第三十二章 Concurrency Common Concurrency Problems

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Introduction

- 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.
- More recent work focuses on studying other types of common concurrency bugs (i.e., non-deadlock bugs).

What Types Of Bugs Exist?

- 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.

[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.

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

Findings on	Bug Patterns	(Section 3)
-		(

- (1) Almost all (97%) of the examined non-deadlock bugs belong to one of the *two simple bug patterns*: atomicity-violation or order-violation*.
- (2) About one third (32%) of the examined non-deadlock bugs are *order-violation bugs*, which are *not* well addressed in previous work.

Findings on Manifestation (Section 4)

- (3) Almost all (96%) of the examined concurrency bugs are guaranteed to manifest if certain partial order between 2 threads is enforced.
- (4) Some (22%) of the examined deadlock bugs are caused by *one thread* acquiring resource held by itself.
- (5) Many (66%) of the examined non-deadlock concurrency bugs' manifestation involves concurrent accesses to *only one variable*.
- (6) One third (34%) of the examined non-deadlock concurrency bugs' manifestation involves concurrent accesses to multiple variables.
- (7) Almost all (97%) of the examined deadlock bugs involve two threads circularly waiting for at most *two resources*.
- (8) Almost all (92%) of the examined concurrency bugs are guaranteed to manifest if certain partial order among no more than 4 memory accesses is enforced.

Findings on Bug Fix Strategies (Section 5)

- (9) Three quarters (73%) of the examined non-deadlock bugs are fixed by techniques *other than* adding/changing locks. Programmers need to consider correctness, performance and other issues to decide the most appropriate fix strategy.
- (10) Many (61%) of the examined deadlock bugs are fixed by preventing one thread from acquiring one resource (e.g. lock). Such fix can introduce non-deadlock concurrency bugs.

Findings on Bug Avoidance (Section 5.3)

- (11) Transactional memory (TM) can help avoid about one third (39%) of the examined concurrency bugs.
- (12) TM *could* help avoid over one third (42%) of the examined concurrency bugs, if some *concerns* are addressed.
- (13) Some (19%) of the examined concurrency bugs *cannot* benefit from basic TM designs, because of their bug patterns.

Non-Deadlock Bugs

- · 非死锁问题占了并发问题的大多数。它们是怎么发生的? 我们如何修 复?
- · 主要讨论其中两种: 违反原子性 (atomicity violation) 缺陷和错误顺序 (order violation) 缺陷。.

Atomicity-Violation Bugs

 Here is a simple example, found in MySQL. Before reading the explanation, try figuring out what the bug is.

```
1 Thread 1::
2  if (thd->proc_info) {
3    fputs(thd->proc_info, ...);
4  }
5
6 Thread 2::
7 thd->proc_info = NULL;
```

两个线程都要访问 thd 结构中的成员 proc_info。

```
1 Thread 1::
2  if (thd->proc_info) {
3    fputs(thd->proc_info, ...);
4  }
5
6 Thread 2::
7 thd->proc_info = NULL;
```

- 第一个线程检查 proc_info 非空,然后打印出值;第二个线程设置其为空。显然,当第一个线程检查之后,在 fputs()调用之前被中断,第二个线程把指针置为空;当第一个线程恢复执行时,由于引用空指针,导致程序奔溃
- 违反原子性的定义是: "违反了多次内存访问中预期的可串行性(即代码段本意是原子的,但在执行中并没有强制实现原子性)"。在我们的例子中, proc_info 的非空检查和 fputs()调用打印 proc_info 是假设原子的,当假设不成立时,代码就出问题了。
- Finding a fix for this type of problem is often (but not always) straightforward. Can
 you think of how to fix the code above?

```
pthread_mutex_t proc_info_lock = PTHREAD_MUTEX_INITIALIZER;
2
   Thread 1::
  pthread_mutex_lock(&proc_info_lock);
   if (thd->proc_info) {
     fputs(thd->proc_info, ...);
7
  pthread_mutex_unlock(&proc_info_lock);
9
   Thread 2::
10
  pthread_mutex_lock(&proc_info_lock);
11
   thd->proc_info = NULL;
12
  pthread_mutex_unlock(&proc_info_lock);
13
```

Order-Violation Bugs

 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;
}
```

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

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

- 线程2的代码中似乎假定变量 mThread 已经被初始化了(不为空)。然而,如果线程1并没有首先执行,线程2就可能因为引用空指针奔溃(假设 mThread 初始值为空;否则,可能会产生更加奇怪的问题,因为线程2中会读到任意的内存位置并引用)
- 违反顺序更正式的定义是: "两个内存访问的预期顺序被打破了 (即A应该在B之前执行,但是实际运行中却不是这个顺序)"
- The fix to this type of bug is generally to enforce ordering. Using condition variables is an easy and robust way to do this.

