MagicFuzzer: Scalable Deadlock Detection for Large-Scale Applications

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Abstract—We present *MagicFuzzer*, a novel dynamic deadlock detection technique. Unlike existing techniques to locate potential deadlock cycles from an execution, it iteratively prunes lock dependencies that each has no incoming or outgoing edge. Combining with a novel thread-specific strategy, it dramatically shrinks the size of lock dependency set for cycle detection, improving the efficiency and scalability of such a detection significantly. In the real deadlock confirmation phase, it uses a new strategy to actively schedule threads of an execution against the whole set of potential deadlock cycles. We have implemented a prototype and evaluated it on large-scale C/C++ programs. The experimental results confirm that our technique is significantly more effective and efficient than existing techniques.

Keywords-deadlock detection; multithreaded programs

I. INTRODUCTION

A multithreaded C/C++/Java program may use locks to coordinate its threads. However, some improper uses of locks in the code may lead to concurrency bugs [13][15]. *Deadlocks* [1][2][9][10][18] are severe problems that lead multithreaded programs (or their components) to fail to make further progress if deadlocks are formed. In general, there are two kinds of deadlocks: resources deadlock [1][10] and communications deadlocks [9]. A *resource deadlock* occurs when a set of threads is holding some resources and is waiting for the resources which have already been held by the threads in the same set. A *communication deadlock* occurs when one or more threads wait for some messages/signals from other threads, which are paused and unable to send the required messages/signals or have already sent the messages/signals before a waiting thread starts to wait for the messages/signals. In this paper, we focus on resource deadlocks where locks are resources.

Potential deadlocks can be detected via static analysis [12][20][26], model checking [7], dynamic analysis [2], runtime monitoring [25], or their integration [1][9]. Analyses based on lock order graphs [15] or their integrations with the use of the happens-before relation have been explored [2]. Methods to confirm whether a potential deadlock is real [3][5][10][18] and to avoid or heal deadlocks [11][18][25] have been studied.

It has been well discussed in the above-mentioned references that different categories of techniques complement one another. In general, static detection techniques and model checking for deadlock detection can analyze the whole program including open framework; whereas, dynamic techniques are more precise and more scalable. Dynamic confirmation techniques are valuable to confirm a potential deadlock if it is a real one, but they could not help to rule out a potential deadlock (as a false alarm). Avoidance and healing techniques are often pattern-based, which may not precisely quantify deadlock conditions. They may produce false positive cases, which slow down an execution further, or cannot prevent a deadlock to re-occur.

We observe that the many modern deadlock detection techniques such as *MulticoreSDK* [15] or *DeadlockFuzzer* [10] firstly use lockset-based strategies to predict potential deadlocks. Once a potential deadlock has been found, deadlock confirmation, avoidance, or healing strategies can be applied. However, without analyzing an execution successfully, such a technique cannot report any potential deadlocks for the subsequence steps to take actions.

Many large-scale applications such as `OpenOffice` [19], `Chromium` [4], `Firefox` [6], `MySQL` [16], `SQLite` [22] and `Thunderbird` [24] are widely-used. A deadlock bug in such a program may affect millions of users. However, due to the sheer sizes of large-scale programs, the probabilities of a run from exhibiting a thread holding a lock for a particular deadlock (because there are many locks in a program), that for such a lock occurred a right time to trigger a deadlock, and that of all such locks simultaneously occurred in the run can be all low. It poses challenges to dynamic deadlock detections.

In this paper, we present our technique, which is known as *MagicFuzzer*. *MagicFuzzer* consists of three phases. In Phase 1 (see Section IV.A), it executes a given program *p*, monitors the critical events (i.e., thread creation as well as lock acquisition and release), and generates a log consisting of a series of lock dependencies (see Section III.B for definition). This log can be viewed as a lock dependency relation *D*. In Phase II, it uses the *Magiclock* algorithm (see Section IV.B) to find potential deadlock cycles from *D*. *Magiclock* firstly classifies all the locks appearing in *D* into four sets using an innovative and highly efficient algorithm. In particular, after our iterative classification, one (which is called *cyclic-set*) of the four sets must contain all the target lock dependencies (i.e., all the locks that may occur in any potential deadlock cycles in the monitored execution). We interestingly observe that (1) each thread can only occur once in a cycle, (2) multiple threads form an order in every permutation of a cycle, and (3) detecting one permutation of the same cycle suffices to represent the cycle. *Magiclock* explores this insight, and constructs a set of *thread-specific* lock-dependency relations based on the locks in *cyclic-set*. In *Magiclock*, we propose a novel depth-first-search algorithm to traverse every such thread-specific lock-dependency

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relation to find cycles. All such cycles will form a set (denoted by *CycleSet*) of potential deadlock cycles. In Phase III (see Section IV.C) *MagicFuzzer* accepts *CycleSet* as an input, and actively executes p with the aim of triggering the occurrence of one or multiple potential deadlock cycles in *CycleSet* in single execution. If a real deadlock occurs in this phase, *MagicFuzzer* report it.

The main contribution of this paper is three-fold. First, we propose a novel and elegant technique *Magiclock* to detect potential deadlock cycles from an execution. Second, we present *MagicFuzzer*. Unlike existing active scheduling strategies for deadlock detection, it can schedule threads against a set of cycles, with the aim of improving the probability of finding a match between a cycle and an execution. Third, we have implemented *MagicFuzzer* as a C++ tool, and shows that the tool can analyze executions of a suite of widely-used and large-scale C/C++ programs efficiently with very manageable memory consumption (compared to the other techniques in the experiment).

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section II shows a motivating example. Section III presents the basic terminology. Our *MagicFuzzer* technique will be presented in Section IV. Section IV presents our experiment to validate *MagicFuzzer*, followed by a discussion on related work in Section V. Section VI concludes this paper.

II. MOTIVATING EXAMPLE

Example A: We motivate our work via the example adapted from [15] as shown in Figure 1. The example includes two functions doubleLock and tripleLock, three threads (t_1, t_2 and t_3), and seven locks (l_1–l_7). The thread t_1 calls doubleLock twice, the thread t_2 accesses l_2 and l_1 in a nested manner, and the thread t_3 calls doubleLock followed by calling tripleLock twice.

Suppose that during the call to doubleLock(l_1, l_2), t_1 acquires l_1 at s_2 followed by t_2 acquiring l_2 at s_{19}. Then, t_1 wants to acquire l_2 at s_3, which is blocked by t_2. Similarly, t_2 wants to acquire l_1 at s_{20}, which is blocked by t_1. They form a deadlock. Then, t_3 invokes doubleLock(l_1, l_4). However, t_3 cannot acquire l_1 successfully because t_1 is holding l_1. The entire execution ceases to proceed further.

