

CPSC 213

Introduction to Computer Systems

Unit 2c

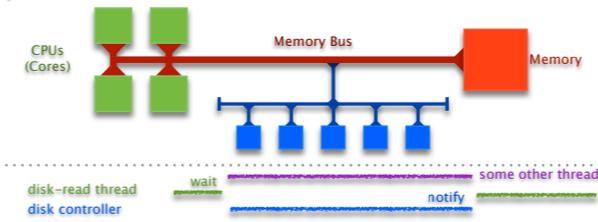
Synchronization

Readings for These Next Four Lectures

Text

- Shared Variables in Threaded Programs - Synchronizing Threads with Semaphores, Using Threads for Parallelism, Other Concurrency Issues
- 2nd: 12.4-12.5, 12.6, parts of 12.7
- 1st: 13.4-13.5, (no equivalent to 12.6), parts of 13.7

Synchronization



We invented Threads to

- exploit parallelism do things at the same time on different processors
- manage asynchrony do something else while waiting for I/O Controller

But, we now have two problems

- coordinating access to memory (variables) shared by multiple threads
- control flow transfers among threads (wait until notified by another thread)

Synchronization is the mechanism threads use to

- ensure *mutual exclusion* of critical sections
- wait for and notify of the occurrence of events

The Importance of Mutual Exclusion

Shared data

- data structure that could be accessed by multiple threads
- typically concurrent access to shared data is a bug

Critical Sections

- sections of code that access shared data

Race Condition

- simultaneous access to critical section section by multiple threads
- conflicting operations on shared data structure are arbitrarily interleaved
- unpredictable (non-deterministic) program behaviour — usually a bug (a serious bug)

Mutual Exclusion

- a mechanism implemented in software (with some special hardware support)
- to ensure critical sections are executed by one thread at a time
- though reading and writing should be handled differently (more later)

For example

- consider the implementation of a shared stack by a linked list ...

Stack implementation

```
void push_st (struct SE* e) {
    e->next = top;
    top = e;
}

struct SE {
    struct SE* next;
};
struct SE *top=0;
```

```
struct SE* pop_st () {
    struct SE* e = top;
    top = (top)? top->next: 0;
    return e;
}
```

Sequential test works

```
void push_driver (long int n) {
    struct SE* e;
    while (n-->0)
        push ((struct SE*) malloc (...));
}
```

```
void pop_driver (long int n) {
    struct SE* e;
    while (n-->0) {
        do {
            e = pop ();
        } while (!e);
        free (e);
    }
}
```

```
push_driver (n);
pop_driver (n);
assert (top==0);
```

concurrent test doesn't always work

```
et = uthread_create ((void*) push_driver, (void*) n);
dt = uthread_create ((void*) pop_driver, (void*) n);
uthread_join (et);
uthread_join (dt);
assert (top==0);
```

malloc: *** error for object 0x1022a8fa0: pointer being freed was not allocated

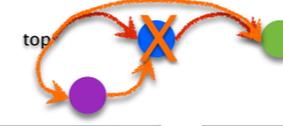
what is wrong?

```
void push_st (struct SE* e) {
    e->next = top;
    top = e;
}
```

```
struct SE* pop_st () {
    struct SE* e = top;
    top = (top)? top->next: 0;
    return e;
}
```

The bug

- push and pop are critical sections on the shared stack
- they run in parallel so their operations are arbitrarily interleaved
- sometimes, this interleaving corrupts the data structure



```
void push_st (struct SE* e) {
    e->next = top;
    top = e;
}
```

```
struct SE* pop_st () {
    struct SE* e = top;
    top = (top)? top->next: 0;
    return e;
}
```

1. e->next = top

2. e = top
 3. top = top->next
 4. return e

6. top = e

Mutual Exclusion using locks

lock semantics

- a lock is either *held* by a thread or *available*
- at most one thread can hold a lock at a time
- a thread attempting to acquire a lock that is already held is forced to wait

lock primitives

- lock** acquire lock, wait if necessary
- unlock** release lock, allowing another thread to acquire if waiting

using locks for the shared stack

```
void push_cs (struct SE* e) {
    lock (&lock);
    push_st (e);
    unlock (&lock);
}
```

```
struct SE* pop_cs () {
    struct SE* e;
    lock (&lock);
    e = pop_st ();
    unlock (&lock);
    return e;
}
```

