26

Concurrency: An Introduction

Thus far, we have seen the development of the basic abstractions that the OS performs. We have seen how to take a single physical CPU and turn it into multiple **virtual CPUs**, thus enabling the illusion of multiple programs running at the same time. We have also seen how to create the illusion of a large, private **virtual memory** for each process; this abstraction of the **address space** enables each program to behave as if it has its own memory when indeed the OS is secretly multiplexing address spaces across physical memory (and sometimes, disk).

In this chapter, we introduce a new abstraction for a single running process: that of a **thread**. Instead of our classic view of a single point of execution within a program (i.e., a single PC where instructions are being fetched from and executed), a **multi-threaded** program has more than one point of execution (i.e., multiple PCs, each of which is being fetched and executed from). Perhaps another way to think of this is that each thread is very much like a separate process, except for one difference: they *share* the same address space and thus can access the same data.

The state of a single thread is thus very similar to that of a process. It has a program counter (PC) that tracks where the program is fetching instructions from. Each thread has its own private set of registers it uses for computation; thus, if there are two threads that are running on a single processor, when switching from running one (T1) to running the other (T2), a **context switch** must take place. The context switch between threads is quite similar to the context switch between processes, as the register state of T1 must be saved and the register state of T2 restored before running T2. With processes, we saved state to a **process control block (PCB)**; now, we'll need one or more **thread control blocks (TCBs)** to store the state of each thread of a process. There is one major difference, though, in the context switch we perform between threads as compared to processes: the address space remains the same (i.e., there is no need to switch which page table we are using).

One other major difference between threads and processes concerns the stack. In our simple model of the address space of a classic process

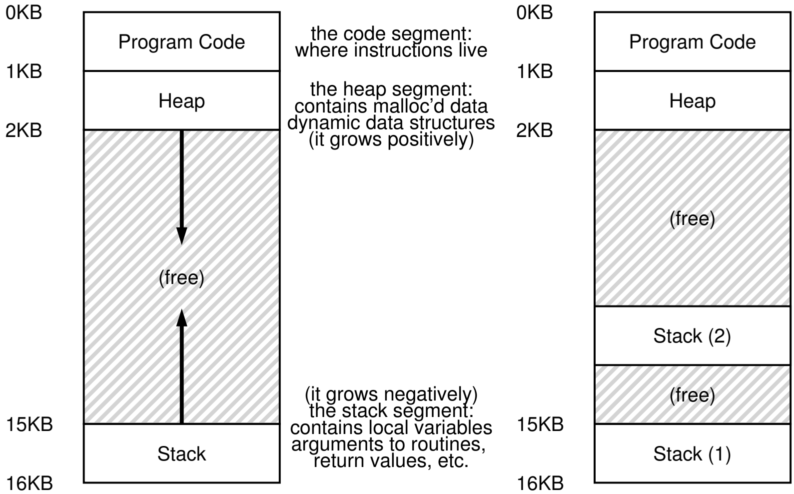


Figure 26.1: **Single-Threaded And Multi-Threaded Address Spaces**

(which we can now call a **single-threaded** process), there is a single stack, usually residing at the bottom of the address space (Figure 26.1, left).

However, in a multi-threaded process, each thread runs independently and of course may call into various routines to do whatever work it is doing. Instead of a single stack in the address space, there will be one per thread. Let's say we have a multi-threaded process that has two threads in it; the resulting address space looks different (Figure 26.1, right).

In this figure, you can see two stacks spread throughout the address space of the process. Thus, any stack-allocated variables, parameters, return values, and other things that we put on the stack will be placed in what is sometimes called **thread-local** storage, i.e., the stack of the relevant thread.

You might also notice how this ruins our beautiful address space layout. Before, the stack and heap could grow independently and trouble only arose when you ran out of room in the address space. Here, we no longer have such a nice situation. Fortunately, this is usually OK, as stacks do not generally have to be very large (the exception being in programs that make heavy use of recursion).

26.1 Why Use Threads?

Before getting into the details of threads and some of the problems you might have in writing multi-threaded programs, let's first answer a more simple question. Why should you use threads at all?

As it turns out, there are at least two major reasons you should use threads. The first is simple: **parallelism**. Imagine you are writing a program that performs operations on very large arrays, for example, adding two large arrays together, or incrementing the value of each element in the array by some amount. If you are running on just a single processor, the task is straightforward: just perform each operation and be done. However, if you are executing the program on a system with multiple processors, you have the potential of speeding up this process considerably by using the processors to each perform a portion of the work. The task of transforming your standard **single-threaded** program into a program that does this sort of work on multiple CPUs is called **parallelization**, and using a thread per CPU to do this work is a natural and typical way to make programs run faster on modern hardware.

The second reason is a bit more subtle: to avoid blocking program progress due to slow I/O. Imagine that you are writing a program that performs different types of I/O: either waiting to send or receive a message, for an explicit disk I/O to complete, or even (implicitly) for a page fault to finish. Instead of waiting, your program may wish to do something else, including utilizing the CPU to perform computation, or even issuing further I/O requests. Using threads is a natural way to avoid getting stuck; while one thread in your program waits (i.e., is blocked waiting for I/O), the CPU scheduler can switch to other threads, which are ready to run and do something useful. Threading enables **overlap** of I/O with other activities *within* a single program, much like **multiprogramming** did for processes *across* programs; as a result, many modern server-based applications (web servers, database management systems, and the like) make use of threads in their implementations.

Of course, in either of the cases mentioned above, you could use multiple *processes* instead of threads. However, threads share an address space and thus make it easy to share data, and hence are a natural choice when constructing these types of programs. Processes are a more sound choice for logically separate tasks where little sharing of data structures in memory is needed.

26.2 An Example: Thread Creation

Let's get into some of the details. Say we wanted to run a program that creates two threads, each of which does some independent work, in this case printing "A" or "B". The code is shown in Figure 26.2 (page 4).

The main program creates two threads, each of which will run the function `mythread()`, though with different arguments (the string `A` or `B`). Once a thread is created, it may start running right away (depending on the whims of the scheduler); alternately, it may be put in a "ready" but not "running" state and thus not run yet. Of course, on a multiprocessor, the threads could even be running at the same time, but let's not worry about this possibility quite yet.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <assert.h>
#include <pthread.h>
#include "common.h"
#include "common_threads.h"

void *mythread(void *arg) {
    printf("%s\n", (char *) arg);
    return NULL;
}

int
main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    pthread_t p1, p2;
    int rc;
    printf("main: begin\n");
    Pthread_create(&p1, NULL, mythread, "A");
    Pthread_create(&p2, NULL, mythread, "B");
    // join waits for the threads to finish
    Pthread_join(p1, NULL);
    Pthread_join(p2, NULL);
    printf("main: end\n");
    return 0;
}
```

Figure 26.2: **Simple Thread Creation Code (`t0.c`)**

After creating the two threads (let's call them T1 and T2), the main thread calls `pthread_join()`, which waits for a particular thread to complete. It does so twice, thus ensuring T1 and T2 will run and complete before finally allowing the main thread to run again; when it does, it will print "main: end" and exit. Overall, three threads were employed during this run: the main thread, T1, and T2.

Let us examine the possible execution ordering of this little program. In the execution diagram (Figure 26.3, page 5), time increases in the downwards direction, and each column shows when a different thread (the main one, or Thread 1, or Thread 2) is running.

Note, however, that this ordering is not the only possible ordering. In fact, given a sequence of instructions, there are quite a few, depending on which thread the scheduler decides to run at a given point. For example, once a thread is created, it may run immediately, which would lead to the execution shown in Figure 26.4 (page 5).

We also could even see "B" printed before "A", if, say, the scheduler decided to run Thread 2 first even though Thread 1 was created earlier; there is no reason to assume that a thread that is created first will run first. Figure 26.5 (page 6) shows this final execution ordering, with Thread 2 getting to strut its stuff before Thread 1.

As you might be able to see, one way to think about thread creation

main	Thread 1	Thread2
starts running		
prints "main: begin"		
creates Thread 1		
creates Thread 2		
waits for T1		
	runs	
	prints "A"	
	returns	
waits for T2		
		runs
		prints "B"
		returns
prints "main: end"		

Figure 26.3: **Thread Trace (1)**

main	Thread 1	Thread2
starts running		
prints "main: begin"		
creates Thread 1		
	runs	
	prints "A"	
	returns	
creates Thread 2		
		runs
		prints "B"
		returns
waits for T1		
returns immediately; T1 is done		
waits for T2		
returns immediately; T2 is done		
prints "main: end"		

Figure 26.4: **Thread Trace (2)**

is that it is a bit like making a function call; however, instead of first executing the function and then returning to the caller, the system instead creates a new thread of execution for the routine that is being called, and it runs independently of the caller, perhaps before returning from the create, but perhaps much later. What runs next is determined by the OS **scheduler**, and although the scheduler likely implements some sensible algorithm, it is hard to know what will run at any given moment in time.

As you also might be able to tell from this example, threads make life complicated: it is already hard to tell what will run when! Computers are hard enough to understand without concurrency. Unfortunately, with concurrency, it simply gets worse. Much worse.

main	**Thread 1**	**Thread2**
starts running		
prints "main: begin"		
creates Thread 1		
creates Thread 2		
		runs
		prints "B"
		returns
waits for T1		
	runs	
	prints "A"	
	returns	
waits for T2		
returns immediately; T2 is done		
prints "main: end"		

Figure 26.5: **Thread Trace (3)**

26.3 Why It Gets Worse: Shared Data

The simple thread example we showed above was useful in showing how threads are created and how they can run in different orders depending on how the scheduler decides to run them. What it doesn't show you, though, is how threads interact when they access shared data.

Let us imagine a simple example where two threads wish to update a global shared variable. The code we'll study is in Figure 26.6 (page 7).

Here are a few notes about the code. First, as Stevens suggests [SR05], we wrap the thread creation and join routines to simply exit on failure; for a program as simple as this one, we want to at least notice an error occurred (if it did), but not do anything very smart about it (e.g., just exit). Thus, `Pthread_create()` simply calls `pthread_create()` and makes sure the return code is 0; if it isn't, `Pthread_create()` just prints a message and exits.

Second, instead of using two separate function bodies for the worker threads, we just use a single piece of code, and pass the thread an argument (in this case, a string) so we can have each thread print a different letter before its messages.

Finally, and most importantly, we can now look at what each worker is trying to do: add a number to the shared variable `counter`, and do so 10 million times (1e7) in a loop. Thus, the desired final result is: 20,000,000.

We now compile and run the program, to see how it behaves. Sometimes, everything works how we might expect:

```
prompt> gcc -o main main.c -Wall -pthread; ./main
main: begin (counter = 0)
A: begin
B: begin
A: done
B: done
main: done with both (counter = 20000000)
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <pthread.h>
#include "common.h"
#include "common_threads.h"

static volatile int counter = 0;

// mythread()
//
// Simply adds 1 to counter repeatedly, in a loop
// No, this is not how you would add 10,000,000 to
// a counter, but it shows the problem nicely.
//
void *mythread(void *arg) {
    printf("%s: begin\n", (char *) arg);
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < 1e7; i++) {
        counter = counter + 1;
    }
    printf("%s: done\n", (char *) arg);
    return NULL;
}

// main()
//
// Just launches two threads (pthread_create)
// and then waits for them (pthread_join)
//
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    pthread_t p1, p2;
    printf("main: begin (counter = %d)\n", counter);
    Pthread_create(&p1, NULL, mythread, "A");
    Pthread_create(&p2, NULL, mythread, "B");

    // join waits for the threads to finish
    Pthread_join(p1, NULL);
    Pthread_join(p2, NULL);
    printf("main: done with both (counter = %d)\n",
            counter);
    return 0;
}
```

Figure 26.6: **Sharing Data: Uh Oh (`t1.c`)**

Unfortunately, when we run this code, even on a single processor, we don't necessarily get the desired result. Sometimes, we get:

```
prompt> ./main
main: begin (counter = 0)
A: begin
B: begin
A: done
B: done
main: done with both (counter = 19345221)
```

Let's try it one more time, just to see if we've gone crazy. After all, aren't computers supposed to produce **deterministic** results, as you have been taught?! Perhaps your professors have been lying to you? *(gasp)*

```
prompt> ./main
main: begin (counter = 0)
A: begin
B: begin
A: done
B: done
main: done with both (counter = 19221041)
```

Not only is each run wrong, but also yields a *different* result! A big question remains: why does this happen?

TIP: KNOW AND USE YOUR TOOLS

You should always learn new tools that help you write, debug, and understand computer systems. Here, we use a neat tool called a **disassembler.** When you run a disassembler on an executable, it shows you what assembly instructions make up the program. For example, if we wish to understand the low-level code to update a counter (as in our example), we run `objdump` (Linux) to see the assembly code:

```
prompt> objdump -d main
```

Doing so produces a long listing of all the instructions in the program, neatly labeled (particularly if you compiled with the `-g` flag), which includes symbol information in the program. The `objdump` program is just one of many tools you should learn how to use; a debugger like `gdb`, memory profilers like `valgrind` or `purify`, and of course the compiler itself are others that you should spend time to learn more about; the better you are at using your tools, the better systems you'll be able to build.

26.4 The Heart Of The Problem: Uncontrolled Scheduling

To understand why this happens, we must understand the code sequence that the compiler generates for the update to `counter`. In this case, we wish to simply add a number (1) to `counter`. Thus, the code sequence for doing so might look something like this (in x86);

```
mov 0x8049a1c, %eax
add $0x1, %eax
mov %eax, 0x8049a1c
```

This example assumes that the variable `counter` is located at address 0x8049a1c. In this three-instruction sequence, the x86 `mov` instruction is used first to get the memory value at the address and put it into register `eax`. Then, the add is performed, adding 1 (0x1) to the contents of the `eax` register, and finally, the contents of `eax` are stored back into memory at the same address.

Let us imagine one of our two threads (Thread 1) enters this region of code, and is thus about to increment `counter` by one. It loads the value of `counter` (let's say it's 50 to begin with) into its register `eax`. Thus, `eax=50` for Thread 1. Then it adds one to the register; thus `eax=51`. Now, something unfortunate happens: a timer interrupt goes off; thus, the OS saves the state of the currently running thread (its PC, its registers including `eax`, etc.) to the thread's TCB.

Now something worse happens: Thread 2 is chosen to run, and it enters this same piece of code. It also executes the first instruction, getting the value of `counter` and putting it into its `eax` (remember: each thread when running has its own private registers; the registers are **virtualized** by the context-switch code that saves and restores them). The value of `counter` is still 50 at this point, and thus Thread 2 has `eax=50`. Let's then assume that Thread 2 executes the next two instructions, incrementing `eax` by 1 (thus `eax=51`), and then saving the contents of `eax` into `counter` (address 0x8049a1c). Thus, the global variable `counter` now has the value 51.

Finally, another context switch occurs, and Thread 1 resumes running. Recall that it had just executed the `mov` and `add`, and is now about to perform the final `mov` instruction. Recall also that `eax=51`. Thus, the final `mov` instruction executes, and saves the value to memory; the counter is set to 51 again.

Put simply, what has happened is this: the code to increment `counter` has been run twice, but `counter`, which started at 50, is now only equal to 51. A "correct" version of this program should have resulted in the variable `counter` equal to 52.

Let's look at a detailed execution trace to understand the problem better. Assume, for this example, that the above code is loaded at address 100 in memory, like the following sequence (note for those of you used to nice, RISC-like instruction sets: x86 has variable-length instructions; this `mov` instruction takes up 5 bytes of memory, and the `add` only 3):

OS	Thread 1	Thread 2	(after instruction) PC	eax	counter
	before critical section		100	0	50
	`mov 8049a1c,%eax`		105	**50**	50
	`add $0x1,%eax`		108	**51**	50
interrupt					
save T1					
restore T2			100	0	50
		`mov 8049a1c,%eax`	105	**50**	50
		`add $0x1,%eax`	108	**51**	50
		`mov %eax,8049a1c`	113	51	**51**
interrupt					
save T2					
restore T1			108	51	51
	`mov %eax,8049a1c`		113	51	**51**

Figure 26.7: **The Problem: Up Close and Personal**

```
100 mov    0x8049a1c, %eax
105 add    $0x1, %eax
108 mov    %eax, 0x8049a1c
```

With these assumptions, what happens is shown in Figure 26.7 (page 10). Assume the counter starts at value 50, and trace through this example to make sure you understand what is going on.

What we have demonstrated here is called a **race condition** (or, more specifically, a **data race**): the results depend on the timing of the code's execution. With some bad luck (i.e., context switches that occur at untimely points in the execution), we get the wrong result. In fact, we may get a different result each time; thus, instead of a nice **deterministic** computation (which we are used to from computers), we call this result **indeterminate**, where it is not known what the output will be and it is indeed likely to be different across runs.

Because multiple threads executing this code can result in a race condition, we call this code a **critical section**. A critical section is a piece of code that accesses a shared variable (or more generally, a shared resource) and must not be concurrently executed by more than one thread.

What we really want for this code is what we call **mutual exclusion**. This property guarantees that if one thread is executing within the critical section, the others will be prevented from doing so.

Virtually all of these terms, by the way, were coined by Edsger Dijkstra, who was a pioneer in the field and indeed won the Turing Award because of this and other work; see his 1968 paper on "Cooperating Sequential Processes" [D68] for an amazingly clear description of the problem. We'll be hearing more about Dijkstra in this section of the book.

TIP: USE ATOMIC OPERATIONS

Atomic operations are one of the most powerful underlying techniques in building computer systems, from the computer architecture, to concurrent code (what we are studying here), to file systems (which we'll study soon enough), database management systems, and even distributed systems [L+93].

The idea behind making a series of actions **atomic** is simply expressed with the phrase "all or nothing"; it should either appear as if all of the actions you wish to group together occurred, or that none of them occurred, with no in-between state visible. Sometimes, the grouping of many actions into a single atomic action is called a **transaction**, an idea developed in great detail in the world of databases and transaction processing [GR92].

In our theme of exploring concurrency, we'll be using synchronization primitives to turn short sequences of instructions into atomic blocks of execution, but the idea of atomicity is much bigger than that, as we will see. For example, file systems use techniques such as journaling or copy-on-write in order to atomically transition their on-disk state, critical for operating correctly in the face of system failures. If that doesn't make sense, don't worry — it will, in some future chapter.

26.5 The Wish For Atomicity

One way to solve this problem would be to have more powerful instructions that, in a single step, did exactly whatever we needed done and thus removed the possibility of an untimely interrupt. For example, what if we had a super instruction that looked like this:

```
memory-add 0x8049a1c, $0x1
```

Assume this instruction adds a value to a memory location, and the hardware guarantees that it executes **atomically**; when the instruction executed, it would perform the update as desired. It could not be interrupted mid-instruction, because that is precisely the guarantee we receive from the hardware: when an interrupt occurs, either the instruction has not run at all, or it has run to completion; there is no in-between state. Hardware can be a beautiful thing, no?

Atomically, in this context, means "as a unit", which sometimes we take as "all or none." What we'd like is to execute the three instruction sequence atomically:

```
mov 0x8049a1c, %eax
add $0x1, %eax
mov %eax, 0x8049a1c
```

As we said, if we had a single instruction to do this, we could just issue that instruction and be done. But in the general case, we won't have such an instruction. Imagine we were building a concurrent B-tree, and wished to update it; would we really want the hardware to support an "atomic update of B-tree" instruction? Probably not, at least in a sane instruction set.

Thus, what we will instead do is ask the hardware for a few useful instructions upon which we can build a general set of what we call **synchronization primitives**. By using this hardware support, in combination with some help from the operating system, we will be able to build multi-threaded code that accesses critical sections in a synchronized and controlled manner, and thus reliably produces the correct result despite the challenging nature of concurrent execution. Pretty awesome, right?

This is the problem we will study in this section of the book. It is a wonderful and hard problem, and should make your mind hurt (a bit). If it doesn't, then you don't understand! Keep working until your head hurts; you then know you're headed in the right direction. At that point, take a break; we don't want your head hurting too much.

THE CRUX: HOW TO SUPPORT SYNCHRONIZATION

What support do we need from the hardware in order to build useful synchronization primitives? What support do we need from the OS? How can we build these primitives correctly and efficiently? How can programs use them to get the desired results?

26.6 One More Problem: Waiting For Another

This chapter has set up the problem of concurrency as if only one type of interaction occurs between threads, that of accessing shared variables and the need to support atomicity for critical sections. As it turns out, there is another common interaction that arises, where one thread must wait for another to complete some action before it continues. This interaction arises, for example, when a process performs a disk I/O and is put to sleep; when the I/O completes, the process needs to be roused from its slumber so it can continue.

Thus, in the coming chapters, we'll be not only studying how to build support for synchronization primitives to support atomicity but also for mechanisms to support this type of sleeping/waking interaction that is common in multi-threaded programs. If this doesn't make sense right now, that is OK! It will soon enough, when you read the chapter on **condition variables**. If it doesn't by then, well, then it is less OK, and you should read that chapter again (and again) until it does make sense.

ASIDE: KEY CONCURRENCY TERMS
CRITICAL SECTION, RACE CONDITION,
INDETERMINATE, MUTUAL EXCLUSION

These four terms are so central to concurrent code that we thought it worth while to call them out explicitly. See some of Dijkstra's early work [D65,D68] for more details.

- A **critical section** is a piece of code that accesses a *shared* resource, usually a variable or data structure.
- A **race condition** (or **data race** [NM92]) arises if multiple threads of execution enter the critical section at roughly the same time; both attempt to update the shared data structure, leading to a surprising (and perhaps undesirable) outcome.
- An **indeterminate** program consists of one or more race conditions; the output of the program varies from run to run, depending on which threads ran when. The outcome is thus not **deterministic**, something we usually expect from computer systems.
- To avoid these problems, threads should use some kind of **mutual exclusion** primitives; doing so guarantees that only a single thread ever enters a critical section, thus avoiding races, and resulting in deterministic program outputs.

26.7 Summary: Why in OS Class?

Before wrapping up, one question that you might have is: why are we studying this in OS class? "History" is the one-word answer; the OS was the first concurrent program, and many techniques were created for use *within* the OS. Later, with multi-threaded processes, application programmers also had to consider such things.

For example, imagine the case where there are two processes running. Assume they both call `write()` to write to the file, and both wish to append the data to the file (i.e., add the data to the end of the file, thus increasing its length). To do so, both must allocate a new block, record in the inode of the file where this block lives, and change the size of the file to reflect the new larger size (among other things; we'll learn more about files in the third part of the book). Because an interrupt may occur at any time, the code that updates these shared structures (e.g., a bitmap for allocation, or the file's inode) are critical sections; thus, OS designers, from the very beginning of the introduction of the interrupt, had to worry about how the OS updates internal structures. An untimely interrupt causes all of the problems described above. Not surprisingly, page tables, process lists, file system structures, and virtually every kernel data structure has to be carefully accessed, with the proper synchronization primitives, to work correctly.

References

[D65] "Solution of a problem in concurrent programming control" by E. W. Dijkstra. Communications of the ACM, 8(9):569, September 1965. *Pointed to as the first paper of Dijkstra's where he outlines the mutual exclusion problem and a solution. The solution, however, is not widely used; advanced hardware and OS support is needed, as we will see in the coming chapters.*

[D68] "Cooperating sequential processes" by Edsger W. Dijkstra. 1968. Available at this site: `http://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/EWD/ewd01xx/EWD123.PDF`. *Dijkstra has an amazing number of his old papers, notes, and thoughts recorded (for posterity) on this website at the last place he worked, the University of Texas. Much of his foundational work, however, was done years earlier while he was at the Technische Technische Hogeschool Eindhoven (THE), including this famous paper on "cooperating sequential processes", which basically outlines all of the thinking that has to go into writing multi-threaded programs. Dijkstra discovered much of this while working on an operating system named after his school: the "THE" operating system (said "T", "H", "E", and not like the word "the").*

[GR92] "Transaction Processing: Concepts and Techniques" by Jim Gray and Andreas Reuter. Morgan Kaufmann, September 1992. *This book is the bible of transaction processing, written by one of the legends of the field, Jim Gray. It is, for this reason, also considered Jim Gray's "brain dump", in which he wrote down everything he knows about how database management systems work. Sadly, Gray passed away tragically a few years back, and many of us lost a friend and great mentor, including the co-authors of said book, who were lucky enough to interact with Gray during their graduate school years.*

[L+93] "Atomic Transactions" by Nancy Lynch, Michael Merritt, William Weihl, Alan Fekete. Morgan Kaufmann, August 1993. *A nice text on some of the theory and practice of atomic transactions for distributed systems. Perhaps a bit formal for some, but lots of good material is found herein.*

[NM92] "What Are Race Conditions? Some Issues and Formalizations" by Robert H. B. Netzer and Barton P. Miller. ACM Letters on Programming Languages and Systems, Volume 1:1, March 1992. *An excellent discussion of the different types of races found in concurrent programs. In this chapter (and the next few), we focus on data races, but later we will broaden to discuss* ***general races*** *as well.*

[SR05] "Advanced Programming in the UNIX Environment" by W. Richard Stevens and Stephen A. Rago. Addison-Wesley, 2005. *As we've said many times, buy this book, and read it, in little chunks, preferably before going to bed. This way, you will actually fall asleep more quickly; more importantly, you learn a little more about how to become a serious* UNIX *programmer.*

Homework (Simulation)

This program, `x86.py`, allows you to see how different thread interleavings either cause or avoid race conditions. See the README for details on how the program works, then answer the questions below.

Questions

1. Let's examine a simple program, "loop.s". First, just read and understand it. Then, run it with these arguments (`./x86.py -t 1 -p loop.s -i 100 -R dx`) This specifies a single thread, an interrupt every 100 instructions, and tracing of register `%dx`. What will `%dx` be during the run? Use the `-c` flag to check your answers; the answers, on the left, show the value of the register (or memory value) *after* the instruction on the right has run.

2. Same code, different flags: (`./x86.py -p loop.s -t 2 -i 100 -a dx=3,dx=3 -R dx`) This specifies two threads, and initializes each %dx to 3. What values will `%dx` see? Run with `-c` to check. Does the presence of multiple threads affect your calculations? Is there a race in this code?

3. Run this: `./x86.py -p loop.s -t 2 -i 3 -r -R dx -a dx=3,dx=3` This makes the interrupt interval small/random; use different seeds (`-s`) to see different interleavings. Does the interrupt frequency change anything?

4. Now, a different program, `looping-race-nolock.s`, which accesses a shared variable located at address 2000; we'll call this variable `value`. Run it with a single thread to confirm your understanding: `./x86.py -p looping-race-nolock.s -t 1 -M 2000` What is `value` (i.e., at memory address 2000) throughout the run? Use `-c` to check.

5. Run with multiple iterations/threads: `./x86.py -p looping-race-nolock.s -t 2 -a bx=3 -M 2000` Why does each thread loop three times? What is final value of `value`?

6. Run with random interrupt intervals: `./x86.py -p looping-race-nolock.s -t 2 -M 2000 -i 4 -r -s 0` with different seeds (`-s 1`, `-s 2`, etc.) Can you tell by looking at the thread interleaving what the final value of `value` will be? Does the timing of the interrupt matter? Where can it safely occur? Where not? In other words, where is the critical section exactly?

7. Now examine fixed interrupt intervals: `./x86.py -p looping-race-nolock.s -a bx=1 -t 2 -M 2000 -i 1` What will the final value of the shared variable `value` be? What about when you change `-i 2`, `-i 3`, etc.? For which interrupt intervals does the program give the "correct" answer?

8. Run the same for more loops (e.g., set `-a bx=100`). What interrupt intervals (`-i`) lead to a correct outcome? Which intervals are surprising?

9. One last program: `wait-for-me.s`. Run: `./x86.py -p wait-for-me.s -a ax=1,ax=0 -R ax -M 2000` This sets the `%ax` register to 1 for thread 0, and 0 for thread 1, and watches `%ax` and memory location 2000. How should the code behave? How is the value at location 2000 being used by the threads? What will its final value be?

10. Now switch the inputs: `./x86.py -p wait-for-me.s -a ax=0,ax=1 -R ax -M 2000` How do the threads behave? What is thread 0 doing? How would changing the interrupt interval (e.g., `-i 1000`, or perhaps to use random intervals) change the trace outcome? Is the program efficiently using the CPU?

27

Interlude: Thread API

This chapter briefly covers the main portions of the thread API. Each part will be explained further in the subsequent chapters, as we show how to use the API. More details can be found in various books and online sources [B89, B97, B+96, K+96]. We should note that the subsequent chapters introduce the concepts of locks and condition variables more slowly, with many examples; this chapter is thus better used as a reference.

> CRUX: HOW TO CREATE AND CONTROL THREADS
>
> What interfaces should the OS present for thread creation and control? How should these interfaces be designed to enable ease of use as well as utility?

27.1 Thread Creation

The first thing you have to be able to do to write a multi-threaded program is to create new threads, and thus some kind of thread creation interface must exist. In POSIX, it is easy:

