
CS 422/522 Design & Implementation
of Operating Systems

Lecture 10: Multi-Object Synchronization

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Multi-object programs

- ◆ What happens when we try to synchronize across multiple objects in a large program?
 - Each object with its own lock, condition variables
 - Is locking modular?
- ◆ Performance
- ◆ Semantics/correctness
- ◆ Deadlock
- ◆ Eliminating locks

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Synchronization performance

- ◆ A program with lots of concurrent threads can still have poor performance on a multiprocessor:
 - Overhead of creating threads, if not needed
 - Lock contention: only one thread at a time can hold a given lock
 - Shared data protected by a lock may ping back and forth between cores
 - False sharing: communication between cores even for data that is not shared

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Topics

- ◆ Multiprocessor cache coherence
- ◆ MCS locks (if locks are mostly busy)
- ◆ RCU locks (if locks are mostly busy, and data is mostly read-only)

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Multiprocessor cache coherence

- ◆ Scenario:
 - Thread A modifies data inside a critical section & releases lock
 - Thread B acquires lock and reads data
- ◆ Easy if all accesses go to main memory
 - Thread A changes main memory; thread B reads it
- ◆ What if new data is cached at processor A?
- ◆ What if old data is cached at processor B

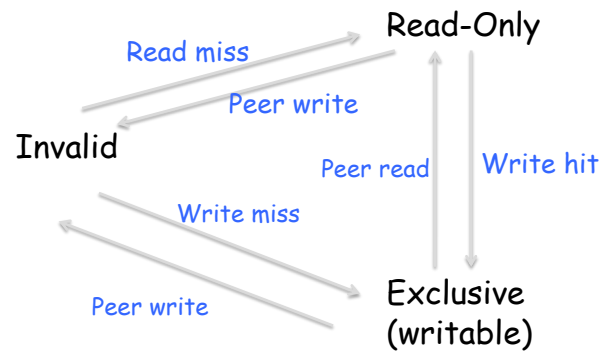
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Write-back cache coherence

- ◆ Cache coherence = system behaves as if there is one copy of the data
 - If data is only being read, any number of caches can have a copy
 - If data is being modified, at most one cached copy
- ◆ On write: (get ownership)
 - Invalidate all cached copies, before doing write
 - Modified data stays in cache ("write back")
- ◆ On read:
 - Fetch value from owner or from memory

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Cache state machine



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Directory-based cache coherence

- ◆ How do we know which cores have a location cached?
 - Hardware keeps track of all cached copies
 - On a read miss, if held exclusive, fetch latest copy and invalidate that copy
 - On a write miss, invalidate all copies
- ◆ Read-modify-write instructions
 - Fetch cache entry exclusive, prevent any other cache from reading the data until instruction completes

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A simple critical section

```
// A counter protected by a spinlock
Counter::Increment() {
    while (test_and_set(&lock))
        ;
    value++;
    lock = FREE;
    memory_barrier();
}
```

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A simple test of cache Behavior

Array of 1K counters, each protected by a separate spinlock
- Array small enough to fit in cache

- ◆ Test 1: one thread loops over array
- ◆ Test 2: two threads loop over different arrays
- ◆ Test 3: two threads loop over single array
- ◆ Test 4: two threads loop over alternate elements in single array

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Results (64 core AMD Opteron)

One thread, one array	51 cycles
Two threads, two arrays	52 cycles
Two threads, one array	197 cycles
Two threads, odd/even	127 cycles

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Reducing lock contention

- ◆ **Fine-grained locking**
 - Partition object into subsets, each protected by its own lock
 - Example: hash table buckets
- ◆ **Per-processor data structures**
 - Partition object so that most/all accesses are made by one processor
 - Example: per-processor heap
- ◆ **Ownership/staged architecture**
 - Only one thread at a time accesses shared data
 - Example: pipeline of threads

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What if locks are still mostly busy?

- ◆ MCS Locks
 - Optimize lock implementation for when lock is contended

- ◆ RCU (read-copy-update)
 - Efficient readers/writers lock used in Linux kernel
 - Readers proceed without first acquiring lock
 - Writer ensures that readers are done

- ◆ Both rely on atomic read-modify-write instructions

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The problem with test-and-set

```
Counter::Increment() {  
    while (test_and_set(&lock))  
        ;  
    value++;  
    lock = FREE;  
    memory_barrier();  
}
```

What happens if many processors try to acquire the lock at the same time?

