarantees mutual exclusion
 - Problem: only for a uniprocessor
 - Disabling interrupt does not affect other cores/processors
 - Other cores are free to run any code
 - ▼ Can enter a critical section for the same shared resource
 - ▼ Can execute the same code, disabling interrupts at different times for each core

HW Support for Mutual Exclusion



□ Special machine instructions

- Test-and-set, fetch-and-add, compare-and-swap etc.
 - Access to a shared memory location is exclusive and atomic
 - Test-and-set is supported by most processor families
 - ▼ x86, IA64, SPARC, IBM z series, etc.
- These are atomic operations supported by the machine instructions
- Can be used to implement semaphores and other SW solutions
- Can also be used for multiprocessors
- Problem
 - Busy waiting
 - ▼ Other process or thread accessing the same memory location must wait and retry until the previous access is complete
 - Deadlock and starvation can also happen

SW Schemes for Mutual Exclusion



- ❑ **Semaphores**

- A process or thread must obtain a “semaphore” to enter the critical section and release it on the exit

- ❑ **Monitor**

- ❑ **Message Passing**

Semaphore



□ Semaphore

- A *variable* that provides a simple abstraction for controlling access to a common resource in a programming environment
- The value of the semaphore variable can be changed by only 2 operations
 - V operation (also known as “signal”)
 - ▼ Increment the semaphore
 - P operation (also known as “wait”)
 - ▼ Decrement the semaphore
 - The value of the semaphore **S** is usually the number of units of the resource that are currently available.

□ Type of semaphores

- *Binary semaphore*
 - Have a value of 0 or 1
 - ▼ 0 (*locked, unavailable*)
 - ▼ 1 (*unlocked, available*)
- *Counting semaphore*
 - Can have an arbitrary resource count

Race Condition

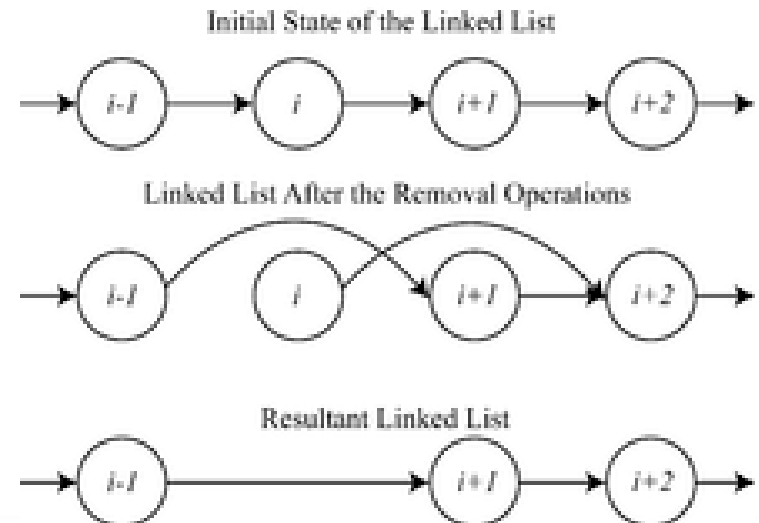


❑ Race condition occurs

- When two or more processes/threads access shared data and they try to change it at the same time. Because thread/process scheduling algorithm can switch between threads, you don't know which thread will access the shared data first. In this situation, both threads are '*racing*' to access/change the data.
- Operations upon shared data are *critical sections that must be mutually exclusive* in order to avoid harmful collision between processes or threads.
 - Regarded as a programming error
 - Difficult to locate this kind of programming errors as results are *nondeterministic* and *not reproducible*

❑ Example

- Two processes attempt to remove two nodes simultaneously from a singly-linked list
 - Only one node is removed instead of two.

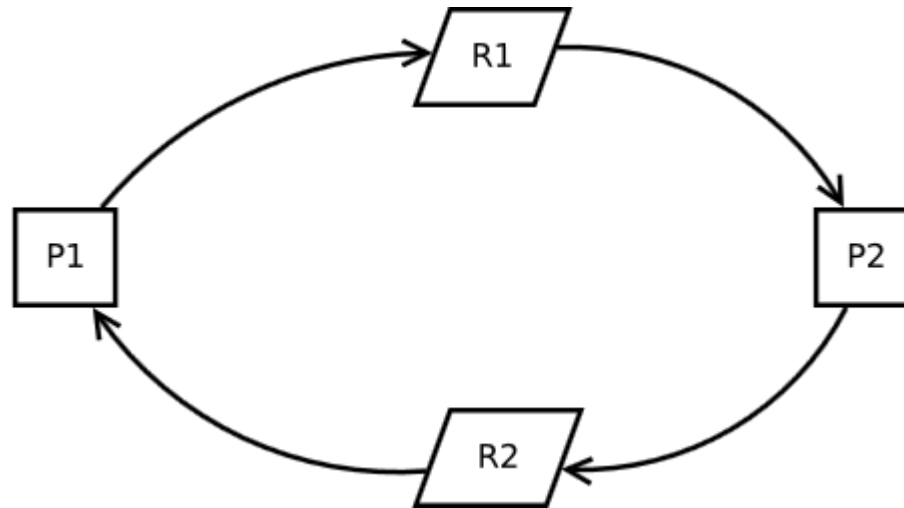


Deadlock & Starvation



□ **Deadlock**

- A situation where two or more competing processes are waiting for the other to release a resource