```
#include <pthread.h>
int
pthread_create(pthread_t       *thread,
         const pthread_attr_t *attr,
               void            *(*start_routine)(void*),
               void            *arg);
```

This declaration might look a little complex (particularly if you haven't used function pointers in C), but actually it's not too bad. There are four arguments: `thread`, `attr`, `start_routine`, and `arg`. The first, `thread`, is a pointer to a structure of type `pthread_t`; we'll use this structure to interact with this thread, and thus we need to pass it to `pthread_create()` in order to initialize it.

The second argument, `attr`, is used to specify any attributes this thread might have. Some examples include setting the stack size or perhaps information about the scheduling priority of the thread. An attribute is initialized with a separate call to `pthread_attr_init()`; see the manual page for details. However, in most cases, the defaults will be fine; in this case, we will simply pass the value `NULL` in.

The third argument is the most complex, but is really just asking: which function should this thread start running in? In C, we call this a **function pointer**, and this one tells us the following is expected: a function name (`start_routine`), which is passed a single argument of type `void *` (as indicated in the parentheses after `start_routine`), and which returns a value of type `void *` (i.e., a **void pointer**).

If this routine instead required an integer argument, instead of a void pointer, the declaration would look like this:

```
int pthread_create(..., // first two args are the same
                   void *(*start_routine)(int),
                   int  arg);
```

If instead the routine took a void pointer as an argument, but returned an integer, it would look like this:

```
int pthread_create(..., // first two args are the same
                   int (*start_routine)(void *),
                   void *arg);
```

Finally, the fourth argument, `arg`, is exactly the argument to be passed to the function where the thread begins execution. You might ask: why do we need these void pointers? Well, the answer is quite simple: having a void pointer as an argument to the function `start_routine` allows us to pass in *any* type of argument; having it as a return value allows the thread to return *any* type of result.

Let's look at an example in Figure 27.1. Here we just create a thread that is passed two arguments, packaged into a single type we define ourselves (`myarg_t`). The thread, once created, can simply cast its argument to the type it expects and thus unpack the arguments as desired.

And there it is! Once you create a thread, you really have another live executing entity, complete with its own call stack, running within the *same* address space as all the currently existing threads in the program. The fun thus begins!

27.2 Thread Completion

The example above shows how to create a thread. However, what happens if you want to wait for a thread to complete? You need to do something special in order to wait for completion; in particular, you must call the routine `pthread_join()`.

```
int pthread_join(pthread_t thread, void **value_ptr);
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <pthread.h>

typedef struct {
    int a;
    int b;
} myarg_t;

void *mythread(void *arg) {
    myarg_t *args = (myarg_t *) arg;
    printf("%d %d\n", args->a, args->b);
    return NULL;
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    pthread_t p;
    myarg_t args = { 10, 20 };

    int rc = pthread_create(&p, NULL, mythread, &args);
    ...
}
```

Figure 27.1: **Creating a Thread**

This routine takes two arguments. The first is of type `pthread_t`, and is used to specify which thread to wait for. This variable is initialized by the thread creation routine (when you pass a pointer to it as an argument to `pthread_create()`); if you keep it around, you can use it to wait for that thread to terminate.

The second argument is a pointer to the return value you expect to get back. Because the routine can return anything, it is defined to return a pointer to void; because the `pthread_join()` routine *changes* the value of the passed in argument, you need to pass in a pointer to that value, not just the value itself.

Let's look at another example (Figure 27.2, page 4). In the code, a single thread is again created, and passed a couple of arguments via the `myarg_t` structure. To return values, the `myret_t` type is used. Once the thread is finished running, the main thread, which has been waiting inside of the `pthread_join()` routine[1], then returns, and we can access the values returned from the thread, namely whatever is in `myret_t`.

A few things to note about this example. First, often times we don't have to do all of this painful packing and unpacking of arguments. For example, if we just create a thread with no arguments, we can pass `NULL` in as an argument when the thread is created. Similarly, we can pass `NULL` into `pthread_join()` if we don't care about the return value.

[1]Note we use wrapper functions here; specifically, we call Malloc(), Pthread_join(), and Pthread_create(), which just call their similarly-named lower-case versions and make sure the routines did not return anything unexpected.

```
typedef struct { int a; int b; } myarg_t;
typedef struct { int x; int y; } myret_t;

void *mythread(void *arg) {
    myret_t *rvals = Malloc(sizeof(myret_t));
    rvals->x = 1;
    rvals->y = 2;
    return (void *) rvals;
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    pthread_t p;
    myret_t *rvals;
    myarg_t args = { 10, 20 };
    Pthread_create(&p, NULL, mythread, &args);
    Pthread_join(p, (void **) &rvals);
    printf("returned %d %d\n", rvals->x, rvals->y);
    free(rvals);
    return 0;
}
```

Figure 27.2: **Waiting for Thread Completion**

Second, if we are just passing in a single value (e.g., a `long long int`), we don't have to package it up as an argument. Figure 27.3 (page 5) shows an example. In this case, life is a bit simpler, as we don't have to package arguments and return values inside of structures.

Third, we should note that one has to be extremely careful with how values are returned from a thread. Specifically, never return a pointer which refers to something allocated on the thread's call stack. If you do, what do you think will happen? (think about it!) Here is an example of a dangerous piece of code, modified from the example in Figure 27.2.

```
void *mythread(void *arg) {
    myarg_t *args = (myarg_t *) arg;
    printf("%d %d\n", args->a, args->b);
    myret_t oops; // ALLOCATED ON STACK: BAD!
    oops.x = 1;
    oops.y = 2;
    return (void *) &oops;
}
```

In this case, the variable `oops` is allocated on the stack of `mythread`. However, when it returns, the value is automatically deallocated (that's why the stack is so easy to use, after all!), and thus, passing back a pointer to a now deallocated variable will lead to all sorts of bad results. Cer-

```
void *mythread(void *arg) {
    long long int value = (long long int) arg;
    printf("%lld\n", value);
    return (void *) (value + 1);
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    pthread_t p;
    long long int rvalue;
    Pthread_create(&p, NULL, mythread, (void *) 100);
    Pthread_join(p, (void **) &rvalue);
    printf("returned %lld\n", rvalue);
    return 0;
}
```

Figure 27.3: **Simpler Argument Passing to a Thread**

tainly, when you print out the values you think you returned, you'll probably (but not necessarily!) be surprised. Try it and find out for yourself[2]!

Finally, you might notice that the use of `pthread_create()` to create a thread, followed by an immediate call to `pthread_join()`, is a pretty strange way to create a thread. In fact, there is an easier way to accomplish this exact task; it's called a **procedure call**. Clearly, we'll usually be creating more than just one thread and waiting for it to complete, otherwise there is not much purpose to using threads at all.

We should note that not all code that is multi-threaded uses the join routine. For example, a multi-threaded web server might create a number of worker threads, and then use the main thread to accept requests and pass them to the workers, indefinitely. Such long-lived programs thus may not need to join. However, a parallel program that creates threads to execute a particular task (in parallel) will likely use join to make sure all such work completes before exiting or moving onto the next stage of computation.

27.3 Locks

Beyond thread creation and join, probably the next most useful set of functions provided by the POSIX threads library are those for providing mutual exclusion to a critical section via **locks**. The most basic pair of routines to use for this purpose is provided by the following:

```
int pthread_mutex_lock(pthread_mutex_t *mutex);
int pthread_mutex_unlock(pthread_mutex_t *mutex);
```

[2] Fortunately the compiler `gcc` will likely complain when you write code like this, which is yet another reason to pay attention to compiler warnings.

The routines should be easy to understand and use. When you have a region of code that is a **critical section**, and thus needs to be protected to ensure correct operation, locks are quite useful. You can probably imagine what the code looks like:

```
pthread_mutex_t lock;
pthread_mutex_lock(&lock);
x = x + 1; // or whatever your critical section is
pthread_mutex_unlock(&lock);
```

The intent of the code is as follows: if no other thread holds the lock when `pthread_mutex_lock()` is called, the thread will acquire the lock and enter the critical section. If another thread does indeed hold the lock, the thread trying to grab the lock will not return from the call until it has acquired the lock (implying that the thread holding the lock has released it via the unlock call). Of course, many threads may be stuck waiting inside the lock acquisition function at a given time; only the thread with the lock acquired, however, should call unlock.

Unfortunately, this code is broken, in two important ways. The first problem is a **lack of proper initialization**. All locks must be properly initialized in order to guarantee that they have the correct values to begin with and thus work as desired when lock and unlock are called.

With POSIX threads, there are two ways to initialize locks. One way to do this is to use `PTHREAD_MUTEX_INITIALIZER`, as follows:

```
pthread_mutex_t lock = PTHREAD_MUTEX_INITIALIZER;
```

Doing so sets the lock to the default values and thus makes the lock usable. The dynamic way to do it (i.e., at run time) is to make a call to `pthread_mutex_init()`, as follows:

```
int rc = pthread_mutex_init(&lock, NULL);
assert(rc == 0); // always check success!
```

The first argument to this routine is the address of the lock itself, whereas the second is an optional set of attributes. Read more about the attributes yourself; passing `NULL` in simply uses the defaults. Either way works, but we usually use the dynamic (latter) method. Note that a corresponding call to `pthread_mutex_destroy()` should also be made, when you are done with the lock; see the manual page for all of the details.

The second problem with the code above is that it fails to check error codes when calling lock and unlock. Just like virtually any library routine you call in a UNIX system, these routines can also fail! If your code doesn't properly check error codes, the failure will happen silently, which in this case could allow multiple threads into a critical section. Minimally, use wrappers, which assert that the routine succeeded, as shown in Figure 27.4 (page 7); more sophisticated (non-toy) programs, which can't simply exit when something goes wrong, should check for failure and do something appropriate when a call does not succeed.

```
// Keeps code clean; only use if exit() OK upon failure
void Pthread_mutex_lock(pthread_mutex_t *mutex) {
    int rc = pthread_mutex_lock(mutex);
    assert(rc == 0);
}
```

Figure 27.4: **An Example Wrapper**

The lock and unlock routines are not the only routines within the pthreads library to interact with locks. Two other routines of interest:

```
int pthread_mutex_trylock(pthread_mutex_t *mutex);
int pthread_mutex_timedlock(pthread_mutex_t *mutex,
                            struct timespec *abs_timeout);
```

These two calls are used in lock acquisition. The `trylock` version returns failure if the lock is already held; the `timedlock` version of acquiring a lock returns after a timeout or after acquiring the lock, whichever happens first. Thus, the timedlock with a timeout of zero degenerates to the trylock case. Both of these versions should generally be avoided; however, there are a few cases where avoiding getting stuck (perhaps indefinitely) in a lock acquisition routine can be useful, as we'll see in future chapters (e.g., when we study deadlock).

27.4 Condition Variables

The other major component of any threads library, and certainly the case with POSIX threads, is the presence of a **condition variable**. Condition variables are useful when some kind of signaling must take place between threads, if one thread is waiting for another to do something before it can continue. Two primary routines are used by programs wishing to interact in this way:

```
int pthread_cond_wait(pthread_cond_t *cond,
                      pthread_mutex_t *mutex);
int pthread_cond_signal(pthread_cond_t *cond);
```

To use a condition variable, one has to in addition have a lock that is associated with this condition. When calling either of the above routines, this lock should be held.

The first routine, `pthread_cond_wait()`, puts the calling thread to sleep, and thus waits for some other thread to signal it, usually when something in the program has changed that the now-sleeping thread might care about. A typical usage looks like this:

```
pthread_mutex_t lock = PTHREAD_MUTEX_INITIALIZER;
pthread_cond_t  cond = PTHREAD_COND_INITIALIZER;

Pthread_mutex_lock(&lock);
while (ready == 0)
    Pthread_cond_wait(&cond, &lock);
Pthread_mutex_unlock(&lock);
```

In this code, after initialization of the relevant lock and condition[3], a thread checks to see if the variable `ready` has yet been set to something other than zero. If not, the thread simply calls the wait routine in order to sleep until some other thread wakes it.

The code to wake a thread, which would run in some other thread, looks like this:

```
Pthread_mutex_lock(&lock);
ready = 1;
Pthread_cond_signal(&cond);
Pthread_mutex_unlock(&lock);
```

A few things to note about this code sequence. First, when signaling (as well as when modifying the global variable `ready`), we always make sure to have the lock held. This ensures that we don't accidentally introduce a race condition into our code.

Second, you might notice that the wait call takes a lock as its second parameter, whereas the signal call only takes a condition. The reason for this difference is that the wait call, in addition to putting the calling thread to sleep, *releases* the lock when putting said caller to sleep. Imagine if it did not: how could the other thread acquire the lock and signal it to wake up? However, *before* returning after being woken, the `pthread_cond_wait()` re-acquires the lock, thus ensuring that any time the waiting thread is running between the lock acquire at the beginning of the wait sequence, and the lock release at the end, it holds the lock.

One last oddity: the waiting thread re-checks the condition in a while loop, instead of a simple if statement. We'll discuss this issue in detail when we study condition variables in a future chapter, but in general, using a while loop is the simple and safe thing to do. Although it rechecks the condition (perhaps adding a little overhead), there are some pthread implementations that could spuriously wake up a waiting thread; in such a case, without rechecking, the waiting thread will continue thinking that the condition has changed even though it has not. It is safer thus to view waking up as a hint that something might have changed, rather than an absolute fact.

Note that sometimes it is tempting to use a simple flag to signal between two threads, instead of a condition variable and associated lock. For example, we could rewrite the waiting code above to look more like this in the waiting code:

```
while (ready == 0)
    ; // spin
```

The associated signaling code would look like this:

```
ready = 1;
```

[3]One can use `pthread_cond_init()` (and `pthread_cond_destroy()`) instead of the static initializer `PTHREAD_COND_INITIALIZER`. Sound like more work? It is.

Don't ever do this, for the following reasons. First, it performs poorly in many cases (spinning for a long time just wastes CPU cycles). Second, it is error prone. As recent research shows [X+10], it is surprisingly easy to make mistakes when using flags (as above) to synchronize between threads; in that study, roughly half the uses of these *ad hoc* synchronizations were buggy! Don't be lazy; use condition variables even when you think you can get away without doing so.

If condition variables sound confusing, don't worry too much (yet) – we'll be covering them in great detail in a subsequent chapter. Until then, it should suffice to know that they exist and to have some idea how and why they are used.

27.5 Compiling and Running

All of the code examples in this chapter are relatively easy to get up and running. To compile them, you must include the header `pthread.h` in your code. On the link line, you must also explicitly link with the pthreads library, by adding the `-pthread` flag.

For example, to compile a simple multi-threaded program, all you have to do is the following:

```
prompt> gcc -o main main.c -Wall -pthread
```

As long as `main.c` includes the pthreads header, you have now successfully compiled a concurrent program. Whether it works or not, as usual, is a different matter entirely.

27.6 Summary

We have introduced the basics of the pthread library, including thread creation, building mutual exclusion via locks, and signaling and waiting via condition variables. You don't need much else to write robust and efficient multi-threaded code, except patience and a great deal of care!

We now end the chapter with a set of tips that might be useful to you when you write multi-threaded code (see the aside on the following page for details). There are other aspects of the API that are interesting; if you want more information, type `man -k pthread` on a Linux system to see over one hundred APIs that make up the entire interface. However, the basics discussed herein should enable you to build sophisticated (and hopefully, correct and performant) multi-threaded programs. The hard part with threads is not the APIs, but rather the tricky logic of how you build concurrent programs. Read on to learn more.

ASIDE: THREAD API GUIDELINES

There are a number of small but important things to remember when you use the POSIX thread library (or really, any thread library) to build a multi-threaded program. They are:

- **Keep it simple.** Above all else, any code to lock or signal between threads should be as simple as possible. Tricky thread interactions lead to bugs.
- **Minimize thread interactions.** Try to keep the number of ways in which threads interact to a minimum. Each interaction should be carefully thought out and constructed with tried and true approaches (many of which we will learn about in the coming chapters).
- **Initialize locks and condition variables.** Failure to do so will lead to code that sometimes works and sometimes fails in very strange ways.
- **Check your return codes.** Of course, in any C and UNIX programming you do, you should be checking each and every return code, and it's true here as well. Failure to do so will lead to bizarre and hard to understand behavior, making you likely to (a) scream, (b) pull some of your hair out, or (c) both.
- **Be careful with how you pass arguments to, and return values from, threads.** In particular, any time you are passing a reference to a variable allocated on the stack, you are probably doing something wrong.
- **Each thread has its own stack.** As related to the point above, please remember that each thread has its own stack. Thus, if you have a locally-allocated variable inside of some function a thread is executing, it is essentially *private* to that thread; no other thread can (easily) access it. To share data between threads, the values must be in the **heap** or otherwise some locale that is globally accessible.
- **Always use condition variables to signal between threads.** While it is often tempting to use a simple flag, don't do it.
- **Use the manual pages.** On Linux, in particular, the pthread man pages are highly informative and discuss many of the nuances presented here, often in even more detail. Read them carefully!

.

References

[B89] "An Introduction to Programming with Threads" by Andrew D. Birrell. DEC Technical Report, January, 1989. Available: https://birrell.org/andrew/papers/035-Threads.pdf *A classic but older introduction to threaded programming. Still a worthwhile read, and freely available.*

[B97] "Programming with POSIX Threads" by David R. Butenhof. Addison-Wesley, May 1997. *Another one of these books on threads.*

[B+96] "PThreads Programming: by A POSIX Standard for Better Multiprocessing. " Dick Buttlar, Jacqueline Farrell, Bradford Nichols. O'Reilly, September 1996 *A reasonable book from the excellent, practical publishing house O'Reilly. Our bookshelves certainly contain a great deal of books from this company, including some excellent offerings on Perl, Python, and Javascript (particularly Crockford's "Javascript: The Good Parts".)*

[K+96] "Programming With Threads" by Steve Kleiman, Devang Shah, Bart Smaalders. Prentice Hall, January 1996. *Probably one of the better books in this space. Get it at your local library. Or steal it from your mother. More seriously, just ask your mother for it – she'll let you borrow it, don't worry.*

[X+10] "Ad Hoc Synchronization Considered Harmful" by Weiwei Xiong, Soyeon Park, Jiaqi Zhang, Yuanyuan Zhou, Zhiqiang Ma. OSDI 2010, Vancouver, Canada. *This paper shows how seemingly simple synchronization code can lead to a surprising number of bugs. Use condition variables and do the signaling correctly!*

Homework (Code)

In this section, we'll write some simple multi-threaded programs and use a specific tool, called **helgrind**, to find problems in these programs.

Read the README in the homework download for details on how to build the programs and run `helgrind`.

Questions

1. First build `main-race.c`. Examine the code so you can see the (hopefully obvious) data race in the code. Now run `helgrind` (by typing `valgrind --tool=helgrind main-race`) to see how it reports the race. Does it point to the right lines of code? What other information does it give to you?

2. What happens when you remove one of the offending lines of code? Now add a lock around one of the updates to the shared variable, and then around both. What does `helgrind` report in each of these cases?

3. Now let's look at `main-deadlock.c`. Examine the code. This code has a problem known as **deadlock** (which we discuss in much more depth in a forthcoming chapter). Can you see what problem it might have?

4. Now run `helgrind` on this code. What does `helgrind` report?

5. Now run `helgrind` on `main-deadlock-global.c`. Examine the code; does it have the same problem that `main-deadlock.c` has? Should `helgrind` be reporting the same error? What does this tell you about tools like `helgrind`?

6. Let's next look at `main-signal.c`. This code uses a variable (`done`) to signal that the child is done and that the parent can now continue. Why is this code inefficient? (what does the parent end up spending its time doing, particularly if the child thread takes a long time to complete?)

7. Now run `helgrind` on this program. What does it report? Is the code correct?

8. Now look at a slightly modified version of the code, which is found in `main-signal-cv.c`. This version uses a condition variable to do the signaling (and associated lock). Why is this code preferred to the previous version? Is it correctness, or performance, or both?

9. Once again run `helgrind` on `main-signal-cv`. Does it report any errors?

28

Locks

From the introduction to concurrency, we saw one of the fundamental problems in concurrent programming: we would like to execute a series of instructions atomically, but due to the presence of interrupts on a single processor (or multiple threads executing on multiple processors concurrently), we couldn't. In this chapter, we thus attack this problem directly, with the introduction of something referred to as a **lock**. Programmers annotate source code with locks, putting them around critical sections, and thus ensure that any such critical section executes as if it were a single atomic instruction.

28.1 Locks: The Basic Idea

As an example, assume our critical section looks like this, the canonical update of a shared variable:

```
balance = balance + 1;
```

Of course, other critical sections are possible, such as adding an element to a linked list or other more complex updates to shared structures, but we'll just keep to this simple example for now. To use a lock, we add some code around the critical section like this:

```
lock_t mutex; // some globally-allocated lock 'mutex'
...
lock(&mutex);
balance = balance + 1;
unlock(&mutex);
```

A lock is just a variable, and thus to use one, you must declare a **lock variable** of some kind (such as `mutex` above). This lock variable (or just "lock" for short) holds the state of the lock at any instant in time. It is either **available** (or **unlocked** or **free**) and thus no thread holds the lock, or **acquired** (or **locked** or **held**), and thus exactly one thread holds the lock and presumably is in a critical section. We could store other information in the data type as well, such as which thread holds the lock, or a queue for ordering lock acquisition, but information like that is hidden from the user of the lock.

The semantics of the `lock()` and `unlock()` routines are simple. Calling the routine `lock()` tries to acquire the lock; if no other thread holds the lock (i.e., it is free), the thread will acquire the lock and enter the critical section; this thread is sometimes said to be the **owner** of the lock. If another thread then calls `lock()` on that same lock variable (`mutex` in this example), it will not return while the lock is held by another thread; in this way, other threads are prevented from entering the critical section while the first thread that holds the lock is in there.

Once the owner of the lock calls `unlock()`, the lock is now available (free) again. If no other threads are waiting for the lock (i.e., no other thread has called `lock()` and is stuck therein), the state of the lock is simply changed to free. If there are waiting threads (stuck in `lock()`), one of them will (eventually) notice (or be informed of) this change of the lock's state, acquire the lock, and enter the critical section.

Locks provide some minimal amount of control over scheduling to programmers. In general, we view threads as entities created by the programmer but scheduled by the OS, in any fashion that the OS chooses. Locks yield some of that control back to the programmer; by putting a lock around a section of code, the programmer can guarantee that no more than a single thread can ever be active within that code. Thus locks help transform the chaos that is traditional OS scheduling into a more controlled activity.

28.2 Pthread Locks

The name that the POSIX library uses for a lock is a **mutex**, as it is used to provide **mutual exclusion** between threads, i.e., if one thread is in the critical section, it excludes the others from entering until it has completed the section. Thus, when you see the following POSIX threads code, you should understand that it is doing the same thing as above (we again use our wrappers that check for errors upon lock and unlock):

```
pthread_mutex_t lock = PTHREAD_MUTEX_INITIALIZER;

Pthread_mutex_lock(&lock); // wrapper; exits on failure
balance = balance + 1;
Pthread_mutex_unlock(&lock);
```

You might also notice here that the POSIX version passes a variable to lock and unlock, as we may be using *different* locks to protect different variables. Doing so can increase concurrency: instead of one big lock that is used any time any critical section is accessed (a **coarse-grained** locking strategy), one will often protect different data and data structures with different locks, thus allowing more threads to be in locked code at once (a more **fine-grained** approach).

28.3 Building A Lock

By now, you should have some understanding of how a lock works, from the perspective of a programmer. But how should we build a lock? What hardware support is needed? What OS support? It is this set of questions we address in the rest of this chapter.

> THE CRUX: HOW TO BUILD A LOCK
> How can we build an efficient lock? Efficient locks provide mutual exclusion at low cost, and also might attain a few other properties we discuss below. What hardware support is needed? What OS support?

To build a working lock, we will need some help from our old friend, the hardware, as well as our good pal, the OS. Over the years, a number of different hardware primitives have been added to the instruction sets of various computer architectures; while we won't study how these instructions are implemented (that, after all, is the topic of a computer architecture class), we will study how to use them in order to build a mutual exclusion primitive like a lock. We will also study how the OS gets involved to complete the picture and enable us to build a sophisticated locking library.

28.4 Evaluating Locks

Before building any locks, we should first understand what our goals are, and thus we ask how to evaluate the efficacy of a particular lock implementation. To evaluate whether a lock works (and works well), we should establish some basic criteria. The first is whether the lock does its basic task, which is to provide **mutual exclusion**. Basically, does the lock work, preventing multiple threads from entering a critical section?

The second is **fairness**. Does each thread contending for the lock get a fair shot at acquiring it once it is free? Another way to look at this is by examining the more extreme case: does any thread contending for the lock **starve** while doing so, thus never obtaining it?

The final criterion is **performance**, specifically the time overheads added by using the lock. There are a few different cases that are worth considering here. One is the case of no contention; when a single thread is running and grabs and releases the lock, what is the overhead of doing so? Another is the case where multiple threads are contending for the lock on a single CPU; in this case, are there performance concerns? Finally, how does the lock perform when there are multiple CPUs involved, and threads on each contending for the lock? By comparing these different scenarios, we can better understand the performance impact of using various locking techniques, as described below.

28.5 Controlling Interrupts

One of the earliest solutions used to provide mutual exclusion was to disable interrupts for critical sections; this solution was invented for single-processor systems. The code would look like this:

```
void lock() {
    DisableInterrupts();
}
void unlock() {
    EnableInterrupts();
}
```

Assume we are running on such a single-processor system. By turning off interrupts (using some kind of special hardware instruction) before entering a critical section, we ensure that the code inside the critical section will *not* be interrupted, and thus will execute as if it were atomic. When we are finished, we re-enable interrupts (again, via a hardware instruction) and thus the program proceeds as usual.

The main positive of this approach is its simplicity. You certainly don't have to scratch your head too hard to figure out why this works. Without interruption, a thread can be sure that the code it executes will execute and that no other thread will interfere with it.

The negatives, unfortunately, are many. First, this approach requires us to allow any calling thread to perform a *privileged* operation (turning interrupts on and off), and thus *trust* that this facility is not abused. As you already know, any time we are required to trust an arbitrary program, we are probably in trouble. Here, the trouble manifests in numerous ways: a greedy program could call `lock()` at the beginning of its execution and thus monopolize the processor; worse, an errant or malicious program could call `lock()` and go into an endless loop. In this latter case, the OS never regains control of the system, and there is only one recourse: restart the system. Using interrupt disabling as a general-purpose synchronization solution requires too much trust in applications.

Second, the approach does not work on multiprocessors. If multiple threads are running on different CPUs, and each try to enter the same critical section, it does not matter whether interrupts are disabled; threads will be able to run on other processors, and thus could enter the critical section. As multiprocessors are now commonplace, our general solution will have to do better than this.

Third, turning off interrupts for extended periods of time can lead to interrupts becoming lost, which can lead to serious systems problems. Imagine, for example, if the CPU missed the fact that a disk device has finished a read request. How will the OS know to wake the process waiting for said read?

```
typedef struct __lock_t { int flag; } lock_t;

void init(lock_t *mutex) {
    // 0 -> lock is available, 1 -> held
    mutex->flag = 0;
}

void lock(lock_t *mutex) {
    while (mutex->flag == 1)  // TEST the flag
        ; // spin-wait (do nothing)
    mutex->flag = 1;          // now SET it!
}

void unlock(lock_t *mutex) {
    mutex->flag = 0;
}
```

Figure 28.1: **First Attempt: A Simple Flag**

For these reasons, turning off interrupts is only used in limited contexts as a mutual-exclusion primitive. For example, in some cases an operating system itself will use interrupt masking to guarantee atomicity when accessing its own data structures, or at least to prevent certain messy interrupt handling situations from arising. This usage makes sense, as the trust issue disappears inside the OS, which always trusts itself to perform privileged operations anyhow.

28.6 A Failed Attempt: Just Using Loads/Stores

To move beyond interrupt-based techniques, we will have to rely on CPU hardware and the instructions it provides us to build a proper lock. Let's first try to build a simple lock by using a single flag variable. In this failed attempt, we'll see some of the basic ideas needed to build a lock, and (hopefully) see why just using a single variable and accessing it via normal loads and stores is insufficient.

In this first attempt (Figure 28.1), the idea is quite simple: use a simple variable (`flag`) to indicate whether some thread has possession of a lock. The first thread that enters the critical section will call `lock()`, which **tests** whether the flag is equal to 1 (in this case, it is not), and then **sets** the flag to 1 to indicate that the thread now **holds** the lock. When finished with the critical section, the thread calls `unlock()` and clears the flag, thus indicating that the lock is no longer held.

If another thread happens to call `lock()` while that first thread is in the critical section, it will simply **spin-wait** in the while loop for that thread to call `unlock()` and clear the flag. Once that first thread does so, the waiting thread will fall out of the while loop, set the flag to 1 for itself, and proceed into the critical section.

Unfortunately, the code has two problems: one of correctness, and an-

Thread 1	**Thread 2**
call `lock()`	
while (flag == 1)	
interrupt: switch to Thread 2	
	call `lock()`
	while (flag == 1)
	flag = 1;
	interrupt: switch to Thread 1
flag = 1; // set flag to 1 (too!)	

Figure 28.2: **Trace: No Mutual Exclusion**

other of performance. The correctness problem is simple to see once you get used to thinking about concurrent programming. Imagine the code interleaving in Figure 28.2; assume `flag=0` to begin.

As you can see from this interleaving, with timely (untimely?) interrupts, we can easily produce a case where *both* threads set the flag to 1 and both threads are thus able to enter the critical section. This behavior is what professionals call "bad" – we have obviously failed to provide the most basic requirement: providing mutual exclusion.

The performance problem, which we will address more later on, is the fact that the way a thread waits to acquire a lock that is already held: it endlessly checks the value of flag, a technique known as **spin-waiting**. Spin-waiting wastes time waiting for another thread to release a lock. The waste is exceptionally high on a uniprocessor, where the thread that the waiter is waiting for cannot even run (at least, until a context switch occurs)! Thus, as we move forward and develop more sophisticated solutions, we should also consider ways to avoid this kind of waste.

28.7 Building Working Spin Locks with Test-And-Set

Because disabling interrupts does not work on multiple processors, and because simple approaches using loads and stores (as shown above) don't work, system designers started to invent hardware support for locking. The earliest multiprocessor systems, such as the Burroughs B5000 in the early 1960's [M82], had such support; today all systems provide this type of support, even for single CPU systems.

The simplest bit of hardware support to understand is known as a **test-and-set** (or **atomic exchange**[1]) instruction. We define what the test-and-set instruction does via the following C code snippet:

```
int TestAndSet(int *old_ptr, int new) {
    int old = *old_ptr; // fetch old value at old_ptr
    *old_ptr = new;     // store 'new' into old_ptr
    return old;         // return the old value
}
```

[1] Each architecture that supports test-and-set calls it by a different name. On SPARC it is called the load/store unsigned byte instruction (`ldstub`); on x86 it is the locked version of the atomic exchange (`xchg`).

ASIDE: DEKKER'S AND PETERSON'S ALGORITHMS

In the 1960's, Dijkstra posed the concurrency problem to his friends, and one of them, a mathematician named Theodorus Jozef Dekker, came up with a solution [D68]. Unlike the solutions we discuss here, which use special hardware instructions and even OS support, **Dekker's algorithm** uses just loads and stores (assuming they are atomic with respect to each other, which was true on early hardware).

Dekker's approach was later refined by Peterson [P81]. Once again, just loads and stores are used, and the idea is to ensure that two threads never enter a critical section at the same time. Here is **Peterson's algorithm** (for two threads); see if you can understand the code. What are the `flag` and `turn` variables used for?

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

void init() {
    // indicate you intend to hold the lock w/ 'flag'
    flag[0] = flag[1] = 0;
    // whose turn is it? (thread 0 or 1)
    turn = 0;
}
void lock() {
    // 'self' is the thread ID of caller
    flag[self] = 1;
    // make it other thread's turn
    turn = 1 - self;
    while ((flag[1-self] == 1) && (turn == 1 - self))
        ; // spin-wait while it's not your turn
}
void unlock() {
    // simply undo your intent
    flag[self] = 0;
}
```

For some reason, developing locks that work without special hardware support became all the rage for a while, giving theory-types a lot of problems to work on. Of course, this line of work became quite useless when people realized it is much easier to assume a little hardware support (and indeed that support had been around from the earliest days of multiprocessing). Further, algorithms like the ones above don't work on modern hardware (due to relaxed memory consistency models), thus making them even less useful than they were before. Yet more research relegated to the dustbin of history...

```
typedef struct __lock_t {
    int flag;
} lock_t;

void init(lock_t *lock) {
    // 0: lock is available, 1: lock is held
    lock->flag = 0;
}

void lock(lock_t *lock) {
    while (TestAndSet(&lock->flag, 1) == 1)
        ; // spin-wait (do nothing)
}

void unlock(lock_t *lock) {
    lock->flag = 0;
}
```

Figure 28.3: **A Simple Spin Lock Using Test-and-set**

What the test-and-set instruction does is as follows. It returns the old value pointed to by the old_ptr, and simultaneously updates said value to new. The key, of course, is that this sequence of operations is performed **atomically**. The reason it is called "test and set" is that it enables you to "test" the old value (which is what is returned) while simultaneously "setting" the memory location to a new value; as it turns out, this slightly more powerful instruction is enough to build a simple **spin lock**, as we now examine in Figure 28.3. Or better yet: figure it out first yourself!

Let's make sure we understand why this lock works. Imagine first the case where a thread calls lock() and no other thread currently holds the lock; thus, flag should be 0. When the thread calls TestAndSet(flag, 1), the routine will return the old value of flag, which is 0; thus, the calling thread, which is *testing* the value of flag, will not get caught spinning in the while loop and will acquire the lock. The thread will also atomically *set* the value to 1, thus indicating that the lock is now held. When the thread is finished with its critical section, it calls unlock() to set the flag back to zero.

The second case we can imagine arises when one thread already has the lock held (i.e., flag is 1). In this case, this thread will call lock() and then call TestAndSet(flag, 1) as well. This time, TestAndSet() will return the old value at flag, which is 1 (because the lock is held), while simultaneously setting it to 1 again. As long as the lock is held by another thread, TestAndSet() will repeatedly return 1, and thus this thread will spin and spin until the lock is finally released. When the flag is finally set to 0 by some other thread, this thread will call TestAndSet() again, which will now return 0 while atomically setting the value to 1 and thus acquire the lock and enter the critical section.

By making both the **test** (of the old lock value) and **set** (of the new

> TIP: THINK ABOUT CONCURRENCY AS A MALICIOUS SCHEDULER
> From this example, you might get a sense of the approach you need to take to understand concurrent execution. What you should try to do is to pretend you are a **malicious scheduler**, one that interrupts threads at the most inopportune of times in order to foil their feeble attempts at building synchronization primitives. What a mean scheduler you are! Although the exact sequence of interrupts may be *improbable*, it is *possible*, and that is all we need to demonstrate that a particular approach does not work. It can be useful to think maliciously! (at least, sometimes)

value) a single atomic operation, we ensure that only one thread acquires the lock. And that's how to build a working mutual exclusion primitive!

You may also now understand why this type of lock is usually referred to as a **spin lock**. It is the simplest type of lock to build, and simply spins, using CPU cycles, until the lock becomes available. To work correctly on a single processor, it requires a **preemptive scheduler** (i.e., one that will interrupt a thread via a timer, in order to run a different thread, from time to time). Without preemption, spin locks don't make much sense on a single CPU, as a thread spinning on a CPU will never relinquish it.

28.8 Evaluating Spin Locks

Given our basic spin lock, we can now evaluate how effective it is along our previously described axes. The most important aspect of a lock is **correctness**: does it provide mutual exclusion? The answer here is yes: the spin lock only allows a single thread to enter the critical section at a time. Thus, we have a correct lock.

The next axis is **fairness**. How fair is a spin lock to a waiting thread? Can you guarantee that a waiting thread will ever enter the critical section? The answer here, unfortunately, is bad news: spin locks don't provide any fairness guarantees. Indeed, a thread spinning may spin forever, under contention. Simple spin locks (as discussed thus far) are not fair and may lead to starvation.

The final axis is **performance**. What are the costs of using a spin lock? To analyze this more carefully, we suggest thinking about a few different cases. In the first, imagine threads competing for the lock on a single processor; in the second, consider threads spread out across many CPUs.

For spin locks, in the single CPU case, performance overheads can be quite painful; imagine the case where the thread holding the lock is preempted within a critical section. The scheduler might then run every other thread (imagine there are $N - 1$ others), each of which tries to acquire the lock. In this case, each of those threads will spin for the duration of a time slice before giving up the CPU, a waste of CPU cycles.

However, on multiple CPUs, spin locks work reasonably well (if the number of threads roughly equals the number of CPUs). The thinking

```
int CompareAndSwap(int *ptr, int expected, int new) {
    int original = *ptr;
    if (original == expected)
        *ptr = new;
    return original;
}
```

Figure 28.4: **Compare-and-swap**

goes as follows: imagine Thread A on CPU 1 and Thread B on CPU 2, both contending for a lock. If Thread A (CPU 1) grabs the lock, and then Thread B tries to, B will spin (on CPU 2). However, presumably the critical section is short, and thus soon the lock becomes available, and is acquired by Thread B. Spinning to wait for a lock held on another processor doesn't waste many cycles in this case, and thus can be effective.

28.9 Compare-And-Swap

Another hardware primitive that some systems provide is known as the **compare-and-swap** instruction (as it is called on SPARC, for example), or **compare-and-exchange** (as it called on x86). The C pseudocode for this single instruction is found in Figure 28.4.

The basic idea is for compare-and-swap to test whether the value at the address specified by `ptr` is equal to `expected`; if so, update the memory location pointed to by `ptr` with the new value. If not, do nothing. In either case, return the original value at that memory location, thus allowing the code calling compare-and-swap to know whether it succeeded or not.

With the compare-and-swap instruction, we can build a lock in a manner quite similar to that with test-and-set. For example, we could just replace the `lock()` routine above with the following:

```
void lock(lock_t *lock) {
    while (CompareAndSwap(&lock->flag, 0, 1) == 1)
        ; // spin
}
```

The rest of the code is the same as the test-and-set example above. This code works quite similarly; it simply checks if the flag is 0 and if so, atomically swaps in a 1 thus acquiring the lock. Threads that try to acquire the lock while it is held will get stuck spinning until the lock is finally released.

If you want to see how to really make a C-callable x86-version of compare-and-swap, the code sequence (from [S05]) might be useful[2].

Finally, as you may have sensed, compare-and-swap is a more powerful instruction than test-and-set. We will make some use of this power in

[2] `github.com/remzi-arpacidusseau/ostep-code/tree/master/threads-locks`

the future when we briefly delve into topics such as **lock-free synchronization** [H91]. However, if we just build a simple spin lock with it, its behavior is identical to the spin lock we analyzed above.

28.10 Load-Linked and Store-Conditional

Some platforms provide a pair of instructions that work in concert to help build critical sections. On the MIPS architecture [H93], for example, the **load-linked** and **store-conditional** instructions can be used in tandem to build locks and other concurrent structures. The C pseudocode for these instructions is as found in Figure 28.5. Alpha, PowerPC, and ARM provide similar instructions [W09].

The load-linked operates much like a typical load instruction, and simply fetches a value from memory and places it in a register. The key difference comes with the store-conditional, which only succeeds (and updates the value stored at the address just load-linked from) if no intervening store to the address has taken place. In the case of success, the store-conditional returns 1 and updates the value at `ptr` to `value`; if it fails, the value at `ptr` is *not* updated and 0 is returned.

As a challenge to yourself, try thinking about how to build a lock using load-linked and store-conditional. Then, when you are finished, look at the code below which provides one simple solution. Do it! The solution is in Figure 28.6.

The `lock()` code is the only interesting piece. First, a thread spins waiting for the flag to be set to 0 (and thus indicate the lock is not held). Once so, the thread tries to acquire the lock via the store-conditional; if it succeeds, the thread has atomically changed the flag's value to 1 and thus can proceed into the critical section.

Note how failure of the store-conditional might arise. One thread calls `lock()` and executes the load-linked, returning 0 as the lock is not held. Before it can attempt the store-conditional, it is interrupted and another thread enters the lock code, also executing the load-linked instruction,

```
int LoadLinked(int *ptr) {
    return *ptr;
}

int StoreConditional(int *ptr, int value) {
    if (no update to *ptr since LL to this addr) {
        *ptr = value;
        return 1; // success!
    } else {
        return 0; // failed to update
    }
}
```

Figure 28.5: **Load-linked And Store-conditional**

```
void lock(lock_t *lock) {
    while (1) {
        while (LoadLinked(&lock->flag) == 1)
            ; // spin until it's zero
        if (StoreConditional(&lock->flag, 1) == 1)
            return; // if set-to-1 was success: done
                    // otherwise: try again
    }
}

void unlock(lock_t *lock) {
    lock->flag = 0;
}
```

Figure 28.6: **Using LL/SC To Build A Lock**

and also getting a 0 and continuing. At this point, two threads have each executed the load-linked and each are about to attempt the store-conditional. The key feature of these instructions is that only one of these threads will succeed in updating the flag to 1 and thus acquire the lock; the second thread to attempt the store-conditional will fail (because the other thread updated the value of flag between its load-linked and store-conditional) and thus have to try to acquire the lock again.

In class a few years ago, undergraduate student David Capel suggested a more concise form of the above, for those of you who enjoy short-circuiting boolean conditionals. See if you can figure out why it is equivalent. It certainly is shorter!

```
void lock(lock_t *lock) {
    while (LoadLinked(&lock->flag) ||
           !StoreConditional(&lock->flag, 1))
        ; // spin
}
```

28.11 Fetch-And-Add

One final hardware primitive is the **fetch-and-add** instruction, which atomically increments a value while returning the old value at a particular address. The C pseudocode for the fetch-and-add instruction looks like this:

```
int FetchAndAdd(int *ptr) {
    int old = *ptr;
    *ptr = old + 1;
    return old;
}
```

TIP: LESS CODE IS BETTER CODE (LAUER'S LAW)

Programmers tend to brag about how much code they wrote to do something. Doing so is fundamentally broken. What one should brag about, rather, is how *little* code one wrote to accomplish a given task. Short, concise code is always preferred; it is likely easier to understand and has fewer bugs. As Hugh Lauer said, when discussing the construction of the Pilot operating system: "If the same people had twice as much time, they could produce as good of a system in half the code." [L81] We'll call this **Lauer's Law**, and it is well worth remembering. So next time you're bragging about how much code you wrote to finish the assignment, think again, or better yet, go back, rewrite, and make the code as clear and concise as possible.

In this example, we'll use fetch-and-add to build a more interesting **ticket lock**, as introduced by Mellor-Crummey and Scott [MS91]. The lock and unlock code is found in Figure 28.7 (page 14).

Instead of a single value, this solution uses a ticket and turn variable in combination to build a lock. The basic operation is pretty simple: when a thread wishes to acquire a lock, it first does an atomic fetch-and-add on the ticket value; that value is now considered this thread's "turn" (`myturn`). The globally shared `lock->turn` is then used to determine which thread's turn it is; when `(myturn == turn)` for a given thread, it is that thread's turn to enter the critical section. Unlock is accomplished simply by incrementing the turn such that the next waiting thread (if there is one) can now enter the critical section.

Note one important difference with this solution versus our previous attempts: it ensures progress for all threads. Once a thread is assigned its ticket value, it will be scheduled at some point in the future (once those in front of it have passed through the critical section and released the lock). In our previous attempts, no such guarantee existed; a thread spinning on test-and-set (for example) could spin forever even as other threads acquire and release the lock.