In a *lock order graph* [1][2], a node represents a lock. For instance, the two nodes labeled as l_1 and l_2 represent the two lock l_1 and l_2 in Figure 1, respectively. The directed edge from node l_1 to node l_2 is associated with a set of labels (e.g., t_1 as a label), representing that, during the above execution, the thread t_1 acquires the lock n while holding the lock m. For instance, t_1 is holding l_1 when it acquires l_2, and so, there is an edge from node l_1 to node l_2. For simplicity, we do not show

```
Shared data: Lock l1, l2, l3, l4, l5, l6, l7;
s1   doubleLock(lock m, lock n){
s2       Acquire(m);
s3           Acquire(n);
s4           …
s5           Release(n);
s6       Release(m);
s7   }
s8   tripleLock(lock m, lock n){
s9       Acquire(l2);
s10          Acquire(m);
s11              Acquire(n);
s12              …
s13              Release(n);
s14          Release(m);
s15      Release(l2);
s16  }

                              Thread t1
s17   doubleLock(l1, l2);
s18   doubleLock(l1, l3);

                              Thread t2
s19   Acquire(l2);
s20       Acquire(l1);
s21       Release(l1);
s22   Release(l2);

                              Thread t3
s23   doubleLock(l1, l4);
s24   tripleLock(l4, l5);
s25   tripleLock(l6, l7);
```

Figure 1. Example program (adapted from [15])

the other information on an edge in the rest of the paper.

Goodlock [1][2]**:** To detect a deadlock in the above execution, *Goodlock* firstly constructs a lock order graph to detect whether there is any cycle on the graph. The lock order graph for the example is shown in Figure 2(a). We also highlight a detected cycle using dotted edges.

Following [10], in the rest of this paper, we refer to such a cycle as a **potential deadlock cycle** (or simply **cycle**).

Directly checking on a traditional lock order graph for large-scale program is impractical. For instance, Luo et al. [15] reported that such a graph for the *ITCAM* application contained over 300K nodes and 600K edges, and *Goodlock* spent 48 hours and 13.6 GByte memory to traverse it to find cycles if they exist [15].

MulticoreSDK [15] is a most recent technique based on lock order graph. It employs a two-phase strategy to address the scalability problem. It firstly groups the locks being held by different threads at the same code location in the same group, and then merges multiple groups into the same group whenever they have at least one shared lock, resulting in a location-based lock order graph (see Figure 2(b)), on which *MulticoreSDK* locates whether any cyclic dependencies among these groups exist. In Figure 2(b), Groups *A* and *B* form a cycle. Then, *MulticoreSDK* only consider the locks in these groups (i.e., l_1, l_2, l_3, l_4, and l_6) in its second phase, where it constructs a traditional lock order graph (Figure 2(c)).

Finding all cycles on a digraph has been well-researched such as applying the Tarjan algorithm [23] (which is also optimal). As highlighted by the above experience on *ITCAM* in Luo et al. [15], *one key challenge* is to generate a *small* digraph (as small as possible) to apply such an algorithm on it. From Figure 2(c), we observe that the graph used by
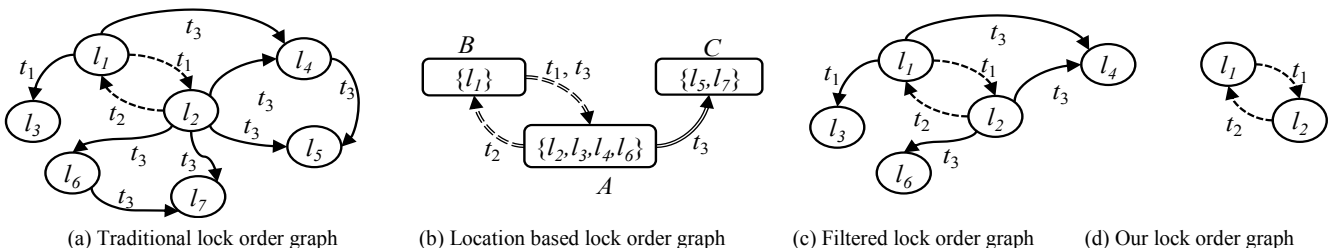

(a) Traditional lock order graph   (b) Location based lock order graph   (c) Filtered lock order graph   (d) Our lock order graph

Figure 2. Lock order graph example (S_x in (b) presents the code line x where the corresponding lock is acquired; edges in cycles are shown in dotted lines)

MulticoreSDK to search for cycles is far from optimal. For instance, none of l_3, l_4, and l_6 on the graph has any outgoing edge — they cannot be involved in any cycle, and yet they appear on the graph. In Figure 2(b), they belong to Group *A*, which also contains l_2. It has no information to eliminate these locks from *A* to reduce the graph in Figure 2(c) further.

DeadlockFuzzer [10]: *iGoodlock* is the core component of *DeadlockFuzzer* to identify cycles. It however searches for cycles on the full permutations of the whole set of lock dependencies [10] generated from an execution trace (with a heuristic pruning strategy), and only suppresses the detected but duplicated cycles (rather than preventing them by design). In our experiment (see Section V), *iGoodlock* is found to consume all the memory that a Linux process is allowed to consume, and crashes before returning any cycle, making the phase two of *DeadlockFuzzer* even unable to start because no input (i.e., cycles annotated with their object abstractions as contexts) has been generated by *iGoodlock*.

Once a set of cycles has been identified by *iGoodlock*, *DeadlockFuzzer* selects cycles one by one, and actively (but biased-randomly) schedules a run to confirm whether *the selected* cycle is a real deadlock. We observe that its probability of successfully matching a cycle with an execution depends on (1) not only how the algorithm schedules the execution (2) but also whether a cycle that can match with the execution has been selected to check against the execution (which is fixed before an invocation of the algorithm is started). If the probability of producing an execution that matches any potential deadlock cycle in the identified cycle set is not high, and there are many cycles in the cycle set, the probability of "hitting" a right combination is, intuitively, low.

Our technique (this paper): To find cycles, *Magiclock* of our technique iteratively removes the lockset $\{l_3, l_6, l_7\}$ and their edges followed by removing $\{l_4, l_5\}$ and their edges, resulting in a set of lock dependencies that precisely represents the lock order graph as shown in Figure 2(d). Note that, after the first round of graph pruning to remove $\{l_3, l_6, l_7\}$, this intermediate lock order graph is already smaller than the corresponding result of *MulticoreSDK*. Moreover, to reduce the size of the set of lock dependencies for a cycle detection algorithm to work on, *Magiclock* executes this step by a new thread-specific strategy (See Section IV.B.2). To improve the probability of hitting a "match" to address the above active scheduling problem, our algorithm works at the cycle set level rather than merely picking one cycle to pair with the execution subject to active thread scheduling.

III. PRELIMINARIES

In this section, we revisit the basic definitions.

A. Monitoring Events and Execution Trace

Given an execution of a multithreaded program *p*, we use $t \in Tid$ to identify a *thread* and $m \in Lock$ to identify a *lock* in the execution. A lockset *L* is defined as $\{m \mid m \in Lock\}$, representing a set of locks. We also denote the set of thread identifiers and the set of locks in *D* by *D.Tid* and *D.Lock*, respectively. Similar to [10][15], *MagicFuzzer* monitors the following three kinds of **critical events**:

- *create*(*t*): a new thread *t* is created;
- *acquire*(*t*, *m*): the thread *t* acquires the lock *m*;
- *release*(*t*, *m*): the thread *t* releases the lock *m*.

An *execution trace* σ_p is a sequence of such *acquire*(*t*, *m*) and *release*(*t*, *m*) events.