Implementing Simple Locks

Here's a first cut

- use a shared global variable for synchronization
- lock** loops until the variable is 0 and then sets it to 1
- unlock** sets the variable to 0

```
int lock = 0;
```

```
void lock (int* lock) {
    while (*lock==1) {}
    *lock = 1;
}
```

```
void unlock (int* lock) {
    *lock = 0;
}
```

• why doesn't this work?

We now have a race in the lock code

Thread A

```
void lock (int* lock) {
    while (*lock==1) {}
    *lock = 1;
}
```

- read *lock==0, exit loop
- *lock = 1
- return with lock held

Thread B

```
void lock (int* lock) {
    while (*lock==1) {}
    *lock = 1;
}
```

- read *lock==0, exit loop
- *lock = 1, return
- return with lock held

Both threads think they hold the lock ...

The race exists even at the machine-code level

- two instructions acquire lock: one to read it free, one to set it held
- but read by another thread and interpose between these two

```
ld $lock, r1
ld $1, r2

loop: ld (r1), r0
      beq free, br loop

free: st r2, (r1)
```

Thread A

```
ld (r1), r0
```

```
st r2, (r1)
```

lock appears free



acquire lock

Thread B

```
ld (r1), r0
```

```
st r2, (r1)
```

Atomic Memory Exchange Instruction

We need a new instruction

- to *atomically* read and write a memory location
- with no intervening access to that memory location from any other thread allowed

Atomicity

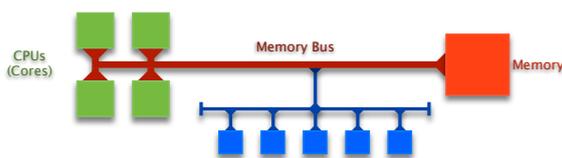
- is a general property in systems
- where a group of operations are performed as a single, indivisible unit

The Atomic Memory Exchange

- one type of atomic memory instruction (there are other types)
- group a load and store together atomically
- exchanging the value of a register and a memory location

Name	Semantics	Assembly
atomic exchange	$r[v] \leftarrow m[r[a]]$ $m[r[a]] \leftarrow r[v]$	xchg (ra, rv)

Implementing Atomic Exchange



Can not be implemented just by CPU

- must synchronize across multiple CPUs
- accessing the same memory location at the same time

Implemented by Memory Bus

- memory bus synchronizes every CPU's access to memory
- the two parts of the exchange (read + write) are coupled on bus
- bus ensures that no other memory transaction can intervene
- this instruction is much slower, higher overhead than normal read or write

Spinlock

A Spinlock is

- a lock where waiter *spins* on looping memory reads until lock is acquired
- also called "busy waiting" lock

Implementation using Atomic Exchange

- spin on atomic memory operation
- that attempts to acquire lock while
- atomically reading its old value

```
ld $lock, %r1
ld $1, %r0
loop: xchg (%r1), %r0
      beq %r0, held
      br loop
held:
```

- but there is a problem: atomic-exchange is an expensive instruction

Spin first on normal read

- normal reads are very fast and efficient compared to exchange
- use normal read in loop until lock appears free
- when lock appears free use exchange to try to grab it
- if exchange fails then go back to normal read

```
ld $lock, %r1
loop: ld (%r1), %r0
      beq %r0, try
      br loop
try: ld $1, %r0
     xchg (%r1), %r0
     beq %r0, held
     br loop
held:
```

Busy-waiting pros and cons

- Spinlocks are necessary and okay if spinner only waits a short time
- But, using a spinlock to wait for a long time, wastes CPU cycles

Blocking Locks

If a thread may wait a long time

- it should block so that other threads can run
- it will then unblock when it becomes runnable (lock available or event notification)

Blocking locks for mutual exclusion

- if lock is held, locker puts itself on waiter queue and blocks
- when lock is unlocked, unlocker restarts one thread on waiter queue