□ **Starvation (Infinite Postponement)**

- A situation where the progress of a process is indefinitely postponed by the scheduler

□ **Livelock**

- A situation where two or more processes continuously change their states without making progress

Compare and Swap Instruction



□ “*Compare and Swap*” instruction

- A **compare** is made between a memory value and a test value

```
int compare_and_swap (int *word, int testval, int
newval)
{
    int oldval;
    oldval = *word
    if (oldval == testval) *word = newval;
    return oldval;
}
```

- Some version of this instruction is available on nearly all processor families (x86, IA64, SPARC, IBM z series, etc.)
 - ▼ Atomicity is guaranteed by HW

Critical Section using Compare and Swap

```
/* program mutualexclusion */
const int n = /* number of processes */;
int bolt;
void P(int i)
{
    while (true) {
        while (compare_and_swap(&bolt, 0, 1) == 1)
            /* do nothing */;
        /* critical section */;
        bolt = 0;
        /* remainder */;
    }
}
void main()
{
    bolt = 0;
    parbegin (P(1), P(2), . . . ,P(n));
}
}
```

(a) Compare and swap instruction

Source: Pearson

Exchange Instruction



□ “Exchange” instruction

- Exchange the content of a register with that of a memory location.

```
void exchange (int *register, int *memory)
{
    int temp;
    temp = *memory;
    *memory = *register;
    *register = temp;
}
```

- x86 and IA-64 support XCHG instruction

Critical Section using Exchange



```
/* program mutualexclusion */
int const n = /* number of processes**/;
int bolt;
void P(int i)
{
    int keyi = 1;
    while (true) {
        do exchange (&keyi, &bolt)
        while (keyi != 0);
        /* critical section */;
        bolt = 0;
        /* remainder */;
    }
}
void main()
{
    bolt = 0;
    parbegin (P(1), P(2), . . ., P(n));
}
```

(b) Exchange instruction

Source: Pearson

Special Instructions: +/–



□ Advantages

- Applicable to any number of processes on either a single processor or multiple processors sharing main memory
- Simple and easy to verify
- It can be used to support multiple critical sections; each critical section can be defined by its own variable

□ Disadvantages

- Busy-waiting
- Starvation is possible when a process leaves a critical section and more than one process is waiting
 - The selection of a waiting process is arbitrary
- Deadlock is possible
 - Process P1 executes compare and swap and enter its critical section
 - P1 is then interrupted and give control to P2 who has higher priority.
 - P2 will be denied access due to mutual exclusion and go to busy waiting loop.
 - P1 will never be dispatched since it has lower priority than P2.

Semaphore



- ❑ **A variable that has an integer value upon which only three operations are defined**
 - 1) May be initialized to a nonnegative integer value
 - 2) The semWait (P) operation decrements the value
 - 3) The semSignal (V) operation increments the value
- ❑ **There is no way to inspect or manipulate semaphores other than these three operation**

Semaphore Primitives



```
struct semaphore {
    int count;
    queueType queue;
};
void semWait(semaphore s)
{
    s.count--;
    if (s.count < 0) {
        /* place this process in s.queue */;
        /* block this process */;
    }
}
void semSignal(semaphore s)
{
    s.count++;
    if (s.count <= 0) {
        /* remove a process P from s.queue */;
        /* place process P on ready list */;
    }
}
```

Figure 5.3 A Definition of Semaphore Primitives

Source: Pearson

Binary Semaphore Primitives



```
struct binary_semaphore {
    enum {zero, one} value;
    queueType queue;
};
void semWaitB(binary_semaphore s)
{
    if (s.value == one)
        s.value = zero;
    else {
        /* place this process in s.queue */;
        /* block this process */;
    }
}
void semSignalB(semaphore s)
{
    if (s.queue is empty())
        s.value = one;
    else {
        /* remove a process P from s.queue */;
        /* place process P on ready list */;
    }
}
```

Figure 5.4 A Definition of Binary Semaphore Primitives

Source: Pearson

Strong/Weak Semaphores



- ❑ **A queue is used to hold processes waiting on the semaphore**

- ❑ **Strong semaphore**
 - The process that has been blocked the longest is released from the queue first (FIFO)

- ❑ **Weak semaphore**
 - The order in which processes are removed from the queue is not specified