B. Lock Dependency Relation

DeadlockFuzzer [10] uses a lock dependency relation to model an execution trace. The phase one of our technique also uses a kind of lock dependency relation to describe an execution. Our lock dependency relation is as follows:

A **lock dependency relation** *D* for σ_p is a set of *lock dependencies* on σ_p. A *lock dependency* $\tau = \langle t, m, L \rangle$ is a triple that contains a thread *t*, a lock *m*, and a lockset *L* such that the thread *t* acquires a lock *m* while holding all the locks in the lockset *L*. In *Example A*, at the execution step where t_1 acquires the lock l_2 at line s_3 while holding the lockset $\{l_1\}$ at line s_2 via calling doubleLock(l_1, l_2), the corresponding lock dependency is $\langle t_1, l_2, \{l_1\}\rangle$.

Given a *lock dependency* $\langle t, m, L \rangle$, from the perspective of lock order graph [15], a lock *n* in *L* represents an edge from node *n* to node *m* on such a graph. A lock dependency $\langle t, m, L \rangle$ has a correspondence with the set of edges from n_i (for all $n_i \in L$) to *m* in a lock order graph. The cardinality of this set of edges is the same as that of the lockset *L*. We simply refer to the cardinality of *L* as $|L|$[1]. Note that in general, a lock order graph may contain multiple sets of nodes (say L_1 and L_2) that each forms a lock dependency with *m* (where *t* is a label of such an edge), and they contain the same node. It is understandable because during an execution, a thread may hold different sets of locks when it acquires the same lock.

We also present three elementary definitions below to relate a lock dependency relation to a lock order graph. We note that the following definitions of *indegree* and *outdegree* are the same as the definitions of indegree and outdegree[2] of a digraph in graph theory.

- *indegree*(*m*) is the sum of $|L_i|$ for all $L_i \in \{ L \mid \langle t, m', L \rangle \in D \land m = m'\}$. Intuitively, *indegree*(*m*) represents the indegree of the node *m* on the lock order graph.
- *outdegree*(*n*) is the cardinality of the set $\{ \langle t, m', L \rangle \mid \langle t, m', L \rangle \in D \land n \in L\}$. Intuitively, it represents the outdegree of the node *n* on the corresponding lock order graph.
- *edgesFromTo*(*m*, *n*) is the cardinality of the set $\{ \langle t, m', L \rangle \mid \langle t, m', L \rangle \in D \land n \in L \land m = m'\}$. Intuitively, it represents the number of edges from *n* to *m* on a lock order graph.

C. Lock Dependency Chain

Given a sequence of *k* (where *k* > 1) lock dependencies *D* $= \langle \langle t_1, m_1, L_1 \rangle, \ldots, \langle t_k, m_k, L_k \rangle \rangle$, if $m_1 \in L_2, \ldots, m_{k-1} \in L_k$, $t_i \neq t_j$, and $L_i \cap L_j = \emptyset$ for $1 \leq i, j \leq k$ ($i \neq j$), we refer to *D* as a **lock**

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[1] In set theory, the *cardinality* of a set *A* is defined as the number of elements of the set, and is denoted by $|A|$.
[2] In graph theory, the *indegree* and *outdegree* of a node *n* are the number of incoming edges to *n* and that of outgoing edges from *n*, respectively.

dependency chain. In particular, if $m_k \in L_1$, D is a **cyclic lock dependency chain**. A cyclic dependency chain represents a potential deadlock cycle.

For example, the lock dependency chain for the dotted edges in Figure 2 (a) is $\langle\langle t_1, l_2, \{l_1\}\rangle, \langle t_2, l_1, \{l_2\}\rangle\rangle$. This chain also forms a deadlock as illustrated in the running example.

IV. ALGORITHM

Our technique *MagicFuzzer* consists of three phases.

A. Phase I: Generation of Execution Trace

This phase is a pre-processing step to construct a log based on the critical events occurred in an execution of a multithreaded program p. Given a program p, we firstly collect the set of critical events from an execution of the program. The detail is as follows:

Suppose that a log w is an empty sequence initially. Whenever an event *create*(t) occurs, we allocate a new thread identifier and an *empty* lockset L_t for the thread t. Also, whenever an *acquire*(t, m) event occurs, we firstly append the triple $\langle t, m, L_t\rangle$ to w, and then add m to L_t (i.e., $L_t := L_t \cup \{m\}$). Whereas, whenever a *release*(t, m) event occurs, we only remove the lock m from L_t (i.e., $L_t := L_t \setminus \{m\}$) without affecting w.

To identify a reentrant lock, which can be acquired by the same thread multiple times before the thread releases the lock, we set up a counter for each lock m, and increment (and decrement, respectively) it by 1 on an acquire event (and a release event, respectively). After an increment/decrement, only when this counter becomes 1/0, the above triple for lock acquisition/release is appended to w. The generated log w is used by Phase II.

B. Phase II: Magiclock

We firstly recall that in general, on a lock order graph G, a node may have no incoming or outgoing edge. However, for a node participating into a potential deadlock cycle, the node must have both incoming and outgoing edges.

Based on the above observation, suppose that we have a lock order graph G. A node that has no incoming edge or outgoing edge cannot be on any cycle in G. Hence, it is *safe* to remove all such nodes and their outgoing and incoming edges from G without the worry of removing any cycle in G.

Our *first insight* is that after such a removal, the generated graph (say G_1) may contain nodes that each has no incoming edge or outgoing edge. Such a node (say n) however must have at least one edge on G because n must have at least one edge connected it with a removed node; otherwise, n must have been removed from G already.

Magiclock iteratively applies such a removal strategy until no more node can be removed. This iterative process must be terminating because it only removes nodes and edges from *a graph* without adding any new node or edge. The resultant graph should contain only nodes, each of which has both incoming and outgoing edges.

The *second insight* is that in applying the above strategy, we only need to know the indegree and outdegree of each node to determine whether a node should be removed. The net result is that *Magiclock* needs not to construct or maintain any lock order graph explicitly at all, but only iteratively subtracts the indegree and outdegree of each node from those outdegree and indegree of the removed nodes, respectively, and marks whether a node has been removed during the inference.

A cycle having v nodes is a sequence, but there are in total v permutations of the nodes to represent the same cycle. Detecting one permutation suffixes to represent the cycle.

The *third insight* (Thread-Specificity) is, as follows, in a cycle, each thread (as an edge to connect two nodes in the cycle) can only occur once. Our definition of cyclic lock dependency chain in Section III.C reflects this insight. More importantly, because (1) each thread can only occur once in a cycle, (2) multiple threads form an order in every permutation of a cycle, and (3) detecting one permutation of the same cycle is sufficient to represent the cycle, we observe that we can use a thread-driven approach to search for cycles.

Magiclock firstly partitions the set of lock dependencies by threads, sorts the partitions in the ascending order of their thread identifiers to align its search sequence among the partitions with the permutation of every potential cycle that a thread with a smaller identifier always appears first in the permutation. Because each thread can only occur once in a cycle, *Magiclock* further employs a depth-first-search to avoid exploring any subtree if any node in the path from the root node to the current node in the search tree has the thread identifier of the root node of the subtree.

