Synchronization

key concepts

critical sections, mutual exclusion, test-and-set, spinlocks, blocking and blocking locks, semaphores, condition variables, deadlocks

reading

Three Easy Pieces: Chapters 28-32

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Thread Synchronization

- All threads in a concurrent program *share access* to the program's global variables and the heap.
- The part of a concurrent program in which a shared object is accessed is called a *critical section*.
- What happens if several threads try to access the same global variable or heap object at the same time?

Critical Section Example

```
/* Note the use of volatile */
int volatile total = 0;

void add() {
    int i;
    for (i=0; i<N; i++) {
        total++;
    }
}</pre>
```

If one thread executes add and another executes sub what is the value of total when they have finished?

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Critical Section Example (assembly detail)

```
/* Note the use of volatile */
int volatile total = 0;
void add() {
                             void sub() {
   loadaddr R8 total
                                 loadaddr R10 total
   for (i=0; i<N; i++) {
                                 for (i=0; i< N; i++) {
      lw R9 0(R8)
                                     lw R11 0(R10)
      add R9 1
                                     sub R11 1
      sw R9 0(R8)
                                     sw R11 0(R10)
                                 }
   }
                              }
}
```

Critical Section Example (Trace 1)

Thread 1 Thread 2

loadaddr R8 total lw R9 0(R8) R9=0 add R9 1 R9=1 sw R9 0(R8) total=1

<INTERRUPT>

loadaddr R10 total lw R11 0(R10) R11=0 sub R11 1 R11=-1 sw R11 0(R10) total=-1

One possible order of execution. Final value of total is 0.

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Critical Section Example (Trace 2)

Thread 1 Thread 2

loadaddr R8 total lw R9 0(R8) R9=0 add R9 1 R9=1

<INTERRUPT and context switch>

loadaddr R10 total lw R11 0(R10) R11=0 sub R11 1 R11=-1 sw R11 0(R10) total=-1

. . .

 $$\langle {\rm INTERRUPT} \rangle $$ and context switch $$\rangle $$ sw R9 0(R8) total=1

One possible order of execution. Final value of total is 1.

Critical Section Example (Trace 3)

```
Thread 1 Thread 2
loadaddr R8 total loadaddr R10 total
lw R9 0(R8) R9=0 lw R11 0(R10) R11=0
add R9 1 R9=1 sub R11 1 R11=-1
sw R9 0(R8) total=1
sw R11 0(R10) total=-1
```

Another possible order of execution, this time on two processors. Final value of total is -1.

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About volatile

```
/* What if we DO NOT use volatile */
int volatile total = 0;
void add() {
                               void sub() {
   loadaddr R8 total
                                   loadaddr R10 total
   lw R9 0(R8)
                                   lw R11 0(R10)
   for (i=0; i< N; i++) {
                                  for (i=0; i< N; i++) {
      add R9 1
                                      sub R11 1
   sw R9 0(R8)
                                   sw R11 0(R10)
}
                               }
```

Without volatile the compiler could optimize the code. volatile forces the compiler to load and store the value on every use.

Another Critical Section Example (Part 1)

```
int list_remove_front(list *lp) {
   int num;
   list_element *element;
   assert(!is_empty(lp));
   element = lp->first;
   num = lp->first->item;
   if (lp->first == lp->last) {
     lp->first = lp->last = NULL;
   } else {
     lp->first = element->next;
   }
   lp->num_in_list--;
   free(element);
   return num;
}
```

The list_remove_front function is a critical section. It may not work properly if two threads call it at the same time on the same list. (Why?)

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Another Critical Section Example (Part 2)

```
void list_append(list *lp, int new_item) {
    list_element *element = malloc(sizeof(list_element));
    element->item = new_item
    assert(!is_in_list(lp, new_item));
    if (is_empty(lp)) {
        lp->first = element; lp->last = element;
    } else {
        lp->last->next = element; lp->last = element;
    }
    lp->num_in_list++;
}
```

The list_append function is part of the same critical section as list_remove_front. It may not work properly if two threads call it at the same time, or if a thread calls it while another has called list_remove_front

Mutual Exclusion

To prevent race conditions, we can enforce *mutual exclusion* on critical sections in the code.

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Enforcing Mutual Exclusion With Locks

```
int volatile total = 0;
/* lock for total: false => free, true => locked */
bool volatile total_lock = false;
void add() {
                                void sub() {
   int i;
                                    int i;
   for (i=0; i< N; i++) {
                                    for (i=0; i< N; i++) {
   Acquire(&total_lock);
                                    Acquire(&total_lock);
                                          total--;
        total++;
   Release(&total_lock);
                                    Release(&total_lock);
                                 }
}
```

Acquire/Release must ensure that only one thread at a time can hold the lock, even if both attempt to Acquire at the same time. If a thread cannot Acquire the lock immediately, it must wait until the lock is available.

Lock Aquire and Release - First Try

This simple approach does not work! (Why?)

