CS162
Operating Systems and Systems Programming
Lecture 6

Synchronization 1: Concurrency and Mutual Exclusion

February 3rd, 2022

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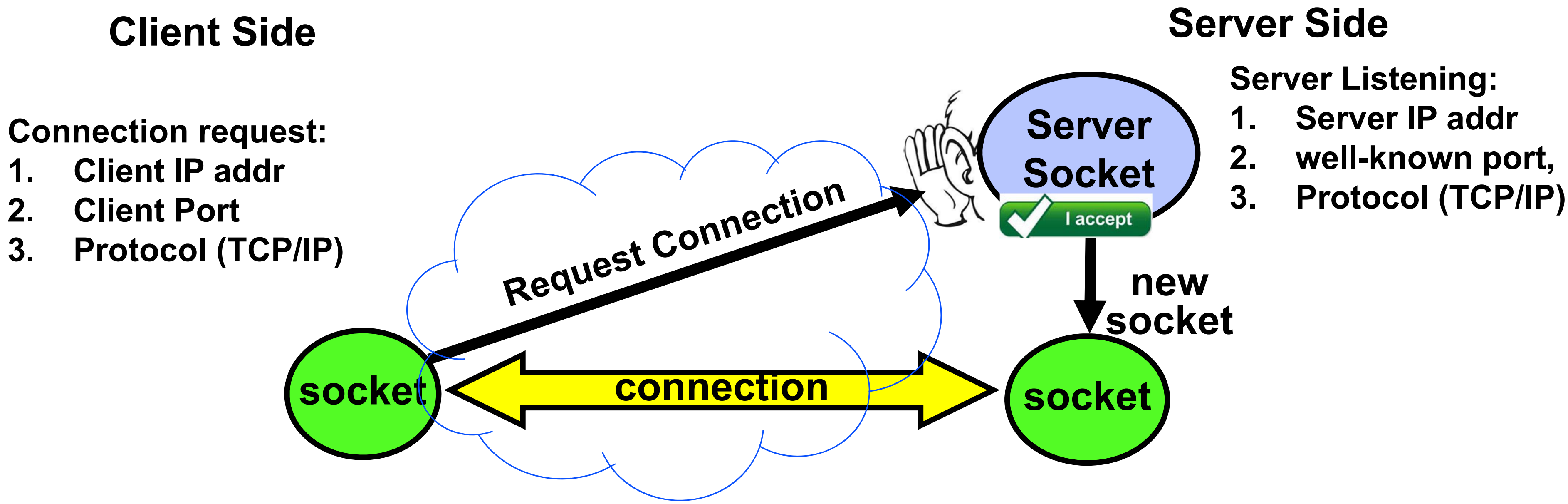
Recall: Connection Setup over TCP/IP



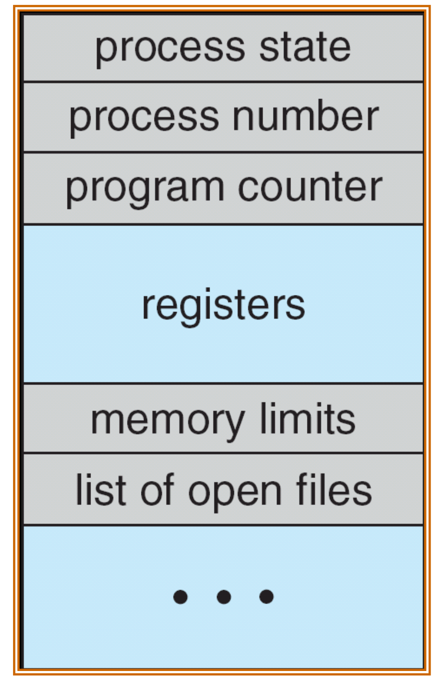
- 5-Tuple identifies each connection:
  1. Source IP Address
  2. Destination IP Address
  3. Source Port Number
  4. Destination Port Number
  5. Protocol (always TCP here)
- Often, Client Port "randomly" assigned
  - Done by OS during client socket setup
- Server Port often "well known"
  - 80 (web), 443 (secure web), 25 (sendmail), etc
  - Well-known ports from 0—1023

Recall: Server Protocol (v3)

```
// Socket setup code elided…
listen(server_socket, MAX_QUEUE);
while (1) {
  // Accept a new client connection, obtaining a new socket
  int conn_socket = accept(server_socket, NULL, NULL);
  pid_t pid = fork();
  if (pid == 0) {
    close(server_socket);
    serve_client(conn_socket);
    close(conn_socket);
    exit(0);
  } else {
    close(conn_socket);
    // wait(NULL);
  }
}
close(server_socket);
```

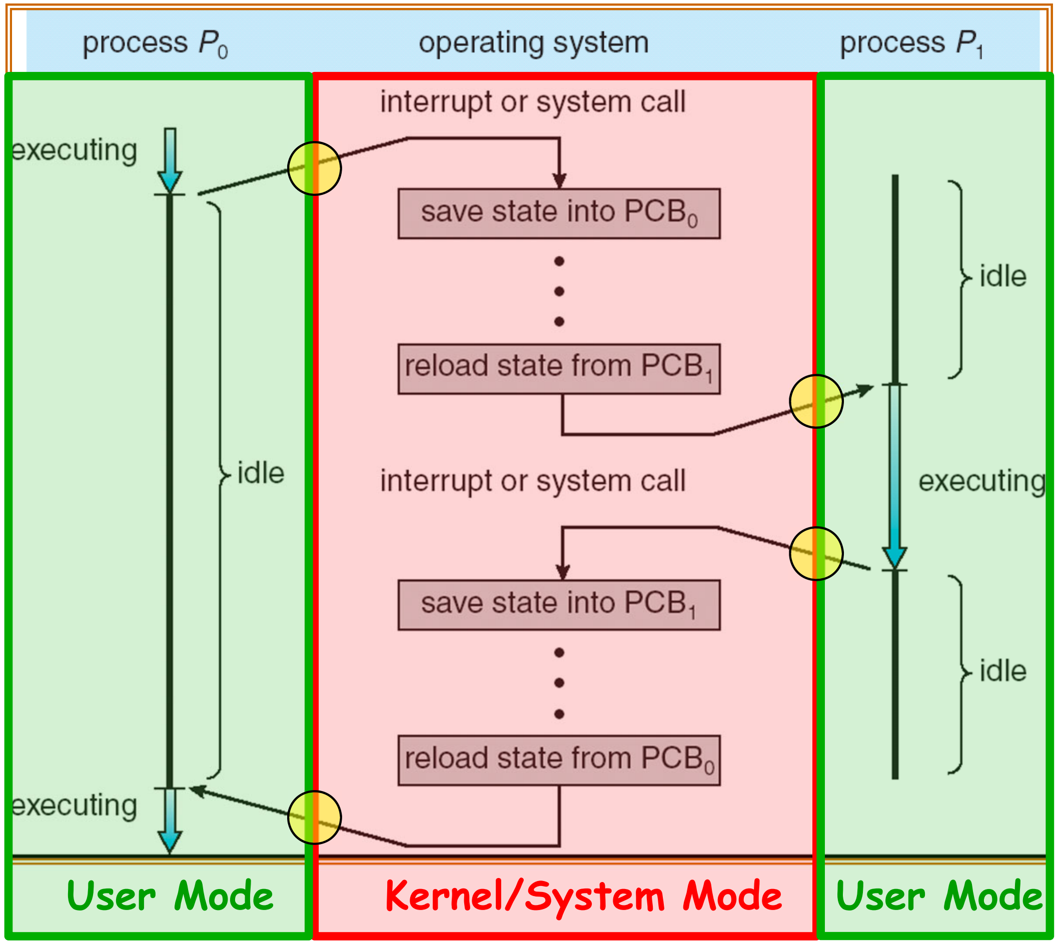
Recall: Multiplexing Processes: The Process Control Block

- Kernel represents each process as a process control block (PCB)
  - Status (running, ready, blocked, …)
  - Register state (when not ready)
  - Process ID (PID), User, Executable, Priority, …
  - Execution time, …
  - Memory space, translation, …
- Kernel *Scheduler* maintains a data structure containing the PCBs
  - Give out CPU to different processes
  - This is a Policy Decision
- Give out non-CPU resources
  - Memory/IO
  - Another policy decision