28.12 Too Much Spinning: What Now?

Our hardware-based locks are simple (only a few lines of code) and they work (you could even prove that if you'd like to, by writing some code), which are two excellent properties of any system or code. However, in some cases, these solutions can be quite inefficient. Imagine you are running two threads on a single processor. Now imagine that one thread (thread 0) is in a critical section and thus has a lock held, and unfortunately gets interrupted. The second thread (thread 1) now tries to acquire the lock, but finds that it is held. Thus, it begins to spin. And spin. Then it spins some more. And finally, a timer interrupt goes off, thread 0 is run again, which releases the lock, and finally (the next time

```
typedef struct __lock_t {
    int ticket;
    int turn;
} lock_t;

void lock_init(lock_t *lock) {
    lock->ticket = 0;
    lock->turn   = 0;
}

void lock(lock_t *lock) {
    int myturn = FetchAndAdd(&lock->ticket);
    while (lock->turn != myturn)
        ; // spin
 }

void unlock(lock_t *lock) {
    lock->turn = lock->turn + 1;
}
```

Figure 28.7: **Ticket Locks**

it runs, say), thread 1 won't have to spin so much and will be able to acquire the lock. Thus, any time a thread gets caught spinning in a situation like this, it wastes an entire time slice doing nothing but checking a value that isn't going to change! The problem gets worse with N threads contending for a lock; $N - 1$ time slices may be wasted in a similar manner, simply spinning and waiting for a single thread to release the lock. And thus, our next problem:

THE CRUX: HOW TO AVOID SPINNING

How can we develop a lock that doesn't needlessly waste time spinning on the CPU?

Hardware support alone cannot solve the problem. We'll need OS support too! Let's now figure out just how that might work.

28.13 A Simple Approach: Just Yield, Baby

Hardware support got us pretty far: working locks, and even (as with the case of the ticket lock) fairness in lock acquisition. However, we still have a problem: what to do when a context switch occurs in a critical section, and threads start to spin endlessly, waiting for the interrupted (lock-holding) thread to be run again?

Our first try is a simple and friendly approach: when you are going to spin, instead give up the CPU to another thread. As Al Davis might say, "just yield, baby!" [D91]. Figure 28.8 (page 15) shows the approach.

```
void init() {
    flag = 0;
}

void lock() {
    while (TestAndSet(&flag, 1) == 1)
        yield(); // give up the CPU
}

void unlock() {
    flag = 0;
}
```

Figure 28.8: **Lock With Test-and-set And Yield**

In this approach, we assume an operating system primitive `yield()` which a thread can call when it wants to give up the CPU and let another thread run. A thread can be in one of three states (running, ready, or blocked); yield is simply a system call that moves the caller from the **running** state to the **ready** state, and thus promotes another thread to running. Thus, the yielding thread essentially **deschedules** itself.

Think about the example with two threads on one CPU; in this case, our yield-based approach works quite well. If a thread happens to call `lock()` and find a lock held, it will simply yield the CPU, and thus the other thread will run and finish its critical section. In this simple case, the yielding approach works well.

Let us now consider the case where there are many threads (say 100) contending for a lock repeatedly. In this case, if one thread acquires the lock and is preempted before releasing it, the other 99 will each call `lock()`, find the lock held, and yield the CPU. Assuming some kind of round-robin scheduler, each of the 99 will execute this run-and-yield pattern before the thread holding the lock gets to run again. While better than our spinning approach (which would waste 99 time slices spinning), this approach is still costly; the cost of a context switch can be substantial, and there is thus plenty of waste.

Worse, this approach does not address starvation. A thread may get caught in an endless yield loop while other threads repeatedly enter and exit the critical section. We clearly will need an approach that addresses starvation directly.

28.14 Using Queues: Sleeping Instead Of Spinning

The real problem with some previous approaches (other than the ticket lock) is that they leave too much to chance. The scheduler determines which thread runs next; if the scheduler makes a bad choice, a thread that runs must either spin waiting for the lock (our first approach), or yield the CPU immediately (our second approach). Either way, there is potential for waste and no prevention of starvation.

```
typedef struct __lock_t {
    int flag;
    int guard;
    queue_t *q;
} lock_t;

void lock_init(lock_t *m) {
    m->flag  = 0;
    m->guard = 0;
    queue_init(m->q);
}

void lock(lock_t *m) {
    while (TestAndSet(&m->guard, 1) == 1)
        ; //acquire guard lock by spinning
    if (m->flag == 0) {
        m->flag = 1; // lock is acquired
        m->guard = 0;
    } else {
        queue_add(m->q, gettid());
        m->guard = 0;
        park();
    }
}

void unlock(lock_t *m) {
    while (TestAndSet(&m->guard, 1) == 1)
        ; //acquire guard lock by spinning
    if (queue_empty(m->q))
        m->flag = 0; // let go of lock; no one wants it
    else
        unpark(queue_remove(m->q)); // hold lock
                                    // (for next thread!)
    m->guard = 0;
}
```

Figure 28.9: **Lock With Queues, Test-and-set, Yield, And Wakeup**

Thus, we must explicitly exert some control over which thread next gets to acquire the lock after the current holder releases it. To do this, we will need a little more OS support, as well as a queue to keep track of which threads are waiting to acquire the lock.

For simplicity, we will use the support provided by Solaris, in terms of two calls: `park()` to put a calling thread to sleep, and `unpark(threadID)` to wake a particular thread as designated by `threadID`. These two routines can be used in tandem to build a lock that puts a caller to sleep if it tries to acquire a held lock and wakes it when the lock is free. Let's look at the code in Figure 28.9 to understand one possible use of such primitives.

ASIDE: MORE REASON TO AVOID SPINNING: PRIORITY INVERSION

One good reason to avoid spin locks is performance: as described in the main text, if a thread is interrupted while holding a lock, other threads that use spin locks will spend a large amount of CPU time just waiting for the lock to become available. However, it turns out there is another interesting reason to avoid spin locks on some systems: correctness. The problem to be wary of is known as **priority inversion**, which unfortunately is an intergalactic scourge, occurring on Earth [M15] and Mars [R97]!

Let's assume there are two threads in a system. Thread 2 (T2) has a high scheduling priority, and Thread 1 (T1) has lower priority. In this example, let's assume that the CPU scheduler will always run T2 over T1, if indeed both are runnable; T1 only runs when T2 is not able to do so (e.g., when T2 is blocked on I/O).

Now, the problem. Assume T2 is blocked for some reason. So T1 runs, grabs a spin lock, and enters a critical section. T2 now becomes unblocked (perhaps because an I/O completed), and the CPU scheduler immediately schedules it (thus descheduling T1). T2 now tries to acquire the lock, and because it can't (T1 holds the lock), it just keeps spinning. Because the lock is a spin lock, T2 spins forever, and the system is hung.

Just avoiding the use of spin locks, unfortunately, does not avoid the problem of inversion (alas). Imagine three threads, T1, T2, and T3, with T3 at the highest priority, and T1 the lowest. Imagine now that T1 grabs a lock. T3 then starts, and because it is higher priority than T1, runs immediately (preempting T1). T3 tries to acquire the lock that T1 holds, but gets stuck waiting, because T1 still holds it. If T2 starts to run, it will have higher priority than T1, and thus it will run. T3, which is higher priority than T2, is stuck waiting for T1, which may never run now that T2 is running. Isn't it sad that the mighty T3 can't run, while lowly T2 controls the CPU? Having high priority just ain't what it used to be.

You can address the priority inversion problem in a number of ways. In the specific case where spin locks cause the problem, you can avoid using spin locks (described more below). More generally, a higher-priority thread waiting for a lower-priority thread can temporarily boost the lower thread's priority, thus enabling it to run and overcoming the inversion, a technique known as **priority inheritance**. A last solution is simplest: ensure all threads have the same priority.

We do a couple of interesting things in this example. First, we combine the old test-and-set idea with an explicit queue of lock waiters to make a more efficient lock. Second, we use a queue to help control who gets the lock next and thus avoid starvation.

You might notice how the guard is used (Figure 28.9, page 16), basically as a spin-lock around the flag and queue manipulations the lock is using. This approach thus doesn't avoid spin-waiting entirely; a thread might be interrupted while acquiring or releasing the lock, and thus cause other threads to spin-wait for this one to run again. However, the time spent spinning is quite limited (just a few instructions inside the lock and unlock code, instead of the user-defined critical section), and thus this approach may be reasonable.

You might also observe that in `lock()`, when a thread can not acquire the lock (it is already held), we are careful to add ourselves to a queue (by calling the `gettid()` function to get the thread ID of the current thread), set guard to 0, and yield the CPU. A question for the reader: What would happen if the release of the guard lock came *after* the `park()`, and not before? Hint: something bad.

You might further detect that the flag does not get set back to 0 when another thread gets woken up. Why is this? Well, it is not an error, but rather a necessity! When a thread is woken up, it will be as if it is returning from `park()`; however, it does not hold the guard at that point in the code and thus cannot even try to set the flag to 1. Thus, we just pass the lock directly from the thread releasing the lock to the next thread acquiring it; flag is not set to 0 in-between.

Finally, you might notice the perceived race condition in the solution, just before the call to `park()`. With just the wrong timing, a thread will be about to park, assuming that it should sleep until the lock is no longer held. A switch at that time to another thread (say, a thread holding the lock) could lead to trouble, for example, if that thread then released the lock. The subsequent park by the first thread would then sleep forever (potentially), a problem sometimes called the **wakeup/waiting race**.

Solaris solves this problem by adding a third system call: `setpark()`. By calling this routine, a thread can indicate it is *about to* park. If it then happens to be interrupted and another thread calls unpark before park is actually called, the subsequent park returns immediately instead of sleeping. The code modification, inside of `lock()`, is quite small:

```
    queue_add(m->q, gettid());
    setpark(); // new code
    m->guard = 0;
```

A different solution could pass the guard into the kernel. In that case, the kernel could take precautions to atomically release the lock and dequeue the running thread.

28.15 Different OS, Different Support

We have thus far seen one type of support that an OS can provide in order to build a more efficient lock in a thread library. Other OS's provide similar support; the details vary.

For example, Linux provides a **futex** which is similar to the Solaris interface but provides more in-kernel functionality. Specifically, each futex has associated with it a specific physical memory location, as well as a

```
void mutex_lock (int *mutex) {
  int v;
  // Bit 31 was clear, we got the mutex (fastpath)
  if (atomic_bit_test_set (mutex, 31) == 0)
    return;
  atomic_increment (mutex);
  while (1) {
      if (atomic_bit_test_set (mutex, 31) == 0) {
          atomic_decrement (mutex);
          return;
      }
      // Have to waitFirst to make sure futex value
      // we are monitoring is negative (locked).
      v = *mutex;
      if (v >= 0)
        continue;
      futex_wait (mutex, v);
  }
}

void mutex_unlock (int *mutex) {
  // Adding 0x80000000 to counter results in 0 if and
  // only if there are not other interested threads
  if (atomic_add_zero (mutex, 0x80000000))
    return;

  // There are other threads waiting for this mutex,
  // wake one of them up.
  futex_wake (mutex);
}
```

Figure 28.10: **Linux-based Futex Locks**

per-futex in-kernel queue. Callers can use futex calls (described below) to sleep and wake as need be.

Specifically, two calls are available. The call to `futex_wait(address, expected)` puts the calling thread to sleep, assuming the value at the address `address` is equal to `expected`. If it is *not* equal, the call returns immediately. The call to the routine `futex_wake(address)` wakes one thread that is waiting on the queue. The usage of these calls in a Linux mutex is shown in Figure 28.10 (page 19).

This code snippet from `lowlevellock.h` in the nptl library (part of the gnu libc library) [L09] is interesting for a few reasons. First, it uses a single integer to track both whether the lock is held or not (the high bit of the integer) and the number of waiters on the lock (all the other bits). Thus, if the lock is negative, it is held (because the high bit is set and that bit determines the sign of the integer).

Second, the code snippet shows how to optimize for the common case, specifically when there is no contention for the lock; with only one thread acquiring and releasing a lock, very little work is done (the atomic bit test-and-set to lock and an atomic add to release the lock).

See if you can puzzle through the rest of this "real-world" lock to understand how it works. Do it and become a master of Linux locking, or at least somebody who listens when a book tells you to do something [3].

28.16 Two-Phase Locks

One final note: the Linux approach has the flavor of an old approach that has been used on and off for years, going at least as far back to Dahm Locks in the early 1960's [M82], and is now referred to as a **two-phase lock**. A two-phase lock realizes that spinning can be useful, particularly if the lock is about to be released. So in the first phase, the lock spins for a while, hoping that it can acquire the lock.

However, if the lock is not acquired during the first spin phase, a second phase is entered, where the caller is put to sleep, and only woken up when the lock becomes free later. The Linux lock above is a form of such a lock, but it only spins once; a generalization of this could spin in a loop for a fixed amount of time before using **futex** support to sleep.

Two-phase locks are yet another instance of a **hybrid** approach, where combining two good ideas may indeed yield a better one. Of course, whether it does depends strongly on many things, including the hardware environment, number of threads, and other workload details. As always, making a single general-purpose lock, good for all possible use cases, is quite a challenge.

28.17 Summary

The above approach shows how real locks are built these days: some hardware support (in the form of a more powerful instruction) plus some operating system support (e.g., in the form of `park()` and `unpark()` primitives on Solaris, or **futex** on Linux). Of course, the details differ, and the exact code to perform such locking is usually highly tuned. Check out the Solaris or Linux code bases if you want to see more details; they are a fascinating read [L09, S09]. Also see David et al.'s excellent work for a comparison of locking strategies on modern multiprocessors [D+13].

[3] Like buy a print copy of OSTEP! Even though the book is available for free online, wouldn't you just love a hard cover for your desk? Or, better yet, ten copies to share with friends and family? And maybe one extra copy to throw at an enemy? (the book *is* heavy, and thus chucking it is surprisingly effective)

References

[D91] "Just Win, Baby: Al Davis and His Raiders" by Glenn Dickey. Harcourt, 1991. *The book about Al Davis and his famous quote. Or, we suppose, the book is more about Al Davis and the Raiders, and not so much the quote. To be clear: we are not recommending this book, we just needed a citation.*

[D+13] "Everything You Always Wanted to Know about Synchronization but Were Afraid to Ask" by Tudor David, Rachid Guerraoui, Vasileios Trigonakis. SOSP '13, Nemacolin Woodlands Resort, Pennsylvania, November 2013. *An excellent paper comparing many different ways to build locks using hardware primitives. Great to see how many ideas work on modern hardware.*

[D68] "Cooperating sequential processes" by Edsger W. Dijkstra. 1968. Available online here: `http://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/EWD/ewd01xx/EWD123.PDF`. *One of the early seminal papers. Discusses how Dijkstra posed the original concurrency problem, and Dekker's solution.*

[H93] "MIPS R4000 Microprocessor User's Manual" by Joe Heinrich. Prentice-Hall, June 1993. Available: http://cag.csail.mit.edu/raw/documents/R4400_Uman_book_Ed2.pdf. *The old MIPS user's manual. Download it while it still exists.*

[H91] "Wait-free Synchronization" by Maurice Herlihy. ACM TOPLAS, Volume 13: 1, January 1991. *A landmark paper introducing a different approach to building concurrent data structures. Because of the complexity involved, some of these ideas have been slow to gain acceptance in deployment.*

[L81] "Observations on the Development of an Operating System" by Hugh Lauer. SOSP '81, Pacific Grove, California, December 1981. *A must-read retrospective about the development of the Pilot OS, an early PC operating system. Fun and full of insights.*

[L09] "glibc 2.9 (include Linux pthreads implementation)" by Many authors.. Available here: `http://ftp.gnu.org/gnu/glibc`. *In particular, take a look at the nptl subdirectory where you will find most of the pthread support in Linux today.*

[M82] "The Architecture of the Burroughs B5000: 20 Years Later and Still Ahead of the Times?" by A. Mayer. 1982. Available: `www.ajwm.net/amayer/papers/B5000.html`. *"It (RDLK) is an indivisible operation which reads from and writes into a memory location." RDLK is thus test-and-set! Dave Dahm created spin locks ("Buzz Locks") and a two-phase lock called "Dahm Locks."*

[M15] "OSSpinLock Is Unsafe" by J. McCall. `mjtsai.com/blog/2015/12/16/osspinlock-is-unsafe`. *Calling OSSpinLock on a Mac is unsafe when using threads of different priorities – you might spin forever! So be careful, Mac fanatics, even your mighty system can be less than perfect...*

[MS91] "Algorithms for Scalable Synchronization on Shared-Memory Multiprocessors" by John M. Mellor-Crummey and M. L. Scott. ACM TOCS, Volume 9, Issue 1, February 1991. *An excellent and thorough survey on different locking algorithms. However, no operating systems support is used, just fancy hardware instructions.*

[P81] "Myths About the Mutual Exclusion Problem" by G.L. Peterson. Information Processing Letters, 12(3), pages 115–116, 1981. *Peterson's algorithm introduced here.*

[R97] "What Really Happened on Mars?" by Glenn E. Reeves. Available on our site at: `https://www.ostep.org/Citations/mars.html`. *A description of priority inversion on Mars Pathfinder. Concurrent code correctness matters, especially in space!*

[S05] "Guide to porting from Solaris to Linux on x86" by Ajay Sood, April 29, 2005. Available: `http://www.ibm.com/developerworks/linux/library/l-solar/`.

[S09] "OpenSolaris Thread Library" by Sun.. Code: `src.opensolaris.org/source/xref/onnv/onnv-gate/usr/src/lib/libc/port/threads/synch.c`. *Pretty interesting, although who knows what will happen now that Oracle owns Sun. Thanks to Mike Swift for the pointer.*

[W09] "Load-Link, Store-Conditional" by Many authors.. `en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Load-Link/Store-Conditional`. *Can you believe we referenced Wikipedia? But, we found the information there and it felt wrong not to. Further, it was useful, listing the instructions for the different architectures:* `ldl_l/stl_c` *and* `ldq_l/stq_c` *(Alpha),* `lwarx/stwcx` *(PowerPC),* `ll/sc` *(MIPS), and* `ldrex/strex` *(ARM). Actually Wikipedia is pretty amazing, so don't be so harsh, OK?*

[WG00] "The SPARC Architecture Manual: Version 9" by D. Weaver, T. Germond. SPARC International, 2000. `http://www.sparc.org/standards/SPARCV9.pdf`. *See the website:* `developers.sun.com/solaris/articles/atomic_sparc/` *for more on atomics.*

Homework (Simulation)

This program, `x86.py`, allows you to see how different thread interleavings either cause or avoid race conditions. See the README for details on how the program works and answer the questions below.

Questions

1. Examine `flag.s`. This code "implements" locking with a single memory flag. Can you understand the assembly?
2. When you run with the defaults, does `flag.s` work? Use the `-M` and `-R` flags to trace variables and registers (and turn on `-c` to see their values). Can you predict what value will end up in `flag`?
3. Change the value of the register `%bx` with the `-a` flag (e.g., `-a bx=2,bx=2` if you are running just two threads). What does the code do? How does it change your answer for the question above?
4. Set `bx` to a high value for each thread, and then use the `-i` flag to generate different interrupt frequencies; what values lead to a bad outcomes? Which lead to good outcomes?
5. Now let's look at the program `test-and-set.s`. First, try to understand the code, which uses the `xchg` instruction to build a simple locking primitive. How is the lock acquire written? How about lock release?
6. Now run the code, changing the value of the interrupt interval (`-i`) again, and making sure to loop for a number of times. Does the code always work as expected? Does it sometimes lead to an inefficient use of the CPU? How could you quantify that?
7. Use the `-P` flag to generate specific tests of the locking code. For example, run a schedule that grabs the lock in the first thread, but then tries to acquire it in the second. Does the right thing happen? What else should you test?
8. Now let's look at the code in `peterson.s`, which implements Peterson's algorithm (mentioned in a sidebar in the text). Study the code and see if you can make sense of it.
9. Now run the code with different values of `-i`. What kinds of different behavior do you see? Make sure to set the thread IDs appropriately (using `-a bx=0,bx=1` for example) as the code assumes it.
10. Can you control the scheduling (with the `-P` flag) to "prove" that the code works? What are the different cases you should show hold? Think about mutual exclusion and deadlock avoidance.
11. Now study the code for the ticket lock in `ticket.s`. Does it match the code in the chapter? Then run with the following flags: `-a bx=1000,bx=1000` (causing each thread to loop through the critical section 1000 times). Watch what happens; do the threads spend much time spin-waiting for the lock?
12. How does the code behave as you add more threads?
13. Now examine `yield.s`, in which a `yield` instruction enables one thread to yield control of the CPU (realistically, this would be an OS primitive, but for the simplicity, we assume an instruction does the task). Find a scenario where `test-and-set.s` wastes cycles spinning, but `yield.s` does not. How many instructions are saved? In what scenarios do these savings arise?
14. Finally, examine `test-and-test-and-set.s`. What does this lock do? What kind of savings does it introduce as compared to `test-and-set.s`?

30

Condition Variables

Thus far we have developed the notion of a lock and seen how one can be properly built with the right combination of hardware and OS support. Unfortunately, locks are not the only primitives that are needed to build concurrent programs.

In particular, there are many cases where a thread wishes to check whether a **condition** is true before continuing its execution. For example, a parent thread might wish to check whether a child thread has completed before continuing (this is often called a `join()`); how should such a wait be implemented? Let's look at Figure 30.1.

```
void *child(void *arg) {
    printf("child\n");
    // XXX how to indicate we are done?
    return NULL;
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    printf("parent: begin\n");
    pthread_t c;
    Pthread_create(&c, NULL, child, NULL); // child
    // XXX how to wait for child?
    printf("parent: end\n");
    return 0;
}
```

Figure 30.1: **A Parent Waiting For Its Child**

What we would like to see here is the following output:

```
parent: begin
child
parent: end
```

We could try using a shared variable, as you see in Figure 30.2. This solution will generally work, but it is hugely inefficient as the parent spins

```
volatile int done = 0;

void *child(void *arg) {
    printf("child\n");
    done = 1;
    return NULL;
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    printf("parent: begin\n");
    pthread_t c;
    Pthread_create(&c, NULL, child, NULL); // child
    while (done == 0)
        ; // spin
    printf("parent: end\n");
    return 0;
}
```

Figure 30.2: **Parent Waiting For Child: Spin-based Approach**

and wastes CPU time. What we would like here instead is some way to put the parent to sleep until the condition we are waiting for (e.g., the child is done executing) comes true.

> THE CRUX: HOW TO WAIT FOR A CONDITION
>
> In multi-threaded programs, it is often useful for a thread to wait for some condition to become true before proceeding. The simple approach, of just spinning until the condition becomes true, is grossly inefficient and wastes CPU cycles, and in some cases, can be incorrect. Thus, how should a thread wait for a condition?

30.1 Definition and Routines

To wait for a condition to become true, a thread can make use of what is known as a **condition variable**. A **condition variable** is an explicit queue that threads can put themselves on when some state of execution (i.e., some **condition**) is not as desired (by **waiting** on the condition); some other thread, when it changes said state, can then wake one (or more) of those waiting threads and thus allow them to continue (by **signaling** on the condition). The idea goes back to Dijkstra's use of "private semaphores" [D68]; a similar idea was later named a "condition variable" by Hoare in his work on monitors [H74].

To declare such a condition variable, one simply writes something like this: `pthread_cond_t c;`, which declares `c` as a condition variable (note: proper initialization is also required). A condition variable has two operations associated with it: `wait()` and `signal()`. The `wait()` call is executed when a thread wishes to put itself to sleep; the `signal()` call

```
int done  = 0;
pthread_mutex_t m = PTHREAD_MUTEX_INITIALIZER;
pthread_cond_t c  = PTHREAD_COND_INITIALIZER;

void thr_exit() {
    Pthread_mutex_lock(&m);
    done = 1;
    Pthread_cond_signal(&c);
    Pthread_mutex_unlock(&m);
}

void *child(void *arg) {
    printf("child\n");
    thr_exit();
    return NULL;
}

void thr_join() {
    Pthread_mutex_lock(&m);
    while (done == 0)
        Pthread_cond_wait(&c, &m);
    Pthread_mutex_unlock(&m);
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    printf("parent: begin\n");
    pthread_t p;
    Pthread_create(&p, NULL, child, NULL);
    thr_join();
    printf("parent: end\n");
    return 0;
}
```

Figure 30.3: **Parent Waiting For Child: Use A Condition Variable**

is executed when a thread has changed something in the program and thus wants to wake a sleeping thread waiting on this condition. Specifically, the POSIX calls look like this:

```
pthread_cond_wait(pthread_cond_t *c, pthread_mutex_t *m);
pthread_cond_signal(pthread_cond_t *c);
```

We will often refer to these as `wait()` and `signal()` for simplicity. One thing you might notice about the `wait()` call is that it also takes a mutex as a parameter; it assumes that this mutex is locked when `wait()` is called. The responsibility of `wait()` is to release the lock and put the calling thread to sleep (atomically); when the thread wakes up (after some other thread has signaled it), it must re-acquire the lock before returning to the caller. This complexity stems from the desire to prevent certain race conditions from occurring when a thread is trying to put itself to sleep. Let's take a look at the solution to the join problem (Figure 30.3) to understand this better.