Blocking locks for event notification

- waiting thread puts itself on a waiter queue and blocks
- notifying thread restarts one thread on waiter queue (or perhaps all)

Implementing blocking locks presents a problem

- lock data structure includes a waiter queue and a few other things
- data structure is shared by multiple threads; lock operations are critical sections
- mutual exclusion can be provided by blocking locks (they aren't implemented yet)
- and so, we need to use spinlocks to implement blocking locks (this gets tricky)

Implementing a Blocking Lock

Lock data structure

```
struct blocking_lock {
    int spinlock;
    int held;
    pthread_queue_t waiter_queue;
};
```

The lock operation

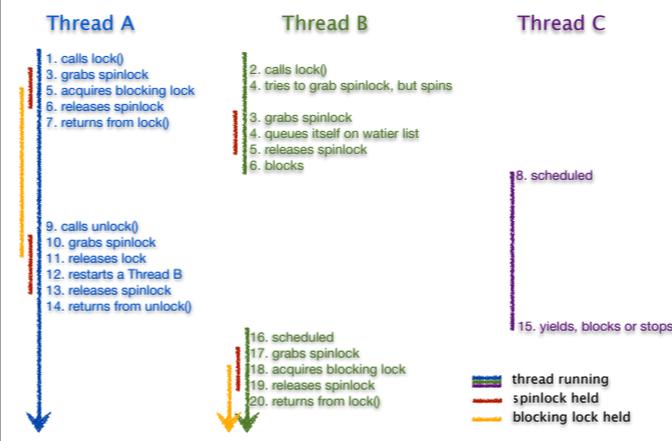
```
void lock (struct blocking_lock l) {
    spinlock_lock (&l->spinlock);
    while (l->held) {
        enqueue (&l->waiter_queue, pthread_self ());
        spinlock_unlock (&l->spinlock);
        pthread_switch (ready_queue_dequeue (0), TS_BLOCKED);
        spinlock_lock (&l->spinlock);
    }
    l->held = 1;
    spinlock_unlock (&l->spinlock);
}
```

The unlock operation

```
void unlock (struct blocking_lock l) {
    pthread_t* waiter_thread;

    spinlock_lock (&l->spinlock);
    l->held = 0;
    waiter_thread = dequeue (&l->waiter_queue);
    spinlock_unlock (&l->spinlock);
    waiter_thread->state = TS_RUNABLE;
    ready_queue_enqueue (waiter_thread);
}
```

Blocking Lock Example Scenario



Blocking vs Busy Waiting

Spinlocks

- Pros and Cons
 - uncontended locking has low overhead
 - contending for lock has high cost
- Use when
 - critical section is small
 - contention is expected to be minimal
 - event wait is expected to be very short
 - when implementing Blocking locks

Blocking Locks

- Pros and Cons
 - uncontended locking has higher overhead
 - contending for lock has no cost
- Use when
 - lock may be held for some time
 - when contention is high
 - when event wait may be long

Monitors and Condition Variables

Introduced by Tony Hoare and Per Brinch Hansen circ. 1974

- adds wait-signal synchronization to mutual exclusion
- basis for synchronization primitives in Java etc.

Monitor

- is a mutual-exclusion lock
- primitives are **enter** (lock) and **exit** (unlock)
- access for reading vs access for writing?

Condition Variable

- can only be accessed from inside of a monitor (i.e., with monitor lock held)
- **wait** blocks until a subsequent **signal** operation on the variable
- **notify** unblocks waiter, but continues to hold monitor (Hansen)
- **signal** unblocks waiter and atomically transfer monitor to waiter (Hoare)
- **notify_all** unblocks all waiters and continues to hold monitor (broadcast)
- names *signal* and *notify* used interchangeably; Hansen semantics universal

Waiting and Signalling Basics

Basic formulation

- one thread enters monitor and may wait for a condition to be established

```
monitor {
    while (!x)
        wait ();
}
```

- another thread enters monitor, establishes condition and signals waiter

```
monitor {
    x = true;
    signal ();
}
```

