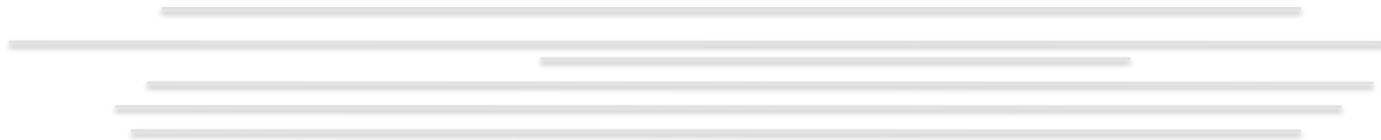


# Deadlock, Reader-Writer problem and Condition synchronization

Michelle Kuttel



# Serial versus concurrent

Sequential **correctness** is mostly concerned with **safety properties**:

- ensuing that a program transforms each before-state to the correct after-state.

Concurrent correctness is also concerned with safety, but the problem is **much, much harder**:

- safety must be ensured despite the **vast number** of ways steps of concurrent threads can be **interleaved**.

Also, concurrent correctness encompasses a variety of **liveness** properties that have **no counterparts** in the sequential world.

# Concurrent correctness

There are two types of correctness properties:

## **Safety properties**

The property must *always be true*.

## **Liveness properties**

The property must eventually become true.

# Java Deadlocks

We use locking to ensure safety

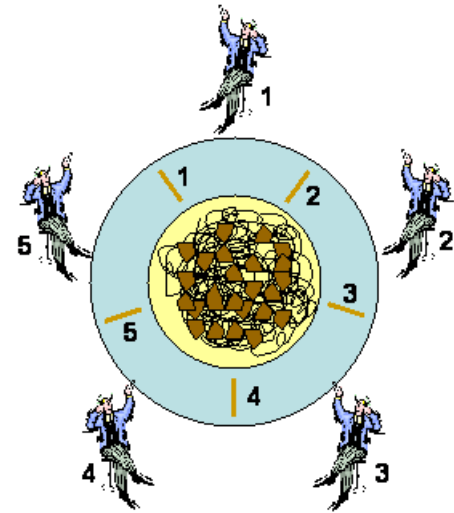
- but locks are inherently vulnerable to deadlock
- indiscriminate locking can cause **lock-ordering deadlocks**

# Dining philosophers

Classic problem used to illustrate deadlock

– proposed by Dijkstra in 1965

- a table with five silent philosophers, five plates, five forks (or chopsticks) and a big bowl of spaghetti (or rice).
- Each philosopher must alternately think and eat.
- Eating is not limited by the amount of spaghetti left: assume an infinite supply.
- However, a philosophers need two forks to eat
- A fork is placed between each pair of adjacent philosophers.



unrealistic,  
unsanitary  
and  
interesting

# Dining philosophers

- Basic philosopher loop:

```
while True:  
    think()  
    get_forks()  
    eat()  
    put_forks()
```

The problem is how to design a concurrent algorithm such that each philosopher won't starve, i.e. can forever continue to alternate between eating and thinking.

- Some algorithms result in some or all of the philosophers dying of hunger.... **deadlock**

# Dining philosophers in Java

```
class Philosopher extends Thread {
    int identity;
    Chopstick left; Chopstick right;
    Philosopher(Chopstick left, Chopstick right) {
        this.left = left; this.right = right;
    }
    public void run() {
        while (true) {
            try {
                sleep(...); // thinking
                right.get(); left.get(); // hungry
                sleep(...) ; // eating
                right.put(); left.put();
            } catch (InterruptedException e) {}
        }
    }
}
```

**potential for deadlock**

# Chopstick Monitor

```
class Chopstick {
    Boolean taken=false;
    synchronized void put() {
        taken=false;
        notify();
    }
    synchronized void get() throws
        InterruptedException
    {
        while (taken) wait();
        taken=true;
    }
}
```



# Applet for diners

```
for (int i =0; i<N; ++I) // create Chopsticks
    stick[i] = new Chopstick();
for (int i =0; i<N; ++i){ // create Philosophers
    phil[i]=new Philosopher(stick[(i-1+N%N)],stick[i]);
    phil[i].start();
}
```

# Dining philosophers cont.

We can avoid deadlock by:

- controlling the number of philosophers (HOW?)
- change the order in which the philosophers pick up forks. (HOW?)