Example of Semaphore Mechanism

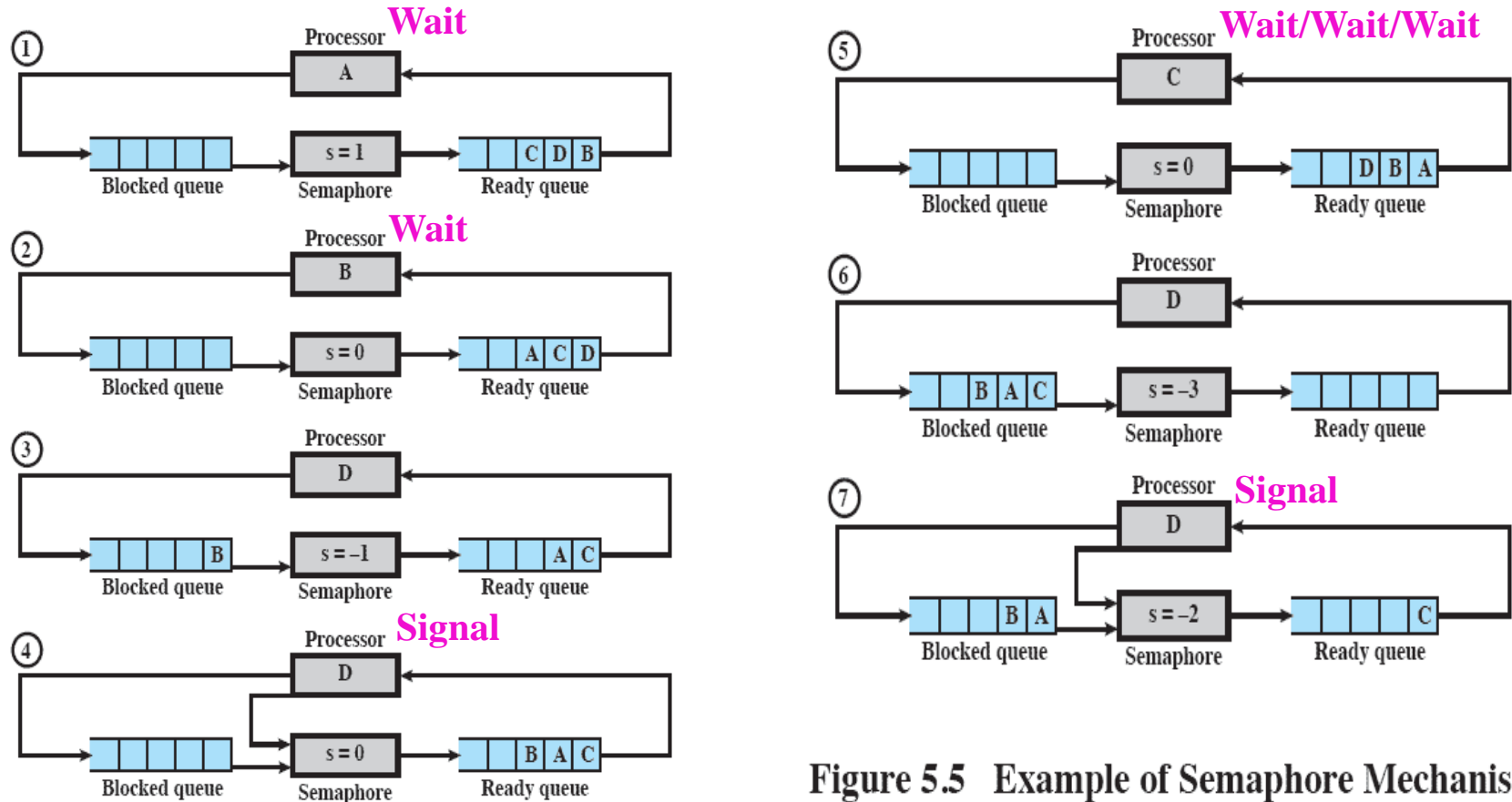


Figure 5.5 Example of Semaphore Mechanism

Source: Pearson

Mutual Exclusion



```
/* program mutualexclusion */
const int n = /* number of processes */;
semaphore s = 1;
void P(int i)
{
    while (true) {
        semWait(s);
        /* critical section */;
        semSignal(s);
        /* remainder */;
    }
}
void main()
{
    parbegin (P(1), P(2), . . . , P(n));
}
```