Waiting exits the monitor

- before waiter blocks, it exits monitor to allow other threads to enter
- when wait unblocks, it re-enters monitor, waiting/blocking to enter if necessary
- note: other threads may have been in monitor between wait call and return

Drinking Beer Example

Beer pitcher is shared data structure with these operations

- pour
- refill

Implementation goal

- synchronize access to the shared pitcher
- pouring from an empty pitcher requires waiting for it to be filled
- filling pitcher releases waiters

```
void pour () {
    monitor {
        if (glasses==0)
            wait;
        glasses--;
    }
}
```

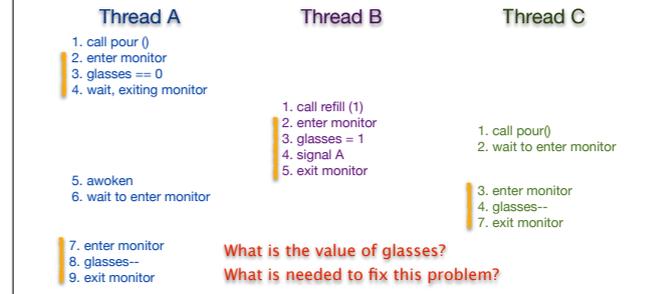
```
void refill (int n) {
    monitor {
        for (int i=0; i<n; i++) {
            glasses++;
            signal;
        }
    }
}
```

On closer inspection, what are we assuming about signal?

```
void pour () {
    monitor {
        if (glasses==0)
            wait;
        glasses--;
    }
}
```

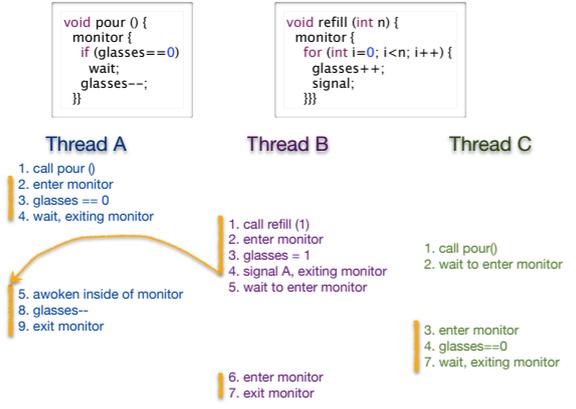
```
void refill (int n) {
    monitor {
        for (int i=0; i<n; i++) {
            glasses++;
            signal;
        }
    }
}
```

- Consider this potential execution. Is it legal? Is it problematic?



Blocking Signal — Hoare Semantics

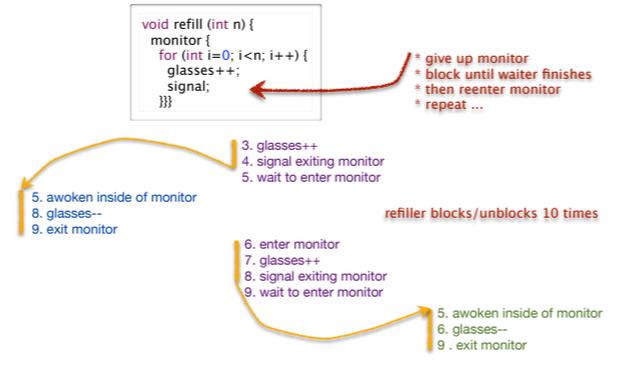
Tony Hoare proposed that signal block and pass monitor to waiter



But, implementing Hoare Semantics has high overhead

- each blocking/unblocking (scheduling) of a thread is costly
- blocking in signal leads to significant scheduling overhead

what if refill(10) is called with 10 thirsty waiters?