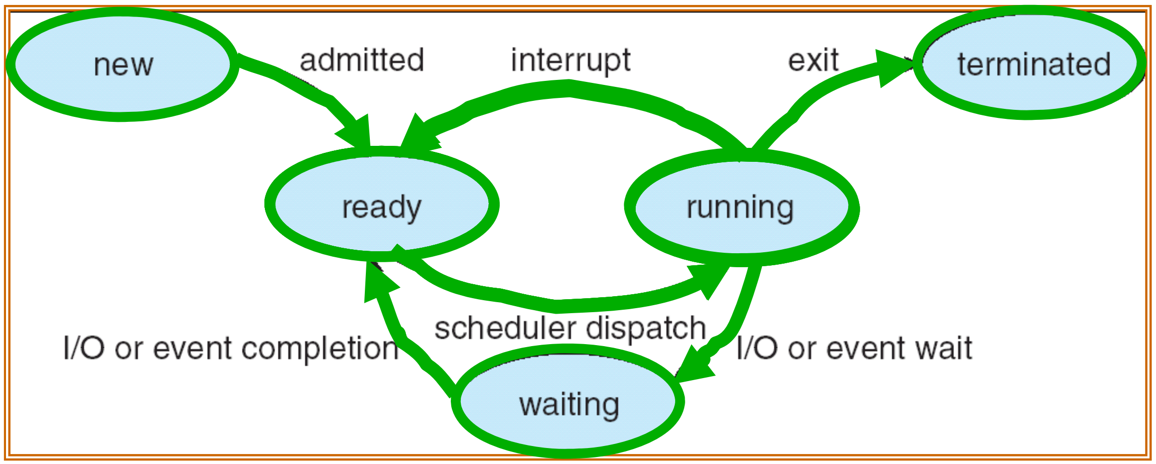


Process Control Block

Recall: CPU Switch From Process A to Process B

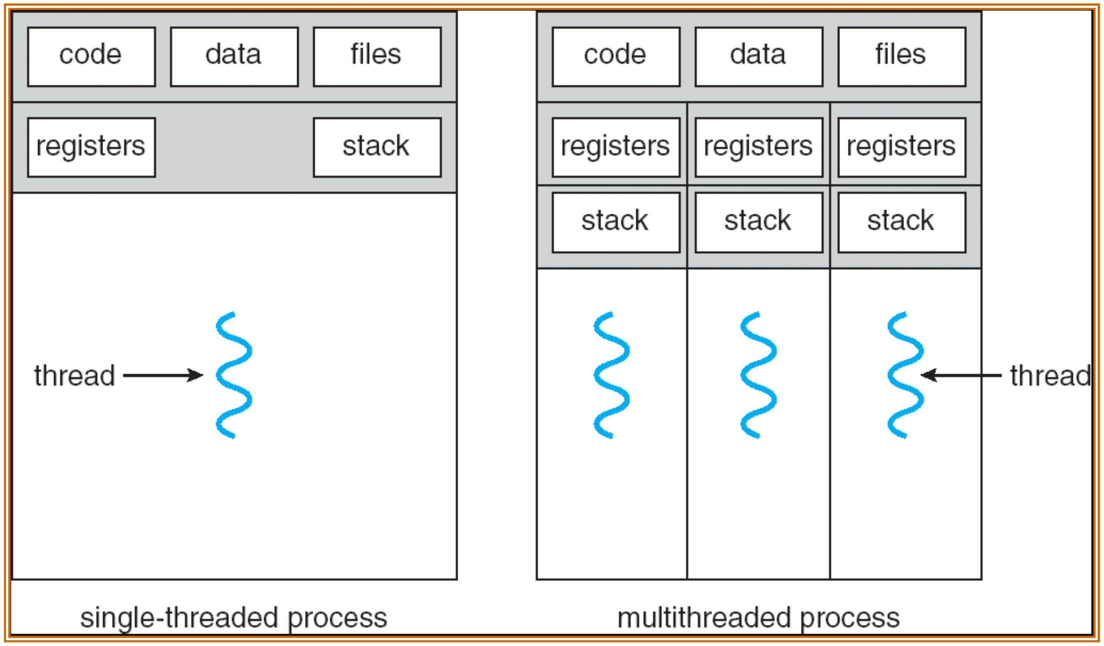


Recall: Lifecycle of a Process or Thread



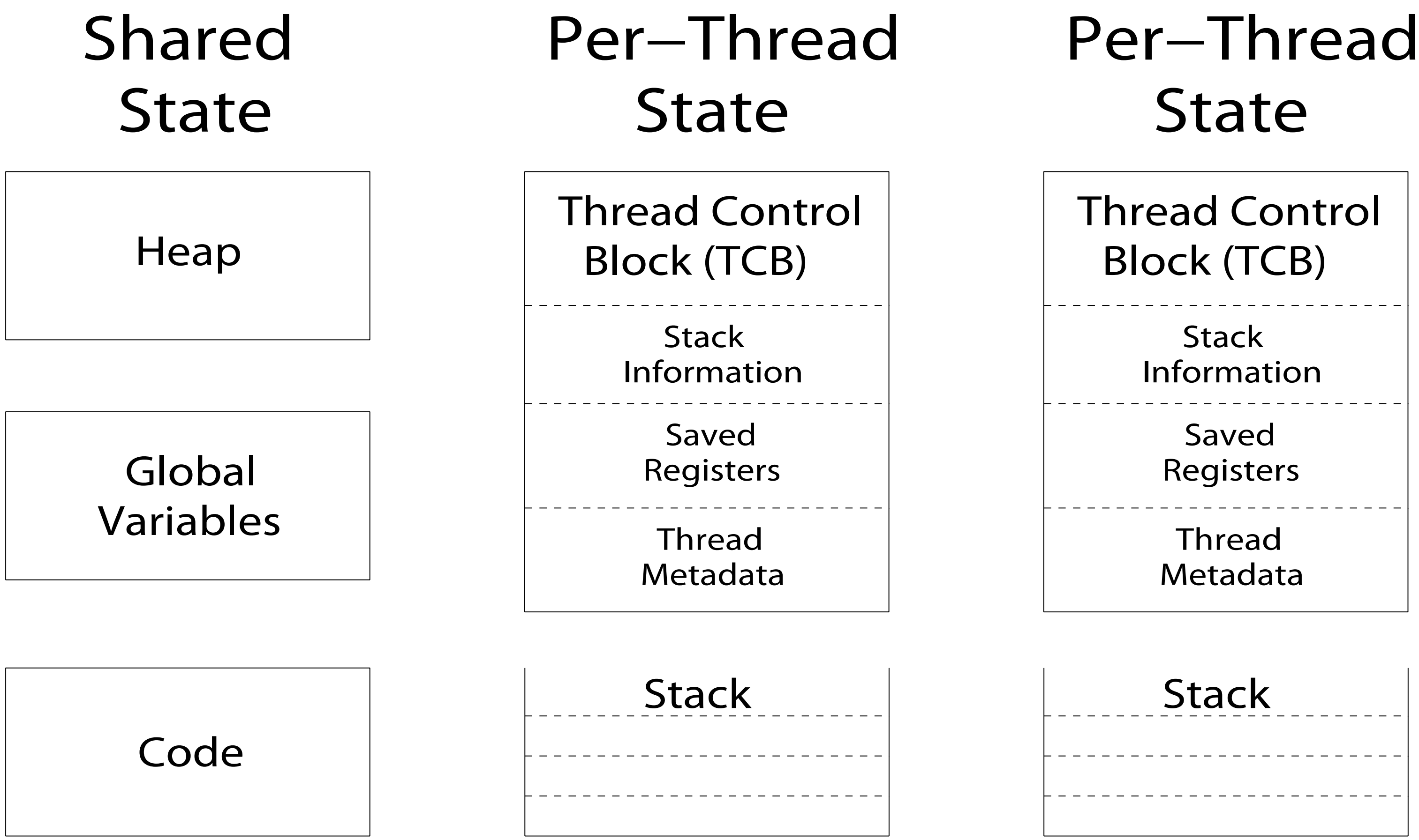
- As a process executes, it changes state:
  - new: The process/thread is being created
  - ready: The process is waiting to run
  - running: Instructions are being executed
  - waiting: Process waiting for some event to occur
  - terminated: The process has finished execution

Recall: Single and Multithreaded Processes



- Threads encapsulate concurrency: “Active” component
- Address spaces encapsulate protection: “Passive” part
  - Keeps buggy program from trashing the system
- Why have multiple threads per address space?

Recall: Shared vs. Per-Thread State



The Core of Concurrency: the Dispatch Loop

- Conceptually, the scheduling loop of the operating system looks as follows:

```
Loop {
   RunThread();
   ChooseNextThread();
   SaveStateOfCPU(curTCB);
   LoadStateOfCPU(newTCB);
}
```

- This is an *infinite* loop
  – One could argue that this is all that the OS does
- Should we ever exit this loop???
  – When would that be?

Running a thread

Consider first portion: `RunThread()`

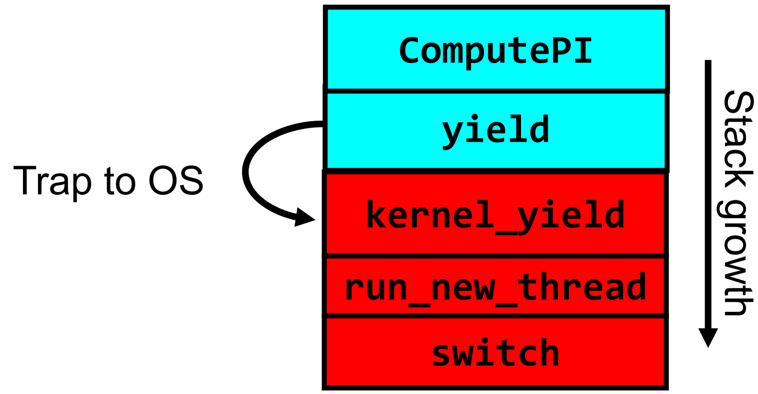
- How do I run a thread?
  - Load its state (registers, PC, stack pointer) into CPU
  - Load environment (virtual memory space, etc)
  - Jump to the PC
- How does the dispatcher get control back?
  - Internal events: thread returns control voluntarily
  - External events: thread gets *preempted*

Internal Events

- Blocking on I/O
  - The act of requesting I/O implicitly yields the CPU
- Waiting on a "signal" from other thread
  - Thread asks to wait and thus yields the CPU
- Thread executes a `yield()`
  - Thread volunteers to give up CPU

```
computePI() {
    while(TRUE) {
        ComputeNextDigit();
        yield();
    }
}
```

Stack for Yielding Thread



- How do we run a new thread?

```
run_new_thread() {
   newThread = PickNewThread();
   switch(curThread, newThread);
   ThreadHouseKeeping(); /* Do any cleanup */
}
```

- How does dispatcher switch to a new thread?
  – Save anything next thread may trash: PC, regs, stack pointer
  – Maintain isolation for each thread