Figure 5.6 Mutual Exclusion Using Semaphores

Source: Pearson

Shared Data Protected by a Semaphore

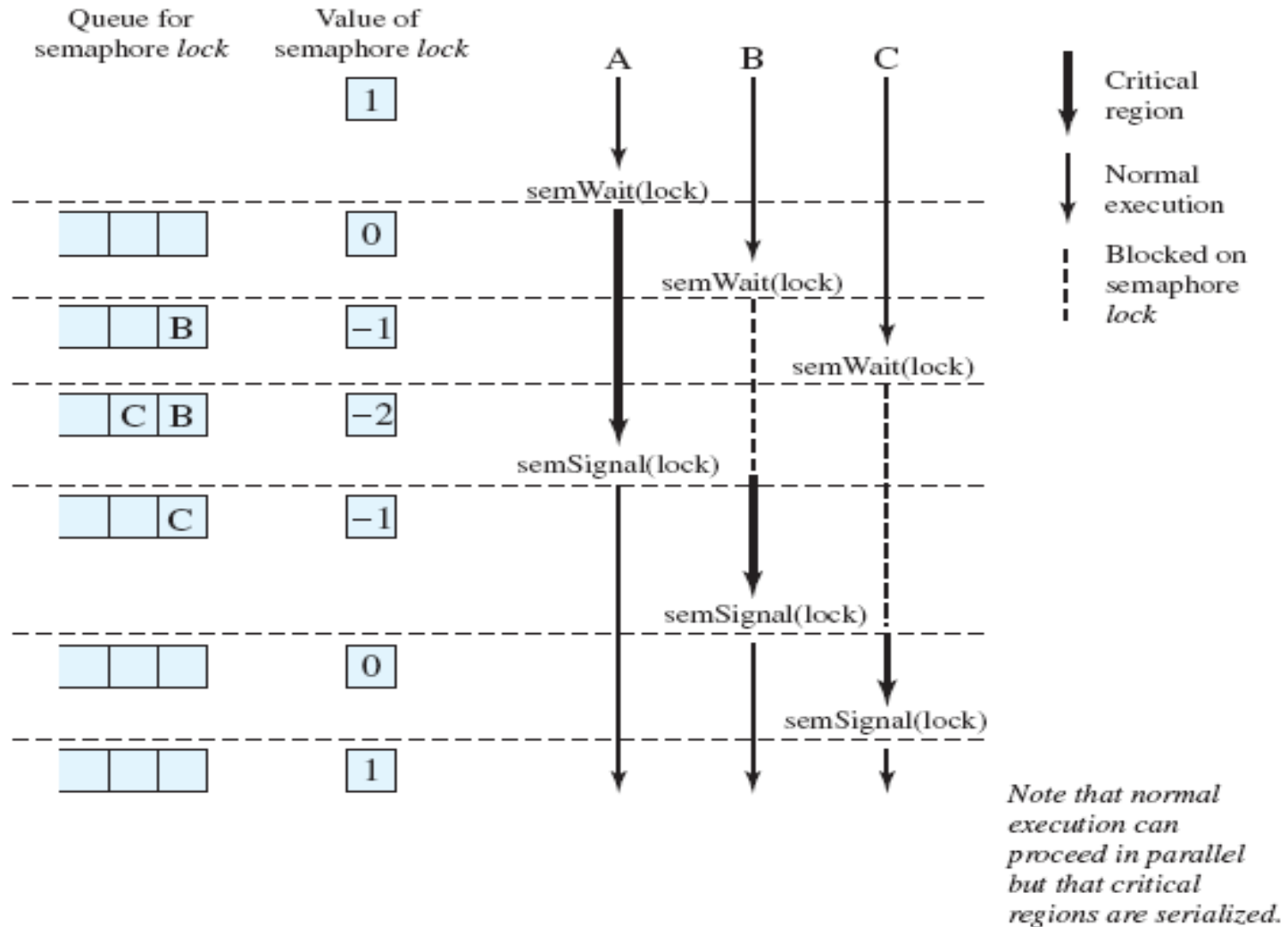


Figure 5.7 Processes Accessing Shared Data Protected by a Semaphore

Source: Pearson

Producer/Consumer Problem



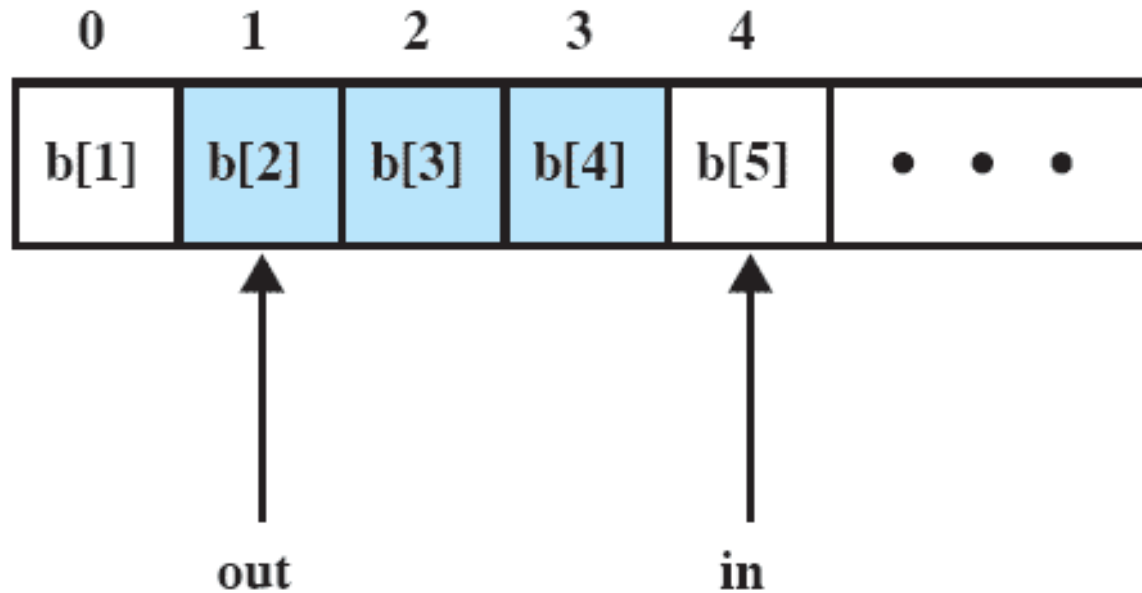
□ General Situation

- One or more producers
 - Produce data item and insert it in a buffer
- One consumer
 - Delete it from the buffer and consume the data item
- Only one producer or consumer may access the buffer at any time

□ The problem

- Ensure that the producer can't add data into a full buffer
- Consumer can't remove data from an empty buffer

Buffer Structure



Note: shaded area indicates portion of buffer that is occupied

Figure 5.8 Infinite Buffer for the Producer/Consumer Problem

Source: Pearson

Incorrect Solution



```
/* program producerconsumer */
int n;
binary_semaphore s = 1, delay = 0;
void producer()
{
    while (true) {
        produce();
        semWaitB(s);
        append();
        n++;
        if (n==1) semSignalB(delay);
        semSignalB(s);
    }
}
void consumer()
{
    semWaitB(delay);
    while (true) {
        semWaitB(s);
        take();
        n--;
        semSignalB(s);
        consume();
        if (n==0) semWaitB(delay);
    }
}
void main()
{
    n = 0;
    parbegin (producer, consumer);
}
```

Source: Pearson

Possible Scenario



Table 5.4 Possible Scenario for the Program of Figure 5.9

| | Producer | Consumer | s | n | Delay |
|----|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|---|----|-------|
| 1 | | | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 | semWaitB(s) | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 | n++ | | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 4 | if (n==1) (semSignalB(delay)) | | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 5 | semSignalB(s) | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 6 | | semWaitB(delay) | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 7 | | semWaitB(s) | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 8 | | n-- | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 9 | | semSignalB(s) | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 10 | semWaitB(s) | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 11 | n++ | | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 12 | if (n==1) (semSignalB(delay)) | | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 