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Hardware-Specific Synchronization Instructions

- used to implement synchronization primitives like locks
- provide a way to test and set a lock in a single atomic (indivisible) operation
- example: x86 xchg instruction:

```
xchg src, addr
```

where src is typically a register, and addr is a memory address. Value in register src is written to memory at address addr, and the old value at addr is placed into src.

• logical behavior of xchg can be thought of as an *atomic* function that behaves like this:

```
Xchg(value,addr) {
  old = *addr;
  *addr = value;
  return(old);
}
```

Lock Aquire and Release with Xchg

If Xchg returns true, the lock was already set, and we must continue to loop. If Xchg returns false, then the lock was free, and we have now acquired it.

This construct is known as a *spin lock*, since a thread busy-waits (loops) in Acquire until the lock is free.

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Other Synchronization Instructions

• SPARC cas instruction

```
cas addr, R1, R2
```

if value at addr matches value in R1 then swap contents of addr and R2

• Compare-And-Swap

- MIPS load-linked and store-conditional
 - Load-linked returns the current value of a memory location, while a subsequent store-conditional to the same memory location will store a new value only if no updates have occurred to that location since the load-linked.

Spinlocks in OS/161

```
struct spinlock {
  volatile spinlock_data_t lk_lock;
  struct cpu *lk_holder;
};

void spinlock_init(struct spinlock *lk)
void spinlock_acquire(struct spinlock *lk);
void spinlock_release(struct spinlock *lk);
```

spinlock_acquire calls spinlock_data_testandset in a loop until the lock is acquired.

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Using Load-Linked / Store-Conditional

```
/* return value 0 indicates lock was acquired */
spinlock_data_testandset(volatile spinlock_data_t *sd)
 spinlock_data_t x,y;
 y = 1;
  asm volatile(
   ".set push;"
                    /* save assembler mode */
                     /* allow MIPS32 instructions */
   ".set mips32;"
   ".set volatile;" /* avoid unwanted optimization */
   "11 %0, 0(%2);"
                     /* x = *sd */
   "sc %1, 0(%2);" /* *sd = y; y = success? */
   ".set pop"
                     /* restore assembler mode */
    : "=r" (x), "+r" (y) : "r" (sd));
 if (y == 0) { return 1; }
 return x;
```

OS/161 Locks

- In addition to spinlocks, OS/161 also has *locks*.
- Like spinlocks, locks are used to enforce mutual exclusion.

```
struct lock *mylock = lock_create("LockName");
lock_aquire(mylock);
   critical section /* e.g., call to list_remove_front */
lock_release(mylock);
```

- spinlocks spin, locks *block*:
 - a thread that calls spinlock_acquire spins until the lock can be acquired
 - a thread that calls lock_acquire blocks until the lock can be acquired

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Thread Blocking

- Sometimes a thread will need to wait for something, e.g.:
 - wait for a lock to be released by another thread
 - wait for data from a (relatively) slow device
 - wait for input from a keyboard
 - wait for busy device to become idle
- When a thread blocks, it stops running:
 - the scheduler chooses a new thread to run
 - a context switch from the blocking thread to the new thread occurs,
 - the blocking thread is queued in a *wait queue* (not on the ready list)
- Eventually, a blocked thread is signaled and awakened by another thread.

Wait Channels in OS/161

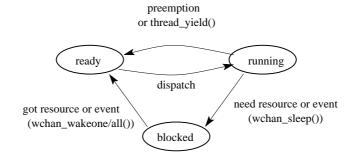
- wait channels are used to implement thread blocking in OS/161
 - void wchan_sleep(struct wchan *wc);
 - * blocks calling thread on wait channel wc
 - * causes a context switch, like thread_yield
 - void wchan_wakeall(struct wchan *wc);
 - * unblock all threads sleeping on wait channel wc
 - void wchan_wakeone(struct wchan *wc);
 - * unblock one thread sleeping on wait channel wc
 - void wchan_lock(struct wchan *wc);
 - * prevent operations on wait channel wc
 - * more on this later!
- there can be many different wait channels, holding threads that are blocked for different reasons.

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Thread States, Revisited

• a very simple thread state transition diagram



• the states:

running: currently executing

ready: ready to execute

blocked: waiting for something, so not ready to execute.

• ready threads are queued on the ready queue, blocked threads are queued on wait channels

Semaphores

 A semaphore is a synchronization primitive that can be used to enforce mutual exclusion requirements. It can also be used to solve other kinds of synchronization problems.

- A semaphore is an object that has an integer value, and that supports two operations:
 - **P:** if the semaphore value is greater than 0, decrement the value. Otherwise, wait until the value is greater than 0 and then decrement it.
 - V: increment the value of the semaphore

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By definition, the P and V operations of a semaphore are *atomic*.