Non-Blocking Notify – Hansen Semantics

Per Brinch Hansen propose that signal not block

- the non-blocking signal is normally called *notify*
- lower overhead; fewer block/unblock; this is what everyone does
- but, this requires changing the waiter code
 - can not assume that wait condition holds after wait returns
 - may have to wait again, if another thread consumed the refill

```
void pour () {
    monitor {
        while (glasses==0)
            wait;
        glasses--;
    }
}
```

```
void refill (int n) {
    monitor {
        for (int i=0; i<n; i++) {
            glasses++;
            notify;
        }
    }
}
```

or notify_all to awaken all threads

- may wakeup too many
- but, threads re-check glasses==0, so it's okay

```
void refill (int n) {
    monitor {
        glasses += n;
        notify_all;
    }
}
```

The Monitor and Condition Variables

Programs can have multiple independent monitors

- so a monitor implemented as a “variable” (a struct really)

```
pthread_monitor_t* beer = pthread_monitor_create (0);
```

Monitors may have multiple independent conditions

- so a condition is also a variable, connected to its monitor

```
pthread_cv_t* not_empty = pthread_cv_create (beer);
pthread_cv_t* warm = pthread_cv_create (beer);
```

```
void pour (int isEnglish) {
    pthread_monitor_enter (beer);
    while (glasses==0 || (isEnglish && temp<15)) {
        pthread_cv_wait (not_empty);
        if (isEnglish && temp < 15)
            pthread_cv_wait (warm);
    }
    glasses--;
    pthread_monitor_exit (beer);
}
```

Using Condition Variables for Disk Read

Blocking read

- call async read as before
- but now block on condition variable that is given to completion routine

```
void read (char* buf, int bufSize, int blockNo) {
    pthread_monitor_t* mon = pthread_monitor_create (0);
    pthread_cv_t* cv = pthread_cv_create (mon);
    pthread_monitor_enter (mon);
    asyncRead (buf, bufSize, readComplete, mon, cv);
    pthread_cv_wait (cv);
    pthread_monitor_exit (mon);
}
```

Read completion

- called by disk ISR as before
- but now notify the condition variable, restarting the blocked read call

```
void readComplete (pthread_monitor_t* mon, pthread_cv_t* cv) {
    pthread_monitor_enter (mon);
    pthread_cv_notify (cv);
    pthread_monitor_exit (mon);
}
```

Shared Queue Example

Unsynchronized Code

```
void enqueue (pthread_queue_t* queue, pthread_t* thread) {
    thread->next = 0;
    if (queue->tail)
        queue->tail->next = thread;
    queue->tail = thread;
    if (queue->head==0)
        queue->head = queue->tail;
}

pthread_t* dequeue (pthread_queue_t* queue) {
    pthread_t* thread;
    if (queue->head) {
        thread = queue->head;
        queue->head = queue->head->next;
        if (queue->head==0)
            queue->tail=0;
    } else
        thread=0;
    return thread;
}
```

Adding Mutual Exclusion

```
void enqueue (pthread_queue_t* queue, pthread_t* thread) {
    pthread_monitor_enter (&queue->monitor);
    thread->next = 0;
    if (queue->tail)
        queue->tail->next = thread;
    queue->tail = thread;
    if (queue->head==0)
        queue->head = queue->tail;
    pthread_monitor_exit (&queue->monitor);
}

pthread_t* dequeue (pthread_queue_t* queue) {
    pthread_t* thread;
    pthread_monitor_enter (&queue->monitor);
    if (queue->head) {
        thread = queue->head;
        queue->head = queue->head->next;
        if (queue->head==0)
            queue->tail=0;
    } else
        thread=0;
    pthread_monitor_exit (&queue->monitor);
    return thread;
}
```

Now have dequeue wait for item if queue is empty

- classical producer-consumer model with each in different thread
 - e.g., producer enqueues video frames consumer thread dequeues them for display

```
void enqueue (pthread_queue_t* queue, pthread_t* thread) {
    pthread_monitor_enter (&queue->monitor);
    thread->next = 0;
    if (queue->tail)
        queue->tail->next = thread;
    queue->tail = thread;
    if (queue->head==0)
        queue->head = queue->tail;
    pthread_cv_notify (&queue->not_empty);
    pthread_monitor_exit (&queue->monitor);
}

pthread_t* dequeue (pthread_queue_t* queue) {
    pthread_t* thread;
    pthread_monitor_enter (&queue->monitor);
    while (queue->head==0)
        pthread_cv_wait (&queue->not_empty);
    thread = queue->head;
    queue->head = queue->head->next;
    if (queue->head==0)
        queue->tail=0;
    pthread_monitor_exit (&queue->monitor);
    return thread;
}
```