13 | semSignalB(s) | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 14 | | if (n==0) (semWaitB(delay)) | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 15 | | semWaitB(s) | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 16 | | n-- | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 17 | | semSignalB(s) | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 18 | | if (n==0) (semWaitB(delay)) | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 19 | | semWaitB(s) | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 20 | | n-- | 0 | -1 | 0 |
| 21 | | semiSignalB(s) | 1 | -1 | 0 |

Source: Pearson

NOTE: White areas represent the critical section controlled by semaphore s.

Correct Solution



```
/* program producerconsumer */
semaphore n = 0, s = 1;
void producer()
{
    while (true) {
        produce();
        semWait(s);
        append();
        semSignal(s);
        semSignal(n);
    }
}
void consumer()
{
    while (true) {
        semWait(n);
        semWait(s);
        take();
        semSignal(s);
        consume();
    }
}
void main()
{
    parbegin (producer, consumer);
}
```

Figure 5.11 A Solution to the Infinite-Buffer Producer/Consumer Problem
Using Semaphores

Source: Pearson

Scenario



| | Producer | Consumer | s | n |
|----|-----------------|-----------------|----------|----------|
| 1 | | | 1 | 0 |
| 2 | Wait(s) | | 0 | 0 |
| 3 | Signal(s) | | 1 | 0 |
| 4 | Signal(n) | | 1 | 1 |
| 5 | | Wait(n) | 1 | 0 |
| 6 | | Wait(s) | 0 | 0 |
| 7 | | Signal(s) | 1 | 0 |
| 8 | Wait(s) | | 0 | 0 |
| 9 | Signal(s) | | 1 | 0 |
| 10 | Signal(n) | | 1 | 1 |
| 11 | | Wait(n) | 1 | 0 |
| 12 | | Wait(s) | 0 | 0 |
| 13 | | Signal(s) | 1 | 0 |
| 14 | Wait(s) | | 0 | 0 |
| 15 | Signal(s) | | 1 | 0 |
| 16 | Signal(n) | | 1 | 1 |
| 17 | | Wait(n) | 1 | 0 |
| 18 | | Wait(s) | 0 | 0 |
| 19 | | Signal(s) | 1 | 0 |

Source: Pearson

Implementation of Semaphores



```
semWait(s)
{
    while (compare and swap(s.flag, 0 , 1) == 1)
        /* do nothing */
    s.count--
    if (s.count < 0) {
        /* place this process in s.queue*/
        /* block this process (must also set s.flag to 0)
    */
    }
    s.flag = 0;
}

semSignal(s)
{
    while (compare and swap(s.flag, 0 , 1) == 1)
        /* do nothing */
    s.count++
    if (s.count <= 0) {
        /* remove a process P from s.queue */
        /* place process P on ready list */
    }
    s.flag = 0;
}
```