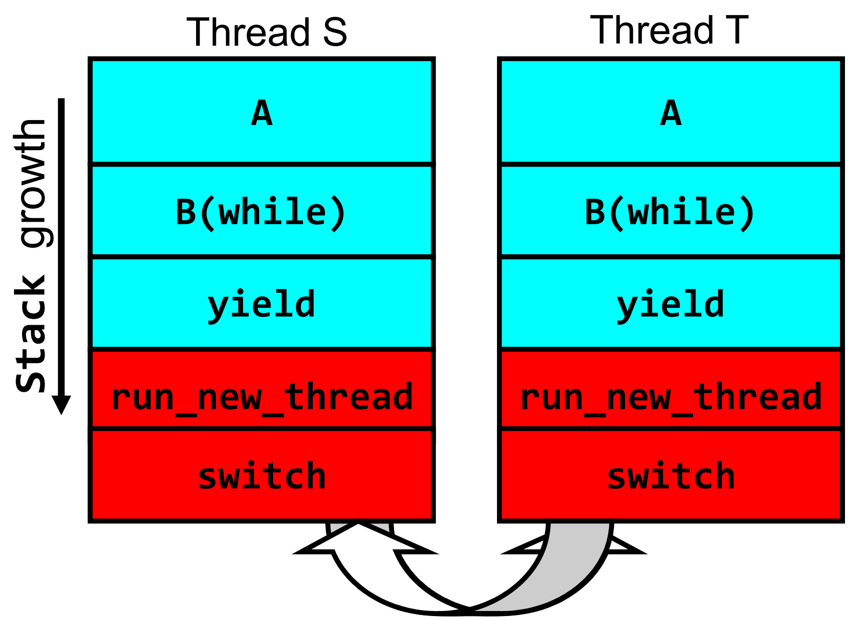
What Do the Stacks Look Like?

- Consider the following code blocks:

```
proc A() {
   B();

}
proc B() {
   while(TRUE) {
      yield();
   }
}
```

- Suppose we have 2 threads:
  – Threads S and T



Thread S's switch returns to Thread T's (and vice versa)

Saving/Restoring state (often called “Context Switch)

```
Switch(tCur,tNew) {
    /* Unload old thread */
    TCB[tCur].regs.r7 = CPU.r7;
            …
    TCB[tCur].regs.r0 = CPU.r0;
    TCB[tCur].regs.sp = CPU.sp;
    TCB[tCur].regs.retpc = CPU.retpc; /*return addr*/

    /* Load and execute new thread */
    CPU.r7 = TCB[tNew].regs.r7;
            …
    CPU.r0 = TCB[tNew].regs.r0;
    CPU.sp = TCB[tNew].regs.sp;
    CPU.retpc = TCB[tNew].regs.retpc;
    return; /* Return to CPU.retpc */
}
```

Switch Details (continued)

- What if you make a mistake in implementing switch?
  - Suppose you forget to save/restore register 32
  - Get intermittent failures depending on when context switch occurred and whether new thread uses register 32
  - System will give wrong result without warning
- Can you devise an exhaustive test to test switch code?
  - No! Too many combinations and inter-leavings
- Cautionary tale:
  - For speed, Topaz kernel saved one instruction in switch()
  - Carefully documented! Only works as long as kernel size < 1MB
  - What happened?
    - » Time passed, People forgot
    - » Later, they added features to kernel (no one removes features!)
    - » Very weird behavior started happening
  - Moral of story: Design for simplicity

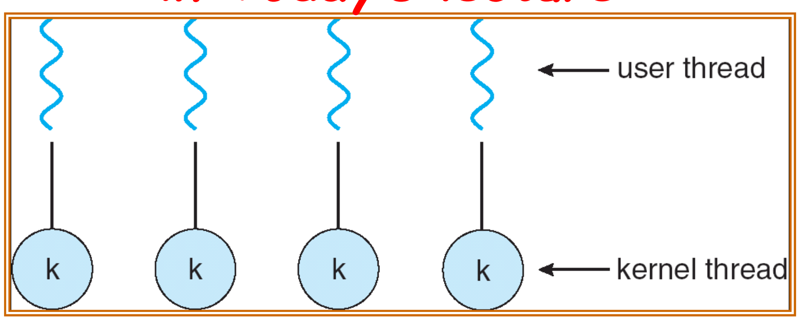
Administrivia

- Project 1 in full swing! Released Yesterday!
  - We expect that your design document will give intuitions behind your designs, not just a dump of pseudo-code
  - Think of this you are in a company and your TA is you manager
- Paradox: need code for design document?
  - Not full code, just enough prove you have thought through complexities of design
- Should be attending your permanent discussion section!
  - Discussion section attendance is mandatory, but don't come if sick!!
    - We have given a mechanism to make up for missed sections—see piazza
  - We will have a rotating recording of sections for later viewing as well
- Midterm 1: February 17th, 7-9PM (Two weeks from today!)
  - Fill out conflict request by tomorrow!

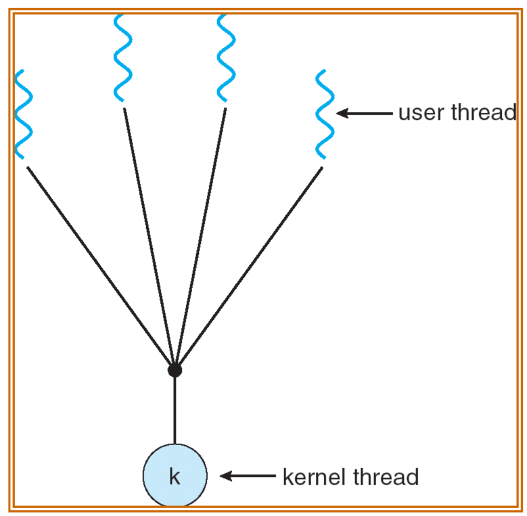
Are we still switching contexts with previous examples?

- Yes, but much cheaper than switching processes
  – No need to change address space
- Some numbers from Linux:
  – Frequency of context switch: 10-100ms
  – Switching between processes: 3-4 μsec.
  – Switching between threads: 100 ns
- Even cheaper: switch threads (using “yield”) in user-space!

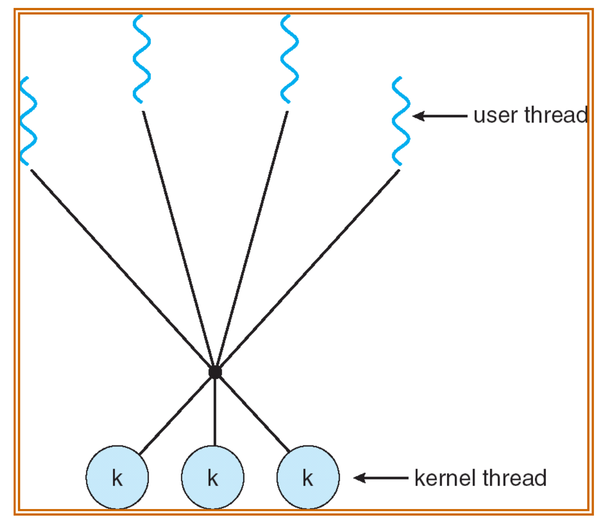
What we are talking about in Today’s lecture



Simple One-to-One Threading Model

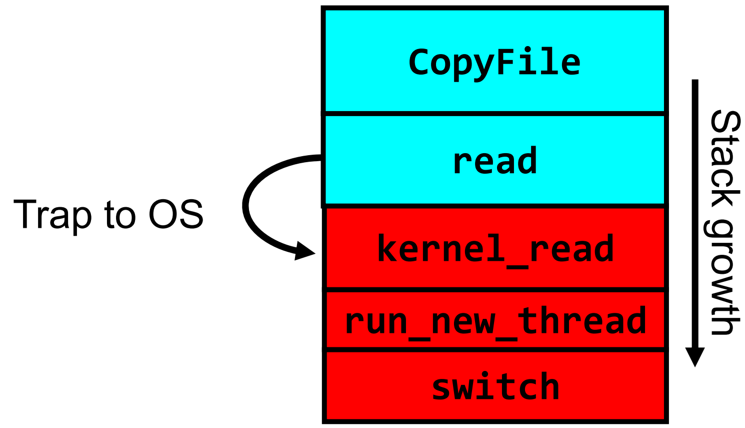


Many-to-One



Many-to-Many

What happens when thread blocks on I/O?