In the rest of this section, we present Phase II in detail.

1) Lock Classification: This is an iterative step. In each iteration, *Magiclock* aims at categorizing all the lock dependencies of D into four sets iteratively:

- *independent-set*: contains all the locks, each (say m) of which satisfies the following condition: *indegree*(m) = 0 $\wedge$ *outdegree*(m) = 0.
- *intermediate-set*: contains all the locks, each (say m) of which satisfies the following condition: (*indegree*(m) = 0 $\vee$ *outdegree*(m) = 0) $\wedge$ $\neg$(*indegree*(m) = 0 $\wedge$ *outdegree*(m) = 0).
- *inner-set*: contains all the locks, each (say m) of which satisfies the following condition: either (1) for all $\langle t, m, L\rangle \in D$ and for all $n \in L$, n must be an element of *intermediate-set* $\cup$ *inner-set*; or (2) for all $\langle t, n, L\rangle \in D$ and for all $m \in L$, n must be an element of *intermediate-set* $\cup$ *inner-set*.
- At the final iteration, if there are still locks that do not belong to any one of the above three sets, the algorithm classifies them into the fourth set: *cyclic-set*.

Algorithms 1 and 2 show our lock classification algorithms. In the algorithms, *indegree* and *outdegree* are arrays that each maps a lock (as an index) to a number, denoting the values of indegree and outdegree of the lock; *edgesFromTo* is a two-dimensional array (a sparse matrix), where an entry *edgesFromTo*(n, m) represents the number of edges to go from n to m. An entry *isTraversed*(i) keeps whether the thread i has been completed its traversal or not.

Algorithm 1: *InitClassification*(D)

```
 1  for each m ∈ D.Lock do
 2      indegree(m) := 0
 3      outdegree(m) := 0
 4  end for
 5  for each pair of locks (m, n) in D.Lock such that ∃ ⟨t, n, L⟩ ∈ D
            and m ∈ L do
 6      edgesFromTo(m, n):= 0
 7  end for
 8  for each lock dependency ⟨t, m, L⟩ ∈ D do
 9      for each lock n ∈ L
10          indegree(m) := indegree(m) + 1
11          outdegree(m) := outdegree(m) + 1
12          edgesFromTo(n, m) := edgesFromTo(n, m) + 1
13      end for
14  end for
```

Algorithm 2: *LockClassification* (D)

```
 1  Stack S := ∅; independent-set := ∅; intermediate-set := ∅;
    inner-set := ∅; cyclic-set := ∅
 2  for each lock m ∈ D.Lock
 3      if indegree(m)=0 and outdegree(m)=0 then
 4          add m to independent-set // keep in independent-set
 5      else
 6          if indegree(m) = 0 or outdegree(m) = 0 then
 7              add m into intermediate-set // keep in intermediate-set
 8              push m into S
 9          end if
10      end if
11  end for
12  while S is non-empty do
13      pop m from S
14      if indegree(m) = 0 then
15          for each n ∈ D.Lock and n ≠ m do
16              indegree(n) := indegree(m) – edgesFromTo(m, n)
17              outdegree(m) := outdegree(m) – edgesFromTo(m, n)
18              edgesFromTo(m, n) := 0
19              if indegree(n) = 0 then
20                  push n into S
21                  add n into inner-set // keep in inner-set
22              end if
23          end for
24      end if
25      if outdegree(m) = 0 then
26          for each n ∈ D.Lock and n ≠ m do
27              outdegree(n) := outdegree(m) – edgesFromTo(n, m)
28              indegree(m) := indegree(m) – edgesFromTo(n, m)
29              edgesFromTo(n, m) := 0
30              if outdegree(n) = 0 then
31                  push n into S
32                  add n into inner-set //keep in inner-set
33              end if
34          end for
35      end if
36  end while
37  for each lock m ∈ D.Lock do
38      if m ∉ independent-set ∪ intermediate-set ∪ inner-set then
39          add m to cyclic-set // keep in cyclic-set
40      end if
41  end for
```

InitClassification (Algorithm 1) initializes the *indegree*, *outdegree*, and *edgesFromTo* associated with each lock as those values for the corresponding node on a corresponding lock order graph.

LockClassification (Algorithm 2) firstly identifies all the locks that belong to *independent-set* by checking, for each lock m, whether the *indegree*(m) and *outdegree*(m) of the lock m are both zero (lines 3−4). Then, it further identifies all the locks that belong to *intermediate-set* by checking, for each lock m, both whether both m does not belong to *independent-set* and whether one of its *indegree*(m) and *outdegree*(m) is zero (lines 6−7). Such an identified lock must have either no incoming edge or no outgoing edge. Hence, all such locks and their edges can be removed from the subsequent consideration of deadlock detection. Then, for each lock that belongs to *intermediate-set*, *LockClassification* also pushes the lock into a stack S (line 8).

The algorithm then enumerates the stack S. There are two cases: (Case 1) *indegree*(m) = 0 and (Case 2) *outdegree*(m) = 0, where m is a lock in S. If the *indegree*(m) of the lock m is zero, *LockClassification* subtracts *indegree*(n) from *edgesFromTo*(m, n), and subtracts and *outdegree*(m) from the latter as well. It then resets *edgesFromTo*(m, n) to be zero, indicating that the edge has been "removed". After the deduction and reset (if any), if the *indegree*(n) of any node n becomes zero, n will be classified to *inner-set* and also be pushed into S (lines 14−24) for further inference in subsequent iterations. Similarly, if the *outdegree*(m) of the lock m is zero, *LockClassification* performs the same actions of what it does to handle the first case except that it now works on *outdegrees* instead of *indegrees* (lines 25−35). If there is no more element in the stack S, it indicates that no more edge and node removal needed to be done. *LockClassification* classifies all such locks (whose have not been classified in the above three sets) into *cyclic-set* (lines 37−41).

Example B: Take the lock order graph in Figure 2 (a) for illustration purpose. Table 1 shows the *indegree* and *outdegree* of every lock (node) for the graph in Figure 2 (a). For instance, for lock l_1, the table shows that the lock has three outgoing edges and 1 incoming edge, which match the situation presented in Figure 2 (a). Other entries can be interpreted similarly.