(a) Compare and Swap Instruction

```
semWait(s)
{
    inhibit interrupts;
    s.count--;
    if (s.count < 0) {
        /* place this process in s.queue*/
        /* block this process and allow interrupts*/
    }
    else
        allow interrupts;
}

semSignal(s)
{
    inhibit interrupts;
    s.count++;
    if (s.count <= 0) {
        /* remove a process P from s.queue*/
        /* place process P on ready list*/
    }
    allow interrupts;
}
```

(b) Interrupts

Figure 5.14 Two Possible Implementations of Semaphores

Source: Pearson

Monitor



□ Motivation

- Semaphore
 - It is not easy to produce a correct program using semaphores
 - semWait and semSignal operations may be scattered throughout a program and it is not easy to see the overall effect of these operations

□ Monitor

- Programming language construct that provides equivalent functionality to that of semaphores and is easier to control
- Implemented in a number of programming languages
 - Including Concurrent Pascal, Pascal-Plus, Modula-2, Modula-3, and Java
- Monitor consists of one or more procedures, an initialization code, and local data
 - Local data variables are accessible only by the monitor's procedures and not by any external procedure
 - Process enters the monitor by invoking one of its procedures
 - Only one process may be executing in the monitor at a time

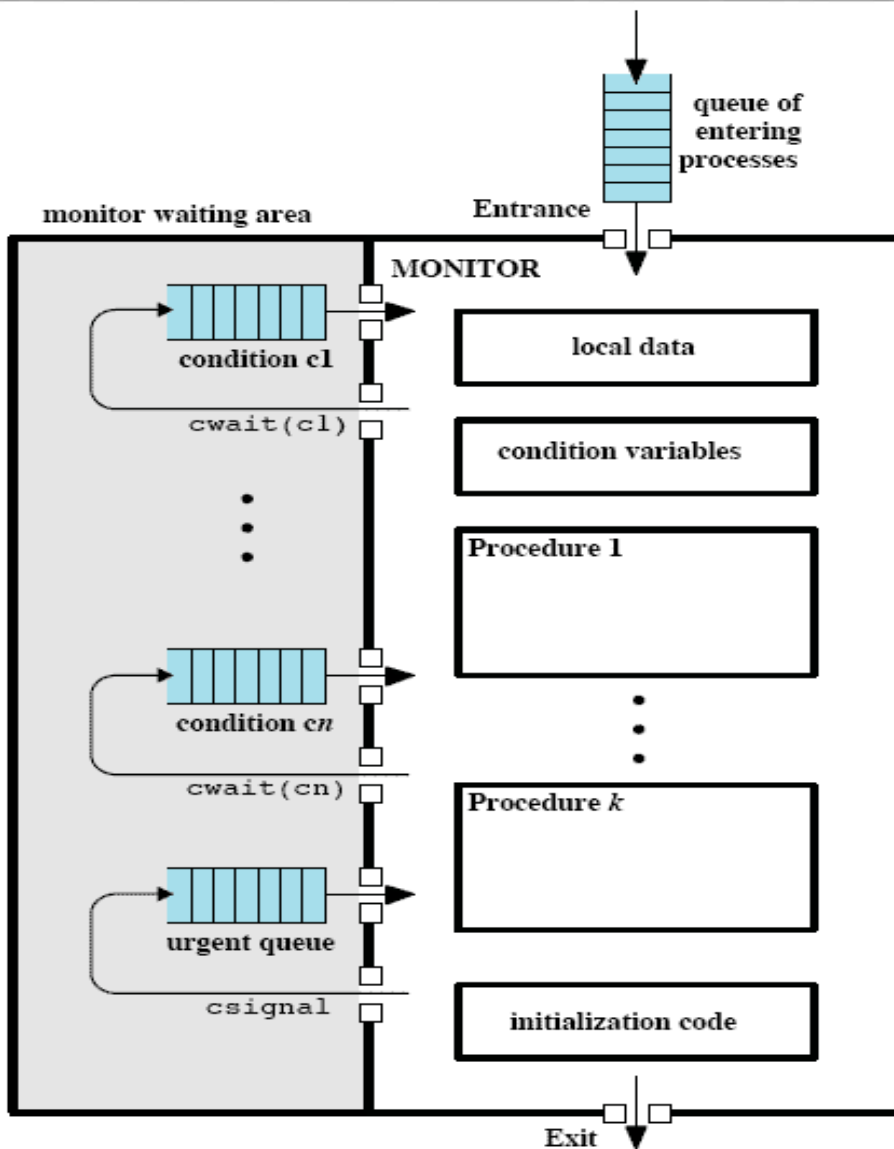
Synchronization with Monitor



□ Condition variable

- Monitor supports synchronization by the use of condition variables that are contained within the monitor and accessible only within the monitor
- Condition variables are operated by two functions
 - cwait(c): suspend the execution of the calling process on condition c
 - csignal(c): resume the execution of a process blocked on the same condition
 - ▼ If there are so such processes, the signal is lost (do nothing)