- What happens when a thread requests a block of data from the file system?
  - User code invokes a system call
  - Read operation is initiated
  - Run new thread/switch
- Thread communication similar
  - Wait for Signal/Join
  - Networking

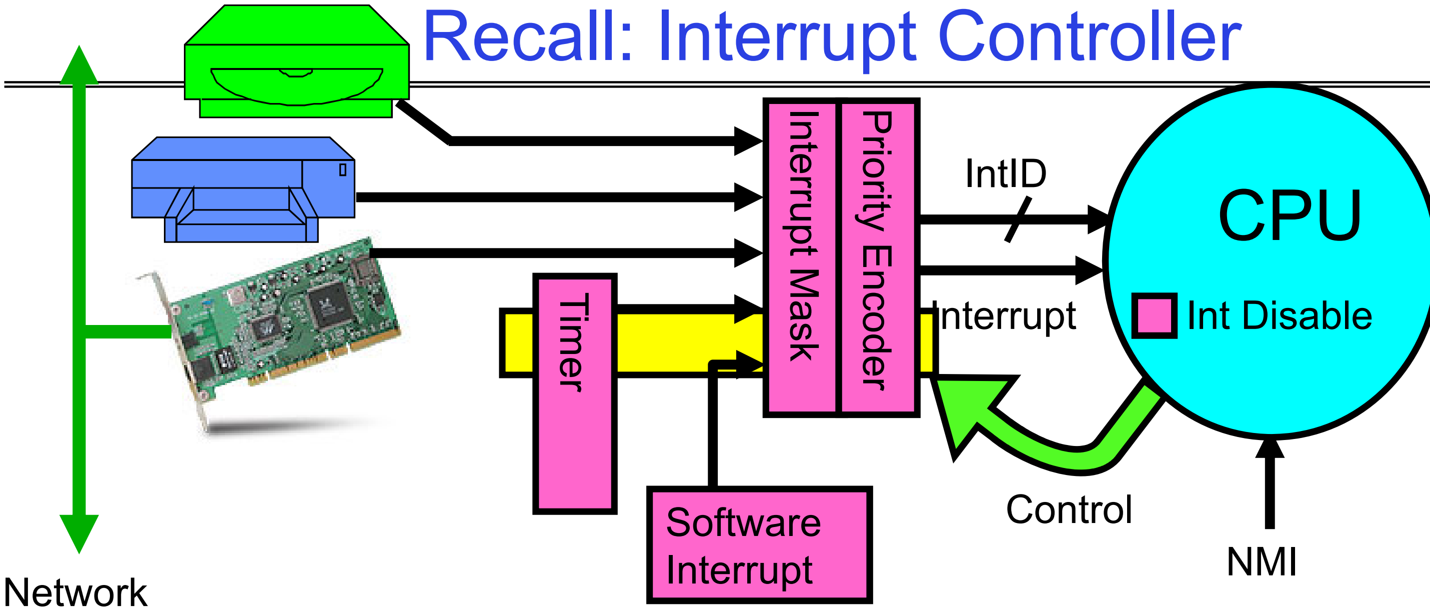
External Events

- What happens if thread never does any I/O, never waits, and never yields control?
  - Could the `ComputePI` program grab all resources and never release the processor?
    - What if it didn't print to console?
  - Must find way that dispatcher can regain control!

- Answer: utilize external events
  - Interrupts: signals from hardware or software that stop the running code and jump to kernel
  - Timer: like an alarm clock that goes off every some milliseconds

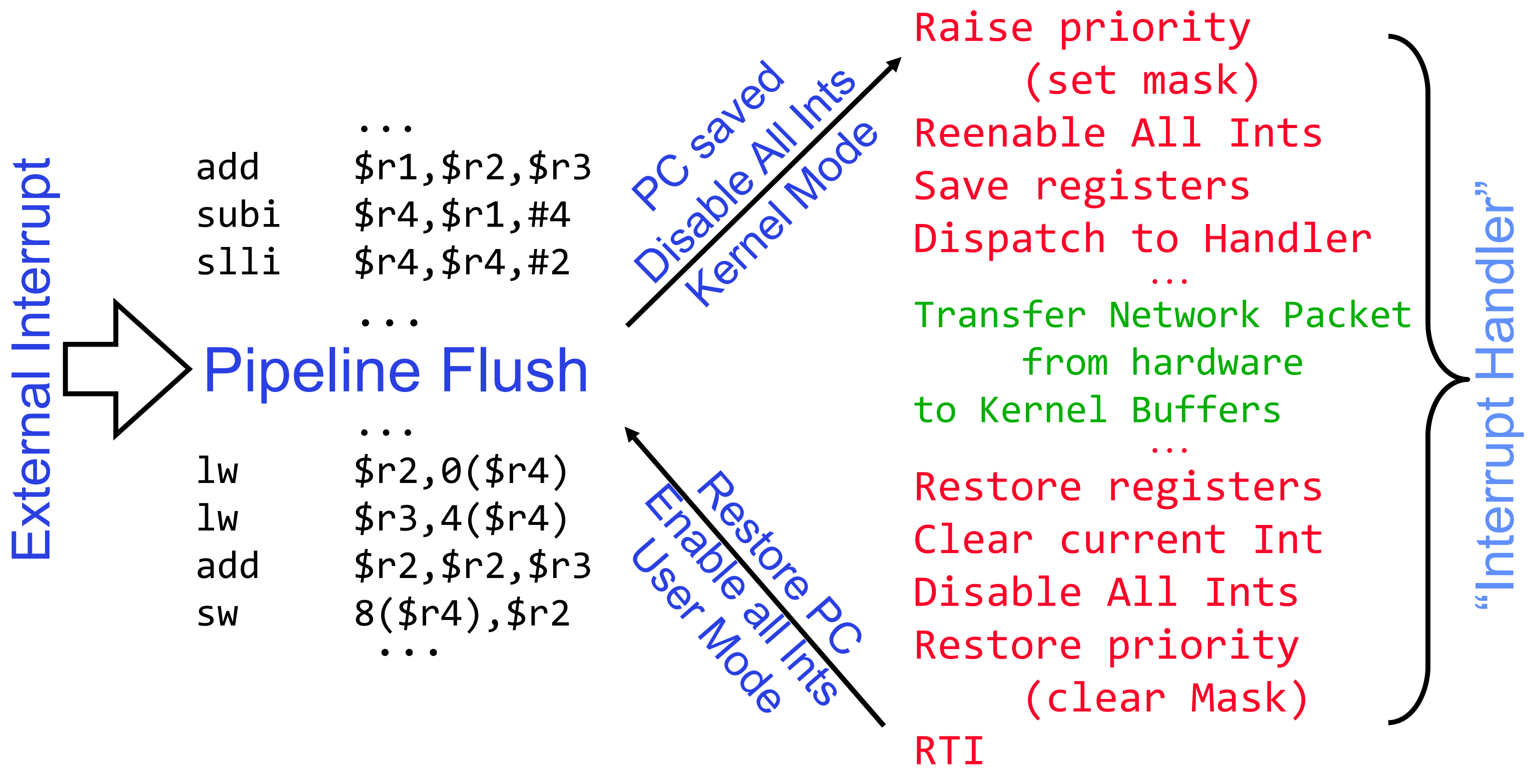
- If we make sure that external events occur frequently enough, can ensure dispatcher runs

Recall: Interrupt Controller



- Interrupts invoked with interrupt lines from devices
- Interrupt controller chooses interrupt request to honor
  – Interrupt identity specified with ID line
  – Mask enables/disables interrupts
  – Priority encoder picks highest enabled interrupt
  – Software Interrupt Set/Cleared by Software
- CPU can disable all interrupts with internal flag
- Non-Maskable Interrupt line (NMI) can't be disabled

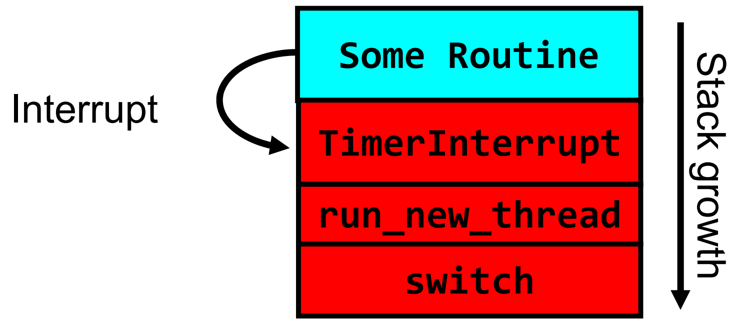
Example: Network Interrupt



- An interrupt is a hardware-invoked context switch
  - No separate step to choose what to run next
  - Always run the interrupt handler immediately

Use of Timer Interrupt to Return Control

- Solution to our dispatcher problem
  - Use the timer interrupt to force scheduling decisions



- Timer Interrupt routine:

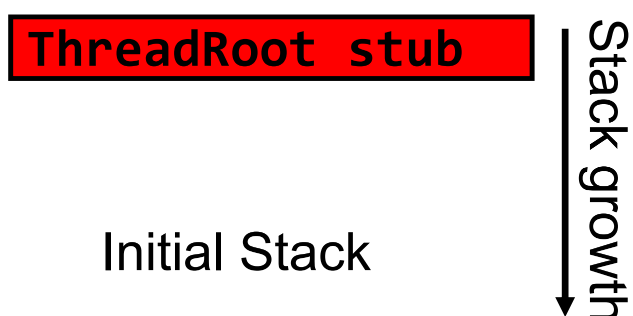
```
TimerInterrupt() {
   DoPeriodicHouseKeeping();
   run_new_thread();
}
```

`ThreadFork()`: Create a New Thread

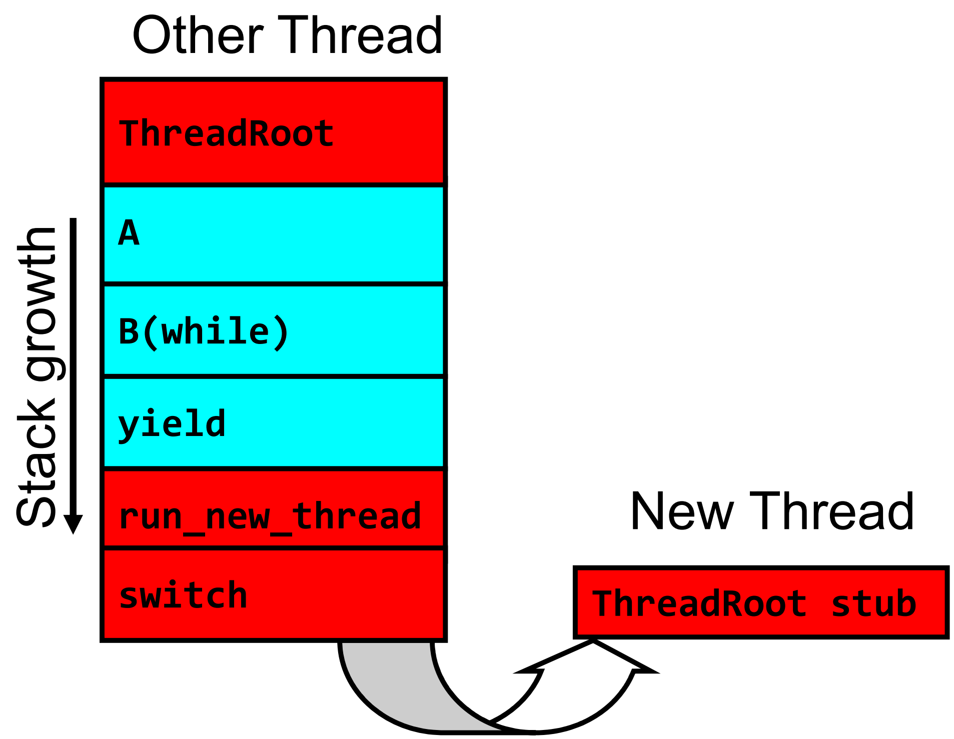
- `ThreadFork()` is a user-level procedure that creates a new thread and places it on ready queue
- Arguments to `ThreadFork()`
  - Pointer to application routine (`fcnPtr`)
  - Pointer to array of arguments (`fcnArgPtr`)
  - Size of stack to allocate
- Implementation
  - Sanity check arguments
  - Enter Kernel-mode and Sanity Check arguments again
  - Allocate new Stack and TCB
  - Initialize TCB and place on ready list (Runnable)

How do we initialize TCB and Stack?