```
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...
10
      pthread_mutex_lock(&mtLock);
11
      mtInit = 1;
12
      pthread_cond_signal(&mtCond);
13
      pthread mutex_unlock(&mtLock);
15
      . . .
16
17
   Thread 2::
18
   void mMain(...) {
20
       // wait for the thread to be initialized...
21
       pthread_mutex_lock(&mtLock);
22
       while (mtInit == 0)
23
           pthread_cond_wait(&mtCond, &mtLock);
24
       pthread mutex unlock (&mtLock);
25
       mState = mThread->State;
28
```

增加了一个锁(mtLock)、 一个条件变量(mtCond)。 不条件变量(mtInit)。 及状态的变量(mtInit)。 初始化代置为1,并发出信号,并发出信号为1,并发出如等。 在是一个。 数程2先运行,的状态。 数据2先运行,的程2后运行,的程2后运行,的程2后运行,的程2后运行。 是一个数据2点的。 是一个数据2点的。 是一个数据2点的。 是一个数据2点的。 是一个数据2点的。 是一个数据2点的。

Non-Deadlock Bugs: Summary

- A large fraction (97%) of non-deadlock bugs studied by Lu et al. are either atomicity or order violations.
- Unfortunately, not all bugs are as easily fixable 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.

Deadlock Bugs

 Beyond the above concurrency bugs, a classic problem in many concurrent systems is known as deadlock.

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

 If Thread 1 grabs lock L1 and then a context switch occurs to Thread 2. Then, Thread 2 grabs L2, and tries to acquire L1, deadlock occurs.

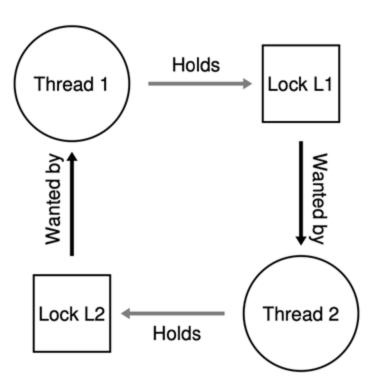


Figure 32.7: The Deadlock Dependency Graph

- The presence of a cycle in the graph is indicative of the deadlock.
- How should programmers write code so as to handle deadlock in some way?

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?

Conditions for Deadlock

- Four conditions need to hold for a deadlock to occur:
 - **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 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.

Prevention (Circular Wait)

- · 获取锁时提供一个全序 (total ordering)。假如系统 共有两个锁 (L1 和 L2) , 那么我们每次都先申请 L1 然后申请 L2, 就可以避免死锁。这样严格的顺序 避免了循环等待,也就不会产生死锁.
- 复杂的系统中不会只有两个锁,锁的全序可能很难做到.
- It requires a deep understanding of the code base; just one mistake could result in the wrong ordering of lock acquisition, and hence deadlock.

当一个函数要抢多个锁时,我们需要注意死锁。比如有一个函数: do_something(mutex t*m1, mutex t*m2),如果函数总是先抢 m1,然后 m2,那 么当一个线程调用 do_something(L1, L2),而另一个线程调用 do_something(L2, L1)时,就可能会产生死锁。

为了避免这种特殊问题,聪明的程序员根据锁的地址作为获取锁的顺序。按 照地址从高到低,或者从低到高的顺序加锁,do_something()函数就可以保证 不论传入参数是什么顺序,函数都会用固定的顺序加锁。具体的代码如下:

```
if (m1 > m2) { // grab locks 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 (it is not the same lock)
```

Prevention (Hold-and-wait)

死锁的持有并等待条件,可以通过原子地抢锁来避免。实践中,可以通过如下代码来实现:

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

· 先抢到 prevention 这个锁之后,代码保证了在抢锁的过程中,不会有不合时宜的线程切换,从而避免了死锁。

Prevention (No Preemption)

 在调用 unlock 之前,都认为锁是被占有的,多个抢锁操作 通常会带来麻烦,因为我们等待一个锁时,同时持有另一 个锁。很多线程库提供更为灵活的接口来避免这种情况。 具体来说,trylock()函数会尝试获得锁,或者返回-1,表示 锁已经被占有。你可以稍后重试一下