There are two cases to consider. In the first, the parent creates the child thread but continues running itself (assume we have only a single processor) and thus immediately calls into `thr_join()` to wait for the child thread to complete. In this case, it will acquire the lock, check if the child is done (it is not), and put itself to sleep by calling `wait()` (hence releasing the lock). The child will eventually run, print the message "child", and call `thr_exit()` to wake the parent thread; this code just grabs the lock, sets the state variable `done`, and signals the parent thus waking it. Finally, the parent will run (returning from `wait()` with the lock held), unlock the lock, and print the final message "parent: end".

In the second case, the child runs immediately upon creation, sets `done` to 1, calls signal to wake a sleeping thread (but there is none, so it just returns), and is done. The parent then runs, calls `thr_join()`, sees that `done` is 1, and thus does not wait and returns.

One last note: you might observe the parent uses a `while` loop instead of just an `if` statement when deciding whether to wait on the condition. While this does not seem strictly necessary per the logic of the program, it is always a good idea, as we will see below.

To make sure you understand the importance of each piece of the `thr_exit()` and `thr_join()` code, let's try a few alternate implementations. First, you might be wondering if we need the state variable `done`. What if the code looked like the example below? (Figure 30.4)

Unfortunately this approach is broken. Imagine the case where the child runs immediately and calls `thr_exit()` immediately; in this case, the child will signal, but there is no thread asleep on the condition. When the parent runs, it will simply call wait and be stuck; no thread will ever wake it. From this example, you should appreciate the importance of the state variable `done`; it records the value the threads are interested in knowing. The sleeping, waking, and locking all are built around it.

```
void thr_exit() {
    Pthread_mutex_lock(&m);
    Pthread_cond_signal(&c);
    Pthread_mutex_unlock(&m);
}

void thr_join() {
    Pthread_mutex_lock(&m);
    Pthread_cond_wait(&c, &m);
    Pthread_mutex_unlock(&m);
}
```

Figure 30.4: **Parent Waiting: No State Variable**

```
void thr_exit() {
    done = 1;
    Pthread_cond_signal(&c);
}

void thr_join() {
    if (done == 0)
        Pthread_cond_wait(&c);
}
```

Figure 30.5: **Parent Waiting: No Lock**

Here (Figure 30.5) is another poor implementation. In this example, we imagine that one does not need to hold a lock in order to signal and wait. What problem could occur here? Think about it[1]!

The issue here is a subtle race condition. Specifically, if the parent calls `thr_join()` and then checks the value of `done`, it will see that it is 0 and thus try to go to sleep. But just before it calls wait to go to sleep, the parent is interrupted, and the child runs. The child changes the state variable `done` to 1 and signals, but no thread is waiting and thus no thread is woken. When the parent runs again, it sleeps forever, which is sad.

Hopefully, from this simple join example, you can see some of the basic requirements of using condition variables properly. To make sure you understand, we now go through a more complicated example: the **producer/consumer** or **bounded-buffer** problem.

TIP: ALWAYS HOLD THE LOCK WHILE SIGNALING

Although it is strictly not necessary in all cases, it is likely simplest and best to hold the lock while signaling when using condition variables. The example above shows a case where you *must* hold the lock for correctness; however, there are some other cases where it is likely OK not to, but probably is something you should avoid. Thus, for simplicity, **hold the lock when calling signal**.

The converse of this tip, i.e., hold the lock when calling wait, is not just a tip, but rather mandated by the semantics of wait, because wait always (a) assumes the lock is held when you call it, (b) releases said lock when putting the caller to sleep, and (c) re-acquires the lock just before returning. Thus, the generalization of this tip is correct: **hold the lock when calling signal or wait**, and you will always be in good shape.

[1] Note that this example is not "real" code, because the call to `pthread_cond_wait()` always requires a mutex as well as a condition variable; here, we just pretend that the interface does not do so for the sake of the negative example.

```
int buffer;
int count = 0; // initially, empty

void put(int value) {
    assert(count == 0);
    count = 1;
    buffer = value;
}

int get() {
    assert(count == 1);
    count = 0;
    return buffer;
}
```

Figure 30.6: **The Put And Get Routines (v1)**

30.2 The Producer/Consumer (Bounded Buffer) Problem

The next synchronization problem we will confront in this chapter is known as the **producer/consumer** problem, or sometimes as the **bounded buffer** problem, which was first posed by Dijkstra [D72]. Indeed, it was this very producer/consumer problem that led Dijkstra and his co-workers to invent the generalized semaphore (which can be used as either a lock or a condition variable) [D01]; we will learn more about semaphores later.

Imagine one or more producer threads and one or more consumer threads. Producers generate data items and place them in a buffer; consumers grab said items from the buffer and consume them in some way.

This arrangement occurs in many real systems. For example, in a multi-threaded web server, a producer puts HTTP requests into a work queue (i.e., the bounded buffer); consumer threads take requests out of this queue and process them.

A bounded buffer is also used when you pipe the output of one program into another, e.g., `grep foo file.txt | wc -l`. This example runs two processes concurrently; `grep` writes lines from `file.txt` with the string `foo` in them to what it thinks is standard output; the UNIX shell redirects the output to what is called a UNIX pipe (created by the **pipe** system call). The other end of this pipe is connected to the standard input of the process `wc`, which simply counts the number of lines in the input stream and prints out the result. Thus, the `grep` process is the producer; the `wc` process is the consumer; between them is an in-kernel bounded buffer; you, in this example, are just the happy user.

Because the bounded buffer is a shared resource, we must of course require synchronized access to it, lest[2] a race condition arise. To begin to understand this problem better, let us examine some actual code.

The first thing we need is a shared buffer, into which a producer puts data, and out of which a consumer takes data. Let's just use a single

[2] This is where we drop some serious Old English on you, and the subjunctive form.

```
void *producer(void *arg) {
    int i;
    int loops = (int) arg;
    for (i = 0; i < loops; i++) {
        put(i);
    }
}

void *consumer(void *arg) {
    while (1) {
        int tmp = get();
        printf("%d\n", tmp);
    }
}
```

Figure 30.7: **Producer/Consumer Threads (v1)**

integer for simplicity (you can certainly imagine placing a pointer to a data structure into this slot instead), and the two inner routines to put a value into the shared buffer, and to get a value out of the buffer. See Figure 30.6 (page 6) for details.

Pretty simple, no? The `put()` routine assumes the buffer is empty (and checks this with an assertion), and then simply puts a value into the shared buffer and marks it full by setting `count` to 1. The `get()` routine does the opposite, setting the buffer to empty (i.e., setting `count` to 0) and returning the value. Don't worry that this shared buffer has just a single entry; later, we'll generalize it to a queue that can hold multiple entries, which will be even more fun than it sounds.

Now we need to write some routines that know when it is OK to access the buffer to either put data into it or get data out of it. The conditions for this should be obvious: only put data into the buffer when `count` is zero (i.e., when the buffer is empty), and only get data from the buffer when `count` is one (i.e., when the buffer is full). If we write the synchronization code such that a producer puts data into a full buffer, or a consumer gets data from an empty one, we have done something wrong (and in this code, an assertion will fire).

This work is going to be done by two types of threads, one set of which we'll call the **producer** threads, and the other set which we'll call **consumer** threads. Figure 30.7 shows the code for a producer that puts an integer into the shared buffer `loops` number of times, and a consumer that gets the data out of that shared buffer (forever), each time printing out the data item it pulled from the shared buffer.

A Broken Solution

Now imagine that we have just a single producer and a single consumer. Obviously the `put()` and `get()` routines have critical sections within them, as `put()` updates the buffer, and `get()` reads from it. However, putting a lock around the code doesn't work; we need something more.

```
int loops; // must initialize somewhere...
cond_t  cond;
mutex_t mutex;

void *producer(void *arg) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < loops; i++) {
        Pthread_mutex_lock(&mutex);           // p1
        if (count == 1)                       // p2
            Pthread_cond_wait(&cond, &mutex); // p3
        put(i);                               // p4
        Pthread_cond_signal(&cond);           // p5
        Pthread_mutex_unlock(&mutex);         // p6
    }
}

void *consumer(void *arg) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < loops; i++) {
        Pthread_mutex_lock(&mutex);           // c1
        if (count == 0)                       // c2
            Pthread_cond_wait(&cond, &mutex); // c3
        int tmp = get();                      // c4
        Pthread_cond_signal(&cond);           // c5
        Pthread_mutex_unlock(&mutex);         // c6
        printf("%d\n", tmp);
    }
}
```

Figure 30.8: **Producer/Consumer: Single CV And If Statement**

Not surprisingly, that something more is some condition variables. In this (broken) first try (Figure 30.8), we have a single condition variable `cond` and associated lock `mutex`.

Let's examine the signaling logic between producers and consumers. When a producer wants to fill the buffer, it waits for it to be empty (p1–p3). The consumer has the exact same logic, but waits for a different condition: fullness (c1–c3).

With just a single producer and a single consumer, the code in Figure 30.8 works. However, if we have more than one of these threads (e.g., two consumers), the solution has two critical problems. What are they?

... (pause here to think) ...

Let's understand the first problem, which has to do with the `if` statement before the wait. Assume there are two consumers (T_{c1} and T_{c2}) and one producer (T_p). First, a consumer (T_{c1}) runs; it acquires the lock (c1), checks if any buffers are ready for consumption (c2), and finding that none are, waits (c3) (which releases the lock).

Then the producer (T_p) runs. It acquires the lock (p1), checks if all

T_{c1}	State	T_{c2}	State	T_p	State	**Count**	*Comment*
c1	Run		Ready		Ready	0	
c2	Run		Ready		Ready	0	
c3	Sleep		Ready		Ready	0	Nothing to get
	Sleep		Ready	p1	Run	0	
	Sleep		Ready	p2	Run	0	
	Sleep		Ready	p4	Run	1	Buffer now full
	Ready		Ready	p5	Run	1	T_{c1} awoken
	Ready		Ready	p6	Run	1	
	Ready		Ready	p1	Run	1	
	Ready		Ready	p2	Run	1	
	Ready		Ready	p3	Sleep	1	Buffer full; sleep
	Ready	c1	Run		Sleep	1	T_{c2} sneaks in ...
	Ready	c2	Run		Sleep	1	
	Ready	c4	Run		Sleep	0	... and grabs data
	Ready	c5	Run		Ready	0	T_p awoken
	Ready	c6	Run		Ready	0	
c4	Run		Ready		Ready	0	Oh oh! No data

Figure 30.9: **Thread Trace: Broken Solution (v1)**

buffers are full (p2), and finding that not to be the case, goes ahead and fills the buffer (p4). The producer then signals that a buffer has been filled (p5). Critically, this moves the first consumer (T_{c1}) from sleeping on a condition variable to the ready queue; T_{c1} is now able to run (but not yet running). The producer then continues until realizing the buffer is full, at which point it sleeps (p6, p1–p3).

Here is where the problem occurs: another consumer (T_{c2}) sneaks in and consumes the one existing value in the buffer (c1, c2, c4, c5, c6, skipping the wait at c3 because the buffer is full). Now assume T_{c1} runs; just before returning from the wait, it re-acquires the lock and then returns. It then calls `get()` (c4), but there are no buffers to consume! An assertion triggers, and the code has not functioned as desired. Clearly, we should have somehow prevented T_{c1} from trying to consume because T_{c2} snuck in and consumed the one value in the buffer that had been produced. Figure 30.9 shows the action each thread takes, as well as its scheduler state (Ready, Running, or Sleeping) over time.

The problem arises for a simple reason: after the producer woke T_{c1}, but *before* T_{c1} ever ran, the state of the bounded buffer changed (thanks to T_{c2}). Signaling a thread only wakes them up; it is thus a *hint* that the state of the world has changed (in this case, that a value has been placed in the buffer), but there is no guarantee that when the woken thread runs, the state will *still* be as desired. This interpretation of what a signal means is often referred to as **Mesa semantics**, after the first research that built a condition variable in such a manner [LR80]; the contrast, referred to as

```
int loops;
cond_t  cond;
mutex_t mutex;

void *producer(void *arg) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < loops; i++) {
        Pthread_mutex_lock(&mutex);           // p1
        while (count == 1)                    // p2
            Pthread_cond_wait(&cond, &mutex); // p3
        put(i);                               // p4
        Pthread_cond_signal(&cond);           // p5
        Pthread_mutex_unlock(&mutex);         // p6
    }
}

void *consumer(void *arg) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < loops; i++) {
        Pthread_mutex_lock(&mutex);           // c1
        while (count == 0)                    // c2
            Pthread_cond_wait(&cond, &mutex); // c3
        int tmp = get();                      // c4
        Pthread_cond_signal(&cond);           // c5
        Pthread_mutex_unlock(&mutex);         // c6
        printf("%d\n", tmp);
    }
}
```

Figure 30.10: **Producer/Consumer: Single CV And While**

Hoare semantics, is harder to build but provides a stronger guarantee that the woken thread will run immediately upon being woken [H74]. Virtually every system ever built employs Mesa semantics.

Better, But Still Broken: While, Not If

Fortunately, this fix is easy (Figure 30.10): change the `if` to a `while`. Think about why this works; now consumer T_{c1} wakes up and (with the lock held) immediately re-checks the state of the shared variable (c2). If the buffer is empty at that point, the consumer simply goes back to sleep (c3). The corollary `if` is also changed to a `while` in the producer (p2).

Thanks to Mesa semantics, a simple rule to remember with condition variables is to **always use while loops**. Sometimes you don't have to re-check the condition, but it is always safe to do so; just do it and be happy.

However, this code still has a bug, the second of two problems mentioned above. Can you see it? It has something to do with the fact that there is only one condition variable. Try to figure out what the problem is, before reading ahead. DO IT! *(pause for you to think, or close your eyes...)*

T_{c1}	State	T_{c2}	State	T_p	State	**Count**	*Comment*
c1	Run		Ready		Ready	0	
c2	Run		Ready		Ready	0	
c3	Sleep		Ready		Ready	0	Nothing to get
	Sleep	c1	Run		Ready	0	
	Sleep	c2	Run		Ready	0	
	Sleep	c3	Sleep		Ready	0	Nothing to get
	Sleep		Sleep	p1	Run	0	
	Sleep		Sleep	p2	Run	0	
	Sleep		Sleep	p4	Run	1	Buffer now full
	Ready		Sleep	p5	Run	1	T_{c1} awoken
	Ready		Sleep	p6	Run	1	
	Ready		Sleep	p1	Run	1	
	Ready		Sleep	p2	Run	1	
	Ready		Sleep	p3	Sleep	1	Must sleep (full)
c2	Run		Sleep		Sleep	1	Recheck condition
c4	Run		Sleep		Sleep	0	T_{c1} grabs data
c5	Run		Ready		Sleep	0	Oops! Woke T_{c2}
c6	Run		Ready		Sleep	0	
c1	Run		Ready		Sleep	0	
c2	Run		Ready		Sleep	0	
c3	Sleep		Ready		Sleep	0	Nothing to get
	Sleep	c2	Run		Sleep	0	
	Sleep	c3	Sleep		Sleep	0	Everyone asleep...

Figure 30.11: **Thread Trace: Broken Solution (v2)**

Let's confirm you figured it out correctly, or perhaps let's confirm that you are now awake and reading this part of the book. The problem occurs when two consumers run first (T_{c1} and T_{c2}) and both go to sleep (c3). Then, the producer runs, puts a value in the buffer, and wakes one of the consumers (say T_{c1}). The producer then loops back (releasing and reacquiring the lock along the way) and tries to put more data in the buffer; because the buffer is full, the producer instead waits on the condition (thus sleeping). Now, one consumer is ready to run (T_{c1}), and two threads are sleeping on a condition (T_{c2} and T_p). We are about to cause a problem: things are getting exciting!

The consumer T_{c1} then wakes by returning from `wait()` (c3), re-checks the condition (c2), and finding the buffer full, consumes the value (c4). This consumer then, critically, signals on the condition (c5), waking *only one* thread that is sleeping. However, which thread should it wake?

Because the consumer has emptied the buffer, it clearly should wake the producer. However, if it wakes the consumer T_{c2} (which is definitely possible, depending on how the wait queue is managed), we have a problem. Specifically, the consumer T_{c2} will wake up and find the buffer empty (c2), and go back to sleep (c3). The producer T_p, which has a value

```
cond_t  empty, fill;
mutex_t mutex;

void *producer(void *arg) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < loops; i++) {
        Pthread_mutex_lock(&mutex);
        while (count == 1)
            Pthread_cond_wait(&empty, &mutex);
        put(i);
        Pthread_cond_signal(&fill);
        Pthread_mutex_unlock(&mutex);
    }
}

void *consumer(void *arg) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < loops; i++) {
        Pthread_mutex_lock(&mutex);
        while (count == 0)
            Pthread_cond_wait(&fill, &mutex);
        int tmp = get();
        Pthread_cond_signal(&empty);
        Pthread_mutex_unlock(&mutex);
        printf("%d\n", tmp);
    }
}
```

Figure 30.12: **Producer/Consumer: Two CVs And While**

to put into the buffer, is left sleeping. The other consumer thread, T_{c1}, also goes back to sleep. All three threads are left sleeping, a clear bug; see Figure 30.11 for the brutal step-by-step of this terrible calamity.

Signaling is clearly needed, but must be more directed. A consumer should not wake other consumers, only producers, and vice-versa.

The Single Buffer Producer/Consumer Solution

The solution here is once again a small one: use *two* condition variables, instead of one, in order to properly signal which type of thread should wake up when the state of the system changes. Figure 30.12 shows the resulting code.

In the code, producer threads wait on the condition **empty**, and signals **fill**. Conversely, consumer threads wait on **fill** and signal **empty**. By doing so, the second problem above is avoided by design: a consumer can never accidentally wake a consumer, and a producer can never accidentally wake a producer.

```
int buffer[MAX];
int fill_ptr = 0;
int use_ptr  = 0;
int count    = 0;

void put(int value) {
    buffer[fill_ptr] = value;
    fill_ptr = (fill_ptr + 1) % MAX;
    count++;
}

int get() {
    int tmp = buffer[use_ptr];
    use_ptr = (use_ptr + 1) % MAX;
    count--;
    return tmp;
}
```

Figure 30.13: **The Correct Put And Get Routines**

```
cond_t empty, fill;
mutex_t mutex;

void *producer(void *arg) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < loops; i++) {
        Pthread_mutex_lock(&mutex);            // p1
        while (count == MAX)                   // p2
            Pthread_cond_wait(&empty, &mutex); // p3
        put(i);                                // p4
        Pthread_cond_signal(&fill);            // p5
        Pthread_mutex_unlock(&mutex);          // p6
    }
}

void *consumer(void *arg) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < loops; i++) {
        Pthread_mutex_lock(&mutex);            // c1
        while (count == 0)                     // c2
            Pthread_cond_wait(&fill, &mutex);  // c3
        int tmp = get();                       // c4
        Pthread_cond_signal(&empty);           // c5
        Pthread_mutex_unlock(&mutex);          // c6
        printf("%d\n", tmp);
    }
}
```

Figure 30.14: **The Correct Producer/Consumer Synchronization**

TIP: USE WHILE (NOT IF) FOR CONDITIONS

When checking for a condition in a multi-threaded program, using a `while` loop is always correct; using an `if` statement only might be, depending on the semantics of signaling. Thus, always use `while` and your code will behave as expected.

Using while loops around conditional checks also handles the case where **spurious wakeups** occur. In some thread packages, due to details of the implementation, it is possible that two threads get woken up though just a single signal has taken place [L11]. Spurious wakeups are further reason to re-check the condition a thread is waiting on.

The Correct Producer/Consumer Solution

We now have a working producer/consumer solution, albeit not a fully general one. The last change we make is to enable more concurrency and efficiency; specifically, we add more buffer slots, so that multiple values can be produced before sleeping, and similarly multiple values can be consumed before sleeping. With just a single producer and consumer, this approach is more efficient as it reduces context switches; with multiple producers or consumers (or both), it even allows concurrent producing or consuming to take place, thus increasing concurrency. Fortunately, it is a small change from our current solution.

The first change for this correct solution is within the buffer structure itself and the corresponding `put()` and `get()` (Figure 30.13). We also slightly change the conditions that producers and consumers check in order to determine whether to sleep or not. We also show the correct waiting and signaling logic (Figure 30.14). A producer only sleeps if all buffers are currently filled (p2); similarly, a consumer only sleeps if all buffers are currently empty (c2). And thus we solve the producer/consumer problem; time to sit back and drink a cold one.

30.3 Covering Conditions

We'll now look at one more example of how condition variables can be used. This code study is drawn from Lampson and Redell's paper on Pilot [LR80], the same group who first implemented the **Mesa semantics** described above (the language they used was Mesa, hence the name).

The problem they ran into is best shown via simple example, in this case in a simple multi-threaded memory allocation library. Figure 30.15 shows a code snippet which demonstrates the issue.

As you might see in the code, when a thread calls into the memory allocation code, it might have to wait in order for more memory to become free. Conversely, when a thread frees memory, it signals that more memory is free. However, our code above has a problem: which waiting thread (there can be more than one) should be woken up?

```
// how many bytes of the heap are free?
int bytesLeft = MAX_HEAP_SIZE;

// need lock and condition too
cond_t  c;
mutex_t m;

void *
allocate(int size) {
    Pthread_mutex_lock(&m);
    while (bytesLeft < size)
        Pthread_cond_wait(&c, &m);
    void *ptr = ...; // get mem from heap
    bytesLeft -= size;
    Pthread_mutex_unlock(&m);
    return ptr;
}

void free(void *ptr, int size) {
    Pthread_mutex_lock(&m);
    bytesLeft += size;
    Pthread_cond_signal(&c); // whom to signal??
    Pthread_mutex_unlock(&m);
}
```

Figure 30.15: **Covering Conditions: An Example**

Consider the following scenario. Assume there are zero bytes free; thread T_a calls `allocate(100)`, followed by thread T_b which asks for less memory by calling `allocate(10)`. Both T_a and T_b thus wait on the condition and go to sleep; there aren't enough free bytes to satisfy either of these requests.

At that point, assume a third thread, T_c, calls `free(50)`. Unfortunately, when it calls signal to wake a waiting thread, it might not wake the correct waiting thread, T_b, which is waiting for only 10 bytes to be freed; T_a should remain waiting, as not enough memory is yet free. Thus, the code in the figure does not work, as the thread waking other threads does not know which thread (or threads) to wake up.

The solution suggested by Lampson and Redell is straightforward: replace the `pthread_cond_signal()` call in the code above with a call to `pthread_cond_broadcast()`, which wakes up *all* waiting threads. By doing so, we guarantee that any threads that should be woken are. The downside, of course, can be a negative performance impact, as we might needlessly wake up many other waiting threads that shouldn't (yet) be awake. Those threads will simply wake up, re-check the condition, and then go immediately back to sleep.

Lampson and Redell call such a condition a **covering condition**, as it covers all the cases where a thread needs to wake up (conservatively); the cost, as we've discussed, is that too many threads might be woken.

The astute reader might also have noticed we could have used this approach earlier (see the producer/consumer problem with only a single condition variable). However, in that case, a better solution was available to us, and thus we used it. In general, if you find that your program only works when you change your signals to broadcasts (but you don't think it should need to), you probably have a bug; fix it! But in cases like the memory allocator above, broadcast may be the most straightforward solution available.

30.4 Summary

We have seen the introduction of another important synchronization primitive beyond locks: condition variables. By allowing threads to sleep when some program state is not as desired, CVs enable us to neatly solve a number of important synchronization problems, including the famous (and still important) producer/consumer problem, as well as covering conditions. A more dramatic concluding sentence would go here, such as "He loved Big Brother" [O49].