Table 1. The indegrees and outdegrees for the nodes on the graph shown in Figure 2(a)

Lock instance	l_1	l_2	l_3	l_4	l_5	l_6	l_7
indegree	1	1	1	2	2	1	2
outdegree	3	5	0	1	0	1	0

After the initialization of *indegree*, *outdegree*, and *edgesFromTo* for every node, *LockClassification* aims to classify nodes to *independent-set*, but, as shown in Table 1, no lock has 0s in both (*indegree* and *outdegree*) rows. Hence, the set *independent-set* is empty. Then, it classifies l_3, l_5, and l_7 into *intermediate-set* because each of them has a value 0 in its *outdegree* row, and the algorithm pushes these three locks into the stack S (initially empty). Readers may refer to Figure 2(a) that if the three locks (i.e., nodes) have been removed, the five edges connected to them can be removed. Correspondingly, on processing the three lock in S, *LockClassification* decrements the values in the *outdegree* row for l_1, l_2, l_4, and l_6 by 1, 2, 1, and 1, respectively. The values in the *outdegree* row for l_4, and l_6 become zeros. Hence, *LockClassification* further classifies l_4 and l_6 into *inner-set,* and pushes them into S. Note that the values in the outdegree row for the locks l_1–l_7 are now 2, 3, 0, 0, 0, 0, and 0, respectively. The algorithm then handles these two locks

```
Algorithm 3: CycleDetection(cyclic-set, D)
1   k := |D.Tid|
2   for each i from 1 to k do
3     isTraversed(i):=False
4     Di := ∅
5   end for
6   for each lock dependency τ = ⟨ti, m, L⟩ ∈ D do
7     if m ∈ cyclic-set then
8       add τ into Di
9     end if
10  end for
11  Stack S := ∅
12  for each i from 1 to k do
13    visiting:=i //repeated cycles elimination
14    for each τ =⟨t, m, L⟩ ∈ Di do
15      isTraversed(i):=True //mark thread identifier ti
16      push τ into S
17      call DFS_Traverse(visiting, S)
18      pop τ from S
19    end for
20  end for
21  Function DFS_Traverse(visiting, S)
22    For each j from visiting+1 to k do
23      if isTraversed(j)=False then //otherwise, skip all visited Dj
24        for each τ ∈ Dj do
25          θ:= S
26          push τ into θ
27          if θ forms a dependency chain then
28            if θ forms a cyclic dependency chain then
29              report θ as a potential deadlock cycle
30            else
31              isTraversed (j):=True
32              push τ into S
33              call DFS_Traverse(visiting, S)
34              pop τ from S
35              isTraversed (j):=False
36            end if
37          end if
38        end for
39      end if
40    end for
41  end Function
```

in S, and finds that 1 outgoing edge connected to l_1 and 2 outgoing edges connected to l_2 are associated with the classified l_4, and l_6. The algorithm then deducts the values in the outdegree row for l_4, and l_6 by 2 and 1, respectively. The row for the seven locks becomes 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, and 0, respectively. The iteration stops because the stack S is now empty. Both the indegree and outdegree rows for either l_1 or l_2 are non-zeros. The algorithm classifies l_1 and l_2 into *cyclic-set* (which, incidentally, precisely reduces the set of locks to show the cycle for *Example A*).

To ease readers to follow, Figure 2 (d) shows the result of *cyclic-set* with the edges associated with their lock dependencies such that both nodes of an edge are elements in *cyclic-set*.

2) Cycle Detection Algorithm: In this step, *Magiclock* constructs one *thread-specific* lock dependency relation D_i for *each* thread t_i by *CycleDetection* (Algorithm 3) as a partition mentioned in the "Thread Specificity" insight. Lines 2−10 in *CycleDetection* show the partitioning process. Note that, as explained above, *Magiclock* only needs to

examine the lock dependencies for the locks that each of them is in *cyclic-set* (lines 7–9).

Then, *CycleDetection* iteratively (lines 17 and 33) search the sequences of thread-specific lock dependency relations via a depth first search strategy in such a way that when visiting the partition D_i, it only further explores D_j for $1 \leq j \leq k$, where k is the number of threads in D (i.e., $|D.Tid|$) (lines 12 and 22), skipping those visited (line 23). It also prunes a branch when a cycle is detected (line 29).

3) Discussion: Compared with *iGoodlock* in *DeadlockFuzzer*, *Magiclock* has several innovations:

First, *Magiclock* uses a thread-specific lock dependency relation (denoted by *thread-specific ldr*) for each thread instead of mixing all them in the same ldr as *iGoodlock* does. Every thread in every lock dependency in a lock dependency chain can only occur once. Hence, if a technique puts all available lock dependencies in the same ldr, the technique cannot tell whether two lock dependencies in this ldr share the same thread identifier, unless the technique compares the thread identifiers of the two lock dependencies. However, to use a thread-specific ldr, *Magiclock* can *actively select* a particular set of lock dependencies (i.e., a partition mentioned above) with the required thread identifier **without** doing any comparison later.

Second, *Magiclock* employs a new depth-first-search algorithm to traverse D_i for each thread t_i. This is different from the *iGoodlock* algorithm in *DeadlockFuzzer*. *iGoodlock* uses the transitive closure to iteratively find cycles. A noticeable limitation in *iGoodlock* is that *iGoodlock* has to keep all intermediate results, which consumes a lot of memory [10]. For *Magiclock*, a key parameter of its overhead is the traversal depth, which is at most the same as the total number of threads in an execution. On the other hands, *iGoodlock* may require a shorter period of time on reporting a cyclic lock dependency chain with, say, length = 2 because *Magiclock* has to traverse all possible depths for a given ldr before traversing another one at the same depth. Our technique has compensated this disadvantage by using the innovative thread-specific strategy as discussed above.[3]

Third, *iGoodlock* suffers from an overhead of suppressing the report of v occurrences of the same cyclic lock dependency chain where v is the length of the chain. For example, given a cyclic lock dependency chain $\langle\langle t_1, m_1, L_1\rangle, \langle t_2, m_2, L_2\rangle, \langle t_3, m_3, L_3\rangle\rangle$ with $v = 3$, there are two other cyclic lock dependency chains: $\langle\langle t_2, m_2, L_2\rangle, \langle t_3, m_3, L_3\rangle, \langle t_1, m_1, L_1\rangle\rangle$ and $\langle\langle t_3, m_3, L_3\rangle, \langle t_1, m_1, L_1\rangle, \langle t_2, m_2, L_2\rangle\rangle$. They all represent the same cycle. *iGoodlock* addresses this problem by suppressing the report of all but one occurrence of each cyclic dependency chain. However, it can only do so after the repeated occurrences of the same cyclic dependency chain have been detected. The Algorithm 3 of *Magiclock* uses the Thread Specificity insight and an elegant depth-first-search strategy to prevent any traversal that the search visits a thread partition with a larger thread identifier before visiting a thread partition with a smaller thread identifier.

---

[3] Of course, with a slight adaption, *Magiclock* can be also configured to detect cyclic lock dependency chains with depth = 2 only.

Algorithm 4: *MagicScheduler* (Program *p*, set of cycles: `CycleSet`)

```
 1  ToBePaused:={t |∃ τ=⟨t, m, L⟩ and D ∈ CycleSet, such that
    τ ∈ D}
 2  Paused := ∅
 3  Lockset(t) := ∅ for each thread t
 4  Enable:= {t | t ∈ p}
 5  while Enable ≠ ∅ do
 6     t:= a random thread in Enable\Paused
 7     stmt:= next statement to be executed by t
 8     if t ∉ ToBePaused  then
 9        execute(stmt)
10     else
11        if stmt=acquire(t, m) then
12           call CheckDeadlock
13           if CheckAndPause(t, m) returns a Cycle then
14              pause (t)
15              Paused := Paused ∪ {⟨t, Cycle⟩}
16           else
17              Lockset(t):=Lockset(t) ∪ {m}
18              execute(stmt)
19           end if
20        else
21           if stmt=release(t, m) then
22              Lockset(t):=Lockset(t) \{m}
23              execute(stmt)
24           end if
25        end if
26     end if
27     if |Paused|=|Enable| then
28        pick a random pair ⟨t, Cycle⟩ ∈ Paused
29        Paused := Paused - {⟨t, Cycle ⟩}
30        resume(t)
31     end if
32  end while
33  if Active ≠ ∅ then
34     print 'System Stalls!'
35  end if
36  Function CheckDeadlock
37     if ∃{t₁, ...tₙ} ⊆ ToBePaused and Cycle ∈ CycleSet such
       that ⟨⟨t₁, ToAcquire(t₁), Lockset(t₁)⟩, ...⟨tₙ, ToAcquire(tₙ),
       Lockset(tₙ) ⟩⟩ = Cycle then
38        print 'a real deadlock detected on ' + ToString(Cycle)
39     end if
40  end Function
```

```
 1  Function CheckAndPause(t, m)
 2     if ∃ Cycle ∈ CycleSet such that ⟨t, m, Lockset(t)⟩ ∈
          Cycle then
 3        return Cycle
 4     end if
 5     return ∅
 6  end function
```