- Initialize Register fields of TCB
  - Stack pointer made to point at stack
  - PC return address ⇒ OS (asm) routine `ThreadRoot()`
  - Two arg registers (a0 and a1) initialized to `fcnPtr` and `fcnArgPtr`, respectively
- Initialize stack data?
  - Minimal initialization ⇒setup return to go to beginning of ThreadRoot()
    - » Important part of stack frame is in registers for RISC-V (ra)
    - » X86: need to push a return address on stack
  - Think of stack frame as just before body of `ThreadRoot()` really gets started

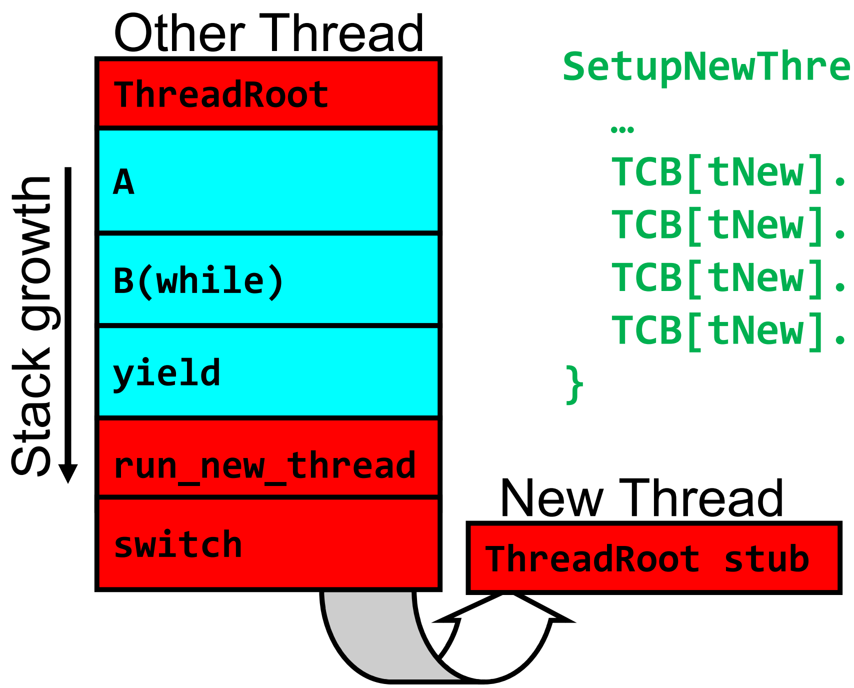


How does Thread get started?



- Eventually, `run_new_thread()` will select this TCB and return into beginning of `ThreadRoot()`
  - This really starts the new thread

How does a thread get started?



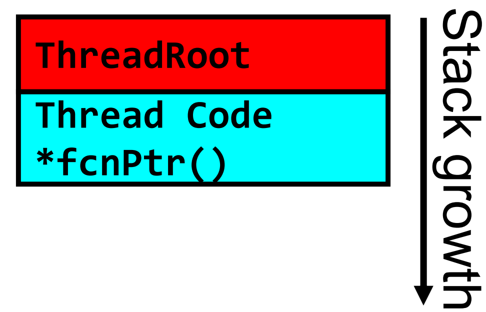

```
SetupNewThread(tNew) {
  …
  TCB[tNew].regs.sp = newStackPtr;
  TCB[tNew].regs.retpc = &ThreadRoot;
  TCB[tNew].regs.r0 = fcnPtr
  TCB[tNew].regs.r1 = fcnArgPtr
}
```

- How do we make a ***new*** thread?
  - Setup TCB/kernel thread to point at new user stack and ThreadRoot code
  - Put pointers to start function and args in registers or top of stack
    - » This depends heavily on the calling convention (i.e. RISC-V vs x86)
- Eventually, `run_new_thread()` will select this TCB and return into beginning of `ThreadRoot()`
  - This really starts the new thread

What does `ThreadRoot()` look like?

- `ThreadRoot()` is the root for the thread routine:

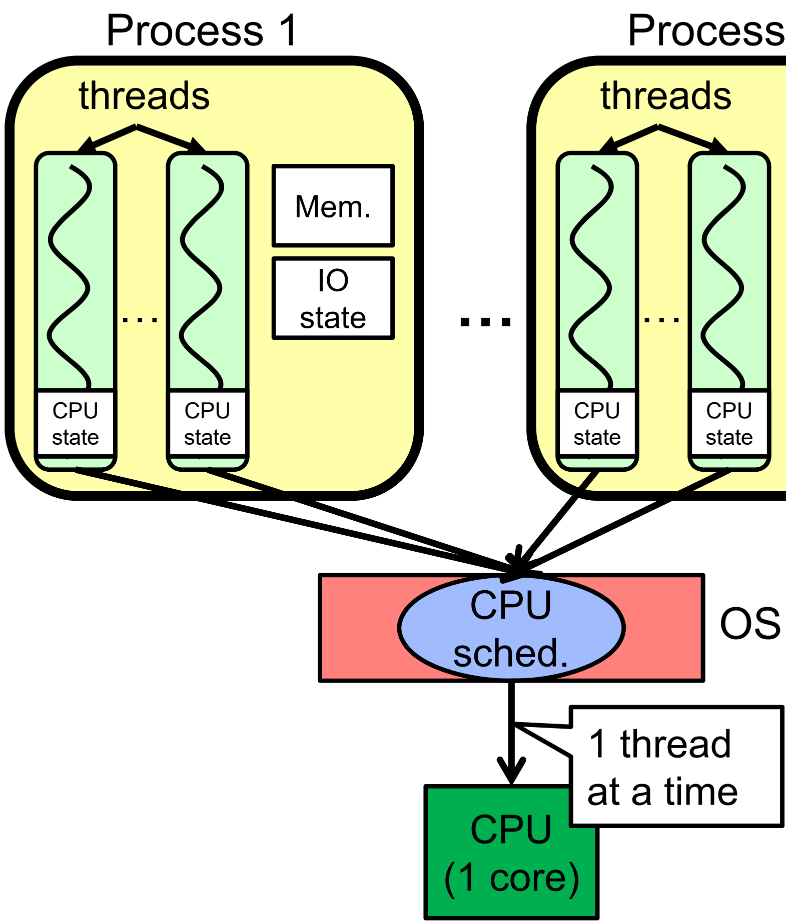
```
ThreadRoot(fcnPTR,fcnArgPtr) {
   DoStartupHousekeeping();
   UserModeSwitch(); /* enter user mode */
   Call fcnPtr(fcnArgPtr);
   ThreadFinish();
}
```



Running Stack

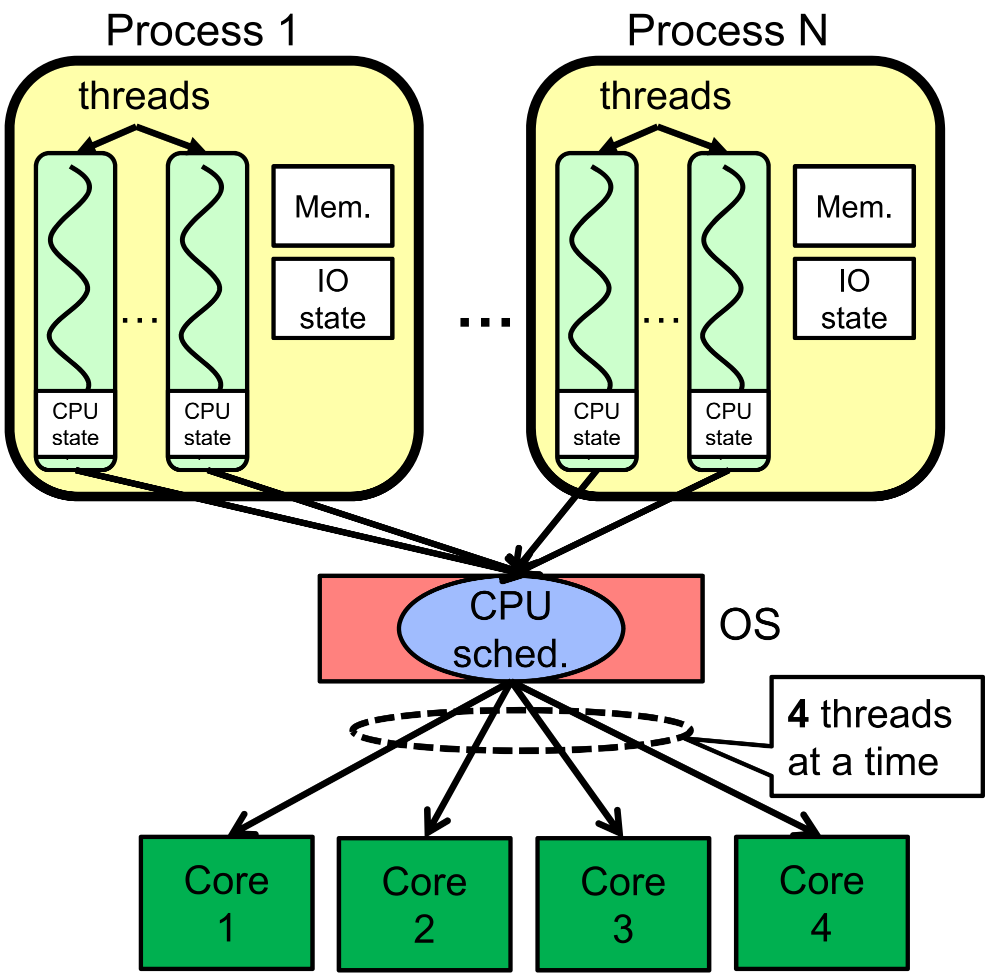
- Startup Housekeeping
  - Includes things like recording start time of thread
  - Other statistics
- Stack will grow and shrink with execution of thread
- Final return from thread returns into `ThreadRoot()` which calls `ThreadFinish()`
  - `ThreadFinish()` wake up sleeping threads

