W4118: threads and synchronization

Instructor: Junfeng Yang

References: Modern Operating Systems (3rd edition), Operating Systems Concepts (8th edition), previous W4118, and OS at MIT, Stanford, and UWisc

Outline

Thread definition

Multithreading models

Synchronization

Threads

Threads: separate streams of executions that share an address space

- Allows one process to have multiple point of executions, can potentially use multiple CPUs
- □ Thread control block (TCB)
 - Program counter (EIP on x86)
 - Other registers
 - Stack

Very similar to processes, but different

Single and multithreaded processes



Threads in one process share code, data, files, ...

Why threads?

Express concurrency

 Web server (multiple requests), Browser (GUI + network I/O + rendering), ...

```
for(;;) {
   struct request *req = get_request();
   create_thread(process_request, req);
}
```

- Efficient communication
 - Using a separate process for each task can be heavyweight

Threads vs. Processes

- A thread has no data segment or heap
- A thread cannot live on its own, it must live within a process
- There can be more than one thread in a process, the first thread calls main() & has the process's stack
- Inexpensive creation
- Inexpensive context switching
- Efficient communication
- If a thread dies, its stack is reclaimed

- A process has code/data/heap & other segments
- A process has at least one thread
- Threads within a process share code/data/heap, share I/O, but each has its own stack & registers
- Expensive creation
- Expensive context switching
- Interprocess communication can be expressive
- If a process dies, its resources are reclaimed & all threads die

Using threads

Through thread library

• E.g. pthread, Win32 thread

Common operations

- create/terminate
- suspend/resume
- priorities and scheduling
- synchronization

Example pthread functions

- int pthread_create(pthread_t *thread, const pthread_attr_t *attr, void *(*start_routine)(void*), void *arg);
 - Create a new thread to run start_routine on arg
 - thread holds the new thread's id
 - Can be customized via attr
- int pthread_join(pthread_t thread, void **value_ptr);
 - Wait for thread termination, and retrieve return value in value_ptr
- void pthread_exit(void *value_ptr);
 - Terminates the calling thread, and returns value_ptr to threads waiting in pthread_join

pthread creation example

```
void* thread_fn(void *arg)
Ł
     int id = (int)arg;
      printf("thread %d runs\n", id);
     return NULL;
                           $ gcc –o threads threads.c –Wall –lpthread
}
                           $ threads
int main()
                           thread 1 runs
{
                           thread 2 runs
      pthread_t t1, t2;
      pthread_create(&t1, NULL, thread_fn, (void*)1);
      pthread_create(&t2, NULL, thread_fn, (void*)2);
      pthread_join(t1, NULL);
      pthread_join(t2, NULL);
      return 0;
                           One way to view threads: function
}
                           calls, except caller doesn't wait for
                           callee; instead, both run concurrently
```

Outline

Thread definition

Multithreading models

Synchronization

Multithreading models

□ Where to support threads?

User threads: thread management done by user-level threads library; kernel knows nothing

Kernel threads: threads directly supported by the kernel

Virtually all modern OS support kernel threads

User vs. Kernel Threads



Example from Tanenbaum, Modern Operating Systems 3 e, (c) 2008 Prentice-Hall, Inc. All rights reserved. 0-13-6006639

User vs. Kernel Threads (cont.)

- Pros: fast, no system call for creation, context switch
- Cons: kernel doesn't know one thread blocks, all threads in the process blocks
- Cons: slow, kernel does creation, scheduling, etc
- Pros: kernel knows

 one
 thread blocks, schedule
 another

No free lunch!

Multiplexing User-Level Threads

- A thread library must map user threads to kernel threads
- Big picture:
 - kernel thread: physical concurrency, how many cores?
 - User thread: application concurrency, how many tasks?
- Different mappings exist, representing different tradeoffs
 - Many-to-One: many user threads map to one kernel thread, i.e. kernel sees a single process
 - One-to-One: one user thread maps to one kernel thread
 - Many-to-Many: many user threads map to many kernel threads

Many-to-One

- Many user-level threads map to one kernel thread
- Pros
 - Fast: no system calls required
 - Portable: few system dependencies
- 🗆 Cons
 - No parallel execution of threads
 - All thread block when one waits for I/O



One-to-One

- One user-level thread maps to one kernel thread
- □ Pros: more concurrency
 - When one blocks, others can run
 - Better multicore or multiprocessor performance



- □ Cons: expensive
 - Thread operations involve kernel
 - Thread need kernel resources

Many-to-Many

- Many user-level threads map to many kernel threads (U >= K)
 - Supported some versons of BSD, and Windows
- Pros: flexible
 - OS creates kernel threads for physical concurrency
 - Applications creates user threads for application concurrency
- □ Cons: complex
 - Most programs use 1:1 mapping anyway



Two-level

 Similar to M:M, except that a user thread may be bound to kernel thread



Other thread design issues

Semantics of fork() system calls

- Does fork() duplicate only the calling thread or all threads?
 - Running threads? Threads trapped in system call?
- Linux fork() copies only the calling thread
- Signal handling
 - Which thread to deliver signals to?
 - Segmentation fault kills process or thread?