```
1 top:
2 lock(L1);
3 if (trylock(L2) == -1) {
4 unlock(L1);
5 goto top;
6 }
```

 It 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;
}
```

- 另一个线程可以使用相同的加锁方式,但是不同的加锁顺序(L2 然 后 L1),程序仍然不会产生死锁
- 新的问题:活锁(livelock)。两个线程有可能一直重复这一序列, 又同时都抢锁失败。这种情况下,系统一直在运行这段代码(因此 不是死锁),但是又不会有进展,因此名为活锁。
- 解决方法:可以在循环结束的时候,先随机等待一个时间,然后再重复整个动作,这样可以降低线程之间的重复互相干扰。

Prevention (Mutual Exclusion)

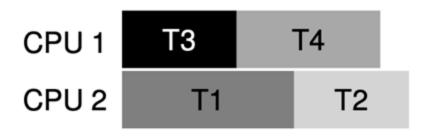
- The final prevention technique would be to avoid the need for mutual exclusion at all. What can we do?
- 通过强大的硬件指令,构造出不需要锁的数据结构.

Deadlock Avoidance via Scheduling

·除了死锁预防,某些场景更适合死锁避免 (avoidance)。我们需要了解全局的信息,包括不同 线程在运行中对锁的需求情况,从而使得后续的调度 能够避免产生死锁。 假设我们需要在两个处理器上调度 4 个线程。假设我们知道线程 1 (T1) 需要用锁 L1 和 L2, T2 也需要抢 L1 和 L2, T3 只需要 L2, T4 不需要锁。

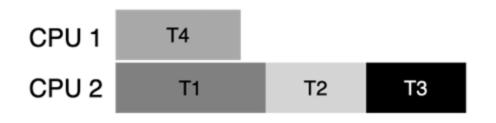
	T1	T2	Т3	T4
L1	yes	yes	no	no
L2	yes	yes	yes	no

· 一种比较聪明的调度方式是,只要T1和T2不同时运行,就不会产生死锁



• T3和T1重叠,或者和T2重叠都是可以的。虽然T3会抢占锁L2,但是由于它只用到一把锁,和其他线程并发执行都不会产生死锁。

· 线程 T1、T2 和 T3 执行过程中,都需要持有锁 L1 和 L2。下面是一种不会产 生死锁的可行方案:



T1、T2和T3运行在同一个处理器上,这种保守的静态方案会明显增加完成任务的总时间。尽管有可能并发运行这些任务,但为了避免死锁,我们没有这样做,付出了性能的代价。

通过调度来避免死锁不是广泛使用的通用方案

Safe State

- 当进程申请一个有效的资源的时候,系统必须确定分配后 是安全的。
- •如果存在一个安全序列,系统处于安全态。
- •对于进程序列< P1, P2, …, Pn>, 如果每个Pi 对资源的请求都能够由当前有效地资源加上Pj (j < i) 释放的资源来满足,那么这个序列是安全的。在这种情形下,如果Pi 的资源需求不能够立即得到满足,那么它可以等到Pj 结束。当它们结束时, Pi 可以获得所需的全部资源,完成指定的工作,返回获取的资源并结束运行。

最有代表性的避免死锁算法,由Dijkstra提出。

- 1、银行家算法中的数据结构 资源向量Resource =(10,5,7)
- 可利用资源向量Available=(3,3,2)。它是一个含有m个元素的数组,其中每个元素代表一类可利用资源的数目。

• 如:

	Α	В	С
Resource	10	5	7
Available	3	3	2

•最大需求矩阵Max n*m矩阵,表示n个进程的每一个对m类资源的最大需求。

MAX	A	В	С
РО	7	5	3
P1	3	2	2
P2	9	0	2
Р3	2	2	2
P4	4	3	3

• 分配矩阵Allocation n*m矩阵,表示每个进程已分配的资源数。

Allocation	Α	В	С
РО	0	1	0
P1	2	0	0
P2	3	0	2
Р3	1	3	2
P4	0	0	2

· 需求矩阵Need n*m矩阵,表示每个进程还需要 各类资源数。Need=Max-Allocation

Need	A	В	С
РО	7	4	3
P1	1	2	2
P2	6	0	0
Р3	0	1	1
P4	4	3	1

安全性检查算法

为进行安全性检查,定义数据结构:

Work:ARRAY[0..m-1] of integer;

Finish:ARRAY[0..n-1] of Boolean;

m代表资源的数量,n代表进程的数量

- (1) Work:=Available;
 Finish:=false;
- (2) 寻找满足下列条件的i:
 - a) . Finish[i]=false/;
 - b). Need[i]≤Work; 如果不存在,则转(4)

(3) Work:=Work+Allocation[i];

Finish[i]:=true; 转(2)

(4) 若对所有i,Finish[i]=true,则系统处于安全状态,否则处于不安全状态

向量比较,Need[i]为行向量,Need[i]<=Work表示Need[i]的每一个元素都小于等于Work的对应元素

尝试着把进程执行完毕后的资源 情况计算出来。即会有多少资源 可用。

Need[i]≤Work

Available = (3, 3, 2)

		7	5	3	
		3	2	2	
Max =	\langle	9	0	2	>
		2	2	2	
		4	3	3	

资源\	Work(当前可用)			Need			Allocation			Work:=1	Possi		
进程	A	В	С	A	В	С	A	В	С	A	В	С	ble
Po	7	4	3	7	4	3	0	1	0	7	5	3	Т
P ₁	3	3	2	1	2	2	2	0	0	5	3	2	Т
P ₂	7	5	3	6	0	0	3	0	2	10	5	5	Т
P ₃	5	3	2	0	1	1	2	1	1	7	4	3	Т
P ₄	10	5	5	4	3	1	0	0	2	10	5	7	Т

Resource = (10, 5, 7)

银行家算法(资源分配拒绝法)

- (1)如果Request[i]≤Need[i],跳到第2步
- ,否则出错;
- (2)如果Request[i]≤Available,跳到第3步,否则挂起进程等待;
 - (3)根据进程的资源请求,先把资源试探性分配给它。
- (4)执行安全性检查算法,如果安全状态则承认试分配,否则 抛弃试分配,进程Pi等待。
 - (5) 假定系统当前满足申请条件:则按以下方式修改状态 Available= Available- Request[i]; Allocation[i]= Allocation[i]+Request[i]; Need[i]=Need[i]-Request[i];

银行家算法实例

Resource (10,5,7) 己用 (7,2,5)

	Al	locati	on		Max			Need		Available			
	己:	分配知	阵	最大需求矩阵			尚需	资源	矩阵	系统还剩可用资源 数			
	A	В	С	Α	В	С	Α	В	С	Α	В	C	
РО	0	1	0	7	5	3	7	4	3	3	3	2	
P1	2	0	0	3	2	2	1	2	2				
P2	3	0	2	9	0	2	6	0	0				
Р3	2	1	1	2	2	2	0	1	1				
P4	0	0	2	4	3	3	4	3	1				

银行家算法实例

T0时刻的安全序列 $\{P_1, P_3, P_4, P_2, P_0\}$ 。

	当前	前可用!	资源	自身	自身尚需求量			己分配	ļ	当前可			
	A	В	С	A	В	С	A	В	C	A	В	С	TRUE
P1	3	3	2	1	2	2	2	0	0	5	3	2	TRUE
Р3	5	3	2	0	1	1	2	1	1	7	4	3	TRUE
P4	7	4	3	4	3	1	0	0	2	7	4	5	TRUE
P2	7	4	5	6	0	0	3	0	2	10	4	7	TRUE
PO	10	4	7	7	4	3	0	1	0	10	5	7	TRUE

(2) P1请求资源

```
进程P1申请资源request1=(1,0,2)
检查request1 (1,0,2) ≤ Need[i]
request1 (1,0,2) ≤ Available(3,3,2)
```

比较结果满足条件,试分配,得到新状态:

检查申请量是否超过需 要量

检查申请量是否超过可 分配量

process	Allocation					Nee	bs	Av	Available			
	Α	В	C	•	4	В	C	A	В	C		
PO	0	1	0	7	7	4	3	2	3	0		
P1	3	0	2	()	2	0					
P2	3	0	2	6	ò	0	0					
P3	2	1	1	()	1	1					
P 4	0	0	2	4	ł	3	1					

