Operating Systems (Honor Track)

# Synchronization 1: Concurrency

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Acknowledgments: Ion Stoica, Berkeley CS 162

# Recap: One example of this pattern: POSIX/Unix PIPE



- Memory Buffer is finite:
  - If producer (A) tries to write when buffer full, it *blocks* (Put sleep until space)
  - If consumer (B) tries to read when buffer empty, it *blocks* (Put to sleep until data)

## int pipe(int fileds[2]);

- Allocates two new file descriptors in the process
- Writes to fileds[1] read from fileds[0]
- Implemented as a fixed-size queue

# Recap: The Socket Abstraction: Endpoint for Communication

• Key Idea: Communication across the world looks like File I/O

- Sockets: Endpoint for Communication
  - Queues to temporarily hold results
- Connection: Two Sockets Connected Over the network  $\Rightarrow$  IPC over network!
  - How to open()?
  - What is the namespace?
  - How are they connected in time?

## Recap: Sockets in concept



## Recap: Sockets With Protection (each connection has own process)



#### **Recap: Sockets With Protection and Concurrency** Server Client Create Server Socket Bind it to an Address Create Client Socket (host:port) Connect it to server (host:port) Listen for Connection Accept syscall() Connection Socket Connection Socket Child Parent Close Listen Socket Close Connection Socket write request read request read response write response Close Connection Socket Close Server Socket **Close Client Socket**

#### **Recap: Sockets with Concurrency, without Protection**



# **Group Discussion**

- Topic: Pipes vs. Sockets
  - What is a pipe? What is a socket?
  - What are similar between pipes and sockets?
  - What are different between pipes and sockets?
- Discuss in groups of two to three students
  - Each group chooses a leader to summarize the discussion
  - In your group discussion, please do not dominate the discussion, and give everyone a chance to speak

## How to Read

You May Think You Already Know How To READ, But...

# You Spend a Lot of Time Reading

- Reading for undergrad/grad classes
- Reviewing conference submissions
- Giving colleagues feedback
- Keeping up with your field
- Staying broadly educated
- Transitioning into a new area
- Learning how to write better papers

# It is worthwhile to learn to read *effectively*

# Keshav's Three-Pass Approach: Step 1

- A ten-minute scan to get the general idea
  - Title, abstract, and introduction
  - Section and subsection titles
  - Conclusion and bibliography
- What to learn: the five C's
  - Category: What type of paper is it?
  - Context: What body of work does it relate to?
  - Correctness: Do the assumptions seem valid?
  - Contributions: What are the main research contributions?
  - Clarity: Is the paper well-written?
- Decide whether to read further...

# Keshav's Three-Pass Approach: Step 2

- A more careful, one-hour reading
  - Read with greater care, but ignore details like proofs
  - Figures, diagrams, and illustrations
  - Mark relevant references for later reading
- Grasp the content of the paper
  - Be able to summarize the main idea
  - Identify whether you can (or should) fully understand
- Decide whether to
  - Abandon reading in greater depth
  - Read background material before proceeding further
  - Persevere and continue for a third pass

# Keshav's Three-Pass Approach: Step 3

- Several-hour virtual re-implementation of the work
  - Making the same assumptions, recreate the work
  - Identify the paper's innovations and its failings
  - Identify and challenge every assumption
  - Think how you would present the ideas yourself
  - Jot down ideas for future work
- When should you read this carefully?
  - Reviewing for a conference or journal
  - Giving colleagues feedback on a paper
  - Understanding a paper closely related to your research
  - Deeply understanding a classic paper in the field

# **Other Tips for Reading Papers**

- Read at the right level for what you need
  - "Work smarter, not harder"
- Read at the right time of day
  - When you are fresh, not sleepy
- Read in the right place
  - Where you are not distracted, and have enough time
- Read actively
  - With a purpose (what is your goal?)
  - With a pen or computer to take notes
- Read critically
  - Think, question, challenge, critique, ...

# Agenda: Synchronization

- How does an OS provide concurrency through threads?
  - Brief discussion of process/thread states and scheduling
  - High-level discussion of how stacks contribute to concurrency
- Introduce needs for synchronization
- Discussion of Locks and Semaphores



# 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

## Context Switch



# 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

# Scheduling: All About Queues



- PCBs move from queue to queue
- Scheduling: which order to remove from queue
  - Much more on this soon

## Ready Queue And Various I/O Device Queues

- Process not running  $\Rightarrow$  PCB is in some scheduler queue
  - Separate queue for each device/signal/condition
  - Each queue can have a different scheduler policy



# Scheduler



- Scheduling: Mechanism for deciding which processes/threads receive the CPU
- Lots of different scheduling policies provide ...
  - Fairness or
  - Realtime guarantees or
  - Latency optimization or ...

# **Recall: Single and Multithreaded Processes**



- Threads encapsulate concurrency
- Address spaces encapsulate protection
  - Keeps buggy program from trashing the system
- Why have multiple threads per address space?

## Shared vs. Per-Thread State

Shared State	Per–Thread State	Per—Thread State
Неар	Thread Control Block (TCB)	Thread Control Block (TCB)
	Stack Information	Stack Information
Global Variables	Saved Registers	Saved Registers
	Thread Metadata	Thread Metadata
Code	Stack	Stack

# 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

# 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:



- 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?
  - Very challenging! Too many combinations and interleavings
- Cautionary tale:
  - For speed, Topaz kernel saved one instruction in switch()
  - Carefully documented! Only works as long as kernel size < 1MB</li>
  - 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

# Aren't we still switching contexts?

- 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  $\mu s$
  - Switching between threads: 100 ns
- Even cheaper: switch threads (using "yield") in user-space!