Some Questions About Example

```

uthread_t* dequeue (uthread_queue_t* queue) {
  uthread_t* thread;
  uthread_monitor_enter (&queue->monitor);
  while (queue->head==0)
    uthread_cv_wait (&queue->not_empty);
  thread = queue->head;
  queue->head = queue->head->next;
  if (queue->head==0)
    queue->tail=0;
  uthread_monitor_exit (&queue->monitor);
  return thread;
}

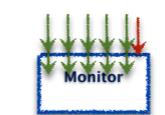
```

- Why does dequeue have a while loop to check for non-empty?
- Why must condition variable be associated with specific monitor?
- Why can't we use condition variable outside of monitor?
 - this is called a *naked* use of the condition variable
 - this is actually required sometimes ... can you think where (BONUS)?
 - Experience with Processes and Monitors with Mesa, Lamson and Redell, 1980

Implementing Condition Variables

- Some key observations
 - wait, notify and notify_all are called while monitor is held
 - the monitor must be held when they return
 - wait must release monitor before locking and re-acquire before returning
- Implementation
 - in the lab
 - look carefully at the implementations of monitor enter and exit
 - understand how these are similar to wait and notify
 - use this code as a guide
 - you also have the code for semaphores, which you might also find helpful

Reader-Writer Monitors



- If we classify critical sections as
 - reader if only reads the shared data
 - writer if updates the shared data
- Then we can weaken the mutual exclusion constraint
 - writers require exclusive access to the monitor
 - but, a group of readers can access monitor concurrently
- Reader-Writer Monitors
 - monitor state is one of
 - free, held-for-reading, or held
 - monitor_enter ()
 - waits for monitor to be free then sets its state to held
 - monitor_enter_read_only ()
 - waits for monitor to be free or held-for-reading, then sets its state to head-for-reading
 - increment reader count
 - monitor_exit ()
 - if held, then set state to free
 - if held-for-reading, then decrement reader count and set state to free if reader count is 0

- Policy question
 - monitor state is head-for-reading
 - thread A calls monitor_enter() and blocks waiting for monitor to be free
 - thread B calls monitor_enter_read_only(); what do we do?
- Disallowing new readers while writer is waiting
 - is the fair thing to do
 - thread A has been waiting longer than B, shouldn't it get the monitor first?
- Allowing new readers while writer is waiting
 - may lead to faster programs by increasing concurrency
 - if readers must WAIT for old readers and writer to finish, less work is done
- What should we do
 - normally either provide a fair implementation
 - or allow programmer to choose (that's what Java does)

Semaphores

- Introduced by Edsger Dijkstra for the THE System circa 1968
 - recall that he also introduced the "process" (aka "thread") for this system
 - was fearful of asynchrony, Semaphores synchronize interrupts
 - synchronization primitive provide by UNIX to applications
- A Semaphore is
 - an atomic counter that can never be less than 0
 - attempting to make counter negative blocks calling thread
- P (s)
 - try to decrement s (*prolaag for probeer te varlagen* in Dutch)
 - atomically blocks until s > 0 then decrement s
- V (s)
 - increment s (*verhogen* in Dutch)
 - atomically increase s unblocking threads waiting in P as appropriate

Using Semaphores to Drink Beer

- Use semaphore to store glasses head by pitcher
 - set initial value of empty when creating it

```

uthread_semaphore_t* glasses = uthread_create_semaphore (0);

```
- Pouring and refilling don't require a monitor


```

void pour () {
  uthread_P (glasses);
}

void refill (int n) {
  for (int i=0; i<n; i++)
    uthread_V (glasses);
}

```
- Getting the beer warm, however doesn't fit quite as nicely
 - need to keep track of the number of threads waiting for the warm beer
 - then call V that number of times
 - this is actually quite tricky

Other ways to use Semaphores

- Asynchronous Operations
 - create *outstanding_request* semaphore
 - async_read: P (outstanding_request)
 - completion interrupt: V (outstanding_request)
- Rendezvous
 - two threads wait for each other before continuing
 - create a semaphore for each thread initialized to 0

```

void thread_a () {
  uthread_V (a);
  uthread_P (b);
}

void thread_b () {
  uthread_V (b);
  uthread_P (a);
}

```

What if you reversed order of V and P?