- Hardware doesn't prioritize FREE

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The problem with test-&-test-and-set

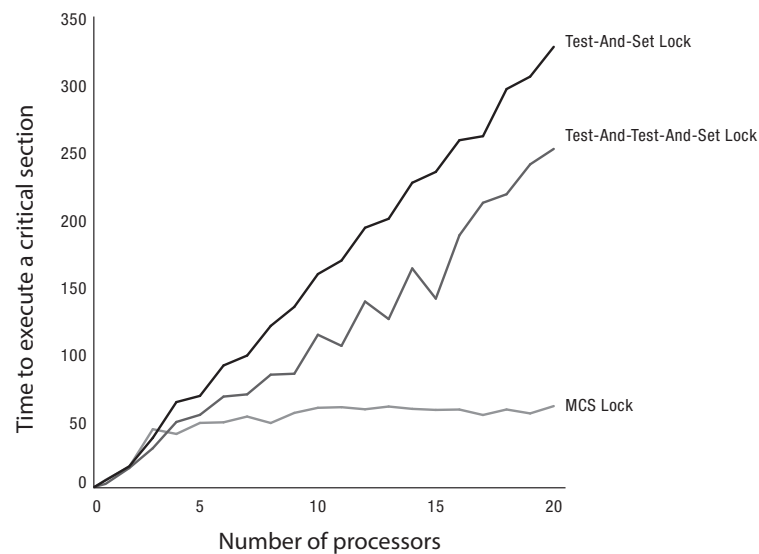
```
Counter::Increment() {
    while (lock == BUSY || test_and_set(&lock))
        ;
    value++;
    lock = FREE;
    memory_barrier();
}
```

What happens if many processors try to acquire the lock?

- Lock value pings between caches

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Test (and test) and set performance



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Some Approaches

- ◆ Insert a delay in the spin loop
 - Helps but acquire is slow when not much contention
- ◆ Spin adaptively
 - No delay if few waiting
 - Longer delay if many waiting
 - Guess number of waiters by how long you wait
- ◆ MCS
 - Create a linked list of waiters using `compareAndSwap`
 - Spin on a per-processor location

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Atomic CompareAndSwap

- ◆ Operates on a memory word
- ◆ Check that the value of the memory word hasn't changed from what you expect
 - E.g., no other thread did `compareAndSwap` first
- ◆ If it has changed, return an error (and loop)
- ◆ If it has not changed, set the memory word to a new value

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MCS Lock

- ◆ Maintain a list of threads waiting for the lock
 - Front of list holds the lock
 - MCSLock::tail is last thread in list
 - New thread uses CompareAndSwap to add to the tail
- ◆ Lock is passed by setting next->needToWait = FALSE;
 - Next thread spins while its needToWait is TRUE

```
TCB {
    TCB *next;          // next in line
    bool needToWait;
}
MCSLock {
    Queue *tail = NULL; // end of line
}
```

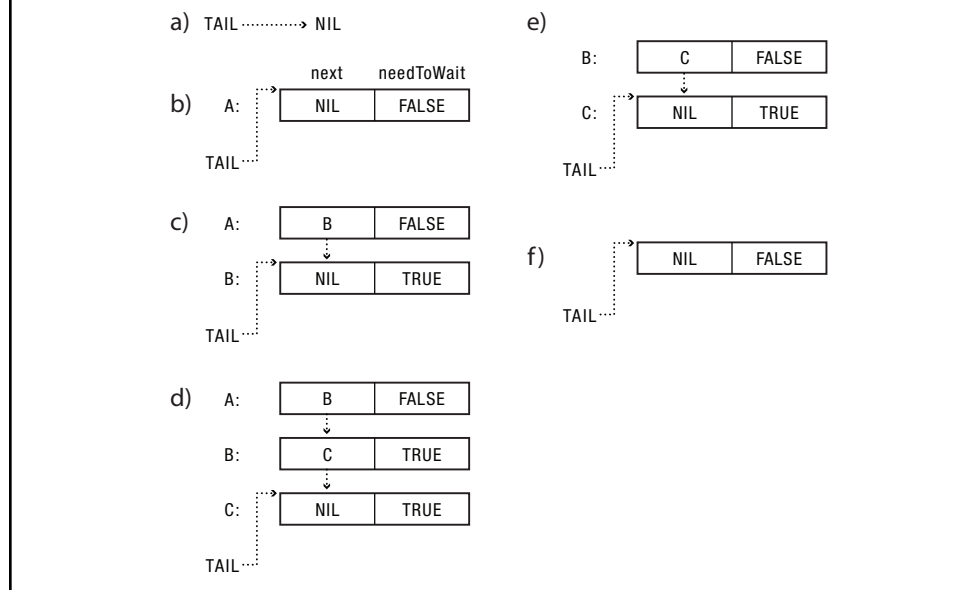
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MCS Lock implementation