References

[D68] "Cooperating sequential processes" by Edsger W. Dijkstra. 1968. Available online here: `http://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/EWD/ewd01xx/EWD123.PDF`. *Another classic from Dijkstra; reading his early works on concurrency will teach you much of what you need to know.*

[D72] "Information Streams Sharing a Finite Buffer" by E.W. Dijkstra. Information Processing Letters 1: 179–180, 1972. http://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/EWD/ewd03xx/EWD329.PDF *The famous paper that introduced the producer/consumer problem.*

[D01] "My recollections of operating system design" by E.W. Dijkstra. April, 2001. Available: `http://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/EWD/ewd13xx/EWD1303.PDF`. *A fascinating read for those of you interested in how the pioneers of our field came up with some very basic and fundamental concepts, including ideas like "interrupts" and even "a stack"!*

[H74] "Monitors: An Operating System Structuring Concept" by C.A.R. Hoare. Communications of the ACM, 17:10, pages 549–557, October 1974. *Hoare did a fair amount of theoretical work in concurrency. However, he is still probably most known for his work on Quicksort, the coolest sorting algorithm in the world, at least according to these authors.*

[L11] "Pthread_cond_signal Man Page" by Mysterious author. March, 2011. Available online: `http://linux.die.net/man/3/pthread_cond_signal`. *The Linux man page shows a nice simple example of why a thread might get a spurious wakeup, due to race conditions within the signal/wakeup code.*

[LR80] "Experience with Processes and Monitors in Mesa" by B.W. Lampson, D.R. Redell. Communications of the ACM. 23:2, pages 105-117, February 1980. *A classic paper about how to actually implement signaling and condition variables in a real system, leading to the term "Mesa" semantics for what it means to be woken up; the older semantics, developed by Tony Hoare [H74], then became known as "Hoare" semantics, which is a bit unfortunate of a name.*

[O49] "1984" by George Orwell. Secker and Warburg, 1949. *A little heavy-handed, but of course a must read. That said, we kind of gave away the ending by quoting the last sentence. Sorry! And if the government is reading this, let us just say that we think that the government is "double plus good". Hear that, our pals at the NSA?*

Homework (Code)

This homework lets you explore some real code that uses locks and condition variables to implement various forms of the producer/consumer queue discussed in the chapter. You'll look at the real code, run it in various configurations, and use it to learn about what works and what doesn't, as well as other intricacies. Read the README for details.

Questions

1. Our first question focuses on `main-two-cvs-while.c` (the working solution). First, study the code. Do you think you have an understanding of what should happen when you run the program?

2. Run with one producer and one consumer, and have the producer produce a few values. Start with a buffer (size 1), and then increase it. How does the behavior of the code change with larger buffers? (or does it?) What would you predict `num_full` to be with different buffer sizes (e.g., `-m 10`) and different numbers of produced items (e.g., `-l 100`), when you change the consumer sleep string from default (no sleep) to `-C 0,0,0,0,0,0,1`?

3. If possible, run the code on different systems (e.g., a Mac and Linux). Do you see different behavior across these systems?

4. Let's look at some timings. How long do you think the following execution, with one producer, three consumers, a single-entry shared buffer, and each consumer pausing at point `c3` for a second, will take? `./main-two-cvs-while -p 1 -c 3 -m 1 -C 0,0,0,1,0,0,0:0,0,0,1,0,0,0:0,0,0,1,0,0,0 -l 10 -v -t`

5. Now change the size of the shared buffer to 3 (`-m 3`). Will this make any difference in the total time?

6. Now change the location of the sleep to `c6` (this models a consumer taking something off the queue and then doing something with it), again using a single-entry buffer. What time do you predict in this case? `./main-two-cvs-while -p 1 -c 3 -m 1 -C 0,0,0,0,0,0,1:0,0,0,0,0,0,1:0,0,0,0,0,0,1 -l 10 -v -t`

7. Finally, change the buffer size to 3 again (`-m 3`). What time do you predict now?

8. Now let's look at `main-one-cv-while.c`. Can you configure a sleep string, assuming a single producer, one consumer, and a buffer of size 1, to cause a problem with this code?

9. Now change the number of consumers to two. Can you construct sleep strings for the producer and the consumers so as to cause a problem in the code?

10. Now examine `main-two-cvs-if.c`. Can you cause a problem to happen in this code? Again consider the case where there is only one consumer, and then the case where there is more than one.

11. Finally, examine `main-two-cvs-while-extra-unlock.c`. What problem arises when you release the lock before doing a put or a get? Can you reliably cause such a problem to happen, given the sleep strings? What bad thing can happen?

31

Semaphores

As we know now, one needs both locks and condition variables to solve a broad range of relevant and interesting concurrency problems. One of the first people to realize this years ago was **Edsger Dijkstra** (though it is hard to know the exact history [GR92]), known among other things for his famous "shortest paths" algorithm in graph theory [D59], an early polemic on structured programming entitled "Goto Statements Considered Harmful" [D68a] (what a great title!), and, in the case we will study here, the introduction of a synchronization primitive called the **semaphore** [D68b, D72]. Indeed, Dijkstra and colleagues invented the semaphore as a single primitive for all things related to synchronization; as you will see, one can use semaphores as both locks and condition variables.

> THE CRUX: HOW TO USE SEMAPHORES
>
> How can we use semaphores instead of locks and condition variables? What is the definition of a semaphore? What is a binary semaphore? Is it straightforward to build a semaphore out of locks and condition variables? To build locks and condition variables out of semaphores?

31.1 Semaphores: A Definition

A semaphore is an object with an integer value that we can manipulate with two routines; in the POSIX standard, these routines are `sem_wait()` and `sem_post()`[1]. Because the initial value of the semaphore determines its behavior, before calling any other routine to interact with the semaphore, we must first initialize it to some value, as the code in Figure 31.1 does.

[1]Historically, `sem_wait()` was called `P()` by Dijkstra and `sem_post()` called `V()`. These shortened forms come from Dutch words; interestingly, *which* Dutch words they supposedly derive from has changed over time. Originally, `P()` came from "passering" (to pass) and `V()` from "vrijgave" (release); later, Dijkstra wrote `P()` was from "prolaag", a contraction of "probeer" (Dutch for "try") and "verlaag" ("decrease"), and `V()` from "verhoog" which means "increase". Sometimes, people call them down and up. Use the Dutch versions to impress your friends, or confuse them, or both. See `https://news.ycombinator.com/item?id=8761539`) for details.

```
#include <semaphore.h>
sem_t s;
sem_init(&s, 0, 1);
```

Figure 31.1: **Initializing A Semaphore**

In the figure, we declare a semaphore s and initialize it to the value 1 by passing 1 in as the third argument. The second argument to `sem_init()` will be set to 0 in all of the examples we'll see; this indicates that the semaphore is shared between threads in the same process. See the man page for details on other usages of semaphores (namely, how they can be used to synchronize access across *different* processes), which require a different value for that second argument.

After a semaphore is initialized, we can call one of two functions to interact with it, `sem_wait()` or `sem_post()`. The behavior of these two functions is seen in Figure 31.2.

For now, we are not concerned with the implementation of these routines, which clearly requires some care; with multiple threads calling into `sem_wait()` and `sem_post()`, there is the obvious need for managing these critical sections. We will now focus on how to *use* these primitives; later we may discuss how they are built.

We should discuss a few salient aspects of the interfaces here. First, we can see that `sem_wait()` will either return right away (because the value of the semaphore was one or higher when we called `sem_wait()`), or it will cause the caller to suspend execution waiting for a subsequent post. Of course, multiple calling threads may call into `sem_wait()`, and thus all be queued waiting to be woken.

Second, we can see that `sem_post()` does not wait for some particular condition to hold like `sem_wait()` does. Rather, it simply increments the value of the semaphore and then, if there is a thread waiting to be woken, wakes one of them up.

Third, the value of the semaphore, when negative, is equal to the number of waiting threads [D68b]. Though the value generally isn't seen by users of the semaphores, this invariant is worth knowing and perhaps can help you remember how a semaphore functions.

```
int sem_wait(sem_t *s) {
    decrement the value of semaphore s by one
    wait if value of semaphore s is negative
}

int sem_post(sem_t *s) {
    increment the value of semaphore s by one
    if there are one or more threads waiting, wake one
}
```

Figure 31.2: **Semaphore: Definitions Of Wait And Post**

```
sem_t m;
sem_init(&m, 0, X); // init to X; what should X be?

sem_wait(&m);
// critical section here
sem_post(&m);
```

Figure 31.3: **A Binary Semaphore (That Is, A Lock)**

Don't worry (yet) about the seeming race conditions possible within the semaphore; assume that the actions they make are performed atomically. We will soon use locks and condition variables to do just this.

31.2 Binary Semaphores (Locks)

We are now ready to use a semaphore. Our first use will be one with which we are already familiar: using a semaphore as a lock. See Figure 31.3 for a code snippet; therein, you'll see that we simply surround the critical section of interest with a `sem_wait()`/`sem_post()` pair. Critical to making this work, though, is the initial value of the semaphore `m` (initialized to `X` in the figure). What should `X` be?

... (Try thinking about it before going on) ...

Looking back at definition of the `sem_wait()` and `sem_post()` routines above, we can see that the initial value should be 1.

To make this clear, let's imagine a scenario with two threads. The first thread (Thread 0) calls `sem_wait()`; it will first decrement the value of the semaphore, changing it to 0. Then, it will wait only if the value is *not* greater than or equal to 0. Because the value is 0, `sem_wait()` will simply return and the calling thread will continue; Thread 0 is now free to enter the critical section. If no other thread tries to acquire the lock while Thread 0 is inside the critical section, when it calls `sem_post()`, it will simply restore the value of the semaphore to 1 (and not wake a waiting thread, because there are none). Figure 31.4 shows a trace of this scenario.

A more interesting case arises when Thread 0 "holds the lock" (i.e., it has called `sem_wait()` but not yet called `sem_post()`), and another thread (Thread 1) tries to enter the critical section by calling `sem_wait()`. In this case, Thread 1 will decrement the value of the semaphore to -1, and

Value of Semaphore	Thread 0	Thread 1
1		
1	call `sem_wait()`	
0	`sem_wait()` returns	
0	`(crit sect)`	
0	call `sem_post()`	
1	`sem_post()` returns	

Figure 31.4: **Thread Trace: Single Thread Using A Semaphore**

Val	Thread 0	State	Thread 1	State
1		Run		Ready
1	call `sem_wait()`	Run		Ready
0	`sem_wait()` returns	Run		Ready
0	`(crit sect begin)`	Run		Ready
0	*Interrupt; Switch→T1*	Ready		Run
0		Ready	call `sem_wait()`	Run
-1		Ready	`decr sem`	Run
-1		Ready	`(sem<0)→sleep`	Sleep
-1		Run	*Switch→T0*	Sleep
-1	`(crit sect end)`	Run		Sleep
-1	call `sem_post()`	Run		Sleep
0	`incr sem`	Run		Sleep
0	`wake(T1)`	Run		Ready
0	`sem_post()` returns	Run		Ready
0	*Interrupt; Switch→T1*	Ready		Run
0		Ready	`sem_wait()` returns	Run
0		Ready	`(crit sect)`	Run
0		Ready	call `sem_post()`	Run
1		Ready	`sem_post()` returns	Run

Figure 31.5: **Thread Trace: Two Threads Using A Semaphore**

thus wait (putting itself to sleep and relinquishing the processor). When Thread 0 runs again, it will eventually call `sem_post()`, incrementing the value of the semaphore back to zero, and then wake the waiting thread (Thread 1), which will then be able to acquire the lock for itself. When Thread 1 finishes, it will again increment the value of the semaphore, restoring it to 1 again.

Figure 31.5 shows a trace of this example. In addition to thread actions, the figure shows the **scheduler state** of each thread: Run (the thread is running), Ready (i.e., runnable but not running), and Sleep (the thread is blocked). Note that Thread 1 goes into the sleeping state when it tries to acquire the already-held lock; only when Thread 0 runs again can Thread 1 be awoken and potentially run again.

If you want to work through your own example, try a scenario where multiple threads queue up waiting for a lock. What would the value of the semaphore be during such a trace?

Thus we are able to use semaphores as locks. Because locks only have two states (held and not held), we sometimes call a semaphore used as a lock a **binary semaphore**. Note that if you are using a semaphore only in this binary fashion, it could be implemented in a simpler manner than the generalized semaphores we present here.

31.3 Semaphores For Ordering

Semaphores are also useful to order events in a concurrent program. For example, a thread may wish to wait for a list to become non-empty,

```
sem_t s;

void *child(void *arg) {
    printf("child\n");
    sem_post(&s); // signal here: child is done
    return NULL;
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    sem_init(&s, 0, X); // what should X be?
    printf("parent: begin\n");
    pthread_t c;
    Pthread_create(&c, NULL, child, NULL);
    sem_wait(&s); // wait here for child
    printf("parent: end\n");
    return 0;
}
```

Figure 31.6: **A Parent Waiting For Its Child**

so it can delete an element from it. In this pattern of usage, we often find one thread *waiting* for something to happen, and another thread making that something happen and then *signaling* that it has happened, thus waking the waiting thread. We are thus using the semaphore as an **ordering** primitive (similar to our use of **condition variables** earlier).

A simple example is as follows. Imagine a thread creates another thread and then wants to wait for it to complete its execution (Figure 31.6). When this program runs, we would like to see the following:

```
parent: begin
child
parent: end
```

The question, then, is how to use a semaphore to achieve this effect; as it turns out, the answer is relatively easy to understand. As you can see in the code, the parent simply calls `sem_wait()` and the child `sem_post()` to wait for the condition of the child finishing its execution to become true. However, this raises the question: what should the initial value of this semaphore be?

(Again, think about it here, instead of reading ahead)

The answer, of course, is that the value of the semaphore should be set to is 0. There are two cases to consider. First, let us assume that the parent creates the child but the child has not run yet (i.e., it is sitting in a ready queue but not running). In this case (Figure 31.7, page 6), the parent will call `sem_wait()` before the child has called `sem_post()`; we'd like the parent to wait for the child to run. The only way this will happen is if the value of the semaphore is not greater than 0; hence, 0 is the initial value. The parent runs, decrements the semaphore (to -1), then waits (sleeping). When the child finally runs, it will call `sem_post()`, increment the value

Val	Parent	State	Child	State
0	`create(Child)`	Run	*(Child exists, can run)*	Ready
0	call `sem_wait()`	Run		Ready
-1	`decr sem`	Run		Ready
-1	`(sem<0)→sleep`	Sleep		Ready
-1	*Switch→Child*	Sleep	`child runs`	Run
-1		Sleep	call `sem_post()`	Run
0		Sleep	`inc sem`	Run
0		Ready	`wake(Parent)`	Run
0		Ready	`sem_post()` returns	Run
0		Ready	*Interrupt→Parent*	Ready
0	`sem_wait()` returns	Run		Ready

Figure 31.7: **Thread Trace: Parent Waiting For Child (Case 1)**

Val	Parent	State	Child	State
0	`create(Child)`	Run	*(Child exists; can run)*	Ready
0	*Interrupt→Child*	Ready	`child runs`	Run
0		Ready	call `sem_post()`	Run
1		Ready	`inc sem`	Run
1		Ready	`wake(nobody)`	Run
1		Ready	`sem_post()` returns	Run
1	`parent runs`	Run	*Interrupt→Parent*	Ready
1	call `sem_wait()`	Run		Ready
0	`decrement sem`	Run		Ready
0	`(sem≥0)→awake`	Run		Ready
0	`sem_wait()` returns	Run		Ready

Figure 31.8: **Thread Trace: Parent Waiting For Child (Case 2)**

of the semaphore to 0, and wake the parent, which will then return from `sem_wait()` and finish the program.

The second case (Figure 31.8) occurs when the child runs to completion before the parent gets a chance to call `sem_wait()`. In this case, the child will first call `sem_post()`, thus incrementing the value of the semaphore from 0 to 1. When the parent then gets a chance to run, it will call `sem_wait()` and find the value of the semaphore to be 1; the parent will thus decrement the value (to 0) and return from `sem_wait()` without waiting, also achieving the desired effect.

31.4 The Producer/Consumer (Bounded Buffer) Problem

The next problem we will confront in this chapter is known as the **producer/consumer** problem, or sometimes as the **bounded buffer** problem [D72]. This problem is described in detail in the previous chapter on condition variables; see there for details.

> **ASIDE: SETTING THE VALUE OF A SEMAPHORE**
>
> We've now seen two examples of initializing a semaphore. In the first case, we set the value to 1 to use the semaphore as a lock; in the second, to 0, to use the semaphore for ordering. So what's the general rule for semaphore initialization?
>
> One simple way to think about it, thanks to Perry Kivolowitz, is to consider the number of resources you are willing to give away immediately after initialization. With the lock, it was 1, because you are willing to have the lock locked (given away) immediately after initialization. With the ordering case, it was 0, because there is nothing to give away at the start; only when the child thread is done is the resource created, at which point, the value is incremented to 1. Try this line of thinking on future semaphore problems, and see if it helps.

First Attempt

Our first attempt at solving the problem introduces two semaphores, `empty` and `full`, which the threads will use to indicate when a buffer entry has been emptied or filled, respectively. The code for the put and get routines is in Figure 31.9, and our attempt at solving the producer and consumer problem is in Figure 31.10 (page 8).

In this example, the producer first waits for a buffer to become empty in order to put data into it, and the consumer similarly waits for a buffer to become filled before using it. Let us first imagine that `MAX=1` (there is only one buffer in the array), and see if this works.

Imagine again there are two threads, a producer and a consumer. Let us examine a specific scenario on a single CPU. Assume the consumer gets to run first. Thus, the consumer will hit Line C1 in Figure 31.10, calling `sem_wait(&full)`. Because full was initialized to the value 0,

```
int buffer[MAX];
int fill = 0;
int use  = 0;

void put(int value) {
    buffer[fill] = value;    // Line F1
    fill = (fill + 1) % MAX; // Line F2
}

int get() {
    int tmp = buffer[use];   // Line G1
    use = (use + 1) % MAX;   // Line G2
    return tmp;
}
```

Figure 31.9: **The Put And Get Routines**

```
sem_t empty;
sem_t full;

void *producer(void *arg) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < loops; i++) {
        sem_wait(&empty);       // Line P1
        put(i);                 // Line P2
        sem_post(&full);        // Line P3
    }
}

void *consumer(void *arg) {
    int tmp = 0;
    while (tmp != -1) {
        sem_wait(&full);        // Line C1
        tmp = get();            // Line C2
        sem_post(&empty);       // Line C3
        printf("%d\n", tmp);
    }
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    // ...
    sem_init(&empty, 0, MAX); // MAX are empty
    sem_init(&full, 0, 0);    // 0 are full
    // ...
}
```

Figure 31.10: **Adding The Full And Empty Conditions**

the call will decrement `full` (to -1), block the consumer, and wait for another thread to call `sem_post()` on `full`, as desired.

Assume the producer then runs. It will hit Line P1, thus calling the `sem_wait(&empty)` routine. Unlike the consumer, the producer will continue through this line, because `empty` was initialized to the value `MAX` (in this case, 1). Thus, `empty` will be decremented to 0 and the producer will put a data value into the first entry of buffer (Line P2). The producer will then continue on to P3 and call `sem_post(&full)`, changing the value of the `full` semaphore from -1 to 0 and waking the consumer (e.g., move it from blocked to ready).

In this case, one of two things could happen. If the producer continues to run, it will loop around and hit Line P1 again. This time, however, it would block, as the `empty` semaphore's value is 0. If the producer instead was interrupted and the consumer began to run, it would return from `sem_wait(&full)` (Line C1), find that the buffer was full, and consume it. In either case, we achieve the desired behavior.

You can try this same example with more threads (e.g., multiple producers, and multiple consumers). It should still work.

```
void *producer(void *arg) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < loops; i++) {
        sem_wait(&mutex);       // Line P0 (NEW LINE)
        sem_wait(&empty);       // Line P1
        put(i);                 // Line P2
        sem_post(&full);        // Line P3
        sem_post(&mutex);       // Line P4 (NEW LINE)
    }
}

void *consumer(void *arg) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < loops; i++) {
        sem_wait(&mutex);       // Line C0 (NEW LINE)
        sem_wait(&full);        // Line C1
        int tmp = get();        // Line C2
        sem_post(&empty);       // Line C3
        sem_post(&mutex);       // Line C4 (NEW LINE)
        printf("%d\n", tmp);
    }
}
```

Figure 31.11: **Adding Mutual Exclusion (Incorrectly)**

Let us now imagine that `MAX` is greater than 1 (say `MAX=10`). For this example, let us assume that there are multiple producers and multiple consumers. We now have a problem: a race condition. Do you see where it occurs? (take some time and look for it) If you can't see it, here's a hint: look more closely at the `put()` and `get()` code.

OK, let's understand the issue. Imagine two producers (Pa and Pb) both calling into `put()` at roughly the same time. Assume producer Pa gets to run first, and just starts to fill the first buffer entry (`fill=0` at Line F1). Before Pa gets a chance to increment the `fill` counter to 1, it is interrupted. Producer Pb starts to run, and at Line F1 it also puts its data into the 0th element of buffer, which means that the old data there is overwritten! This action is a no-no; we don't want any data from the producer to be lost.

A Solution: Adding Mutual Exclusion

As you can see, what we've forgotten here is *mutual exclusion*. The filling of a buffer and incrementing of the index into the buffer is a critical section, and thus must be guarded carefully. So let's use our friend the binary semaphore and add some locks. Figure 31.11 shows our attempt.

Now we've added some locks around the entire put()/get() parts of the code, as indicated by the `NEW LINE` comments. That seems like the right idea, but it also doesn't work. Why? Deadlock. Why does deadlock occur? Take a moment to consider it; try to find a case where deadlock arises. What sequence of steps must happen for the program to deadlock?

```
void *producer(void *arg) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < loops; i++) {
        sem_wait(&empty);          // Line P1
        sem_wait(&mutex);          // Line P1.5 (lock)
        put(i);                    // Line P2
        sem_post(&mutex);          // Line P2.5 (unlock)
        sem_post(&full);           // Line P3
    }
}

void *consumer(void *arg) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < loops; i++) {
        sem_wait(&full);           // Line C1
        sem_wait(&mutex);          // Line C1.5 (lock)
        int tmp = get();           // Line C2
        sem_post(&mutex);          // Line C2.5 (unlock)
        sem_post(&empty);          // Line C3
        printf("%d\n", tmp);
    }
}
```

Figure 31.12: **Adding Mutual Exclusion (Correctly)**

Avoiding Deadlock

OK, now that you figured it out, here is the answer. Imagine two threads, one producer and one consumer. The consumer gets to run first. It acquires the mutex (Line C0), and then calls `sem_wait()` on the full semaphore (Line C1); because there is no data yet, this call causes the consumer to block and thus yield the CPU; importantly, though, the consumer still holds the lock.

A producer then runs. It has data to produce and if it were able to run, it would be able to wake the consumer thread and all would be good. Unfortunately, the first thing it does is call `sem_wait()` on the binary mutex semaphore (Line P0). The lock is already held. Hence, the producer is now stuck waiting too.

There is a simple cycle here. The consumer *holds* the mutex and is *waiting* for the someone to signal full. The producer could *signal* full but is *waiting* for the mutex. Thus, the producer and consumer are each stuck waiting for each other: a classic deadlock.

At Last, A Working Solution

To solve this problem, we simply must reduce the scope of the lock. Figure 31.12 (page 10) shows the correct solution. As you can see, we simply move the mutex acquire and release to be just around the critical section;

the full and empty wait and signal code is left outside[2]. The result is a simple and working bounded buffer, a commonly-used pattern in multi-threaded programs. Understand it now; use it later. You will thank us for years to come. Or at least, you will thank us when the same question is asked on the final exam, or during a job interview.

31.5 Reader-Writer Locks

Another classic problem stems from the desire for a more flexible locking primitive that admits that different data structure accesses might require different kinds of locking. For example, imagine a number of concurrent list operations, including inserts and simple lookups. While inserts change the state of the list (and thus a traditional critical section makes sense), lookups simply *read* the data structure; as long as we can guarantee that no insert is on-going, we can allow many lookups to proceed concurrently. The special type of lock we will now develop to support this type of operation is known as a **reader-writer lock** [CHP71]. The code for such a lock is available in Figure 31.13 (page 12).

The code is pretty simple. If some thread wants to update the data structure in question, it should call the new pair of synchronization operations: `rwlock_acquire_writelock()`, to acquire a write lock, and `rwlock_release_writelock()`, to release it. Internally, these simply use the `writelock` semaphore to ensure that only a single writer can acquire the lock and thus enter the critical section to update the data structure in question.

More interesting is the pair of routines to acquire and release read locks. When acquiring a read lock, the reader first acquires `lock` and then increments the `readers` variable to track how many readers are currently inside the data structure. The important step then taken within `rwlock_acquire_readlock()` occurs when the first reader acquires the lock; in that case, the reader also acquires the write lock by calling `sem_wait()` on the `writelock` semaphore, and then releasing the `lock` by calling `sem_post()`.

Thus, once a reader has acquired a read lock, more readers will be allowed to acquire the read lock too; however, any thread that wishes to acquire the write lock will have to wait until *all* readers are finished; the last one to exit the critical section calls `sem_post()` on "writelock" and thus enables a waiting writer to acquire the lock.

