Shared Memory Model

Alessio Vecchio <u>alessio.vecchio@unipi.it</u> Dip. di Ingegneria dell'Informazione Università di Pisa

Based on original slides by Silberschatz, Galvin, and Gagne Operating System Concepts

Overview

- The Critical-Section Problem
- Software Solutions
- Synchronization Hardware
- Semaphores
- Monitors
- Synchronization Examples

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- The Producer process produces data that must processed by the Consumer process
- The inter-process communication occurs through a shared buffer (shared memory)
- Bounded Buffer Size
 - The Producer process cannot insert a new item if the buffer is full
 - The Consumer process cannot extract an item if the buffer is empty

• Shared data

```
#define BUFFER_SIZE 10
typedef struct {
    ...
} item;
item buffer[BUFFER_SIZE];
```

int in = 0;

int out = 0;

int counter = 0;

Producer process

}

```
item nextProduced;
```

```
while (1) {
while (counter == BUFFER_SIZE); /* do nothing */
buffer[in] = nextProduced;
in = (in + 1) % BUFFER_SIZE;
counter++;
```

6

Consumer process

```
item nextConsumed;
while (1) {
   while (counter == 0); /* do nothing */
   nextConsumed = buffer[out];
   out = (out + 1) % BUFFER_SIZE;
   counter--;
}
```

• The statements

counter++; counter--;

must be performed atomically.

 Atomic operation means an operation that completes in its entirety without interruption.

 The statement "counter++" may be implemented in machine language as:

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

• The statement "counter- -" may be implemented as:

register2 = counter register2 = register2 – 1 counter = register2

- If both the producer and consumer attempt to update the buffer concurrently, the assembly language statements may get interleaved.
- Interleaving depends upon how the producer and consumer processes are scheduled.

Race Condition

Assume counter is initially 5. One interleaving of statements is:

producer: register1 = counter (register1 = 5)
producer: register1 = register1 + 1 (register1 = 6)

consumer: **register2 = counter** (*register2 = 5*) consumer: **register2 = register2 – 1** (*register2 = 4*)

producer: **counter = register1** (*counter = 6*) consumer: **counter = register2** (*counter = 4*)

 The value of count may be either 4 or 6, where the correct result should be 5.

Race Condition

- Race condition
 - The situation where several processes access and manipulate shared data concurrently.
 - The final value of the shared data depends upon how instructions are interleaved.
- Show example about balance and num.Ops.
- To prevent race conditions, concurrent processes must be synchronized.

Race Condition

- Processes P₀ and P₁ 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 a mechanism to prevent P₀ and P₁ from accessing the variable next_available_pid the same pid could be assigned to two different processes!

Critical Section Problem

- 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

General Process Structure

General structure of process P_i

do {
 entry section
 critical section
 exit section
 reminder section
} while (true)

Critical-Section Problem (Cont.)

Requirements for 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 process 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

Possible Solutions

- Software approaches
- Hardware solutions
 - Interrupt disabling
 - Special machine instructions
- Operating System Support
 - Semaphores
- Programming language Support
 - Monitor

A Software Solution

```
boolean lock=false;
Process Pi {
      do {
               while (lock); // do nothing
               lock=true;
               critical section
               lock=false;
               remainder section
      } while (true);
```

Does it work?

Software Solution 1

- Two process solution
- Assume that the load and store machine-language instructions are atomic; that is, cannot be interrupted
- The two processes share one variable:
 - int turn;
- The variable turn indicates whose turn it is to enter the critical section

Algorithm for Process P_i

```
do {
      turn = i;
      while (turn == j);
      /* critical section */
      turn = j;
      /* remainder section */
} while (true);
```

Correctness of the Software Solution 1

- Mutual exclusion is preserved
 - $\mathbf{P}_{\mathtt{i}}$ enters critical section only if:

turn = i

and turn cannot be both 0 and 1 at the same time

- What about the Progress requirement?
- What about the Bounded-waiting requirement?

Peterson's Solution

- 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 P_i

```
do {
       flag[i] = true;
       turn = j;
       while (flag[j] && turn = = j);
       /* critical section */
       flag[i] = false;
       /* remainder section */
} while (true);
```

Correctness of Peterson's Solution

- Provable that the three CS requirement are met:
 - 1. Mutual exclusion is preserved
 - $\mathbf{P}_{\mathtt{i}}$ enters CS only if:

```
either flag[j] = false or turn = i
```

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

Peterson's Solution and Modern Architecture

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

Modern Architecture Example

- 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
```

Modern Architecture Example (Cont.)

 However, since the variables flag and x are independent of each other, the instructions:

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

for Thread 2 may be reordered

• If this occurs, the output may be 0!

Peterson's Solution Revisited

• The effects of instruction reordering in Peterson's Solution



- This allows both processes to be in their critical section at the same time!
- To ensure that Peterson's solution will work correctly on modern computer architecture we must use **Memory Barrier**.

Memory Barrier

- **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 Instructions

- When a memory barrier instruction is performed, the system ensures that all loads and stores are completed before any subsequent load or store operations are performed.
- Therefore, even if instructions were reordered, the memory barrier ensures that the store operations are completed in memory and visible to other processors before future load or store operations are performed.

Memory Barrier Example

- Returning to previous example
- 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
```

- For Thread 1 we are guaranteed that that the value of flag is loaded before the value of x.
- For Thread 2 we ensure that the assignment to x occurs before the assignment flag.