<pre>class MCSLock { private Queue *tail = NULL; } MCSLock::release() { if (compareAndSwap(&tail, myTCB, NULL)) { // if tail == myTCB, no one is waiting. // MCSLock is now free. } else { // someone is waiting while (myTCB->next == NULL) ; // spin until next is set // Tell next thread to proceed myTCB->next->needToWait=FALSE; } }</pre>	<pre>MCSLock::acquire() { Queue *oldTail = tail; myTCB->next = NULL; while (!compareAndSwap(&tail, oldTail, &myTCB)) { // try again if someone changed tail oldTail = tail; } if (oldTail != NULL) { // Need to wait myTCB->needToWait = TRUE; memory_barrier(); oldTail->next = myTCB; while (myTCB->needToWait) ; // spin } }</pre>
--	---

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MCSLock in operation

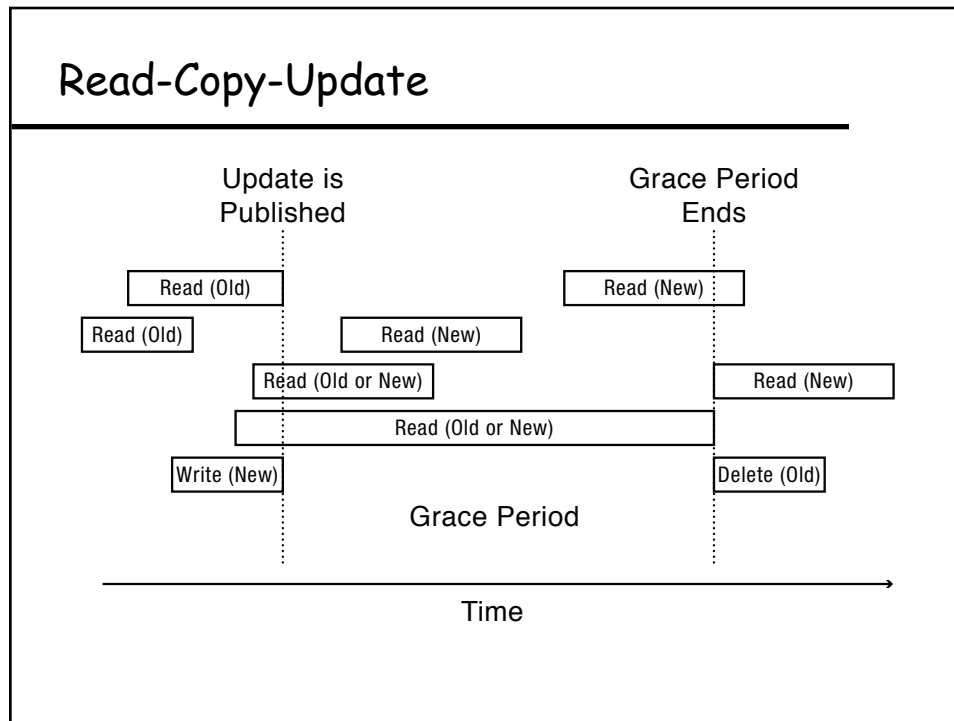


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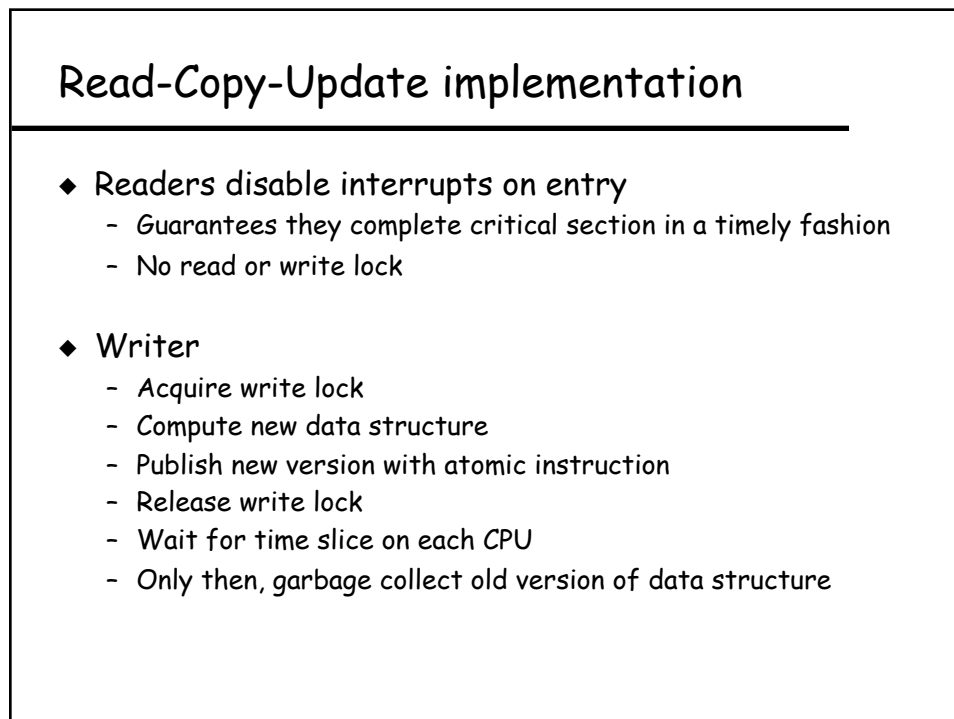
Read-Copy-Update

- ◆ **Goal: very fast reads to shared data**
 - Reads proceed without first acquiring a lock
 - OK if write is (very) slow
- ◆ **Restricted update**
 - Writer computes new version of data structure
 - Publishes new version with a single atomic instruction
- ◆ **Multiple concurrent versions**
 - Readers may see old or new version
- ◆ **Integration with thread scheduler**
 - Guarantee all readers complete within grace period, and then garbage collect old version

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Non-blocking synchronization

- ◆ Goal: data structures that can be read/modified without acquiring a lock
 - No lock contention!
 - No deadlock!

- ◆ General method using compareAndSwap
 - Create copy of data structure
 - Modify copy
 - Swap in new version iff no one else has
 - Restart if pointer has changed