# Motivating Deadlock Issues

Consider a method to transfer money between bank accounts

```
class BankAccount {
    ...
    synchronized void withdraw(int amt) {...}
    synchronized void deposit(int amt) {...}
    synchronized void transferTo(int amt,
                                   BankAccount a) {
        this.withdraw(amt);
        a.deposit(amt);
    }
}
```

Notice during call to `a.deposit`, thread holds 2 locks

- Need to investigate when this may be a problem

# The Deadlock

For simplicity, suppose **x** and **y** are static fields holding accounts

Thread 1: `x.transferTo(1, y)`

Thread 2: `y.transferTo(1, x)`

Time



*acquire lock for x*  
*do withdraw from x*

*block on lock for y*

*acquire lock for y*  
*do withdraw from y*

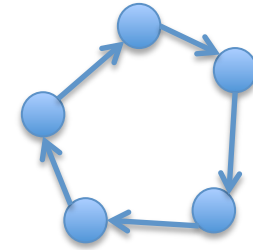
*block on lock for x*

# Deadly embrace

Simplest form of deadlock:

- Thread A holds lock L while trying to acquire lock M, while thread B holds lock M while trying to acquire lock L.

# Deadlock, in general



A deadlock occurs when there are threads **T1**, ..., **Tn** such that:

- For  $i=1, \dots, n-1$ , **T<sub>i</sub>** is waiting for a resource held by **T(i+1)**
- **T<sub>n</sub>** is waiting for a resource held by **T1**

In other words, there is a **cycle** of waiting

- Can formalize as a graph of dependencies

Deadlock avoidance in programming amounts to employing techniques to ensure a cycle can never arise

# Deadlocks in Java

Java applications do not recover from deadlocks:

- when a set of Java threads deadlock, they are permanently out of commission
- application may stall completely, a subsystem may stall, performance may suffer
  - .... all not good!
- If there is potential for deadlock it may actually never happen, but usually does under worst possible conditions

so we need to ensure that it can't happen

# Back to our example

Options for deadlock-proof transfer:

1. Make a smaller critical section: **transferTo** not synchronized
  - Exposes intermediate state after **withdraw** before **deposit**
  - May be okay, but exposes wrong total amount in bank
2. Coarsen lock granularity: one lock for all accounts allowing transfers between them
  - Works, but sacrifices concurrent deposits/withdrawals
3. Give every bank-account a unique number and always acquire locks in the same order
  - *Entire program* should obey this order to avoid cycles
  - Code acquiring only one lock is fine



# Ordering locks

```
class BankAccount {
    ...
    private int acctNumber; // must be unique
    void transferTo(int amt, BankAccount a) {
        if(this.acctNumber < a.acctNumber)
            synchronized(this) {
                synchronized(a) {
                    this.withdraw(amt);
                    a.deposit(amt);
                }
            }
        else
            synchronized(a) {
                synchronized(this) {
                    this.withdraw(amt);
                    a.deposit(amt);
                }
            }
    }
}
```

# Lock-ordering deadlocks

- occur when two threads attempt to acquire the same locks in a different order
- A program will be free of lock-ordering deadlocks if all threads acquire the locks they need in a fixed global order
  - requires global analysis of your programs locking behaviour
- A program than **never acquires more than one lock at a time** will also never deadlock, but often impractical