This approach works (as desired), but does have some negatives, especially when it comes to fairness. In particular, it would be relatively easy for readers to starve writers. More sophisticated solutions to this problem exist; perhaps you can think of a better implementation? Hint: think about what you would need to do to prevent more readers from entering the lock once a writer is waiting.

[2]Indeed, it may have been more natural to place the `mutex` acquire/release inside the `put()` and `get()` functions for the purposes of modularity.

```
typedef struct _rwlock_t {
  sem_t lock;      // binary semaphore (basic lock)
  sem_t writelock; // allow ONE writer/MANY readers
  int   readers;   // #readers in critical section
} rwlock_t;

void rwlock_init(rwlock_t *rw) {
  rw->readers = 0;
  sem_init(&rw->lock, 0, 1);
  sem_init(&rw->writelock, 0, 1);
}

void rwlock_acquire_readlock(rwlock_t *rw) {
  sem_wait(&rw->lock);
  rw->readers++;
  if (rw->readers == 1) // first reader gets writelock
    sem_wait(&rw->writelock);
  sem_post(&rw->lock);
}

void rwlock_release_readlock(rwlock_t *rw) {
  sem_wait(&rw->lock);
  rw->readers--;
  if (rw->readers == 0) // last reader lets it go
    sem_post(&rw->writelock);
  sem_post(&rw->lock);
}

void rwlock_acquire_writelock(rwlock_t *rw) {
  sem_wait(&rw->writelock);
}

void rwlock_release_writelock(rwlock_t *rw) {
  sem_post(&rw->writelock);
}
```

Figure 31.13: **A Simple Reader-Writer Lock**

Finally, it should be noted that reader-writer locks should be used with some caution. They often add more overhead (especially with more sophisticated implementations), and thus do not end up speeding up performance as compared to just using simple and fast locking primitives [CB08]. Either way, they showcase once again how we can use semaphores in an interesting and useful way.

TIP: SIMPLE AND DUMB CAN BE BETTER (HILL'S LAW)
You should never underestimate the notion that the simple and dumb approach can be the best one. With locking, sometimes a simple spin lock works best, because it is easy to implement and fast. Although something like reader/writer locks sounds cool, they are complex, and complex can mean slow. Thus, always try the simple and dumb approach first.

This idea, of appealing to simplicity, is found in many places. One early source is Mark Hill's dissertation [H87], which studied how to design caches for CPUs. Hill found that simple direct-mapped caches worked better than fancy set-associative designs (one reason is that in caching, simpler designs enable faster lookups). As Hill succinctly summarized his work: "Big and dumb is better." And thus we call this similar advice **Hill's Law**.

31.6 The Dining Philosophers

One of the most famous concurrency problems posed, and solved, by Dijkstra, is known as the **dining philosopher's problem** [D71]. The problem is famous because it is fun and somewhat intellectually interesting; however, its practical utility is low. However, its fame forces its inclusion here; indeed, you might be asked about it on some interview, and you'd really hate your OS professor if you miss that question and don't get the job. Conversely, if you get the job, please feel free to send your OS professor a nice note, or some stock options.

The basic setup for the problem is this (as shown in Figure 31.14): assume there are five "philosophers" sitting around a table. Between each pair of philosophers is a single fork (and thus, five total). The philosophers each have times where they think, and don't need any forks, and times where they eat. In order to eat, a philosopher needs two forks, both the one on their left and the one on their right. The contention for these forks, and the synchronization problems that ensue, are what makes this a problem we study in concurrent programming.

Here is the basic loop of each philosopher, assuming each has a unique thread identifier `p` from 0 to 4 (inclusive):

```
while (1) {
    think();
    get_forks(p);
    eat();
    put_forks(p);
}
```

The key challenge, then, is to write the routines `get_forks()` and `put_forks()` such that there is no deadlock, no philosopher starves and

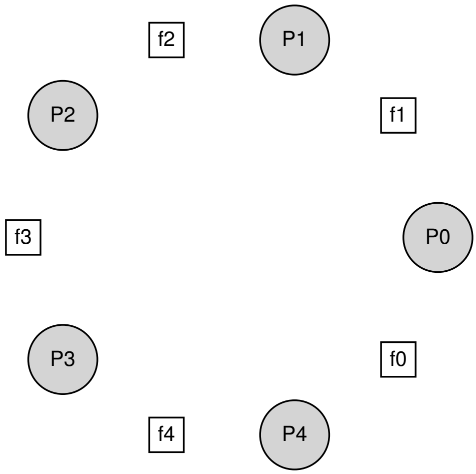


Figure 31.14: **The Dining Philosophers**

never gets to eat, and concurrency is high (i.e., as many philosophers can eat at the same time as possible).

Following Downey's solutions [D08], we'll use a few helper functions to get us towards a solution. They are:

```
int left(int p)  { return p; }
int right(int p) { return (p + 1) % 5; }
```

When philosopher `p` wishes to refer to the fork on their left, they simply call `left(p)`. Similarly, the fork on the right of a philosopher `p` is referred to by calling `right(p)`; the modulo operator therein handles the one case where the last philosopher (`p=4`) tries to grab the fork on their right, which is fork 0.

We'll also need some semaphores to solve this problem. Let us assume we have five, one for each fork: `sem_t forks[5]`.

Broken Solution

We attempt our first solution to the problem. Assume we initialize each semaphore (in the `forks` array) to a value of 1. Assume also that each philosopher knows its own number (`p`). We can thus write the `get_forks()` and `put_forks()` routine (Figure 31.15, page 15).

The intuition behind this (broken) solution is as follows. To acquire the forks, we simply grab a "lock" on each one: first the one on the left,

```
void get_forks(int p) {
    sem_wait(&forks[left(p)]);
    sem_wait(&forks[right(p)]);
}

void put_forks(int p) {
    sem_post(&forks[left(p)]);
    sem_post(&forks[right(p)]);
}
```

Figure 31.15: **The `get_forks()` And `put_forks()` Routines**

```
void get_forks(int p) {
    if (p == 4) {
        sem_wait(&forks[right(p)]);
        sem_wait(&forks[left(p)]);
    } else {
        sem_wait(&forks[left(p)]);
        sem_wait(&forks[right(p)]);
    }
}
```

Figure 31.16: **Breaking The Dependency In `get_forks()`**

and then the one on the right. When we are done eating, we release them. Simple, no? Unfortunately, in this case, simple means broken. Can you see the problem that arises? Think about it.

The problem is **deadlock**. If each philosopher happens to grab the fork on their left before any philosopher can grab the fork on their right, each will be stuck holding one fork and waiting for another, forever. Specifically, philosopher 0 grabs fork 0, philosopher 1 grabs fork 1, philosopher 2 grabs fork 2, philosopher 3 grabs fork 3, and philosopher 4 grabs fork 4; all the forks are acquired, and all the philosophers are stuck waiting for a fork that another philosopher possesses. We'll study deadlock in more detail soon; for now, it is safe to say that this is not a working solution.

A Solution: Breaking The Dependency

The simplest way to attack this problem is to change how forks are acquired by at least one of the philosophers; indeed, this is how Dijkstra himself solved the problem. Specifically, let's assume that philosopher 4 (the highest numbered one) gets the forks in a *different* order than the others (Figure 31.16); the `put_forks()` code remains the same.

Because the last philosopher tries to grab right before left, there is no situation where each philosopher grabs one fork and is stuck waiting for another; the cycle of waiting is broken. Think through the ramifications of this solution, and convince yourself that it works.

There are other "famous" problems like this one, e.g., the **cigarette smoker's problem** or the **sleeping barber problem**. Most of them are just excuses to think about concurrency; some of them have fascinating names. Look them up if you are interested in learning more, or just getting more practice thinking in a concurrent manner [D08].

31.7 Thread Throttling

One other simple use case for semaphores arises on occasion, and thus we present it here. The specific problem is this: how can a programmer prevent "too many" threads from doing something at once and bogging the system down? Answer: decide upon a threshold for "too many", and then use a semaphore to limit the number of threads concurrently executing the piece of code in question. We call this approach **throttling** [T99], and consider it a form of **admission control**.

Let's consider a more specific example. Imagine that you create hundreds of threads to work on some problem in parallel. However, in a certain part of the code, each thread acquires a large amount of memory to perform part of the computation; let's call this part of the code the *memory-intensive region*. If *all* of the threads enter the memory-intensive region at the same time, the sum of all the memory allocation requests will exceed the amount of physical memory on the machine. As a result, the machine will start thrashing (i.e., swapping pages to and from the disk), and the entire computation will slow to a crawl.

A simple semaphore can solve this problem. By initializing the value of the semaphore to the maximum number of threads you wish to enter the memory-intensive region at once, and then putting a `sem_wait()` and `sem_post()` around the region, a semaphore can naturally throttle the number of threads that are ever concurrently in the dangerous region of the code.

31.8 How To Implement Semaphores

Finally, let's use our low-level synchronization primitives, locks and condition variables, to build our own version of semaphores called ... *(drum roll here)* ... **Zemaphores**. This task is fairly straightforward, as you can see in Figure 31.17 (page 17).

In the code above, we use just one lock and one condition variable, plus a state variable to track the value of the semaphore. Study the code for yourself until you really understand it. Do it!

One subtle difference between our Zemaphore and pure semaphores as defined by Dijkstra is that we don't maintain the invariant that the value of the semaphore, when negative, reflects the number of waiting threads; indeed, the value will never be lower than zero. This behavior is easier to implement and matches the current Linux implementation.

```
typedef struct __Zem_t {
    int value;
    pthread_cond_t cond;
    pthread_mutex_t lock;
} Zem_t;

// only one thread can call this
void Zem_init(Zem_t *s, int value) {
    s->value = value;
    Cond_init(&s->cond);
    Mutex_init(&s->lock);
}

void Zem_wait(Zem_t *s) {
    Mutex_lock(&s->lock);
    while (s->value <= 0)
        Cond_wait(&s->cond, &s->lock);
    s->value--;
    Mutex_unlock(&s->lock);
}

void Zem_post(Zem_t *s) {
    Mutex_lock(&s->lock);
    s->value++;
    Cond_signal(&s->cond);
    Mutex_unlock(&s->lock);
}
```

Figure 31.17: **Implementing Zemaphores With Locks And CVs**

Curiously, building condition variables out of semaphores is a much trickier proposition. Some highly experienced concurrent programmers tried to do this in the Windows environment, and many different bugs ensued [B04]. Try it yourself, and see if you can figure out why building condition variables out of semaphores is more challenging of a problem than it might appear.

31.9 Summary

Semaphores are a powerful and flexible primitive for writing concurrent programs. Some programmers use them exclusively, shunning locks and condition variables, due to their simplicity and utility.

In this chapter, we have presented just a few classic problems and solutions. If you are interested in finding out more, there are many other materials you can reference. One great (and free reference) is Allen Downey's book on concurrency and programming with semaphores [D08]. This book has lots of puzzles you can work on to improve your understand-

TIP: BE CAREFUL WITH GENERALIZATION

The abstract technique of generalization can thus be quite useful in systems design, where one good idea can be made slightly broader and thus solve a larger class of problems. However, be careful when generalizing; as Lampson warns us "Don't generalize; generalizations are generally wrong" [L83].

One could view semaphores as a generalization of locks and condition variables; however, is such a generalization needed? And, given the difficulty of realizing a condition variable on top of a semaphore, perhaps this generalization is not as general as you might think.

ing of both semaphores in specific and concurrency in general. Becoming a real concurrency expert takes years of effort; going beyond what you learn in this class is undoubtedly the key to mastering such a topic.

References

[B04] "Implementing Condition Variables with Semaphores" by Andrew Birrell. December 2004. *An interesting read on how difficult implementing CVs on top of semaphores really is, and the mistakes the author and co-workers made along the way. Particularly relevant because the group had done a ton of concurrent programming; Birrell, for example, is known for (among other things) writing various thread-programming guides.*

[CB08] "Real-world Concurrency" by Bryan Cantrill, Jeff Bonwick. ACM Queue. Volume 6, No. 5. September 2008. *A nice article by some kernel hackers from a company formerly known as Sun on the real problems faced in concurrent code.*

[CHP71] "Concurrent Control with Readers and Writers" by P.J. Courtois, F. Heymans, D.L. Parnas. Communications of the ACM, 14:10, October 1971. *The introduction of the reader-writer problem, and a simple solution. Later work introduced more complex solutions, skipped here because, well, they are pretty complex.*

[D59] "A Note on Two Problems in Connexion with Graphs" by E. W. Dijkstra. Numerische Mathematik 1, 269–271, 1959. Available: `http://www-m3.ma.tum.de/twiki/pub/MN0506/WebHome/dijkstra.pdf`. *Can you believe people worked on algorithms in 1959? We can't. Even before computers were any fun to use, these people had a sense that they would transform the world...*

[D68a] "Go-to Statement Considered Harmful" by E.W. Dijkstra. CACM, volume 11(3), March 1968. `http://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/EWD/ewd02xx/EWD215.PDF`. *Sometimes thought of as the beginning of the field of software engineering.*

[D68b] "The Structure of the THE Multiprogramming System" by E.W. Dijkstra. CACM, volume 11(5), 1968. *One of the earliest papers to point out that systems work in computer science is an engaging intellectual endeavor. Also argues strongly for modularity in the form of layered systems.*

[D72] "Information Streams Sharing a Finite Buffer" by E.W. Dijkstra. Information Processing Letters 1, 1972. `http://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/EWD/ewd03xx/EWD329.PDF`. *Did Dijkstra invent everything? No, but maybe close. He certainly was the first to clearly write down what the problems were in concurrent code. However, practitioners in OS design knew of many of the problems described by Dijkstra, so perhaps giving him too much credit would be a misrepresentation.*

[D08] "The Little Book of Semaphores" by A.B. Downey. Available at the following site: `http://greenteapress.com/semaphores/`. *A nice (and free!) book about semaphores. Lots of fun problems to solve, if you like that sort of thing.*

[D71] "Hierarchical ordering of sequential processes" by E.W. Dijkstra. Available online here: `http://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/EWD/ewd03xx/EWD310.PDF`. *Presents numerous concurrency problems, including Dining Philosophers. The wikipedia page about this problem is also useful.*

[GR92] "Transaction Processing: Concepts and Techniques" by Jim Gray, Andreas Reuter. Morgan Kaufmann, September 1992. *The exact quote that we find particularly humorous is found on page 485, at the top of Section 8.8: "The first multiprocessors, circa 1960, had test and set instructions ... presumably the OS implementors worked out the appropriate algorithms, although Dijkstra is generally credited with inventing semaphores many years later." Oh, snap!*

[H87] "Aspects of Cache Memory and Instruction Buffer Performance" by Mark D. Hill. Ph.D. Dissertation, U.C. Berkeley, 1987. *Hill's dissertation work, for those obsessed with caching in early systems. A great example of a quantitative dissertation.*

[L83] "Hints for Computer Systems Design" by Butler Lampson. ACM Operating Systems Review, 15:5, October 1983. *Lampson, a famous systems researcher, loved using hints in the design of computer systems. A hint is something that is often correct but can be wrong; in this use, a signal() is telling a waiting thread that it changed the condition that the waiter was waiting on, but not to trust that the condition will be in the desired state when the waiting thread wakes up. In this paper about hints for designing systems, one of Lampson's general hints is that you should use hints. It is not as confusing as it sounds.*

[T99] "Re: NT kernel guy playing with Linux" by Linus Torvalds. June 27, 1999. Available: `https://yarchive.net/comp/linux/semaphores.html`. *A response from Linus himself about the utility of semaphores, including the throttling case we mention in the text. As always, Linus is slightly insulting but quite informative.*

Homework (Code)

In this homework, we'll use semaphores to solve some well-known concurrency problems. Many of these are taken from Downey's excellent "Little Book of Semaphores"[3], which does a good job of pulling together a number of classic problems as well as introducing a few new variants; interested readers should check out the Little Book for more fun.

Each of the following questions provides a code skeleton; your job is to fill in the code to make it work given semaphores. On Linux, you will be using native semaphores; on a Mac (where there is no semaphore support), you'll have to first build an implementation (using locks and condition variables, as described in the chapter). Good luck!

Questions

1. The first problem is just to implement and test a solution to the **fork/join problem**, as described in the text. Even though this solution is described in the text, the act of typing it in on your own is worthwhile; even Bach would rewrite Vivaldi, allowing one soon-to-be master to learn from an existing one. See `fork-join.c` for details. Add the call `sleep(1)` to the child to ensure it is working.
2. Let's now generalize this a bit by investigating the **rendezvous problem**. The problem is as follows: you have two threads, each of which are about to enter the rendezvous point in the code. Neither should exit this part of the code before the other enters it. Consider using two semaphores for this task, and see `rendezvous.c` for details.
3. Now go one step further by implementing a general solution to **barrier synchronization**. Assume there are two points in a sequential piece of code, called P_1 and P_2. Putting a **barrier** between P_1 and P_2 guarantees that all threads will execute P_1 before any one thread executes P_2. Your task: write the code to implement a `barrier()` function that can be used in this manner. It is safe to assume you know N (the total number of threads in the running program) and that all N threads will try to enter the barrier. Again, you should likely use two semaphores to achieve the solution, and some other integers to count things. See `barrier.c` for details.
4. Now let's solve the **reader-writer problem**, also as described in the text. In this first take, don't worry about starvation. See the code in `reader-writer.c` for details. Add `sleep()` calls to your code to demonstrate it works as you expect. Can you show the existence of the starvation problem?
5. Let's look at the reader-writer problem again, but this time, worry about starvation. How can you ensure that all readers and writers eventually make progress? See `reader-writer-nostarve.c` for details.
6. Use semaphores to build a **no-starve mutex**, in which any thread that tries to acquire the mutex will eventually obtain it. See the code in `mutex-nostarve.c` for more information.
7. Liked these problems? See Downey's free text for more just like them. And don't forget, have fun! But, you always do when you write code, no?

[3] Available: `http://greenteapress.com/semaphores/`.

32

Common Concurrency Problems

Researchers have spent a great deal of time and effort looking into concurrency bugs over many years. Much of the early work focused on **deadlock**, a topic which we've touched on in the past chapters but will now dive into deeply [C+71]. More recent work focuses on studying other types of common concurrency bugs (i.e., non-deadlock bugs). In this chapter, we take a brief look at some example concurrency problems found in real code bases, to better understand what problems to look out for. And thus our central issue for this chapter:

> CRUX: HOW TO HANDLE COMMON CONCURRENCY BUGS
>
> Concurrency bugs tend to come in a variety of common patterns. Knowing which ones to look out for is the first step to writing more robust, correct concurrent code.

32.1 What Types Of Bugs Exist?

The first, and most obvious, question is this: what types of concurrency bugs manifest in complex, concurrent programs? This question is difficult to answer in general, but fortunately, some others have done the work for us. Specifically, we rely upon a study by Lu et al. [L+08], which analyzes a number of popular concurrent applications in great detail to understand what types of bugs arise in practice.

The study focuses on four major and important open-source applications: MySQL (a popular database management system), Apache (a well-known web server), Mozilla (the famous web browser), and OpenOffice (a free version of the MS Office suite, which some people actually use). In the study, the authors examine concurrency bugs that have been found and fixed in each of these code bases, turning the developers' work into a quantitative bug analysis; understanding these results can help you understand what types of problems actually occur in mature code bases.

Figure 32.1 shows a summary of the bugs Lu and colleagues studied. From the figure, you can see that there were 105 total bugs, most of which

Application	What it does	Non-Deadlock	Deadlock
MySQL	Database Server	14	9
Apache	Web Server	13	4
Mozilla	Web Browser	41	16
OpenOffice	Office Suite	6	2
Total		74	31

Figure 32.1: **Bugs In Modern Applications**

were not deadlock (74); the remaining 31 were deadlock bugs. Further, you can see the number of bugs studied from each application; while OpenOffice only had 8 total concurrency bugs, Mozilla had nearly 60.

We now dive into these different classes of bugs (non-deadlock, deadlock) a bit more deeply. For the first class of non-deadlock bugs, we use examples from the study to drive our discussion. For the second class of deadlock bugs, we discuss the long line of work that has been done in either preventing, avoiding, or handling deadlock.

32.2 Non-Deadlock Bugs

Non-deadlock bugs make up a majority of concurrency bugs, according to Lu's study. But what types of bugs are these? How do they arise? How can we fix them? We now discuss the two major types of non-deadlock bugs found by Lu et al.: **atomicity violation** bugs and **order violation** bugs.

Atomicity-Violation Bugs

The first type of problem encountered is referred to as an **atomicity violation**. Here is a simple example, found in MySQL. Before reading the explanation, try figuring out what the bug is. Do it!

```
Thread 1::
if (thd->proc_info) {
  fputs(thd->proc_info, ...);
}

Thread 2::
thd->proc_info = NULL;
```

Figure 32.2: **Atomicity Violation (`atomicity.c`)**

In the example, two different threads access the field `proc_info` in the structure `thd`. The first thread checks if the value is non-NULL and then prints its value; the second thread sets it to NULL. Clearly, if the first thread performs the check but then is interrupted before the call to `fputs`, the second thread could run in-between, thus setting the pointer to NULL; when the first thread resumes, it will crash, as a NULL pointer will be dereferenced by `fputs`.

The more formal definition of an atomicity violation, according to Lu et al, is this: "The desired serializability among multiple memory accesses is violated (i.e. a code region is intended to be atomic, but the atomicity is not enforced during execution)." In our example above, the code has an *atomicity assumption* (in Lu's words) about the check for non-NULL of `proc_info` and the usage of `proc_info` in the `fputs()` call; when the assumption is incorrect, the code will not work as desired.

Finding a fix for this type of problem is often (but not always) straightforward. Can you think of how to fix the code above?

In this solution (Figure 32.3), we simply add locks around the shared-variable references, ensuring that when either thread accesses the `proc_info` field, it has a lock held (`proc_info_lock`). Of course, any other code that accesses the structure should also acquire this lock before doing so.

```
pthread_mutex_t proc_info_lock = PTHREAD_MUTEX_INITIALIZER;

Thread 1::
pthread_mutex_lock(&proc_info_lock);
if (thd->proc_info) {
  fputs(thd->proc_info, ...);
}
pthread_mutex_unlock(&proc_info_lock);

Thread 2::
pthread_mutex_lock(&proc_info_lock);
thd->proc_info = NULL;
pthread_mutex_unlock(&proc_info_lock);
```

Figure 32.3: **Atomicity Violation Fixed (`atomicity_fixed.c`)**

Order-Violation Bugs

Another common type of non-deadlock bug found by Lu et al. is known as an **order violation**. Here is another simple example; once again, see if you can figure out why the code below has a bug in it.

```
Thread 1::
void init() {
   mThread = PR_CreateThread(mMain, ...);
}

Thread 2::
void mMain(...) {
    mState = mThread->State;
}
```

Figure 32.4: **Ordering Bug (`ordering.c`)**

As you probably figured out, the code in Thread 2 seems to assume that the variable `mThread` has already been initialized (and is not NULL);

```
pthread_mutex_t mtLock = PTHREAD_MUTEX_INITIALIZER;
pthread_cond_t  mtCond = PTHREAD_COND_INITIALIZER;
int mtInit             = 0;

Thread 1::
void init() {
   ...
   mThread = PR_CreateThread(mMain, ...);

   // signal that the thread has been created...
   pthread_mutex_lock(&mtLock);
   mtInit = 1;
   pthread_cond_signal(&mtCond);
   pthread_mutex_unlock(&mtLock);
   ...
}

Thread 2::
void mMain(...) {
    ...
    // wait for the thread to be initialized...
    pthread_mutex_lock(&mtLock);
    while (mtInit == 0)
        pthread_cond_wait(&mtCond, &mtLock);
    pthread_mutex_unlock(&mtLock);

    mState = mThread->State;
    ...
}
```

Figure 32.5: **Fixing The Ordering Violation (`ordering_fixed.c`)**

however, if Thread 2 runs immediately once created, the value of `mThread` will not be set when it is accessed within `mMain()` in Thread 2, and will likely crash with a NULL-pointer dereference. Note that we assume the value of `mThread` is initially NULL; if not, even stranger things could happen as arbitrary memory locations are accessed through the dereference in Thread 2.

The more formal definition of an order violation is the following: "The desired order between two (groups of) memory accesses is flipped (i.e., A should always be executed before B, but the order is not enforced during execution)" [L+08].