Solution to Critical-section Problem Using Locks

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

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Interrupt Disabling

do {

disable interrupt; critical section enable interrupt; remainder section } while (true);

Previous Solution

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

This solution does not guarantee the mutual exclusion because the test and set on lock are not atomic

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. Hardware instructions
 - 2. Atomic variables
Hardware Instructions

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

The test_and_set Instruction

```
    Definition
```

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

- Properties
 - Executed atomically
 - Returns the original value of passed parameter
 - Set the new value of passed parameter to true

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);
```

Does it solve the critical-section problem?

The 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;
}
```

- Properties
 - Executed atomically
 - Returns the original value of passed parameter value
 - 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 */
}
```

Does it solve the critical-section problem?

Bounded-waiting 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:
 - Let **sequence** be an atomic variable
 - Let increment() be operation on the atomic variable sequence
 - The Command:

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

ensures **sequence** is incremented without interruption:

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
 - Boolean variable indicating if lock is available or not
- Protect a critical section by
 - First **acquire()** a lock
 - Then **release()** the lock
- 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 CS Problem Using Mutex Locks

while (true) {
 acquire lock

}

critical section

release lock

remainder section

Semaphore

- Synchronization tool that does not require busy waiting
- Semaphore S integer variable
- Can only be accessed via two indivisible (atomic) operations
 - wait() and signal()
 - Originally called P() and V()

Semaphore

```
wait (S) {
      while (S <= 0); // busy wait</pre>
      S--;
}
signal (S) {
      S++;
}
     wait() and signal() must be atomic
```

Semaphore as Synchronization Tool

- Counting semaphore
 - integer value can range over an unrestricted domain
- Binary semaphore
 - integer value can range only between 0 and 1; can be simpler to implement
 - Also known as mutex locks
- Can implement a counting semaphore S as a binary semaphore

Semaphore as Mutex Tool

- Solution to the critical section problem
- Shared data:

semaphore mutex=1;

```
• Process Pi:
```

```
do {
   wait (mutex);
   /* critical section */
   signal (mutex);
   /* remainder section */
} while (true);
```

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

Implementation with no Busy waiting (Cont.)

• Waiting queue

typedef struct {

int value;

struct process *list;

} semaphore;

Implementation with no Busy waiting (Cont.)

```
wait(semaphore *S) {
   S->value--;
   if (S \rightarrow 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);
   }
}
```

Semaphore as a Synchronization Tool

- Execute B in P_i only after A executed in P_i
- Use semaphore <u>flag</u> initialized to 0
- Code:



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(Q);signal(S);

Starvation – indefinite blocking.

A process may never be removed from the semaphore queue in which it is suspended.

Classical Problems of Synchronization

- Bounded-Buffer Problem
- Readers and Writers Problem
- Dining-Philosophers Problem

Bounded-Buffer Problem

- *N* buffers, each can hold one item
- Semaphore mutex initialized to the value 1
- Semaphore full initialized to the value 0
- Semaphore <u>empty</u> initialized to the value N.

Bounded-Buffer Problem

```
Consumer Process
Producer Process
do {
                                   do {
                                       wait(full)
    ...
    <produce an item in nextp>
                                       wait(mutex);
    •••
                                       •••
                                       <remove item from buffer to nextc>
    wait(empty);
    wait(mutex);
                                        ...
                                        signal(mutex);
    • • •
    <add nextp to buffer>
                                       signal(empty);
    • • •
                                       ...
    signal(mutex);
                                       <consume item in nextc>
    signal(full);
                                        ...
                                   } while (true);
} while (true);
```

- A data set is shared among a number of concurrent processes
 - Readers only read the data set; they do **not** perform any updates
 - Writers can both read and write
- Problem
 - Allow multiple readers to read at the same time.
 - Only one single writer can access the shared data at the same time
- Variants
 - No new reader must wait when a writer is waiting for data access
 - No new reader can start reading when a writer is waiting for data access

- Shared Data
 - Data set
 - Integer readcount initialized to 0
 - Semaphore mutex initialized to 1
 - Mutual exclusion on readcount
 - Semaphore wrt initialized to 1
 - Mutual exclusion on the data set by writers

• The structure of a writer process

```
do {
    wait (wrt);
    // writing is performed
    signal (wrt);
} while (true);
```

The structure of a reader process