C. Phase III: Deadlock Confirmation

1) Object Abstraction: To confirm whether a cyclic lock dependency chain is a real deadlock [9], we need to map the locks on every potential deadlock cycle provided by Phase II to the locks of an execution in this phase. *DeadlockFuzzer* uses a lightweight indexing algorithm [10], which computes an abstraction for each thread or lock for Java programs. For each object *o* in a Java program, *lightweight indexing* is computed according the thread-local *CallStack* [4] and the thread-local *Counter*. A *Counter* is an integer mapped from three keys: a thread identifier *t*, the depth of *CallStack d*

---

[4] Note that this *CallStack* is maintained by *DeadlockFuzzer* itself and slightly different from that we usually said call stack at its content. It contains one more item *Counter* on each function call event.

(precisely, half of the depth), and a label *c* (e.g., code line number) where the object *o* is created.

MagicFuzzer adapts this object abstraction approach as *lightweight indexing* in *DeadlockFuzzer* to compute an abstraction for each thread and lock so that it can work on C/C++ programs. There are two differences, however. First, unlike a Java program, in a C/C++ program, not all locks are dynamically initialized. For instance, developers may statically initialize a block of memory as the initialization of a particular lock via a call to PTHREAD_MUTEX_INITIALIZER in the Pthread library. In the implementation, *MagicFuzzer* uses pintool [14] to monitor execution events, which cannot provide events to our tool about this kind of memory allocations in the Probe mode (see Section V.A). Therefore, *MagicFuzzer* works around to compute an abstraction for every statically initialized lock by checking whether a lock has been created in its first lock acquisition, and if its creation has not been recorded, *MagicFuzzer* approximates the acquisition site of the lock in the code as the creation site of the lock. Second, the data structure *CallStack* in *DeadlockFuzzer* is maintained by *DeadlockFuzzer* itself on function call and return as well as on creation of a new objection. *MagicFuzzer* directly uses the call stack of the C/C++ program runtime to retrieve any required call stack directly to precisely represent the actual situation and optimize its performance.

2) MagicFuzzer Scheduler: We firstly recall that by the non-deterministic nature of a multithreaded program, executing a program over an input may probabilistically exhibits a real deadlock in an execution if the deadlock can be formed. Our insight here is that such an execution may also probabilistically produce an object abstraction of a potential deadlock cycle. To actively guide a run to produce a deadlock, it relies on the probability of producing such an object abstraction in the run *and* the probability of selecting a potential deadlock cycle that contains the same object abstraction. It is possible that the same object abstraction may exist in an execution multiple times, but a corresponding deadlock cycle may not be the focus of the current monitoring run, or the right occurrence of the abstraction has been accidently missed in active thread scheduling, hence, missing an opportunity to confirm a deadlock in the execution. *DeadlockFuzzer* suffers from this problem because before an execution produces any object abstraction that may match with any potential deadlock cycle, a particular potential deadlock cycle (which may not match with the object abstraction in question) has been chosen as the only "suspect" to be confirmed for the run.

MagicFuzzer uses an active random scheduler to check against *a set of cycles* (denoted as `CycleSet`) reported by *Magiclock* with *each* execution. To ease our presentation, we firstly define the following notations: `CycleSet` is a set of cycles reported by *Magiclock*. `ToBePaused` is a set of threads with each thread existing in some cycles in `CycleSet`. `ToAcquire(t)` represents a lock that *t* wants to acquire in its next statement. `Paused` is a set of pairs of a thread *t* and a `Cycle`, which denotes that, when executing *p*, a thread will be paused and added into `Paused` if ⟨*t*,

ToAcquire(*t*), Lockset(*t*)⟩ belongs to a Cycle. Enable is a set of threads that each has not terminated yet. We use stmt to denote a high-level instruction, such as an acquire or release operation. We denote a call to execute a statement stmt by execute(stmt). The functions pause(*t*) and resume(*t*) represent the actions to pause and resume *t*, respectively.

Algorithm 4 shows our *MagicScheduler* active random scheduler.

Given a program *p* and a CycleSet, *MagicScheduler* firstly identifies ToBePaused set by extracting all identical threads abstractions from each Cycle in CycleSet (at line 1). It then initializes Paused to be empty (at line 2), Lockset(*t*) to be empty for each thread *t* (at line 3), and Enable to contain all threads in *p* (at line 4).

When executing *p*, if *t* is not in ToBePaused, *MagicScheduler* allows *t* to execute statements. Otherwise, if the next statement of *t* is a lock acquisition statement (*acquire(t, m)*), just before executing this statement, *MagicScheduler* checks whether any real deadlock may occur if *t* acquires *m* by call CheckDeadlock. The function CheckDeadlock (lines 36–40) checks whether a real deadlock occurs, and reports a deadlock if there exists a cyclic lock dependency chain as defined in Section IV.B. No matter a deadlock occurs or not, *MagicScheduler* then calls CheckAndPause to determine whether or not the current thread should be paused. If CheckAndPause returns a Cycle, *MagicScheduler* pauses *t* and adds the pair ⟨*t*, Cycle⟩ into Paused; otherwise, *MagicScheduler* calls execute(stmt) to execute the statement, and updates the lockset of *t*. If the statement stmt is a lock release statement, *MagicScheduler* updates the lockset of *t* and calls execute(stmt). All other statements will be directly executed without the interception by *MagicFuzzer*.

CheckAndPause differentiates *MagicScheduler* from *DeadlockFuzzer*. *DeadlockFuzzer* only checks a predetermined cycle for each invocation. However, CheckAndPause checks all the cycles in *CycleSet* and returns a Cycle if ⟨*t*, ToAcquire(*t*), Lockset(*t*)⟩ belongs to at least one cycle; otherwise, it returns ∅. In such way, *MagicScheduler* is able to check and confirm multiple cycles to be real deadlocks in the same run. If not all cycles are confirmed by *MagicScheduler* in a run, then *MagicScheduler* can proceed to confirm the remaining cycles at the next run iteratively until all cycles have been confirmed, or it reaches a certain number R (e.g., 100, which is inputted by a user) of runs.