- Barrier (local)
 - In a system of 1 parent thread and N children threads
 - All threads must arrive at barrier before any can continue

```

void* add (void* arg) {
  struct arg_tuple* tuple = (struct arg_tuple*) arg;
  tuple->result = tuple->arg0 + tuple->arg1;
  uthread_V (tuple->barrier);
  return 0;
}

uthread_semaphore_t* barrier = uthread_create_semaphore (0);
struct arg_tuple a0 = {1,2,0,barrier};
struct arg_tuple a1 = {3,4,0,barrier};
uthread_init (1);
uthread_create (add, &a0);
uthread_create (add, &a1);
uthread_P (barrier);
uthread_P (barrier);
printf ("%d %d\n", a0.result, a1.result);

```
- Barrier (global)
 - In a system of N threads with no parent
 - All threads must arrive, before any can continue ... and should work repeatedly

- Implementing Monitors
 - initial value of semaphore is 1
 - lock is P()
 - unlock is V()
- Implementing Condition Variables
 - this is the warm beer problem
 - it took until 2003 before we actually got this right
 - for further reading
 - Andrew D. Birrell. "Implementing Condition Variables with Semaphores", 2003.
 - Google "semaphores condition variables birrell"

Implementing Semaphores

- Data structure


```

struct uthread_semaphore {
  int count;
  spinlock_t spinlock;
  uthread_queue_t waiter_queue;
};

```
- V(s)


```

void uthread_V (uthread_semaphore_t* sem) {
  uthread_t* waiter_thread;

  spinlock_lock (&sem->spinlock);
  sem->counter += 1;
  waiter_thread = dequeue (&sem->waiter_queue);
  if (waiter_thread)
    uthread_start (waiter_thread);
  spinlock_unlock (&sem->spinlock);
}

```

- P(s)


```

void uthread_P (uthread_semaphore_t* sem) {
  uthread_t* waiter_thread;

  spinlock_lock (&sem->spinlock);
  while (sem->count < 1) {
    enqueue (&sem->waiter_queue, uthread_self ());
    spinlock_unlock (&sem->spinlock);
    uthread_stop (TS_BLOCKED);
    spinlock_lock (&sem->spinlock);
  }
  sem->count -= 1;
  spinlock_unlock (&sem->spinlock);
}

```

Problems with Concurrency

- Race Condition
 - competing, unsynchronized access to shared variable
 - from multiple threads
 - at least one of the threads is attempting to update the variable
 - solved with synchronization
 - guaranteeing mutual exclusion for competing accesses
 - but the language does not help you see what data might be shared --- can be very hard
- Deadlock
 - multiple competing actions wait for each other preventing any to complete
 - what can cause deadlock?
 - MONITORS
 - CONDITION VARIABLES
 - SEMAPHORES

The Dining Philosophers Problem

- Formulated by Edsger Dijkstra to explain deadlock (circa 1965)
 - 5 computers competed for access to 5 shared tape drives
- Re-told by Tony Hoare
 - 5 philosophers sit at a round table with fork placed in between each
 - fork to left and right of each philosopher and each can use only these 2 forks
 - they are either eating or thinking
 - while eating they are not thinking and while thinking they are not eating
 - they never speak to each other
 - large bowl of spaghetti at centre of table requires 2 forks to serve
 - dig in ...
 - deadlock
 - every philosopher holds fork to left waiting for fork to right (or vice versa)
 - how might you solve this problem?
 - starvation
 - even if some philosophers eat, some could go hungry if never get both forks
 - livelock
 - deadlock avoided, but all philosophers still starve due to timing problem, special case of starvation