The fix to this type of bug is generally to enforce ordering. As discussed previously, using **condition variables** is an easy and robust way to add this style of synchronization into modern code bases. In the example above, we could thus rewrite the code as seen in Figure 32.5.

In this fixed-up code sequence, we have added a condition variable (`mtCond`) and corresponding lock (`mtLock`), as well as a state variable (mtInit). When the initialization code runs, it sets the state of mtInit to 1 and signals that it has done so. If Thread 2 had run before this point, it will be waiting for this signal and corresponding state change; if it runs later, it will check the state and see that the initialization has already occurred (i.e., mtInit is set to 1), and thus continue as is proper. Note that we could likely use mThread as the state variable itself, but do not do so for the sake of simplicity here. When ordering matters between threads, condition variables (or semaphores) can come to the rescue.

Non-Deadlock Bugs: Summary

A large fraction (97%) of non-deadlock bugs studied by Lu et al. are either atomicity or order violations. Thus, by carefully thinking about these types of bug patterns, programmers can likely do a better job of avoiding them. Moreover, as more automated code-checking tools develop, they should likely focus on these two types of bugs as they constitute such a large fraction of non-deadlock bugs found in deployment.

Unfortunately, not all bugs are as easily fixed as the examples we looked at above. Some require a deeper understanding of what the program is doing, or a larger amount of code or data structure reorganization to fix. Read Lu et al.'s excellent (and readable) paper for more details.

32.3 Deadlock Bugs

Beyond the concurrency bugs mentioned above, a classic problem that arises in many concurrent systems with complex locking protocols is known as **deadlock**. Deadlock occurs, for example, when a thread (say Thread 1) is holding a lock (L1) and waiting for another one (L2); unfortunately, the thread (Thread 2) that holds lock L2 is waiting for L1 to be released. Here is a code snippet that demonstrates such a potential deadlock:

```
Thread 1:                    Thread 2:
pthread_mutex_lock(L1);      pthread_mutex_lock(L2);
pthread_mutex_lock(L2);      pthread_mutex_lock(L1);
```

Figure 32.6: **Simple Deadlock (deadlock.c)**

Note that if this code runs, deadlock does not necessarily occur; rather, it may occur, if, for example, Thread 1 grabs lock L1 and then a context switch occurs to Thread 2. At that point, Thread 2 grabs L2, and tries to acquire L1. Thus we have a deadlock, as each thread is waiting for the other and neither can run. See Figure 32.7 for a graphical depiction; the presence of a **cycle** in the graph is indicative of the deadlock.

The figure should make the problem clear. How should programmers write code so as to handle deadlock in some way?

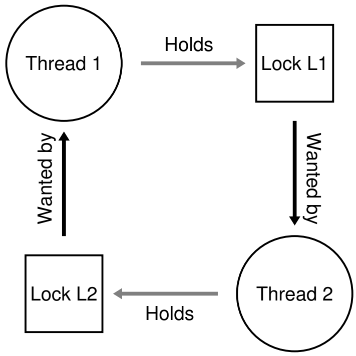


Figure 32.7: **The Deadlock Dependency Graph**

CRUX: HOW TO DEAL WITH DEADLOCK

How should we build systems to prevent, avoid, or at least detect and recover from deadlock? Is this a real problem in systems today?

Why Do Deadlocks Occur?

As you may be thinking, simple deadlocks such as the one above seem readily avoidable. For example, if Thread 1 and 2 both made sure to grab locks in the same order, the deadlock would never arise. So why do deadlocks happen?

One reason is that in large code bases, complex dependencies arise between components. Take the operating system, for example. The virtual memory system might need to access the file system in order to page in a block from disk; the file system might subsequently require a page of memory to read the block into and thus contact the virtual memory system. Thus, the design of locking strategies in large systems must be carefully done to avoid deadlock in the case of circular dependencies that may occur naturally in the code.

Another reason is due to the nature of **encapsulation**. As software developers, we are taught to hide details of implementations and thus make software easier to build in a modular way. Unfortunately, such modularity does not mesh well with locking. As Jula et al. point out [J+08], some seemingly innocuous interfaces almost invite you to deadlock. For example, take the Java Vector class and the method `AddAll()`. This routine would be called as follows:

```
Vector v1, v2;
v1.AddAll(v2);
```

Internally, because the method needs to be multi-thread safe, locks for both the vector being added to (v1) and the parameter (v2) need to be acquired. The routine acquires said locks in some arbitrary order (say v1 then v2) in order to add the contents of v2 to v1. If some other thread calls `v2.AddAll(v1)` at nearly the same time, we have the potential for deadlock, all in a way that is quite hidden from the calling application.

Conditions for Deadlock

Four conditions need to hold for a deadlock to occur [C+71]:

- **Mutual exclusion:** Threads claim exclusive control of resources that they require (e.g., a thread grabs a lock).
- **Hold-and-wait:** Threads hold resources allocated to them (e.g., locks that they have already acquired) while waiting for additional resources (e.g., locks that they wish to acquire).
- **No preemption:** Resources (e.g., locks) cannot be forcibly removed from threads that are holding them.
- **Circular wait:** There exists a circular chain of threads such that each thread holds one or more resources (e.g., locks) that are being requested by the next thread in the chain.

If any of these four conditions are not met, deadlock cannot occur. Thus, we first explore techniques to *prevent* deadlock; each of these strategies seeks to prevent one of the above conditions from arising and thus is one approach to handling the deadlock problem.

Prevention

Circular Wait

Probably the most practical prevention technique (and certainly one that is frequently employed) is to write your locking code such that you never induce a circular wait. The most straightforward way to do that is to provide a **total ordering** on lock acquisition. For example, if there are only two locks in the system (`L1` and `L2`), you can prevent deadlock by always acquiring `L1` before `L2`. Such strict ordering ensures that no cyclical wait arises; hence, no deadlock.

Of course, in more complex systems, more than two locks will exist, and thus total lock ordering may be difficult to achieve (and perhaps is unnecessary anyhow). Thus, a **partial ordering** can be a useful way to structure lock acquisition so as to avoid deadlock. An excellent real example of partial lock ordering can be seen in the memory mapping code in Linux [T+94] (v5.2); the comment at the top of the source code reveals ten different groups of lock acquisition orders, including simple

TIP: ENFORCE LOCK ORDERING BY LOCK ADDRESS

In some cases, a function must grab two (or more) locks; thus, we know we must be careful or deadlock could arise. Imagine a function that is called as follows: `do_something(mutex_t *m1, mutex_t *m2)`. If the code always grabs `m1` before `m2` (or always `m2` before `m1`), it could deadlock, because one thread could call `do_something(L1, L2)` while another thread could call `do_something(L2, L1)`.

To avoid this particular issue, the clever programmer can use the *address* of each lock as a way of ordering lock acquisition. By acquiring locks in either high-to-low or low-to-high address order, `do_something()` can guarantee that it always acquires locks in the same order, regardless of which order they are passed in. The code would look something like this:

```
if (m1 > m2) { // grab in high-to-low address order
  pthread_mutex_lock(m1);
  pthread_mutex_lock(m2);
} else {
  pthread_mutex_lock(m2);
  pthread_mutex_lock(m1);
}
// Code assumes that m1 != m2 (not the same lock)
```

By using this simple technique, a programmer can ensure a simple and efficient deadlock-free implementation of multi-lock acquisition.

ones such as "`i_mutex` before `i_mmap_rwsem`" and more complex orders such as "`i_mmap_rwsem` before `private_lock` before `swap_lock` before `i_pages lock`".

As you can imagine, both total and partial ordering require careful design of locking strategies and must be constructed with great care. Further, ordering is just a convention, and a sloppy programmer can easily ignore the locking protocol and potentially cause deadlock. Finally, lock ordering requires a deep understanding of the code base, and how various routines are called; just one mistake could result in the "D" word[1].

Hold-and-wait

The hold-and-wait requirement for deadlock can be avoided by acquiring all locks at once, atomically. In practice, this could be achieved as follows:

```
pthread_mutex_lock(prevention);   // begin acquisition
pthread_mutex_lock(L1);
pthread_mutex_lock(L2);
...
pthread_mutex_unlock(prevention); // end
```

[1] Hint: "D" stands for "Deadlock".

By first grabbing the lock `prevention`, this code guarantees that no untimely thread switch can occur in the midst of lock acquisition and thus deadlock can once again be avoided. Of course, it requires that any time any thread grabs a lock, it first acquires the global prevention lock. For example, if another thread was trying to grab locks `L1` and `L2` in a different order, it would be OK, because it would be holding the prevention lock while doing so.

Note that the solution is problematic for a number of reasons. As before, encapsulation works against us: when calling a routine, this approach requires us to know exactly which locks must be held and to acquire them ahead of time. This technique also is likely to decrease concurrency as all locks must be acquired early on (at once) instead of when they are truly needed.

No Preemption

Because we generally view locks as held until unlock is called, multiple lock acquisition often gets us into trouble because when waiting for one lock we are holding another. Many thread libraries provide a more flexible set of interfaces to help avoid this situation. Specifically, the routine `pthread_mutex_trylock()` either grabs the lock (if it is available) and returns success or returns an error code indicating the lock is held; in the latter case, you can try again later if you want to grab that lock.

Such an interface could be used as follows to build a deadlock-free, ordering-robust lock acquisition protocol:

```
top:
  pthread_mutex_lock(L1);
  if (pthread_mutex_trylock(L2) != 0) {
    pthread_mutex_unlock(L1);
    goto top;
  }
```

Note that another thread could follow the same protocol but grab the locks in the other order (`L2` then `L1`) and the program would still be deadlock free. One new problem does arise, however: **livelock**. It is possible (though perhaps unlikely) that two threads could both be repeatedly attempting this sequence and repeatedly failing to acquire both locks. In this case, both systems are running through this code sequence over and over again (and thus it is not a deadlock), but progress is not being made, hence the name livelock. There are solutions to the livelock problem, too: for example, one could add a random delay before looping back and trying the entire thing over again, thus decreasing the odds of repeated interference among competing threads.

One point about this solution: it skirts around the hard parts of using a trylock approach. The first problem that would likely exist again arises due to encapsulation: if one of these locks is buried in some routine that is getting called, the jump back to the beginning becomes more complex to implement. If the code had acquired some resources (other than `L1`) along the way, it must make sure to carefully release them as well; for example, if after acquiring L1, the code had allocated some memory, it would have to release that memory upon failure to acquire L2, before jumping back to the top to try the entire sequence again. However, in limited circumstances (e.g., the Java vector method mentioned earlier), this type of approach could work well.

You might also notice that this approach doesn't really *add* preemption (the forcible action of taking a lock away from a thread that owns it), but rather uses the trylock approach to allow a developer to back out of lock ownership (i.e., preempt their own ownership) in a graceful way. However, it is a practical approach, and thus we include it here, despite its imperfection in this regard.

Mutual Exclusion

The final prevention technique would be to avoid the need for mutual exclusion at all. In general, we know this is difficult, because the code we wish to run does indeed have critical sections. So what can we do?

Herlihy had the idea that one could design various data structures without locks at all [H91, H93]. The idea behind these **lock-free** (and related **wait-free**) approaches here is simple: using powerful hardware instructions, you can build data structures in a manner that does not require explicit locking.

As a simple example, let us assume we have a compare-and-swap instruction, which as you may recall is an atomic instruction provided by the hardware that does the following:

```
int CompareAndSwap(int *address, int expected, int new) {
  if (*address == expected) {
    *address = new;
    return 1; // success
  }
  return 0; // failure
}
```

Imagine we now wanted to atomically increment a value by a certain amount, using compare-and-swap. We could do so with the following simple function:

```
void AtomicIncrement(int *value, int amount) {
  do {
    int old = *value;
  } while (CompareAndSwap(value, old, old + amount) == 0);
}
```

Instead of acquiring a lock, doing the update, and then releasing it, we have instead built an approach that repeatedly tries to update the value to the new amount and uses the compare-and-swap to do so. In this manner, no lock is acquired, and no deadlock can arise (though livelock is still a possibility, and thus a robust solution will be more complex than the simple code snippet above).

Let us consider a slightly more complex example: list insertion. Here is code that inserts at the head of a list:

```
void insert(int value) {
  node_t *n = malloc(sizeof(node_t));
  assert(n != NULL);
  n->value = value;
  n->next  = head;
  head     = n;
}
```

This code performs a simple insertion, but if called by multiple threads at the "same time", has a race condition. Can you figure out why? (draw a picture of what could happen to a list if two concurrent insertions take place, assuming, as always, a malicious scheduling interleaving). Of course, we could solve this by surrounding this code with a lock acquire and release:

```
void insert(int value) {
  node_t *n = malloc(sizeof(node_t));
  assert(n != NULL);
  n->value = value;
  pthread_mutex_lock(listlock);   // begin critical section
  n->next  = head;
  head     = n;
  pthread_mutex_unlock(listlock); // end critical section
}
```

In this solution, we are using locks in the traditional manner[2]. Instead, let us try to perform this insertion in a lock-free manner simply using the compare-and-swap instruction. Here is one possible approach:

```
void insert(int value) {
  node_t *n = malloc(sizeof(node_t));
  assert(n != NULL);
  n->value = value;
  do {
    n->next = head;
  } while (CompareAndSwap(&head, n->next, n) == 0);
}
```

[2]The astute reader might be asking why we grabbed the lock so late, instead of right when entering `insert()`; can you, astute reader, figure out why that is likely correct? What assumptions does the code make, for example, about the call to `malloc()`?

The code here updates the next pointer to point to the current head, and then tries to swap the newly-created node into position as the new head of the list. However, this will fail if some other thread successfully swapped in a new head in the meanwhile, causing this thread to retry again with the new head.

Of course, building a useful list requires more than just a list insert, and not surprisingly building a list that you can insert into, delete from, and perform lookups on in a lock-free manner is non-trivial. Read the rich literature on lock-free and wait-free synchronization to learn more [H01, H91, H93].

Deadlock Avoidance via Scheduling

Instead of deadlock prevention, in some scenarios deadlock **avoidance** is preferable. Avoidance requires some global knowledge of which locks various threads might grab during their execution, and subsequently schedules said threads in a way as to guarantee no deadlock can occur.

For example, assume we have two processors and four threads which must be scheduled upon them. Assume further we know that Thread 1 (T1) grabs locks `L1` and `L2` (in some order, at some point during its execution), T2 grabs `L1` and `L2` as well, T3 grabs just `L2`, and T4 grabs no locks at all. We can show these lock acquisition demands of the threads in tabular form:

	T1	T2	T3	T4
L1	yes	yes	no	no
L2	yes	yes	yes	no

A smart scheduler could thus compute that as long as T1 and T2 are not run at the same time, no deadlock could ever arise. Here is one such schedule:

Note that it is OK for (T3 and T1) or (T3 and T2) to overlap. Even though T3 grabs lock `L2`, it can never cause a deadlock by running concurrently with other threads because it only grabs one lock.

Let's look at one more example. In this one, there is more contention for the same resources (again, locks `L1` and `L2`), as indicated by the following contention table:

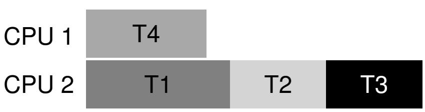
	T1	T2	T3	T4
L1	yes	yes	yes	no
L2	yes	yes	yes	no

TIP: DON'T ALWAYS DO IT PERFECTLY (TOM WEST'S LAW)

Tom West, famous as the subject of the classic computer-industry book *Soul of a New Machine* [K81], says famously: "Not everything worth doing is worth doing well", which is a terrific engineering maxim. If a bad thing happens rarely, certainly one should not spend a great deal of effort to prevent it, particularly if the cost of the bad thing occurring is small. If, on the other hand, you are building a space shuttle, and the cost of something going wrong is the space shuttle blowing up, well, perhaps you should ignore this piece of advice.

Some readers object: "This sounds like you are suggesting mediocrity as a solution!" Perhaps they are right, that we should be careful with advice such as this. However, our experience tells us that in the world of engineering, with pressing deadlines and other real-world concerns, one will always have to decide which aspects of a system to build well and which to put aside for another day. The hard part is knowing which to do when, a bit of insight only gained through experience and dedication to the task at hand.

In particular, threads T1, T2, and T3 all need to grab both locks `L1` and `L2` at some point during their execution. Here is a possible schedule that guarantees that no deadlock could ever occur:



As you can see, static scheduling leads to a conservative approach where T1, T2, and T3 are all run on the same processor, and thus the total time to complete the jobs is lengthened considerably. Though it may have been possible to run these tasks concurrently, the fear of deadlock prevents us from doing so, and the cost is performance.

One famous example of an approach like this is Dijkstra's Banker's Algorithm [D64], and many similar approaches have been described in the literature. Unfortunately, they are only useful in very limited environments, for example, in an embedded system where one has full knowledge of the entire set of tasks that must be run and the locks that they need. Further, such approaches can limit concurrency, as we saw in the second example above. Thus, avoidance of deadlock via scheduling is not a widely-used general-purpose solution.

Detect and Recover

One final general strategy is to allow deadlocks to occasionally occur, and then take some action once such a deadlock has been detected. For example, if an OS froze once a year, you would just reboot it and get happily (or grumpily) on with your work. If deadlocks are rare, such a non-solution is indeed quite pragmatic.

Many database systems employ deadlock detection and recovery techniques. A deadlock detector runs periodically, building a resource graph and checking it for cycles. In the event of a cycle (deadlock), the system needs to be restarted. If more intricate repair of data structures is first required, a human being may be involved to ease the process.

More detail on database concurrency, deadlock, and related issues can be found elsewhere [B+87, K87]. Read these works, or better yet, take a course on databases to learn more about this rich and interesting topic.

32.4 Summary

In this chapter, we have studied the types of bugs that occur in concurrent programs. The first type, non-deadlock bugs, are surprisingly common, but often are easier to fix. They include atomicity violations, in which a sequence of instructions that should have been executed together was not, and order violations, in which the needed order between two threads was not enforced.

We have also briefly discussed deadlock: why it occurs, and what can be done about it. The problem is as old as concurrency itself, and many hundreds of papers have been written about the topic. The best solution in practice is to be careful, develop a lock acquisition order, and thus prevent deadlock from occurring in the first place. Wait-free approaches also have promise, as some wait-free data structures are now finding their way into commonly-used libraries and critical systems, including Linux. However, their lack of generality and the complexity to develop a new wait-free data structure will likely limit the overall utility of this approach. Perhaps the best solution is to develop new concurrent programming models: in systems such as MapReduce (from Google) [GD02], programmers can describe certain types of parallel computations without any locks whatsoever. Locks are problematic by their very nature; perhaps we should seek to avoid using them unless we truly must.

References

[B+87] "Concurrency Control and Recovery in Database Systems" by Philip A. Bernstein, Vassos Hadzilacos, Nathan Goodman. Addison-Wesley, 1987. *The classic text on concurrency in database management systems. As you can tell, understanding concurrency, deadlock, and other topics in the world of databases is a world unto itself. Study it and find out for yourself.*

[C+71] "System Deadlocks" by E.G. Coffman, M.J. Elphick, A. Shoshani. ACM Computing Surveys, 3:2, June 1971. *The classic paper outlining the conditions for deadlock and how you might go about dealing with it. There are certainly some earlier papers on this topic; see the references within this paper for details.*

[D64] "Een algorithme ter voorkoming van de dodelijke omarming" by Edsger Dijkstra. 1964. Available: http://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/EWD/ewd01xx/EWD108.PDF. *Indeed, not only did Dijkstra come up with a number of solutions to the deadlock problem, he was the first to note its existence, at least in written form. However, he called it the "deadly embrace", which (thankfully) did not catch on.*

[GD02] "MapReduce: Simplified Data Processing on Large Clusters" by Sanjay Ghemawhat, Jeff Dean. OSDI '04, San Francisco, CA, October 2004. *The MapReduce paper ushered in the era of large-scale data processing, and proposes a framework for performing such computations on clusters of generally unreliable machines.*

[H01] "A Pragmatic Implementation of Non-blocking Linked-lists" by Tim Harris. International Conference on Distributed Computing (DISC), 2001. *A relatively modern example of the difficulties of building something as simple as a concurrent linked list without locks.*

[H91] "Wait-free Synchronization" by Maurice Herlihy . ACM TOPLAS, 13:1, January 1991. *Herlihy's work pioneers the ideas behind wait-free approaches to writing concurrent programs. These approaches tend to be complex and hard, often more difficult than using locks correctly, probably limiting their success in the real world.*

[H93] "A Methodology for Implementing Highly Concurrent Data Objects" by Maurice Herlihy. ACM TOPLAS, 15:5, November 1993. *A nice overview of lock-free and wait-free structures. Both approaches eschew locks, but wait-free approaches are harder to realize, as they try to ensure that any operation on a concurrent structure will terminate in a finite number of steps (e.g., no unbounded looping).*

[J+08] "Deadlock Immunity: Enabling Systems To Defend Against Deadlocks" by Horatiu Jula, Daniel Tralamazza, Cristian Zamfir, George Candea. OSDI '08, San Diego, CA, December 2008. *An excellent recent paper on deadlocks and how to avoid getting caught in the same ones over and over again in a particular system.*

[K81] "Soul of a New Machine" by Tracy Kidder. Backbay Books, 2000 (reprint of 1980 version). *A must-read for any systems builder or engineer, detailing the early days of how a team inside Data General (DG), led by Tom West, worked to produce a "new machine." Kidder's other books are also excellent, including "Mountains beyond Mountains." Or maybe you don't agree with us, comma?*

[K87] "Deadlock Detection in Distributed Databases" by Edgar Knapp. ACM Computing Surveys, 19:4, December 1987. *An excellent overview of deadlock detection in distributed database systems. Also points to a number of other related works, and thus is a good place to start your reading.*

[L+08] "Learning from Mistakes — A Comprehensive Study on Real World Concurrency Bug Characteristics" by Shan Lu, Soyeon Park, Eunsoo Seo, Yuanyuan Zhou. ASPLOS '08, March 2008, Seattle, Washington. *The first in-depth study of concurrency bugs in real software, and the basis for this chapter. Look at Y.Y. Zhou's or Shan Lu's web pages for many more interesting papers on bugs.*

[T+94] "Linux File Memory Map Code" by Linus Torvalds and many others. Available online at: `http://lxr.free-electrons.com/source/mm/filemap.c`. *Thanks to Michael Walfish (NYU) for pointing out this precious example. The real world, as you can see in this file, can be a bit more complex than the simple clarity found in textbooks...*

Homework (Code)

This homework lets you explore some real code that deadlocks (or avoids deadlock). The different versions of code correspond to different approaches to avoiding deadlock in a simplified `vector_add()` routine. See the README for details on these programs and their common substrate.

Questions

1. First let's make sure you understand how the programs generally work, and some of the key options. Study the code in `vector-deadlock.c`, as well as in `main-common.c` and related files.

   Now, run `./vector-deadlock -n 2 -l 1 -v`, which instantiates two threads (`-n 2`), each of which does one vector add (`-l 1`), and does so in verbose mode (`-v`). Make sure you understand the output. How does the output change from run to run?
2. Now add the `-d` flag, and change the number of loops (`-l`) from 1 to higher numbers. What happens? Does the code (always) deadlock?
3. How does changing the number of threads (`-n`) change the outcome of the program? Are there any values of `-n` that ensure no deadlock occurs?
4. Now examine the code in `vector-global-order.c`. First, make sure you understand what the code is trying to do; do you understand why the code avoids deadlock? Also, why is there a special case in this `vector_add()` routine when the source and destination vectors are the same?
5. Now run the code with the following flags: `-t -n 2 -l 100000 -d`. How long does the code take to complete? How does the total time change when you increase the number of loops, or the number of threads?
6. What happens if you turn on the parallelism flag (`-p`)? How much would you expect performance to change when each thread is working on adding different vectors (which is what `-p` enables) versus working on the same ones?
7. Now let's study `vector-try-wait.c`. First make sure you understand the code. Is the first call to `pthread_mutex_trylock()` really needed?

   Now run the code. How fast does it run compared to the global order approach? How does the number of retries, as counted by the code, change as the number of threads increases?
8. Now let's look at `vector-avoid-hold-and-wait.c`. What is the main problem with this approach? How does its performance compare to the other versions, when running both with `-p` and without it?
9. Finally, let's look at `vector-nolock.c`. This version doesn't use locks at all; does it provide the exact same semantics as the other versions? Why or why not?
10. Now compare its performance to the other versions, both when threads are working on the same two vectors (no `-p`) and when each thread is working on separate vectors (`-p`). How does this no-lock version perform?