# Another example

From the Java standard library

```
class StringBuffer {
    private int count;
    private char[] value;
    ...
    synchronized append(StringBuffer sb) {
        int len = sb.length();
        if(this.count + len > this.value.length)
            this.expand(...);
        sb.getChars(0, len, this.value, this.count);
    }
    synchronized getChars(int x, int y,
                           char[] a, int z) {
        "copy this.value[x..y] into a starting at z"
    }
}
```

# Two problems

Problem #1: The lock for **sb** is not held between calls to **sb.length** and **sb.getChars**

- So **sb** could get longer
- Would cause **append** to throw an **ArrayBoundsException**

Problem #2: Deadlock potential if two threads try to **append** in opposite directions, just like in the bank-account first example

Not easy to fix both problems without extra copying:

- Do not want unique ids on every **StringBuffer**
- Do not want one lock for all **StringBuffer** objects

Actual Java library: fixed neither (left code as is; changed javadoc)

- Up to clients to avoid such situations with own protocols

# Perspective

- Code like account-transfer and string-buffer append are difficult to deal with for deadlock
- Easier case: different types of objects
  - Can document a fixed order among types
  - Example: “When moving an item from the hashtable to the work queue, never try to acquire the queue lock while holding the hashtable lock”
- Easier case: objects are in an acyclic structure
  - Can use the data structure to determine a fixed order
  - Example: “If holding a tree node’s lock, do not acquire other tree nodes’ locks unless they are children in the tree”

# Why are Thread.suspend and Thread.resume deprecated?

Thread.suspend is inherently deadlock-prone.

- If the target thread holds a lock on the monitor protecting a critical system resource when it is suspended, no thread can access this resource until the target thread is resumed.
- If the thread that would resume the target thread attempts to lock this monitor prior to calling resume, deadlock results.
- Such deadlocks typically manifest themselves as "frozen" processes.

# Checkpoint

- The BirdsSpotted2 class is thread safe. Is it also deadlock free?

```
public final class BirdsSpotted2 {
    private long CapeStarling = 0;
    private long SacredIbis = 0;
    private long CapeRobinChat = 0;

    public synchronized long getStarling() { returnCapeStarling;}
    public synchronized long getIbis() { returnSacredIbis;}
    public synchronized long getRobin() { returnCapeRobinChat;}

    public synchronized long spottedStarling() {return ++CapeStarling;}
    public synchronized long spottedIbis() { return ++SacredIbis;}
    public synchronized long spottedRobin() { return ++CapeRobinChat;}
}
```

# Checkpoint

```
public class MsLunch {
    private long orc = 0;
    private long dragon = 0;
    private Object orcLock = new Object();
    private Object dragonLock = new Object();

    public void inc1() {
        synchronized(orcLock) {
            orc++;
        }
    }

    public void inc2() {
        synchronized(dragonLock) {
            dragon++;
        }
    }
}
```

- why can we have 2 separate locks here?
- why is it desirable?



# Checkpoint

```
public class MsLunch {
    private long orc = 0;
    private long dragon = 0;
    private Object orcLock = new Object();
    private Object dragonLock = new Object();

    public void inc1() {
        synchronized(orcLock) {
            orc++;
        }
    }

    public void inc2() {
        synchronized(dragonLock) {
            dragon++;
        }
    }
}
```

- why can we have 2 separate locks here?
- why is it desirable?

Advantage of this using private lock:  
lock is encapsulated so client code cannot acquire it

- clients incorrectly using lock can cause liveness problems
- verifying that a publically accessible lock is used properly requires examining the entire program, compared to a single class for a private one

# Progress Conditions

- *Deadlock-free*: some thread trying to acquire the lock eventually succeeds.
- *Starvation-free*: every thread trying to acquire the lock eventually succeeds.

# Starvation

- much less common a problem than deadlock
- situation where a thread is unable to gain regular access to shared resources and is unable to make progress.
  - most commonly starved resource is CPU cycles
- happens when shared resources are made unavailable for long periods by "greedy" threads.
- For example:
  - suppose an object provides a synchronized method that often takes a long time to return.
  - If one thread invokes this method frequently, other threads that also need frequent synchronized access to the same object will often be blocked.