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Deadlock definition

- ◆ Resource: any (passive) thing needed by a thread to do its job (CPU, disk space, memory, lock)
 - Preemptable: can be taken away by OS
 - Non-preemptable: must leave with thread
- ◆ Starvation: thread waits indefinitely
- ◆ Deadlock: circular waiting for resources
 - Deadlock => starvation, but not vice versa

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Example: two locks

Thread A

```
lock1.acquire();
lock2.acquire();
lock2.release();
lock1.release();
```

Thread B

```
lock2.acquire();
lock1.acquire();
lock1.release();
lock2.release();
```

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Bidirectional bounded buffer

Thread A

```
buffer1.put(data);
buffer1.put(data);
```

```
buffer2.get();
buffer2.get();
```

Thread B

```
buffer2.put(data);
buffer2.put(data);
```

```
buffer1.get();
buffer1.get();
```

Suppose buffer1 and buffer2 both start almost full.

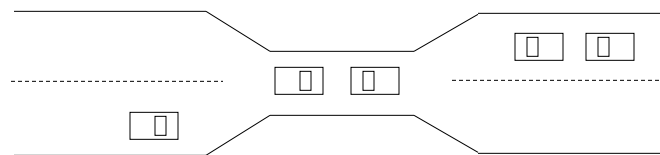
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Two locks and a condition variable

Thread A	Thread B
lock1.acquire();	lock1.acquire();
...	...
lock2.acquire();	lock2.acquire();
while (need to wait) {	...
condition.wait(lock2);	condition.signal(lock2);
}	...
lock2.release();	lock2.release();
...	...
lock1.release();	lock1.release();

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The bridge-crossing example



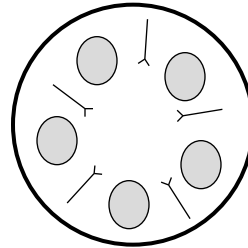
- ◆ Traffic only in one direction.
- ◆ Each section of a bridge can be viewed as a resource.
- ◆ If a deadlock occurs, it can be resolved if one car backs up (preempt resources and rollback).
- ◆ Several cars may have to be backed up if a deadlock occurs.
- ◆ Starvation is possible.