Avoiding Deadlock

- Don't use multiple threads
 - you'll have many idle CPU cores and write asynchronous code
- Don't use shared variables
 - if threads don't access shared data, no need for synchronization
- Use only one lock at a time
 - deadlock is not possible, unless thread forgets to unlock
- Organize locks into precedence hierarchy
 - each lock is assigned a unique precedence number
 - before thread X acquires a lock i, it must hold all higher precedence locks
 - ensures that any thread holding i can not be waiting for X
- Detect and destroy
 - if you can't avoid deadlock, detect when it has occurred
 - break deadlock by terminating threads (e.g., sending them an exception)

Synchronization in Java (5)

- Monitors using the Lock interface
 - a few variants allow interruptibility, just trying lock, ...


```

Lock l = ...;
l.lock ();
try {
  ...
} finally {
  l.unlock ();
}

Lock l = ...;
try {
  l.lockInterruptibly ();
  try {
    ...
  } finally {
    l.unlock ();
  }
} catch (InterruptedException ie) {}

```
 - multiple-reader single writer locks


```

ReadWriteLock l = ...;
Lock rl = l.readLock ();
Lock wl = l.writeLock ();

```

- Condition variables
 - await is wait (replaces Object wait)
 - signal or signalAll is Hansen "notify" (replaces Object notify, notifyAll)

```

class Beer {
  Lock l = ...;
  Condition notEmpty = l.newCondition ();
  int glasses = 0;

  void pour () throws InterruptedException {
    l.lock ();
    try {
      while (glasses==0)
        notEmpty.await ();
      glasses++;
    } finally {
      l.unlock ();
    }
  }

  void refill (int n) throws InterruptedException {
    l.lock ();
    try {
      glasses += n;
      notEmpty.signalAll ();
    } finally {
      l.unlock ();
    }
  }
}

```

Synchronization Summary

- ▶ **Spinlock**
 - one acquirer at a time, busy-wait until acquired
 - need atomic read-write memory operation, implemented in hardware
 - use for locks held for short periods (or when minimal lock contention)
- ▶ **Monitors and Condition Variables**
 - blocking locks, stop thread while it is waiting
 - monitor guarantees mutual exclusion
 - condition variables wait/notify provides control transfer among threads
- ▶ **Semaphores**
 - blocking atomic counter, stop thread if counter would go negative
 - introduced to coordinate asynchronous resource use
 - use to implement barriers or monitors
 - use to implement something like condition variables, but not quite
- ▶ **Problems, problems, problems**
 - race conditions to be avoided using synchronization
 - deadlock/livelock to be avoided using synchronization carefully

Lock-Free Atomic Stack in Java

▶ Recall the problem with concurrent stack

```
void push_st (struct SE* e) {  
    e->next = top;  
    top = e;  
}
```

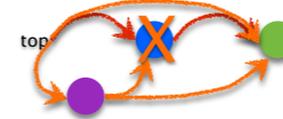
```
struct SE* pop_st () {  
    struct SE* e = top;  
    top = (top)? top->next: 0;  
    return e;  
}
```

- a pop could intervene between two steps of push, corrupting linked list



- we solved this problem using locks to ensure mutual exclusion
- now ... solve without locks, using **atomic compare-and-set** of top

```
class Element {  
    Element* next;  
}  
  
class Stack {  
    AtomicReference<Element> top;  
    Stack () {  
        top.set (NULL);  
    }  
  
    void push () {  
        Element t;  
        Element e = new Element ();  
        do {  
            t = top.get ();  
            e.next = t;  
        } while (!top.compareAndSet (t, e));  
    }  
}
```



▶ Semaphore class

- **acquire ()** or **acquire (n)** is P() or P(n)
- **release ()** or **release (n)** is V() or V(n)

```
class Beer {  
    Semaphore glasses = new Semaphore (0);  
  
    void pour () throws InterruptedException {  
        glasses.acquire ();  
    }  
  
    void refill (int n) throws InterruptedException {  
        glasses.release (n);  
    }  
}
```

▶ Lock-free Atomic Variables

- AtomicX where X in {Boolean, Integer, IntegerArray, Reference, ...}
- atomic operations such as getAndAdd(), compareAndSet(), ...
 - e.g., x.compareAndSet (y,z) atomically sets x=z iff x==y and returns true iff set occurred