Processes vs. Threads: One Core



- Switch overhead:
  - Same process: **low**
  - Different proc.: **high**
- Protection
  - Same proc: **low**
  - Different proc: **high**
- Sharing overhead
  - Same proc: **low**
  - Different proc: **high**
- Parallelism: **no**

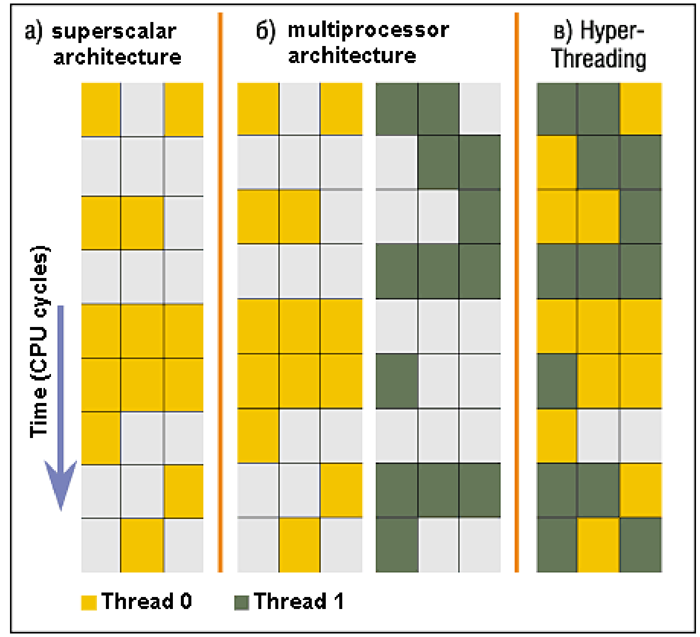
Processes vs. Threads: MultiCore



- Switch overhead:
  - Same process: **low**
  - Different proc.: **high**
- Protection
  - Same proc: **low**
  - Different proc: **high**
- Sharing overhead
  - Same proc: **low**
  - Different proc, simultaneous core: **medium**
  - Different proc, offloaded core: high
- Parallelism: **yes**

Recall: Simultaneous MultiThreading/Hyperthreading

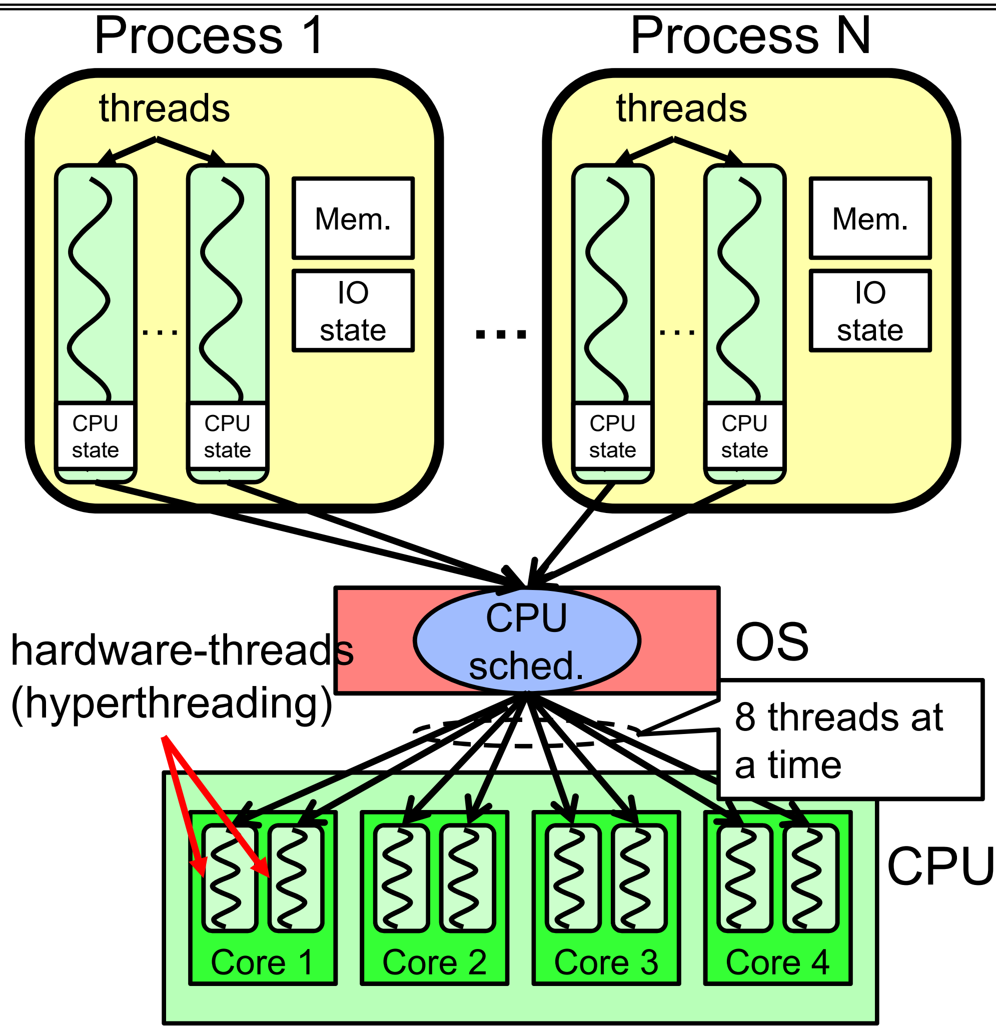
- Hardware scheduling technique
  - Superscalar processors can execute multiple instructions that are independent.
  - Hyperthreading duplicates register state to make a second "thread," allowing more instructions to run.
- Can schedule each thread as if were separate CPU
  - But, sub-linear speedup!



Colored blocks show instructions executed

- Original technique called "Simultaneous Multithreading"
  - http://www.cs.washington.edu/research/smt/index.html
  - SPARC, Pentium 4/Xeon ("Hyperthreading"), Power 5

Processes vs. Threads: Hyper-Threading



- Switch overhead between hardware-threads: *very-low* (done in hardware)
- Contention for ALUs/FPUs may hurt performance

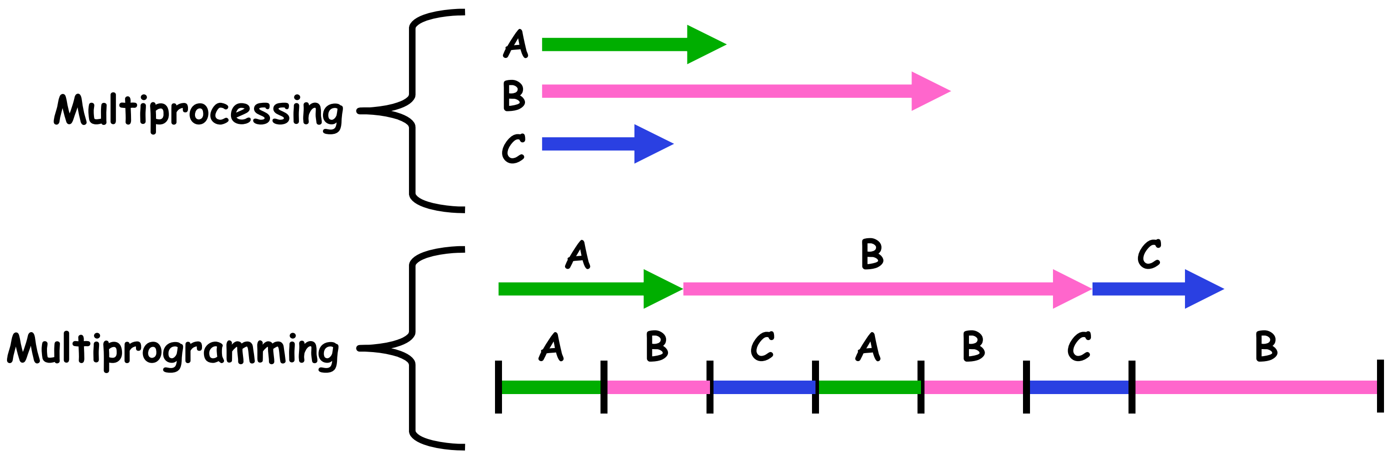
Threads vs Address Spaces: Options

# threads Per AS: / # of addr spaces:	One	Many
One	MS/DOS, early Macintosh	Traditional UNIX
Many	Embedded systems (Geoworks, VxWorks, JavaOS,etc) JavaOS, Pilot(PC)	Mach, OS/2, Linux Windows 10 Win NT to XP, Solaris, HP-UX, OS X