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The dining philosophers problem

- ◆ Five philosophers around a table --- thinking or eating
- ◆ Five plates of spaghetti + five forks (placed between each plate)
- ◆ The spaghetti is so slippery that a philosopher needs two forks to eat it.

```
void philosopher (int i) {
    while (TRUE) {
        think();
        take_fork (i);
        take_fork ((i+1) % 5);
        eat();
        put_fork (i);
        put_fork ((i+1) % 5);
    }
}
```



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Necessary conditions for deadlock

- ◆ Limited access to resources
 - If infinite resources, no deadlock!
- ◆ No preemption
 - If resources are virtual, can break deadlock
- ◆ Multiple independent requests
 - "wait while holding"
- ◆ Circular chain of requests

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Question

- ◆ How does Dining Philosophers meet the necessary conditions for deadlock?
 - Limited access to resources
 - No preemption
 - Multiple independent requests (wait while holding)
 - Circular chain of requests

- ◆ How can we modify Dining Philosophers to prevent deadlock?

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Preventing deadlock

- ◆ Exploit or limit program behavior
 - Limit program from doing anything that might lead to deadlock

- ◆ Predict the future
 - If we know what program will do, we can tell if granting a resource might lead to deadlock

- ◆ Detect and recover
 - If we can rollback a thread, we can fix a deadlock once it occurs

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Exploit or limit behavior

- ◆ Provide enough resources
 - How many chopsticks are enough?
- ◆ Eliminate wait while holding
 - Release lock when calling out of module
 - Telephone circuit setup
- ◆ Eliminate circular waiting
 - Lock ordering: always acquire locks in a fixed order
 - Example: move file from one directory to another

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Example

Thread 1	Thread 2
1. Acquire A	1.
2.	2. Acquire B
3. Acquire C	3.
4.	4. Wait for A
5. If (maybe) Wait for B	

How can we make sure to avoid deadlock?

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System model

- ◆ Resource types R_1, R_2, \dots, R_m
CPU cycles, memory space, I/O devices
- ◆ Each resource type R_i has W_i instances.
- ◆ Each process utilizes a resource as follows:
 - request
 - use
 - release

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
Resource-allocation graph (1)

A set of vertices V and a set of edges E .

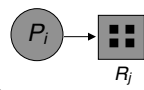
- ◆ V is partitioned into two types:
 - $P = \{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n\}$, the set consisting of all the processes in the system.
 - $R = \{R_1, R_2, \dots, R_m\}$, the set consisting of all resource types in the system.
- ◆ request edge - directed edge $P_i \rightarrow R_j$
- ◆ assignment edge - directed edge $R_j \rightarrow P_i$

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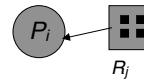
Resource-allocation graph (2)

- ◆ Process 
- ◆ Resource type with 4 instances 

- ◆ P_i requests instance of R_j

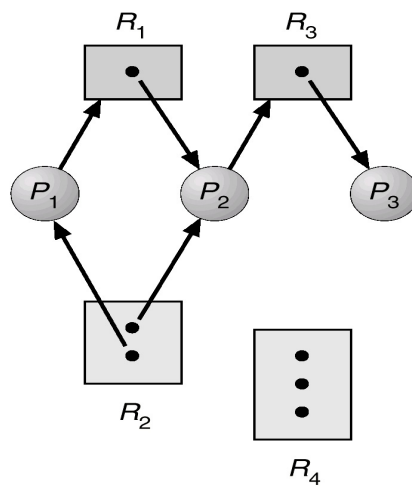


- ◆ P_i is holding an instance of R_j



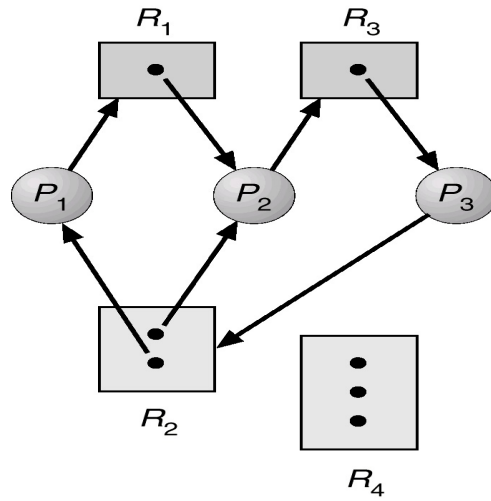
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Example: resource-allocation graph