## **Processes vs. Threads**



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

## **Processes vs. Threads**



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

# 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!

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



Colored blocks show instructions executed

# 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

# 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();
}
```

## How do we initialize TCB and Stack?

- Initialize Register fields of TCB
  - Stack pointer made to point at stack
  - PC return address  $\Rightarrow$  OS (asm) routine ThreadRoot()
  - Two arg registers (a0 and a1) initialized to fcnPtr and fcnArgPtr, respectively



# 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?



- 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
  - 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();
```

• 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



Running Stack

**Context Switching in Modern OS** 

# Shinjuku: Preemptive Scheduling for Microsecond-Scale Tail Latency

Kostis Kaffes, Timothy Chong, Jack Tigar Humphries, Adam Belay, David Mazières, Christos Kozyrakis





NSDI'19

# Achieving low tail latency at microsecond scale is hard

**Problem:** High OS overheads

Solution: OS Bypass, polling (no interrupts), run-to-completion (no scheduling) Distributed Queues + First Come First Serve scheduling d-FCFS (DPDK, IX, Arrakis)





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Achieving low tail latency at microsecond scale is hard

**Problem:** Queue imbalance because d-FCFS is not work conserving



Worker Cores

4

Achieving low tail latency at microsecond scale is hard

**Problem:** Queue imbalance because d-FCFS is not work conserving Solution: Centralized queue - c-FCFS



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# Problem: Short requests get stuck behind long ones



# What if we could use the same preemptive scheduling as Linux?



Acknowledgments: Kostis Kaffes

# Solution: What if we could use preemptive scheduling but at usec scale?



# Solution: Shinjuku

A single address-space operating system that achieves microsecond-scale tail latency for all types of workloads regardless of variability in task duration

#### Key Features: Preemption as often as 5us

- Dedicated core for scheduling and queue management
- Leverage hardware support for virtualization for fast preemption
- Very fast context switching in user space
- Match scheduling policy to task distribution and target latency

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# **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

# Concurrency is Hard!

- Even for practicing engineers trying to write mission-critical, bulletproof code!
  - Threaded programs must work for all interleavings of thread instruction sequences
  - Cooperating threads inherently non-deterministic and non-reproducible
  - Really hard to debug unless carefully designed!
- Therac-25: Radiation Therapy Machine with Unintended Overdoses
  - Concurrency errors caused the death of a number of patients by misconfiguring the radiation production
  - Improper synchronization between input from operators and positioning software
- Mars Pathfinder Priority Inversion (JPL Account)
- Toyota Uncontrolled Acceleration (<u>CMU Talk</u>)
  - 256.6K Lines of C Code, ~9-11K global variables
  - Inconsistent mutual exclusion on reads/writes



## **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-processing, or overlap computation 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();
    }
}
```

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

# 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:

<u>Thread 1</u>	<u>Thread 2</u>	
load r1, acct->balance		
	load r1, acct->balance	
	add r1, amount2	
	store r1, acct->balance	
add r1, amount1		
store r1, acct->balance		

# **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) are atomic
- 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

# Fix banking problem with Locks!

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



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

# **Producer-Consumer with a Bounded Buffer**

- Problem Definition
  - Producer(s) put things into a shared buffer
  - Consumer(s) take them out
  - Need synchronization to coordinate producer/consumer
- Don't want producer and consumer to have to work in lockstep, so put a fixed-size buffer between them
  - Need to synchronize access to this buffer
  - Producer needs to wait if buffer is full
  - Consumer needs to wait if buffer is empty
- Example: Coke machine
  - Producer can put limited number of Cokes in machine
  - Consumer can't take Cokes out if machine is empty
- Others: Web servers, Routers, ....





# Circular Buffer Data Structure (sequential case)

```
typedef struct buf {
    int write_index;
    int read_index;
    <type> *entries[BUFSIZE];
} buf t;
```



- Insert: write & bump write ptr (enqueue)
- Remove: read & bump read ptr (dequeue)
- How to tell if Full (on insert) Empty (on remove)?
- And what do you do if it is?
- What needs to be atomic?

## Circular Buffer – first cut

#### mutex buf\_lock = <initially unlocked>

```
Producer(item) {
  acquire(&buf lock);
  while (buffer full) {}; // Wait for a free slot
  enqueue(item);
  release(&buf_lock);
                                 Will we ever come out of
                                 the wait loop?
Consumer() {
  acquire(&buf lock);
  while (buffer empty) {}; // Wait for arrival
  item = dequeue();
  release(&buf_lock);
  return item;
```

## Circular Buffer – 2<sup>nd</sup> cut

#### mutex buf\_lock = <initially unlocked>

```
Producer(item) {
  acquire(&buf lock);
 while (buffer full) {release(&buf_lock); acquire(&buf_lock);}
  enqueue(item);
 release(&buf_lock);
                                    What happens when one
                                    is waiting for the other?
Consumer() {
  acquire(&buf lock);
 while (buffer empty) {release(&buf_lock); acquire(&buf_lock);}
  item = dequeue();
  release(&buf_lock);
  return item;
```

# Conclusion

- Concurrency accomplished by multiplexing CPU time:
  - Unloading current thread (PC, registers)
  - Loading new thread (PC, registers)
  - Such context switching may be voluntary (yield(), I/O) or involuntary (interrupts)
- TCB + Stacks hold complete state of thread for restarting
- Atomic Operation: an operation that always runs to completion or not at all
- Synchronization: using atomic operations to ensure cooperation between threads
- Mutual Exclusion: ensuring that only one thread does a particular thing at a time
  - One thread *excludes* the other while doing its task
- Critical Section: piece of code that only one thread can execute at once. Only one thread at a time will get into this section of code
- Locks: synchronization mechanism for enforcing mutual exclusion on critical sections to construct atomic operations