- Most operating systems have either
  - One or many address spaces
  - One or many threads per address space

Multiprocessing vs Multiprogramming

- Some Definitions:
  - Multiprocessing ≡ Multiple CPUs
  - Multiprogramming ≡ Multiple Jobs or Processes
  - Multithreading ≡ Multiple threads per Process
- What does it mean to run two threads "concurrently"?
  - Scheduler is free to run threads in any order and interleaving: FIFO, Random, …
  - Dispatcher can choose to run each thread to completion or time-slice in big chunks or small chunks



Correctness for systems with concurrent threads

- If dispatcher can schedule threads in any way, programs must work under all circumstances
  - Can you test for this?
  - How can you know if your program works?
- Independent Threads:
  - No state shared with other threads
  - Deterministic $\Rightarrow$ Input state determines results
  - Reproducible $\Rightarrow$ Can recreate Starting Conditions, I/O
  - Scheduling order doesn't matter (if `switch()` works!!!)
- Cooperating Threads:
  - Shared State between multiple threads
  - Non-deterministic
  - Non-reproducible
- Non-deterministic and Non-reproducible means that bugs can be intermittent
  - Sometimes called "Heisenbugs"

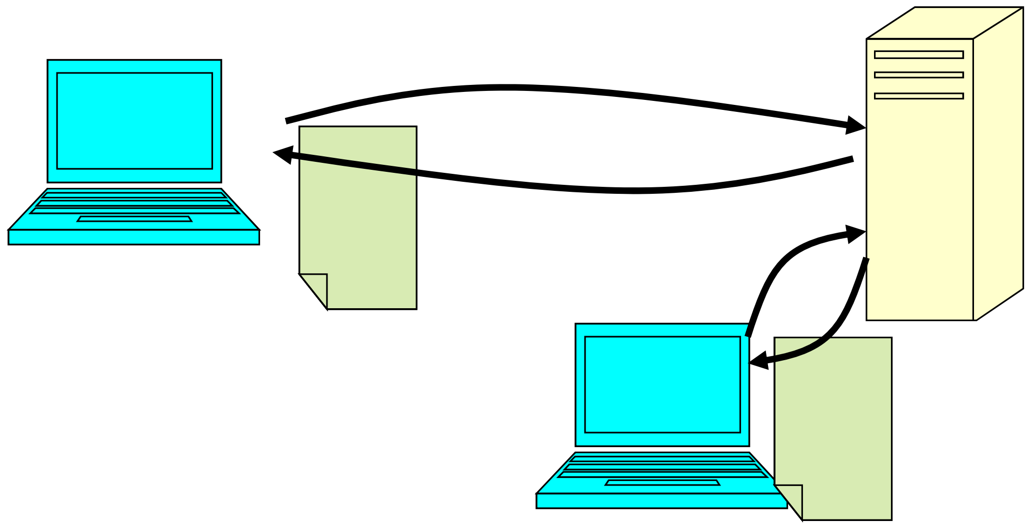
Interactions Complicate Debugging

- Is any program truly independent?
  - Every process shares the file system, OS resources, network, etc
  - Extreme example: buggy device driver causes thread A to crash "independent thread" B
- You probably don't realize how much you depend on reproducibility:
  - Example: Evil C compiler
    - » Modifies files behind your back by inserting errors into C program unless you insert debugging code
  - Example: Debugging statements can overrun stack
- Non-deterministic errors are really difficult to find
  - Example: Memory layout of kernel+user programs
    - » depends on scheduling, which depends on timer/other things
    - » Original UNIX had a bunch of non-deterministic errors
  - Example: Something which does interesting I/O
    - » User typing of letters used to help generate secure keys

Why allow cooperating threads?

- People cooperate; computers help/enhance people's lives, so computers must cooperate
  - By analogy, the non-reproducibility/non-determinism of people is a notable problem for "carefully laid plans"
- Advantage 1: Share resources
  - One computer, many users
  - One bank balance, many ATMs
    - » What if ATMs were only updated at night?
  - Embedded systems (robot control: coordinate arm & hand)
- Advantage 2: Speedup
  - Overlap I/O and computation
    - » Many different file systems do read-ahead
  - Multiprocessors – chop up program into parallel pieces
- Advantage 3: Modularity
  - More important than you might think
  - Chop large problem up into simpler pieces
    - » To compile, for instance, gcc calls cpp | cc1 | cc2 | as | ld
    - » Makes system easier to extend

Recall: High-level Example: Web Server



- Server must handle many requests
- Non-cooperating version:

```
serverLoop() {
    con = AcceptCon();
    ProcessFork(ServiceWebPage(),con);
}
```

- What are some disadvantages of this technique?

Recall: Threaded Web Server

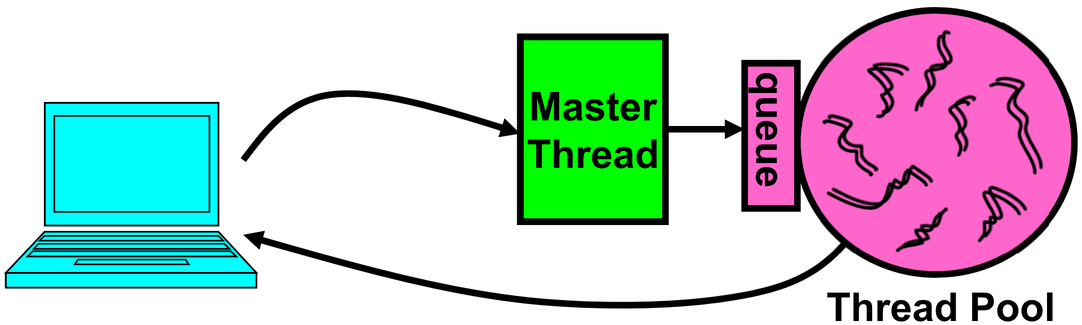
- Now, use a single process
- Multithreaded (cooperating) version:

```
serverLoop() {
        connection = AcceptCon();
        ThreadFork(ServiceWebPage(),connection);
  }
```

- Looks almost the same, but has many advantages:
  – Can share file caches kept in memory, results of CGI scripts, other things
  – Threads are *much* cheaper to create than processes, so this has a lower per-request overhead
- Question: would a user-level (say one-to-many) thread package make sense here?
  – When one request blocks on disk, all block…
- What about Denial of Service attacks or digg / Slash-dot effects?

Thread Pools: Bounded Concurrency

- Problem with previous version: Unbounded Threads
  - When web-site becomes too popular – throughput sinks
- Instead, allocate a bounded "pool" of worker threads, representing the maximum level of multiprogramming



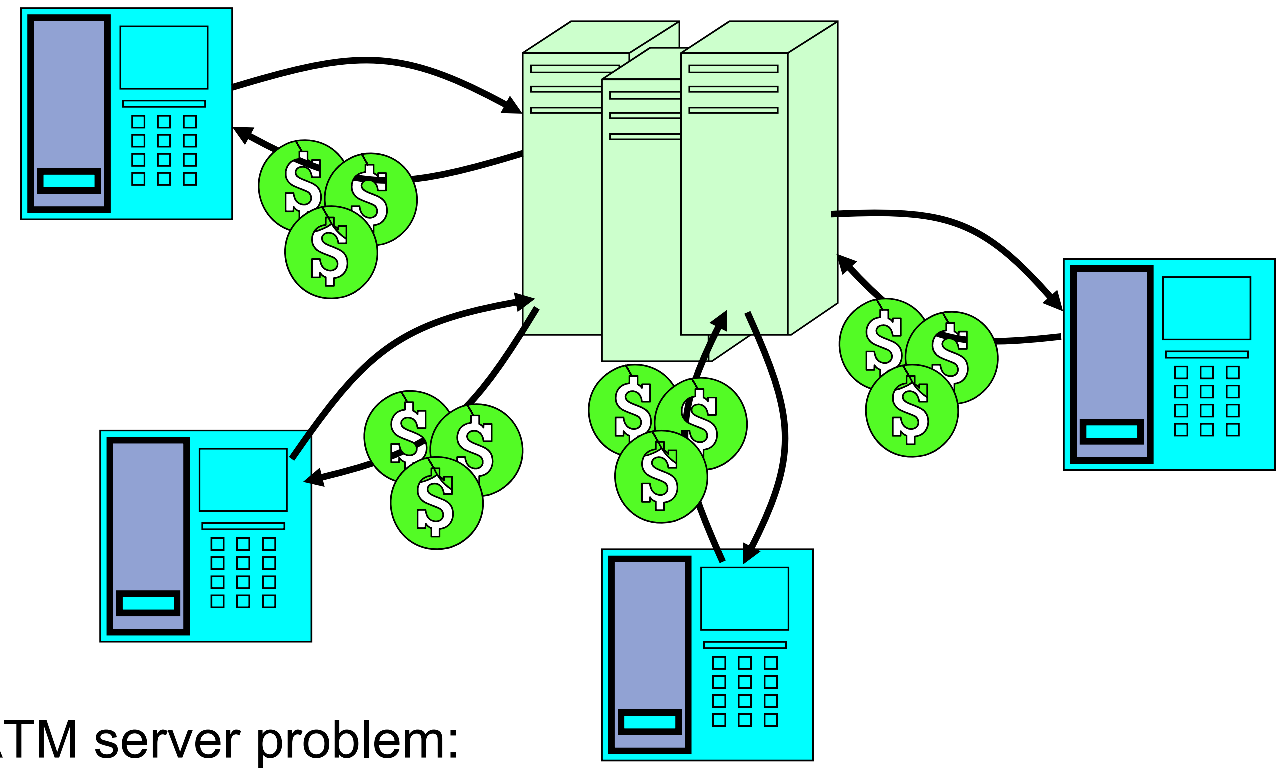

```
master() {
   allocThreads(worker,queue);
   while(TRUE) {
      con=AcceptCon();
      Enqueue(queue,con);
      wakeUp(queue);
   }
}
```

```
worker(queue) {
   while(TRUE) {
      con=Dequeue(queue);
      if (con==null)
         sleepOn(queue);
      else
         ServiceWebPage(con);
   }
}
```

Correctness with Concurrent Threads?