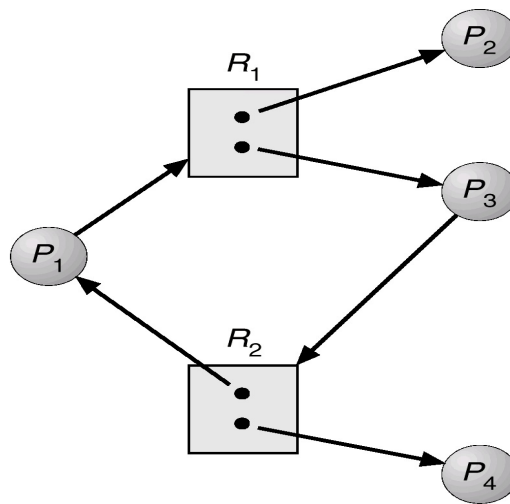
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Resource-allocation graph with a deadlock



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Resource-allocation graph with a cycle but no deadlock



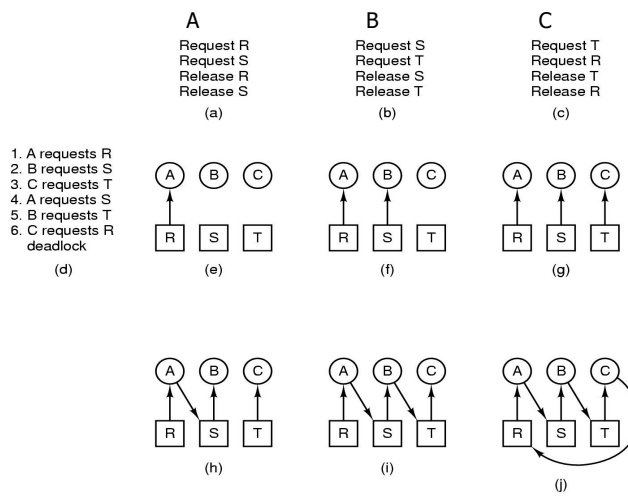
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Resource allocation graph vs. deadlock?

- ◆ If graph contains no cycles \Rightarrow no deadlock.
- ◆ If graph contains a cycle \Rightarrow
 - if only one instance per resource type, then deadlock.
 - if several instances per resource type, possibility of deadlock.

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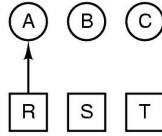
How deadlocks occur?



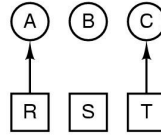
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How deadlocks can be avoided

1. A requests R
 2. C requests T
 3. A requests S
 4. C requests R
 5. A releases R
 6. A releases S
- no deadlock

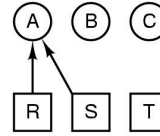


(k)



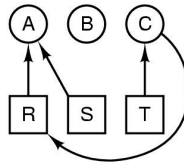
(l)

(m)

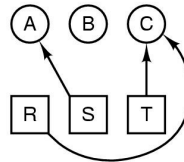


(n)

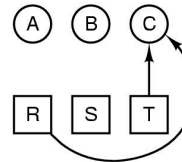
Block process B when it asks for S.