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Mutual Exclusion Using a Semaphore

```
volatile int total = 0;
struct semaphore *total_sem;
total_sem = sem_create("total mutex",1); /* initial value is
                                void sub() {
void add() {
   int i;
                                    int i;
   for (i=0; i< N; i++) {
                                   for (i=0; i< N; i++) {
     P(sem);
                                       P(sem);
       total++;
                                           total--;
     V(sem);
                                       V(sem);
}
                                }
```

Producer/Consumer Synchronization with Bounded Buffer

- suppose we have threads (producers) that add items to a buffer and threads (consumers) that remove items from the buffer
- suppose we want to ensure that consumers do not consume if the buffer is empty instead they must wait until the buffer has something in it
- similarly, suppose the buffer has a finite capacity (N), and we need to ensure that producers must wait if the buffer is full
- this requires synchronization between consumers and producers
- semaphores can provide the necessary synchronization

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Bounded Buffer Producer/Consumer Synchronization with Semaphores

```
struct semaphore *Items,*Spaces;
Items = sem_create("Buffer Items", 0); /* initially = 0 */
Spaces = sem_create("Buffer Spaces", N);/* initially = N */
Producer's Pseudo-code:
   P(Spaces);
   add item to the buffer
   V(Items);

Consumer's Pseudo-code:
   P(Items);
   remove item from the buffer
   V(Spaces);
```

Condition Variables

- OS/161 supports another common synchronization primitive: *condition variables*
- each condition variable is intended to work together with a lock: condition variables are only used *from within the critical section that is protected by the lock*
- three operations are possible on a condition variable:

wait: This causes the calling thread to block, and it releases the lock associated with the condition variable. Once the thread is unblocked it reacquires the lock.

signal: If threads are blocked on the signaled condition variable, then one of those threads is unblocked.

broadcast: Like signal, but unblocks all threads that are blocked on the condition variable.

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Using Condition Variables

- Condition variables get their name because they allow threads to wait for arbitrary conditions to become true inside of a critical section.
- Normally, each condition variable corresponds to a particular condition that is
 of interest to an application. For example, in the bounded buffer
 producer/consumer example on the following slides, the two conditions are:
 - count > 0 (there are items in the buffer)
 - count < N (there is free space in the buffer)
- when a condition is not true, a thread can wait on the corresponding condition variable until it becomes true
- when a thread detects that a condition is true, it uses signal or broadcast to notify any threads that may be waiting

Note that signalling (or broadcasting to) a condition variable that has no waiters has *no effect*. Signals do not accumulate.

Waiting on Condition Variables

- when a blocked thread is unblocked (by signal or broadcast), it reacquires the lock before returning from the wait call
- a thread is in the critical section when it calls wait, and it will be in the critical section when wait returns. However, in between the call and the return, while the caller is blocked, the caller is out of the critical section, and other threads may enter.
- In particular, the thread that calls signal (or broadcast) to wake up the waiting thread will itself be in the critical section when it signals. The waiting thread will have to wait (at least) until the signaller releases the lock before it can unblock and return from the wait call.

This describes Mesa-style condition variables, which are used in OS/161. There are alternative condition variable semantics (Hoare semantics), which differ from the semantics described here.

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Bounded Buffer Producer Using Locks and Condition Variables

```
int volatile count = 0;  /* must initially be 0 */
struct lock *mutex;  /* for mutual exclusion */
struct cv *notfull, *notempty; /* condition variables */

/* Initialization Note: the lock and cv's must be created
 * using lock_create() and cv_create() before Produce()
 * and Consume() are called */

Produce(itemType item) {
   lock_acquire(mutex);
   while (count == N) {
      cv_wait(notfull, mutex); /* wait until buffer is not full
   }
   add item to buffer (call list_append())
   count = count + 1;
   cv_signal(notempty, mutex); /* signal that buffer is not enlock_release(mutex);
}
```

Bounded Buffer Consumer Using Locks and Condition Variables

```
itemType Consume() {
  lock_acquire(mutex);
  while (count == 0) {
    cv_wait(notempty, mutex); /* wait until buffer is not en
  }
  remove item from buffer (call list_remove_front())
  count = count - 1;
  cv_signal(notfull, mutex); /* signal that buffer is not full lock_release(mutex);
  return(item);
}
```

Both Produce() and Consume() call cv_wait() inside of a while loop. Why?

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Deadlocks

- Suppose there are two threads and two locks, lockA and lockB, both initially unlocked.
- Suppose the following sequence of events occurs
 - 1. Thread 1 does lock_acquire(lockA).
 - 2. Thread 2 does lock_acquire(lockB).
 - 3. Thread 1 does lock_acquire (lockB) and blocks, because lockB is held by thread 2.
 - 4. Thread 2 does lock_acquire(lockA) and blocks, because lockA is held by thread 1.

These two threads are *deadlocked* - neither thread can make progress. Waiting will not resolve the deadlock. The threads are permanently stuck.

Two Techniques for Deadlock Prevention

No Hold and Wait: prevent a thread from requesting resources if it currently has resources allocated to it. A thread may hold several resources, but to do so it must make a single request for all of them.

Resource Ordering: Order (e.g., number) the resource types, and require that each thread acquire resources in increasing resource type order. That is, a thread may make no requests for resources of type less than or equal to i if it is holding resources of type i.