3) Thrashing: Thrashing [10] may occur due to improper pausing a set of threads. Both *DeadlockFuzzer* and *MagicScheduler* suffer from thrashing. When a thrashing occurs, *MagicScheduler* selects a thread randomly, and resumes it (lines 28–32).

V. EXPERIMENT

A. Implementation and Benchmark

Implementation. We have implemented *MagicFuzzer* using Pin 2.9 [14], a dynamic instrumentation analysis tool,

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of Benchmarks (a-r events refer to acquisition and release events; NA means no bug ID available)

Benchmarks	Bug ID	SLOC	# of threads	# of locks	Trace size	
					File size	# of a-r events
SQLite	#1672	74.0k	10	4	732Bytes	460
MySQL	#37080	1,093.6k	27	127	23.8KB	4,986
Chromium	NA	3,577.5k	21	1,363	4.1MB	1,325,202
Firefox	NA	3,315.4k	22	912	5.7MB	4,165,230
OpenOffice	NA	5,445,8k	7	1,349	4.1MB	1,357,696
Thunderbird	NA	2,751.2k	10	915	2.6MB	1,601,456

running in its *Probe-based* mode. The Probe-based mode supports high-level instrumentation so that the instrumented program runs almost natively [14]. *MagicFuzzer* has been implemented for C/C++ programs using Pthreads libraries on a Linux system. For each thread or lock, *MagicFuzzer* maintains a shadow memory location to store its data, such as a lockset for a thread, and an integer *heldCounter* for a lock (where *heldCounter* is used to handle the acquisitions of a reentrant lock).

MagicFuzzer instruments a program to produce an execution trace as described in Section IV.A. It also generates a location for each lock acquisition event for *MulticoreSDK* as this technique needs it. To compare with our tool, we also faithfully implemented *DeadlockFuzzer* [10] and *MulticoreSDK* [15] on pin based on their papers and downloadable artifacts because their original tool can handle Java programs only. However, to compute an abstraction for each thread and lock, we directly search CallStack (through stack pointer *sp* via pin) rather than maintaining a CallStack as in [10].

Benchmarks[5]. We selected a set of widely-used C/C++ open source programs, including SQLite [22], MySQL [16], Firefox [6], Chromium [4], Thunderbird [24], and Open Office [19]. Because SQLite is an embedded database, we wrote a simple test harness program with two threads to concurrently call it. Originally, we intended to use benchmarks that have been published, but there is virtually no such benchmark with large-scale C/C++ programs with test cases that can repeat the occurrences of deadlocks. For SQLite and MySQL, we use the test cases adapted from their bug reports [22][16]. For Firefox, Chromium, and Open Office, we simple start them, and then close them when their user interface appears. For Thunderbird, we configure it to get two emails from a Gmail account.

Our experiment was performed on the Ubuntu Linux 10.04 configured with a 3.16GHz Duo 2 processor and 3.25GB physical memory. We use the *time* command (a Linux utility) to collect the time consumption and read the memory usage from /proc/<benchmark processing ID>/statm to compute the maximum amount of memory used for each run on a benchmark. Following the experiment in [10], we reported the average perform on 100 runs on each tool.

---

[5] The suite of benchmarks and *MagicFuzzer* can be downloaded at http://www.cs.cityu.edu.hk/~51948163/magicfuzzer/.

Table 3. Memory and Time Comparisons among *iGoodlock*, *MulticoreSDK*, and *Magiclock* (MSDK refers to *MulticoreSDK*; ND means no data collected in the cell; UKN means unknown)

Benchmark	Memory(MB)			Time(s)			# of cycles			# of real deadlocks
	iGoodlock	MSDK	Magiclock	iGoodlock	MSDK	Magiclock	iGoodlock	MSDK	Magiclock	
SQLite	1.05MB	1.05MB	1.05MB	0.002s	0.003s	0.002s	1	1	1	1
MySQL	>2.8GB	1.15MB	1.05MB	>2m5s	6m38s	1.73s	>1	1	1	1
Chromium	>2.8GB	>48.2MB	8.01MB	>1h47m	>1h	1m42s	ND	ND	3	UKN
Firefox	>2.8GB	122.41MB	4.14MB	>10m40s	7.43s	3.06s	ND	0	0	0
OpenOffice	245.20MB	>48.4MB	8.01MB	1h46m	>1h	0.67s	0	ND	0	0
Thunderbird	298.83MB	40.09MB	4.15MB	16m13s	4.75s	1.18s	0	0	0	0

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics of the benchmarks we selected. The first three columns show the name, Bug ID (where NA means no bug ID available), and code size (SLOC [21]) of each benchmark. The fourth and fifth columns show the number of threads and the number of locks, respectively. The last two columns show the execution trace size in forms of the trace file size and the number of lock acquisitions and releases (denoted as a-r events).

B. Result Analysis

Table 3 summarizes the overall comparisons among *iGoodlock*, *MulticoreSDK* (denoted as MSDK), and *Magiclock* in aspects of the memory consumption (under the column Memory) in Megabytes (MB) (or GB for Gigabytes if the memory consumption is large than 1024MB), the time consumption (under column Time) in second (s) (or "m" for minute if the time if larger than 60 seconds and "h" for hour if the time is larger than 60 minutes), and the number of cycles (under the column # of cycles). The last column shows the number of real deadlocks among the detected cycles. Due to the out of memory error of *iGoodlock*, we cannot collect its data in full. We mark these cells with "ND" indicating where no data is collected and with ">" indicating that the value in the cell is just the value before it crashed. We also use these two marks in Table 4 and Table 5 for the same purpose.

From Table 3, we observe on SQLite, the three algorithms performed similarly in memory and time consumption. They also reported the same number of cycles. However, except on SQLite, *iGoodlock* consumed the most memory and the most time among the three algorithms and run out of memory on MySQL, Chromium and Firefox. *MulticoreSDK* consumed up to hundreds of Megabyte memory. *Magiclock* consumed the least memory; and on all benchmarks, it consumed less than ten Megabytes memory.

Table 4. Comparisons between *iGoodlock* and *Magiclock* (ND means no data collected in the cell.)

Benchmarks	# of lock dependencies		# of intermediate results of iGoodlock		
	iGoodlock (DF^1)	Magic-lock	DF^2	DF^3	$\sum DF^i$ ($i \geq 4$)
SQLite	136	136	0	0	0
MySQL	1,588	565	78,789	1,885,672	ND
Chromium	392,583	12,174	>4,771,070	ND	ND
Firefox	202,408	26	>510,421	ND	ND
OpenOffice	308,268	29,244	78,120	0	0
Thunderbird	23,848	430	136,098	323,096	0

On time consumption, *MulticoreSDK* consumed two to six times than that consumed by *Magiclock* except on Chromium and Open Office. On Chromium and Open Office, both *iGoodlock* and *MulticoreSDK* did not finish (*iGoodlock* run out of memory and, for *MulticoreSDK*, we have killed *its* process after the reported time in Table 3 has elapsed).

On the reported numbers of cycles, *MulticoreSDK* and *Magiclock* reported the same number of cycles; *iGoodlock* also reported the same number as that reported by *MulticoreSDK* and *Magiclock* except on those benchmarks that it ran out of memory (and crashed).