(o)



(p)



(q)

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Deadlock detection: data structures

Resources in existence
($E_1, E_2, E_3, \dots, E_m$)

Resources available
($A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots, A_m$)

Current allocation matrix

Request matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} & C_{13} & \cdots & C_{1m} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} & C_{23} & \cdots & C_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ C_{n1} & C_{n2} & C_{n3} & \cdots & C_{nm} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} R_{11} & R_{12} & R_{13} & \cdots & R_{1m} \\ R_{21} & R_{22} & R_{23} & \cdots & R_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ R_{n1} & R_{n2} & R_{n3} & \cdots & R_{nm} \end{bmatrix}$$

Row n is current allocation to process n

Row 2 is what process 2 needs

Data structures needed by deadlock detection algorithm

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Deadlock detection: example

$$E = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Tape drives
Plotters
Scanners
CD Roms
Tape drives
Plotters
Scanners
CD Roms

Current allocation matrix

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Request matrix

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

An example for the deadlock detection algorithm

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Methods for handling deadlocks

- ◆ Ensure that the system will *never* enter a deadlock state. *(deadlock prevention and avoidance)*
 - * problems: low device utilization, reduced throughput
 - * avoidance also requires prediction of resource needs
- ◆ Allow the system to enter a deadlock state and then recover. *(deadlock detection and recovery)*
 - * costly; sometimes impossible to recover
- ◆ Ignore the problem and pretend that deadlocks never occur in the system; used by most operating systems, including UNIX.

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Deadlock dynamics

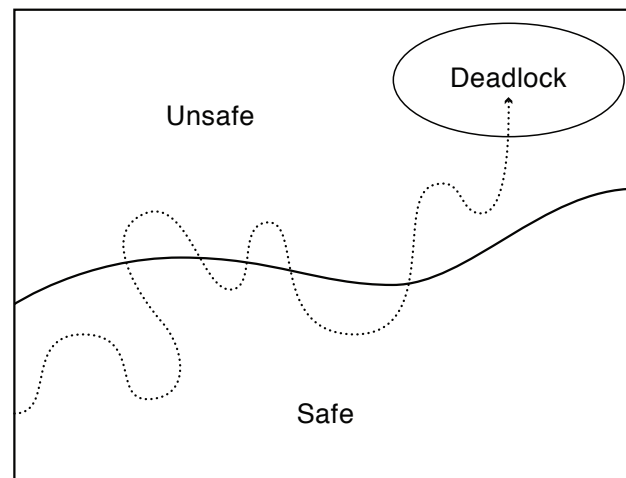
- ◆ **Safe state:**
 - For any possible sequence of future resource requests, it is possible to eventually grant all requests
 - May require waiting even when resources are available!

- ◆ **Unsafe state:**
 - Some sequence of resource requests can result in deadlock
 -

- ◆ **Doomed state:**
 - All possible computations lead to deadlock

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Possible system states



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Safe and unsafe states

Has Max			Has Max			Has Max			Has Max			Has Max		
A	3	9	A	3	9	A	3	9	A	3	9	A	3	9
B	2	4	B	4	4	B	0	-	B	0	-	B	0	-
C	2	7	C	2	7	C	2	7	C	7	7	C	0	-
Free: 3			Free: 1			Free: 5			Free: 0			Free: 7		
(a)			(b)			(c)			(d)			(e)		

Demonstration that the state in (a) is safe

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Safe and unsafe states

Has Max			Has Max			Has Max			Has Max		
A	3	9	A	4	9	A	4	9	A	4	9
B	2	4	B	2	4	B	4	4	B	-	-
C	2	7	C	2	7	C	2	7	C	2	7
Free: 3			Free: 2			Free: 0			Free: 4		
(a)			(b)			(c)			(d)		

Demonstration that the state in (b) is not safe

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Predict the future

- ◆ Banker's algorithm
 - State maximum resource needs in advance
 - Allocate resources dynamically when resource is needed -- wait if granting request would lead to deadlock
 - Request can be granted if some sequential ordering of threads is deadlock free

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Banker's algorithm

- ◆ Grant request iff result is a safe state
- ◆ Sum of maximum resource needs of current threads can be greater than the total resources
 - Provided there is some way for all the threads to finish without getting into deadlock
- ◆ Example: proceed iff
 - total available resources - # allocated \geq max remaining that might be needed by this thread in order to finish
 - Guarantees this thread can finish

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Banker's algorithm for a single resource

	Has	Max
A	0	6
B	0	5
C	0	4
D	0	7

Free: 10

(a)

	Has	Max
A	1	6
B	1	5
C	2	4
D	4	7

Free: 2

(b)

	Has	Max
A	1	6
B	2	5
C	2	4
D	4	7

Free: 1

(c)

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Banker's algorithm for multiple resources

	Process	Tape drives	Plotters	Scanners	CD ROMs
A	3	0	1	1	
B	0	1	0	0	
C	1	1	1	0	
D	1	1	0	1	
E	0	0	0	0	

Resources assigned

	Process	Tape drives	Plotters	Scanners	CD ROMs
A	1	1	0	0	
B	0	1	1	2	
C	3	1	0	0	
D	0	0	1	0	
E	2	1	1	0	

Resources still needed

E = (6342)
P = (5322)
A = (1020)

Example of banker's algorithm with multiple resources

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Banker's algorithm: data structures

Let n = number of processes, and m = number of resources types.