- Non-determinism:
  - Scheduler can run threads in **any order**
  - Scheduler can switch threads **at any time**
  - This can make testing very difficult
- *Independent Threads*
  - No state shared with other threads
  - Deterministic, reproducible conditions
- *Cooperating Threads*
  - Shared state between multiple threads
- **Goal: Correctness by Design**

ATM Bank Server



- ATM server problem:
  – Service a set of requests
  – Do so without corrupting database
  – Don’t hand out too much money

ATM bank server example

- Suppose we wanted to implement a server process to handle requests from an ATM network:

```
BankServer() {
   while (TRUE) {
      ReceiveRequest(&op, &acctId, &amount);
      ProcessRequest(op, acctId, amount);
   }
}
ProcessRequest(op, acctId, amount) {
   if (op == deposit) Deposit(acctId, amount);
   else if …
}
Deposit(acctId, amount) {
   acct = GetAccount(acctId); /* may use disk I/O */
   acct->balance += amount;
   StoreAccount(acct); /* Involves disk I/O */
}
```

- How could we speed this up?
  – More than one request being processed at once
  – Event driven (overlap computation and I/O)
  – Multiple threads (multi-proc, or overlap comp and I/O)

Event Driven Version of ATM server

- Suppose we only had one CPU
  - Still like to overlap I/O with computation
  - Without threads, we would have to rewrite in event-driven style
- Example

```
BankServer() {
   while(TRUE) {
      event = WaitForNextEvent();
      if (event == ATMRequest)
         StartOnRequest();
      else if (event == AcctAvail)
         ContinueRequest();
      else if (event == AcctStored)
         FinishRequest();
   }
}
```

  - This technique is used for graphical programming
- Complication:
  - What if we missed a blocking I/O step?
  - What if we have to split code into hundreds of pieces which could be blocking?

Can Threads Make This Easier?

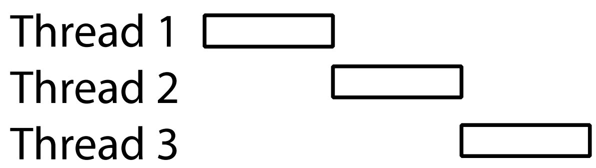
- Threads yield overlapped I/O and computation without "deconstructing" code into non-blocking fragments
  - One thread per request
- Requests proceeds to completion, blocking as required:

```
Deposit(acctId, amount) {
  acct = GetAccount(actId); /* May use disk I/O */
  acct->balance += amount;
  StoreAccount(acct);       /* Involves disk I/O */
}
```

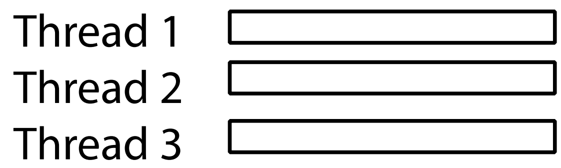
- Unfortunately, shared state can get corrupted:

Thread 1	Thread 2
`load r1, acct->balance`	
	`load r1, acct->balance`
	`add r1, amount2`
	`store r1, acct->balance`
`add r1, amount1`	
`store r1, acct->balance`	

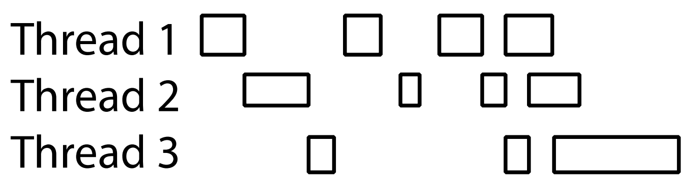
Recall: Possible Executions



a) One execution



b) Another execution



c) Another execution

Problem is at the Lowest Level

- Most of the time, threads are working on separate data, so scheduling doesn't matter:

Thread A	Thread B
x = 1;	y = 2;

- However, what about (Initially, y = 12):

Thread A	Thread B
x = 1;	y = 2;
x = y+1;	y = y*2;

  – What are the possible values of x?
- Or, what are the possible values of x below?

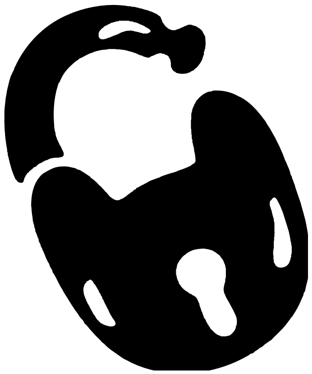
Thread A	Thread B
x = 1;	x = 2;

  – X could be 1 or 2 (non-deterministic!)
  – Could even be 3 for serial processors:
    » Thread A writes 0001, B writes 0010 → scheduling order ABABABBA yields 3!

Atomic Operations

- To understand a concurrent program, we need to know what the underlying indivisible operations are!
- Atomic Operation: an operation that always runs to completion or not at all
  - It is *indivisible:* it cannot be stopped in the middle and state cannot be modified by someone else in the middle
  - Fundamental building block – if no atomic operations, then have no way for threads to work together
- On most machines, memory references and assignments (i.e. loads and stores) of words are atomic
  - Consequently – weird example that produces "3" on previous slide can't happen
- Many instructions are not atomic
  - Double-precision floating point store often not atomic
  - VAX and IBM 360 had an instruction to copy a whole array

Locks

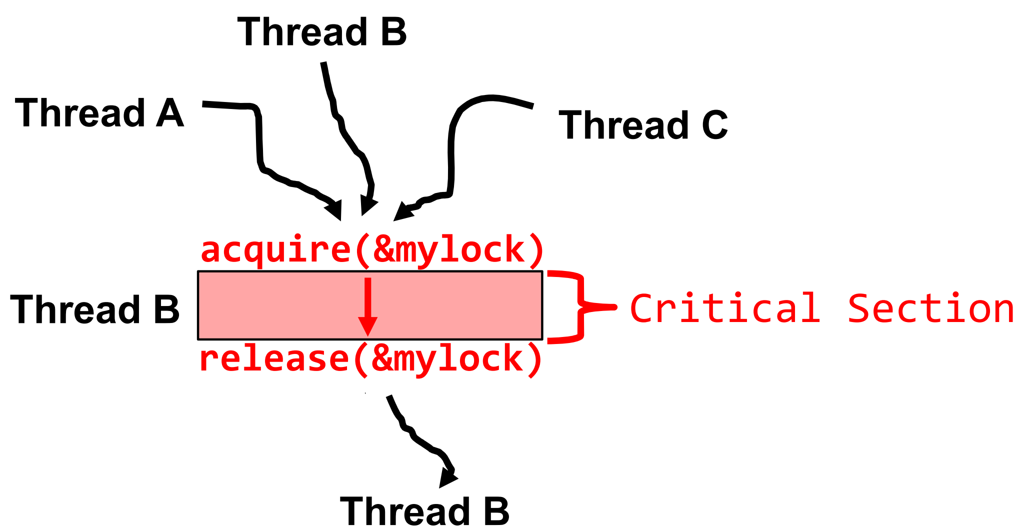


- Lock: prevents someone from doing something
  - Lock before entering critical section and before accessing shared data
  - Unlock when leaving, after accessing shared data
  - Wait if locked
    - » Important idea: all synchronization involves waiting
- Locks need to be allocated and initialized:
  - `structure Lock mylock`   or   `pthread_mutex_t mylock;`
  - `lock_init(&mylock)`   or   `mylock = PTHREAD_MUTEX_INITIALIZER;`
- Locks provide two **atomic** operations:
  - acquire(&mylock) – wait until lock is free; then mark it as busy
    - » After this returns, we say the calling thread *holds* the lock
  - release(&mylock) – mark lock as free
    - » Should only be called by a thread that currently holds the lock
    - » After this returns, the calling thread no longer holds the lock

Fix banking problem with Locks!

- Identify critical sections (atomic instruction sequences) and add locking:

```
Deposit(acctId, amount) {
  acquire(&mylock)          // Wait if someone else in critical section!
  acct = GetAccount(actId);  ┐
  acct->balance += amount;   ├ Critical Section
  StoreAccount(acct);        ┘
  release(&mylock)          // Release someone into critical section
}
```



Threads serialized by lock through critical section.
Only one thread at a time

- Must use SAME lock (`mylock`) with all of the methods (Withdraw, etc…)
  - Shared with all threads!

Conclusion

- Processes have two parts
  - Threads (Concurrency)
  - Address Spaces (Protection)
- Various textbooks talk about *processes*
  - When this concerns concurrency, really talking about thread portion of a process
  - When this concerns protection, talking about address space portion of a process
- Concurrent threads are a very useful abstraction
  - Allow transparent overlapping of computation and I/O
  - Allow use of parallel processing when available
- Concurrent threads introduce problems when accessing shared data
  - Programs must be insensitive to arbitrary interleavings
  - Without careful design, shared variables can become completely inconsistent