# Starvation

- In Java can be caused by inappropriate use of thread priorities
- or indefinite loops or resource waits that do not terminate where a lock is held

# Livelock

- A thread often acts in response to the action of another thread.
  - If the other thread's action is also a response to the action of another thread, then *livelock* may result.
  - As with deadlock, livelocked threads are unable to make further progress.
- Process is in a livelock if it is spinning while waiting for a condition that will never become true (busy wait deadlock)
- comparable to two people attempting to pass each other in a corridor: Alphonse moves to his left to let Gaston pass, while Gaston moves to his right to let Alphonse pass.
- Seeing that they are still blocking each other, Alphonse moves to his right, while Gaston moves to his left. They're still blocking each other, so...

# Readers/writer locks



# Reading vs. writing

## Recall:

- Multiple concurrent reads of same memory: *Not* a problem
- Multiple concurrent writes of same memory: Problem
- Multiple concurrent read & write of same memory: Problem

## So far:

- If concurrent write/write or read/write might occur, use synchronization to ensure one-thread-at-a-time

## But this is unnecessarily conservative:

- Could still allow multiple simultaneous readers!

# Readers and writers problem

variant of the mutual exclusion problem where there are two classes of processes:

- writers which need exclusive access to resources
- readers which need not exclude each other



# Readers/Writers

- Easy to solve with mutual exclusion
- But mutual exclusion requires **waiting**
  - One **waits** for the other
  - Everyone executes **sequentially**
- **Performance hit!**

# Example

Consider a hashtable with one coarse-grained lock

- So only one thread can perform operations at a time

But suppose:

- There are many simultaneous **lookup** operations
- **insert** operations are very rare

Note: Important that **lookup** doesn't actually mutate shared memory, like a move-to-front list operation would

# Readers/writer locks

A new synchronization ADT: The **readers/writer lock**

- A lock's states fall into three categories:
  - “not held”
  - “held for writing” by one thread
  - “held for reading” by *one or more* threads
- **new**: make a new lock, initially “not held”
- **acquire\_write**: block if currently “held for reading” or “held for writing”, else make “held for writing”
- **release\_write**: make “not held”
- **acquire\_read**: block if currently “held for writing”, else make/keep “held for reading” and increment *readers count*
- **release\_read**: decrement readers count, if 0, make “not held”

$0 \leq \text{writers} \leq 1$   
 $0 \leq \text{readers}$   
 $\text{writers} * \text{readers} == 0$

# Pseudocode example (not Java)

```
class Hashtable<K,V> {
    ...
    // coarse-grained, one lock for table
    RWLock lk = new RWLock();
    V lookup(K key) {
        int bucket = hasher(key);
        lk.acquire_read();
        ... read array[bucket] ...
        lk.release_read();
    }
    void insert(K key, V val) {
        int bucket = hasher(key);
        lk.acquire_write();
        ... write array[bucket] ...
        lk.release_write();
    }
}
```

# Readers/writer lock details

- A readers/writer lock implementation (“not our problem”) usually gives *priority* to writers:
  - Once a writer blocks, no readers *arriving later* will get the lock before the writer
  - Otherwise an **insert** could *starve*
- Re-entrant? Mostly an orthogonal issue
  - But some libraries support *upgrading* from reader to writer
- Why not use readers/writer locks with more fine-grained locking, like on each bucket?
  - Not wrong, but likely not worth it due to low contention

# In Java

Java's **synchronized** statement does not support readers/writer

Instead, library

```
java.util.concurrent.locks.ReentrantReadWriteLock
```

- Different interface: methods **readLock** and **writeLock** return objects that themselves have **lock** and **unlock** methods
- Does *not* have writer priority or reader-to-writer upgrading
  - Always read the documentation