```
do {
   wait (mutex);
    readcount ++;
    if (readcount == 1)
                wait (wrt);
    signal (mutex) ;
    // reading is performed
    wait (mutex) ;
    readcount --;
    if (readcount == 0)
                signal (wrt);
    signal (mutex);
} while (true);
```

Dining-Philosophers Problem

• N philosophers' sit at a round table with a bowel of rice in the middle.



- They spend their lives alternating thinking and eating.
- They do not interact with their neighbors.
- Occasionally try to pick up 2 chopsticks (one at a time) to eat from bowl
 - Need both to eat, then release both when done
- In the case of 5 philosophers, the shared data
 - Bowl of rice (data set)
 - Semaphore chopstick [5] initialized to 1

Dining-Philosophers Problem Algorithm

Semaphore Solution

}

```
The structure of Philosopher i :
    while (true) {
        wait (chopstick[i]);
        wait (chopStick[ (i + 1) % 5]);
    }
}
```

```
/* eat for awhile */
```

```
signal (chopstick[i] );
signal (chopstick[ (i + 1) % 5] );
```

```
/* think for awhile */
```

```
• What is the problem with this algorithm?
```

Dining-Philosophers Problem

- Deadlock
 - A deadlock occurs if all philosophers start eating simultaneously
- Possible solutions to avoid deadlocks
 - Only 4 philosophers can sit around the table
 - A philosopher can take his/her chopsticks only if they both are free
 - An odd philosopher takes the chopstick on its left first, and then the one on its right; an even philosopher takes the opposite approach.
- Starvation
 - Any solution must avoid that a philosopher may starve

Problems with Semaphores

- Incorrect use of semaphore operations:
 - signal(mutex) ... wait(mutex)
 - wait(mutex) ... wait(mutex)
 - Omitting of wait (mutex) and/or signal (mutex)

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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
    procedure P1 (...) { .... }
    procedure P2 (...) { .... }
    procedure Pn (...) { .....}
    initialization code (...) { .... }
}
```

Schematic view of a Monitor



Monitor Implementation Using Semaphores

• Variables

```
semaphore mutex
mutex = 1
```

Each procedure *P* is replaced by

wait(mutex);
...
body of P;
...
signal(mutex);

Mutual exclusion within a monitor is ensured

Condition Variables

- condition x, y;
- Two operations are allowed on a condition variable:
 - x.wait() a process that invokes the operation is always suspended until x.signal()
 - 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



Usage of Condition Variable Example

- Consider P_1 and P_2 that that need to execute two statements S_1 and S_2 and the requirement that S_1 to happen before S_2
 - Create a monitor with two procedures F₁ and F₂ that are invoked by P₁ and P₂ respectively
 - One condition variable "x" initialized to 0
 - One Boolean variable "done"

```
• F1:
```

```
S<sub>1</sub>;
done = true;
x.signal();
F2:
if done = false
x.wait()
S<sub>2</sub>;
```

Monitor Implementation Using Semaphores

• Variables

Each function *P* will be replaced by

```
wait(mutex);
...
body of P;
...
if (next_count > 0)
signal(next)
else
signal(mutex);
```

Mutual exclusion within a monitor is ensured

Implementation – Condition Variables

• For each condition variable **x**, we have:

```
semaphore x_sem; // (initially = 0)
int x_count = 0;
```

The operation x.wait() can be implemented as:

```
x_count++;
if (next_count > 0)
    signal(next);
else
    signal(mutex);
wait(x_sem);
x count--;
```

Implementation (Cont.)

• The operation **x.signal()** can be implemented as:

```
if (x_count > 0) {
    next_count++;
    signal(x_sem);
    wait(next);
    next_count--;
}
```

Monitor Solution to Dining Philosophers

```
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 left and right neighbors
          test((i + 4) % 5);
          test((i + 1) % 5);
   }
```

Solution to Dining Philosophers (Cont.)

```
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++)</pre>
```

state[i] = THINKING;

}

}

Solution to Dining Philosophers (Cont.)

 Each philosopher "i" invokes the operations pickup() and putdown() in the following sequence:

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

/** EAT **/

DiningPhilosophers.putdown(i);

• No deadlock, but starvation is possible

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Linux Synchronization

- Linux:
 - Prior to kernel Version 2.6, disables interrupts to implement short critical sections
 - Version 2.6 and later, fully preemptive
- Linux provides:
 - Semaphores
 - Atomic integers
 - Spinlocks
 - Reader-writer versions of both
- On single-CPU system, spinlocks replaced by enabling and disabling kernel preemption

Linux Synchronization

• Atomic variables

atomic_t is the type for atomic integer

• Consider the variables

```
atomic_t counter;
int value;
```

Atomic Operation	Effect
<pre>atomic_set(&counter,5);</pre>	counter = 5
<pre>atomic_add(10,&counter);</pre>	counter = counter + 10
atomic_sub(4,&counter);	counter = counter - 4
<pre>atomic_inc(&counter);</pre>	counter = counter + 1
<pre>value = atomic_read(&counter);</pre>	value = 12

Pthreads Synchronization

- Pthreads API is OS-independent
- It provides:
 - mutex locks
 - condition variables
- Non-portable extensions include:
 - read-write locks
 - spin locks