Structure of a Monitor



Source: Pearson

Problem Solution Using a Monitor



```
/* program producerconsumer */
monitor boundedbuffer;
char buffer [N];          /* space for N items */
int nextin, nextout;      /* buffer pointers */
int count;                /* number of items in buffer */
cond notfull, notempty;  /* condition variables for synchronization */

void append (char x)
{
    if (count == N) cwait(notfull);    /* buffer is full; avoid overflow */
    buffer[nextin] = x;
    nextin = (nextin + 1) % N;
    count++;
    /* one more item in buffer */
    csignal(notempty);                /* resume any waiting consumer */
}

void take (char x)
{
    if (count == 0) cwait(notempty);   /* buffer is empty; avoid underflow */
    x = buffer[nextout];
    nextout = (nextout + 1) % N;
    count--;
    /* one fewer item in buffer */
    csignal(notfull);                /* resume any waiting producer */
}

/* monitor body */
nextin = 0; nextout = 0; count = 0;    /* buffer initially empty */
}
```

```
void producer()
{
    char x;
    while (true) {
        produce(x);
        append(x);
    }
}

void consumer()
{
    char x;
    while (true) {
        take(x);
        consume(x);
    }
}

void main()
{
    parbegin (producer, consumer);
}
```

Source: Pearson

Message Passing



- ❑ **When processes interact with one another, the following actions must be satisfied by the system**
 - Mutual exclusion
 - Synchronization
 - Communication
- ❑ **Message passing is one approach to provide these functions and**
 - Works with shared memory and distributed memory multiprocessors, uniprocessors, and distributed systems
- ❑ **The actual function is normally provided in the form of a pair of primitives**
 - send (destination, message)
 - A process sends information in the form of a *message* to another process designated by a *destination*
 - receive (source, message)
 - A process receives information by executing the *receive* primitive, indicating the *source* and the *message*

Synchronization



- ❑ **Communication of a message between two processes implies synchronization between the two**
 - The receiver cannot receive a message until it has been sent by another process
- ❑ **Both sender and receiver can be blocking or nonblocking**
 - When a send primitive is executed, there are two possibilities
 - Either the sending process is blocked until the message is received, or it is not
 - When a receive primitive is executed there are also two possibilities
 - If a message has previously been sent the message is received and the execution continues
 - If there is no waiting message the process is blocked until a message arrives or the process continues to execute, abandoning the attempt to receive

Blocking/Nonblocking Send/Receive



❑ **Blocking send, blocking receive**

- Both sender and receiver are blocked until the message is delivered
- Sometimes referred to as a *rendezvous*
- Allows for tight synchronization between processes

❑ **Nonblocking send, blocking receive**

- Sender continues on but receiver is blocked until the requested message arrives
- The most useful combination
- It allows a process to send one or more messages to a variety of destinations as quickly as possible

❑ **Nonblocking send, nonblocking receive**

- Neither party is required to wait

Addressing

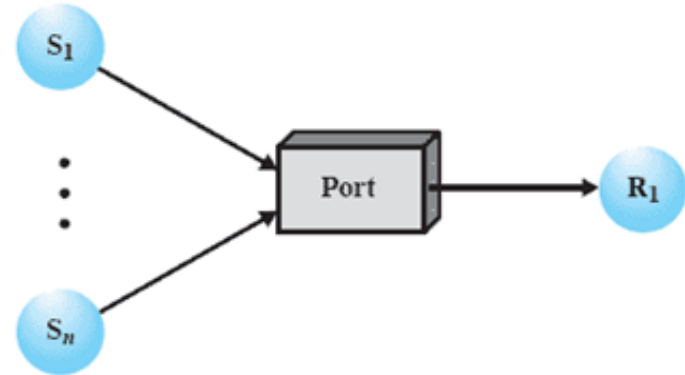


- ❑ **Schemes for specifying processes in send and receive primitives fall into two categories**
- ❑ **Direct addressing**
 - Send primitive includes a specific identifier of the destination process
 - Receive primitive can be handled in one of two ways
 - Explicit addressing
 - ▼ Require that the process explicitly designate a sending process
 - ▼ Effective for cooperating concurrent processes
 - Implicit addressing
 - ▼ Source parameter of the receive primitive possesses a value returned when the receive operation has been performed
- ❑ **Indirect addressing**
 - Messages are sent to a shared data structure consisting of queues that can temporarily hold messages
 - Queues are referred to as *mailboxes*
 - One process sends a message to the mailbox and the other process picks up the message from the mailbox
 - Allows for greater flexibility in the use of messages