- ◆ **Available:** Vector of length m . If $avail[j] = k$, there are k instances of resource type R_j available.
- ◆ **Max:** $n \times m$ matrix. If $max[i,j] = k$, then process P_j may request at most k instances of resource type R_i .
- ◆ **Allocation:** $n \times m$ matrix. If $alloc[i,j] = k$ then P_j is currently allocated k instances of R_i .
- ◆ **Need:** $n \times m$ matrix. If $Need[i,j] = k$, then P_j may need k more instances of R_i to complete its task.

$$Need[i,j] = Max[i,j] - Allocation[i,j].$$

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Banker's algorithm

```
class ResourceMgr {
private:
    Lock lock;
    CV cv;
    int r;      // Number of resources
    int t;      // Number of threads
    int avail[]; // avail[i]: instances of resource i available
    int max[][]; // max[i][j]: max of resource i needed by thread j
    int alloc[][]; // alloc[i][j]: current allocation of resource i to thread j
    ...
}
// Invariant: the system is in a safe state.
ResourceMgr::Request(int resourceID, int threadID) {
    lock.Acquire();
    assert(isSafe());
    while (!wouldBeSafe(resourceID, threadID)) {
        cv.Wait(&lock);
    }
    alloc[resourceID][threadID]++;
    avail[resourceID]--;
    assert(isSafe());
    lock.Release();
}
```

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Banker's algorithm (cont'd)

```
// A state is safe iff there exists a safe sequence of grants that are sufficient
// to allow all threads to eventually receive their maximum resource needs.
bool ResourceMgr::isSafe() {
    int j;
    int toBeAvail[] = copy avail[];
    int need[][] = max[][] - alloc[][]; // need[i][j] is initialized to max[i][j] - alloc[i][j]
    bool finish[] = {false, false, false, ...}; // finish[j] is true if thread j is guaranteed to finish
    while (true) {
        j = any threadID such that:
            (finish[j] == false) && forall i: need[i][j] <= toBeAvail[i];
        if (no such j exists) {
            if (forall j: finish[j] == true) {
                return true;
            } else {
                return false;
            }
        } else { // Thread j will eventually finish and return its current allocation to the pool.
            finish[j] = true;
            forall i: toBeAvail[i] = toBeAvail[i] + alloc[i][j];
        }
    }
}
```

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Banker's algorithm (cont'd)

```
// Hypothetically grant request and see if resulting state is safe.
bool
ResourceMgr::wouldBeSafe(int resourceID, int threadID) {
    bool result = false;

    avail[resourceID]--;
    alloc[resourceID][threadID]++;
    if (isSafe()) {
        result = true;
    }
    avail[resourceID]++;
    alloc[resourceID][threadID]--;
    return result;
}
```

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Why we need Banker's algorithm?

8 pages of memory available

Three processes: A, B, C which need 4, 5, 5 pages respectively

The following would leads to deadlock

Process	Allocation											
A	0	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	3	wait	wait
B	0	0	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	3	wait
C	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	2	2	wait	wait	wait
Total	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	8	8	8

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Why we need Banker's algorithm?

8 pages of memory available

Three processes: A, B, C which need 4, 5, 5 pages respectively

The following would work!

Process	Allocation																		
A	0	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
B	0	0	1	1	1	2	2	2	wait	wait	wait	wait	3	4	4	5	0	0	0
C	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	2	2	wait	wait	wait	3	3	wait	wait	4	5	0
Total	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	7	7	8	4	6	7	7	8	4	5	0

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Detect and repair

- ◆ Algorithm
 - Scan wait for graph
 - Detect cycles
 - Fix cycles
- ◆ Proceed without the resource
 - Requires robust exception handling code
- ◆ Roll back and retry
 - Transaction: all operations are provisional until have all required resources to complete operation