安全性检查

判定新状态是否安全?可执行安全性测试算法,找到一个进程序列 {P1,P3,P4,P0,P2}能满足安全性条件,可正式把资源分配给进程 P1;

	当前可用资源		自身尚需求量		己分配		当前可用+已分配						
	A	В	С	A	В	С	A	В	С	A	В	С	TRUE
P1	2	3	0	0	2	0	3	0	2	5	3	2	TRUE
Р3	5	3	2	0	1	1	2	1	1	7	4	3	TRUE
P4	7	4	3	4	3	1	0	0	2	7	4	5	TRUE
РО	7	4	5	7	4	3	0	1	0	7	5	5	TRUE
P2	7	5	5	6	0	0	3	0	2	10	5	7	TRUE

(3) 进程P4请求资源

```
进程P4请求资源(3,3,0),
Request(3,3,0)≤Need[4]
Request(3,3,0)>Available(2,3,0)
由于可用资源不足,申请被系统拒绝。
```

process	Allocation	Need	Available		
	АВС	АВС	АВС		
P_0	0 1 0	7 4 3	2 3 0		
P_1	3 0 2	0 2 0			
\mathbf{P}_2	3 0 2	6 0 0			
P_3	2 1 1	0 1 1			
P_4	0 0 2	4 3 1			

(4) 进程PO请求资源

进程P0发出资源申请,系统按银行家算法进行检查:

```
Request (0,2,0) \le \text{need}(0)(7,3,1)
```

Request $(0,2,0) \leq Available (2,3,0)$

•	process	Allocation	Need	Available		
•		АВС	АВС	АВС		
•	P0	0 1 0	7 3 1	2 3 0		
•	P1	3 0 2	0 2 0			
•	P2	3 0 2	6 0 0			
•	P3	2 1 1	0 1 1			
•	P4	0 0 2	4 3 1			

系统先为P0作尝试性分配,修改对应数据,得到一下中间结果:

•	process	Allocation	Need	Available
•		АВС	АВС	АВС
•	P0	0 3 0	7 1 1	2 1 0
•	P1	3 0 2	0 2 0	
•	P2	3 0 2	6 0 0	
•	Р3	2 1 1	0 1 1	
•	P4	0 0 2	4 3 1	

利用安全性算法检查发现:系统能满足进程P0的资源请求(0,2,0),但可以看出剩余资源已不能满足任何进程需求,故系统已处于不安全状态,故不能为进程P0分配资源。

银行家算法的缺点

- 进程很难在运行前知道其所需资源的最大值。
- 系统中各进程之间必须是无关的,即没有同步要求,无法处理有同步关系的进程。
- 进程的数量和资源的数目是固定不变的,无法处理进程数量和资源数目动态变化的情况。

Detect and Recover

- 允许死锁偶尔发生,检查到死锁时再采取行动。举个例子,如果一个操作系统一年死机一次,你会重启系统,然后愉快地(或者生气地)继续工作。如果死锁很少见,这种不是办法的办法也是很实用的.
- 很多数据库系统使用了死锁检测和恢复技术。死锁检测器会定期运行,通过构建资源图来检查循环。当循环(死锁)发生时,系统需要重启。如果还需要更复杂的数据结构相关的修复,那么需要人工参与.



1、设系统中有三种类型的资源(A, B, C)和五个进程(P1, P2, P3, P4, P5), A资源的数量17, B资源的数量为5, C资源的数量为20。在 T0 时刻系统状态如下表所示。系统采用银行家算法来避免死锁。请回答下列问题:

- (1) TO 时刻是否为安全状态? 若是, 请给出安全序列。
- (2) 若进程 P4 请求资源(2,0,1),能否实现资源分配?为什么?
- (3) 在(2) 的基础上, 若进程 P1 请求资源(0, 2, 0), 能否实现资源分配? 为什么? T0 时刻系统状态

进	最大资源需求 <u>量</u>			http://blog.co			sedn. 系统	sdn. net/hv20110 系統剩余资源数量		
程		_в_	<u></u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	┷	В	<u> </u>	
P1	5	<u>-5</u>	ļ <u>,</u>	<u> </u> _	↓	12	12	 3 _	 3	
P2	5	3	<u> </u> 6_	4	↓ •	12	₩	_	₩	
P3	4_	↓	11_	4_	↓	5	_	_	┞	
P4	4_	12	5		↓	↓ ₄	_	_	₩	
P5	4		1	13	1					

End