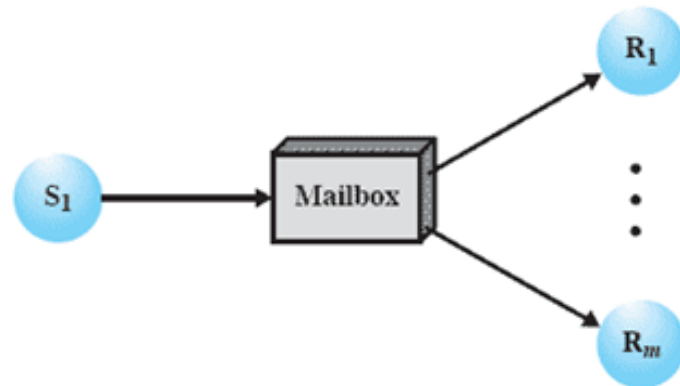
Indirect Process Communication



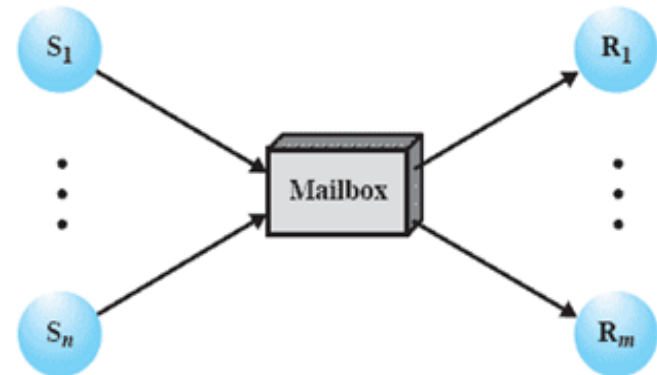
(a) One to one



(b) Many to one



(c) One to many



(d) Many to many

Source: Pearson

General Message Format

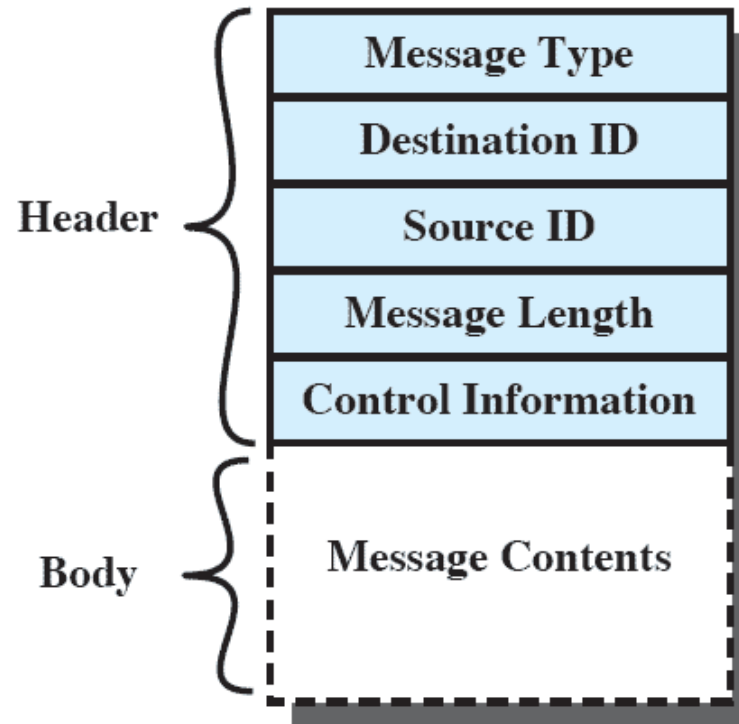


Figure 5.19 General Message Format

Source: Pearson

Mutual Exclusion



```
/* program mutualexclusion */
const int n = /* number of processes */;
void P(int i)
{
    message msg;
    while (true) {
        receive (box, msg);
        /* critical section */;
        send (box, msg);
        /* remainder */;
    }
}
void main()
{
    create mailbox (box);
    send (box, null);
    parbegin (P(1), P(2), . . . , P(n));
}
```

Figure 5.20 Mutual Exclusion Using Messages

Source: Pearson

Producer Consumer with Message

```
const int
    capacity = /* buffering capacity */ ;
    null = /* empty message */ ;
int i;
void producer()
{
    message pmsg;
    while (true) {
        receive (mayproduce, pmsg);
        pmsg = produce();
        send (mayconsume, pmsg);
    }
}
void consumer()
{
    message cmsg;
    while (true) {
        receive (mayconsume, cmsg);
        consume (cmsg);
        send (mayproduce, null);
    }
}
void main()
{
    create_mailbox (mayproduce);
    create_mailbox (mayconsume);
    for (int i = 1; i <= capacity; i++) send (mayproduce, null);
    parbegin (producer, consumer);
}
```

Source: Pearson

Homework 4



- Exercise 5.2**
- Exercise 5.6**
- Exercise 5.7**
- Due by 10/12**