We find that *Magiclock* is better than *iGoodlock* and *MulticoreSDK* in terms of memory and time consumption. In the following subsection V.C, we compare *Magiclock* with *iGoodlock* and *MulticoreSDK* in more details.

C. Comparisons

1) Comparison between iGoodlock and Magiclock: Because both *iGoodlock* and *Magiclock* used the lock dependencies relation implementations to find cycles, we compared the number of lock dependencies produced by the two algorithms as shown in the second and the third columns in Table 4. Besides, *iGoodlock* uses an iterative algorithm to find all cycles and has to store all intermediate results (see Section IV.B.2 and [10]), Table 4 also shows the intermediate results for each benchmark produced by *iGoodlock* in the last three columns (denoted by DF^x $x \geq 2$ where *x* is the (*x*-1) iteration round).

From Table 4, we observe that, except on SQLite, *iGoodlock* produced too many lock dependencies in the first iteration (denoted by DF^1). However, *Magiclock* only produced a small number of lock dependencies. In particular, on Firefox, *iGoodlock* produced nearly 7800 more times lock dependencies than that produced by *Magiclock*. The result of the first iteration is shown in column DF^2. Compared to the number of dependencies in the first iteration (DF^1) on MySQL, Chromium, and Firefox, *iGoodlock* produced more numbers of dependencies for the second iteration (DF^2), which caused *iGoodlock* to crash due to the out of memory errors.

2) Comparison between MulticoreSDK and Magiclock: *MulticoreSDK* and *Magiclock* use the different pruning strategies to reduce the size of a lock order.

Table 5 lists the comparisons between *MulticoreSDK* and *Magiclock* in terms of the numbers of nodes and edges. The second main column shows the size of the lock order graph

Table 5. Comparisons between *MulticoreSDK* and *Magiclock* (MSDK refers to *MulticoreSDK*).

Benchmarks	# of lock nodes					# of edges				
	Total (A)	MSDK (B)	B÷A	Magic-lock (C)	C÷A	Total (D)	MSDK (E)	E÷D	Magic-lock (F)	F÷D
SQLite	4	3	0.75	3	0.75	136	136	1.00	136	1.00
MySQL	127	86	0.68	21	0.17	3,179	1,070	0.34	565	0.18
Chromium	1,363	659	0.48	19	0.01	463,928	130,813	0.28	12,174	0.03
Firefox	912	723	0.79	2	0.01	253,796	250,655	0.99	26	0.01
OpenOffice	1,349	972	0.72	275	0.20	902,791	902,738	1.00	29,244	0.03
Thunderbird	915	769	0.84	25	0.03	54,124	46,898	0.87	430	0.01
Avg.	–	–	0.71	–	0.19	–	–	0.75	–	0.21

that constructed by a traditional graph (Total, as A), by *MulticoreSDK* (denoted by MSDK, as B), and by *Magiclock* (as C), respectively, as well as the percentage of nodes (after pruning) for *MulticoreSDK* and *Magiclock*. Note that the second column (Total) is the same as the total number of locks because each lock corresponds to a node in a lock order graph. The columns on the right show the number of edges produced by a traditional graph (Total, as D), by *MulticoreSDK* (denoted by MSDK, as E), and by *Magiclock* (as F), respectively, as well as the percentage of the remaining edges for *MulticoreSDK* and *Magiclock* after pruning. Note that for a fair comparison, on counting the number of edges for *Magiclock*, we have converted each lock dependency to a set of edges. For example, a lock dependency $\langle t, m, \{l_1, l_2\}\rangle$ corresponds to two edges in a lock order graph. The last row shows the average non-pruned nodes and edges percentage for *MulticoreSDK* and *Magiclock*, respectively.

From Table 5, we observe that *MulticoreSDK* only pruned a small number of nodes and edges except on SQLite. Even on Chromium, *MulticoreSDK* pruned about a half (52%) of all nodes, whereas, *Magiclock* pruned almost all nodes (97%). On Firefox, *Magiclock* pruned more than 99% of nodes and edges; however, *MulticoreSDK* pruned only 21% of all nodes and less than 1% of all edges.

On average, *Magiclock* pruned about 80% of all nodes and edges; *MulticoreSDK* pruned less than 30% of all nodes and about 25% of all edges.

D. MagicFuzzer

In Phase III, *MagicFuzzer* confirms the cycles reported by *Magiclock* in Phase II.

As shown in Table 3, on SQLite and MySQL, there is only one cycle and this cycle is confirmed by *MagicFuzzer* as a real deadlock. The detected deadlocks are described at the bug databases of SQLite [22] and MySQL [16].

We leave the report on the probability of *MagicScheduler* on the confirmation of a set of potential deadlock cycles as a future work.

VI. RELATED WORK

Techniques on deadlock detection can be classified into static ones and dynamic ones. We have compared our *MagicFuzzer* with two dynamic techniques *DeadlockFuzzer* and *MulticoreSDK*, and indirectly compared with *Goodlock*.

Many static techniques ([1][17][20][26]) analyze the source code and infer lock order graphs to find potential deadlock cycles. They have an advantage to apply for software that is not close such as the Java library. These techniques however suffer from high false positives. For example, an early work [26] reports that 1,000 deadlocks and only 7 are real deadlocks. More recently, Naik et al. [17] combines a suite of static analysis techniques to reduce the false positive rates. However, problems like conditional variables and scalability are still the concerns on using static techniques. *MagicFuzzer* never reports a false positive due to its confirmation of each potential deadlock cycle.

Joshi et al. [9] monitors annotated conditional variables to produce a trace program containing only thread and lock operations as well as the values of conditionals. Then they apply a model checker (Java Pathfinder) to check all *abstracted* execution paths of the trace program for deadlocks. This technique suffers from needing manual effort to add annotations and scalability to handle large-scale programs. Bensalem et al. [2][3] use the happens-before relation to improve the precision of cycle detection and use a guided scheduler to confirm deadlocks. Ur and colleagues [5][18] propose ConTest that uses a *Goodlock* algorithm to identify cycles, and actively introduces noise to increase the probability of deadlock occurrence [5].

Like [10], *MagicFuzzer* uses object abstractions to relate locks and threads to overcome the cross-execution reference problem, and guides executions to work toward cycles.

Deadlock Immunity [11] prevents the second occurrence of a deadlock by maintaining a database containing all patterns of occurred deadlock and using online monitoring. It does not have an active schedule or potential deadlock cycle detection component. *Gadara* [25] statically detects deadlocks and inserts deadlock avoidance code right before the positions of the lock acquisitions in detected deadlocks. When executing the inserted code, *Gadara* is called to analyze the state of lock acquisition and insert a gate lock acquisition dynamically to prevent the occurrence of the corresponding deadlock. *Gadara* however may report both false positives and false negatives when detecting deadlocks.

VII. CONCLUSION

Existing dynamic potential deadlock techniques are not scalable enough to detect potential deadlock cycles. We have presented *MagicFuzzer*, a novel technique to detect potential deadlocks and confirm them as real ones. The experiment confirms that it is highly efficient and effective to tackle the challenges in handling the executions of large-scale, widely-used, and open-source multithreaded C/C++ programs.

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