Thread pool

- Problem:
 - Creating a thread for each request: costly
 - And, the created thread exits after serving a request
 - More user request
 → More threads, server overload
- □ Solution: thread pool
 - Pre-create a number of threads waiting for work
 - Wake up thread to serve user request --- faster than thread creation
 - When request done, don't exit --- go back to pool
 - Limits the max number of threads

Outline

Thread definition

Multithreading models

Synchronization

Banking example

```
int balance = 0;
  int main()
  {
        pthread_t t1, t2;
        pthread_create(&t1, NULL, deposit, (void*)1);
        pthread_create(&t2, NULL, withdraw, (void*)2);
        pthread_join(t1, NULL);
        pthread_join(t2, NULL);
        printf("all done: balance = %d n'', balance);
        return 0;
   }
void* deposit(void *arg)
                               void* withdraw(void *arg)
                               {
     int i;
                                     int i;
     for(i=0; i<1e7; ++i)
                                     for(i=0; i<1e7; ++i)
           ++ balance;
                                          -- balance;
                               }
```

{

}

Results of the banking example

\$ gcc – Wall – Ipthread – o bank bank.c \$ bank all done: balance = 0\$ bank all done: balance = 140020\$ bank all done: balance = -94304\$ bank all done: balance = -191009

Why?

A closer look at the banking example

\$ objdump –d bank

```
08048464 <deposit>:
```

```
...
```

```
8048473: a1 80 97 04 08
8048478: 83 c0 01
804847b: a3 80 97 04 08
```

0804849b <withdraw>:

• • •

. . .

. . .

80484aa: a1 80 97 04 08 80484af: 83 e8 01 80484b2: a3 80 97 04 08 // ++ balance
mov 0x8049780,%eax
add \$0x1,%eax
mov %eax,0x8049780

// -- balance
mov 0x8049780,%eax
sub \$0x1,%eax
mov %eax,0x8049780

One possible schedule

| I | | CPU O | | | CPU 1 |
|-----|-----|------------------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------|----------------|
| | mov | 0x8049780,%eax | balance: 0 | | |
| | add | \$0x1,%eax %eax,0x8049780 | eax0: 0 | | |
| | mov | | eax0: 1 | | |
| | | | balance: 1 | | |
| + | | | | mov | 0x8049780,%eax |
| tim | e | | eax1: 1 | sub | \$0x1,%eax |
| | | | eax1: 0 | mov | %eax,0x8049780 |
| | | | balance: 0 | | , |
| | | One d balanc | eposit and one w ce unchanged. Co | vithdro orrect | IW, |

Another possible schedule

| I | | CPU O | | CPU 1 | |
|------|--------------------------|--|-------------|-----------|---------------------|
| | mov | 0x8049780,%eax | balance: 0 | | |
| | add | \$0x1.%eax | eax0: 0 | | |
| | | <i>q o n o o o n n n n n n n n n n</i> | eax0: 1 | mov | 0x8049780 %eax |
| | | 0/ | eax1:0 | | |
| time | mov %eax,0x8049780 Ie | | balance: 1 | sub | \$0x1.%eax |
| | | | eax1: -1 | mov | %eax 0x8049780 |
| | | | balance: -1 | 1110 0 | , sean, on o 197 00 |
| | | One d | | مرام ما ط | |

One deposit and one withdraw, balance becomes less. Wrong!



- Definition: a timing dependent error involving shared state
- Can be very bad
 - "non-deterministic:" don't know what the output will be, and it is likely to be different across runs
 - Hard to detect: too many possible schedules
 - Hard to debug: "heisenbug," debugging changes timing so hides bugs (vs "bohr bug"

How to avoid race conditions?

- Atomic operations: no other instructions can be interleaved, executed "as a unit" "all or none", guaranteed by hardware
- A possible solution: create a super instruction that does what we want atomically
 - add \$0x1, 0x8049780
- Problem
 - Can't anticipate every possible way we want atomicity
 - Increases hardware complexity, slows down other instructions

| // ++ | balance |
|-------|----------------|
| mov | 0x8049780,%eax |
| add | \$0x1,%eax |
| mov | %eax,0x8049780 |

. . .

```
// -- balance
mov 0x8049780,%eax
sub $0x1,%eax
mov %eax,0x8049780
```

Layered approach to synchronization

Hardware provides simple low-level atomic operations, upon which we can build high-level, synchronization primitives, upon which we can implement critical sections and build correct multi-threaded/multi-process programs

Properly synchronized application

High-level synchronization primitives

Hardware-provided low-level atomic operations

Example synchronization primitives

- Low-level atomic operations
 - On uniprocessor, disable/enable interrupt
 - On x86, aligned load and store of words
 - Special instructions:
 - test-and-set (TSL), compare-and-swap (XCHG)
- High-level synchronization primitives
 - Lock
 - Semaphore
 - Monitor