# Condition variables



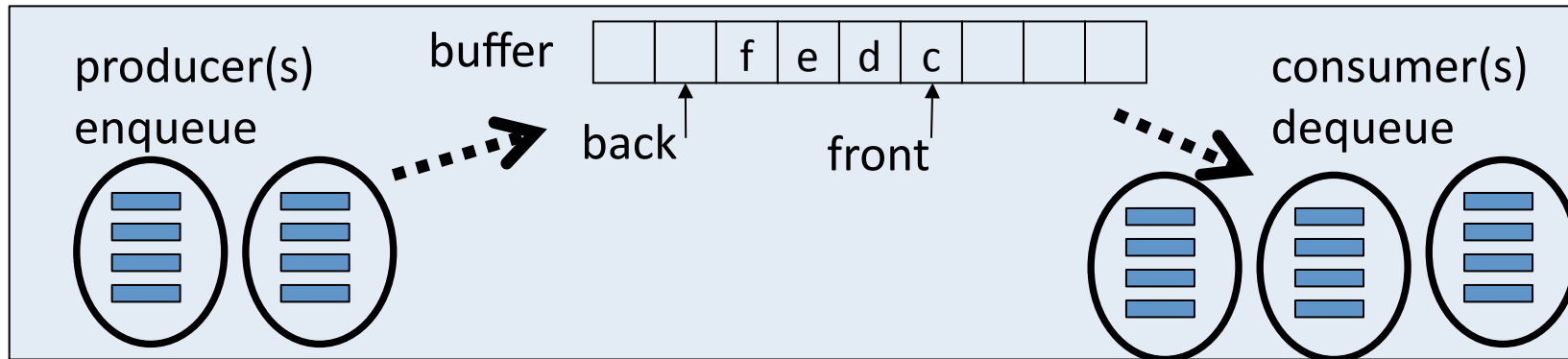
# Condition variables: Producer-Consumer synchronization problem

In multithreaded programs there is often a division of labor between threads.

- In one common pattern, some threads are **producers** and some are **consumers**.
  - Producers create items of some kind and add them to a data structure;
  - consumers remove the items and process them
- a new coordination problem: **Producer-Consumer**



# Producer-Consumer



canonical example of a **bounded buffer** for sharing work among threads

Bounded buffer: A queue with a fixed size

- (Unbounded still needs a condition variable, but 1 instead of 2)

For sharing work – think an assembly line:

- Producer thread(s) do some work and enqueue result objects
- Consumer thread(s) dequeue objects and do next stage
- Must synchronize access to the queue

# Producer-consumer problem

Event-driven programs are a good example.

- Whenever an event occurs, a producer thread creates an event object and adds it to the event buffer.
- Concurrently, consumer threads take events out of the buffer and process them.

# Producer-consumer problem

For this to work correctly:

- Producers must not produce when the buffer is full – must **wait** till there is a gap.
- Consumers must not consume when the buffer is empty – must **wait** till it is filled.

# Code, attempt 1

```
class Buffer<E> {
    E[] array = (E[])new Object[SIZE];
    ... // front, back fields, isEmpty, isFull methods
    synchronized void enqueue(E elt) {
        if(isFull())
            ???
        else
            ... add to array and adjust back ...
    }
    synchronized E dequeue()
        if(isEmpty())
            ???
        else
            ... take from array and adjust front ...
    }
}
```

# Waiting

- **enqueue** to a full buffer should *not* raise an exception
  - Wait until there is room
- **dequeue** from an empty buffer should *not* raise an exception
  - Wait until there is data

**Bad approach** is to *spin* (wasted work and keep grabbing lock)

```
void enqueue(E elt) {
    while(true) {
        synchronized(this) {
            if(isFull()) continue;
            ... add to array and adjust back ...
            return;
        }
    }
}
// dequeue similar
```

# What we want

- Better would be for a thread to *wait* until it can proceed
  - Be *notified* when it should try again
  - In the meantime, let other threads run
- Like locks, not something you can implement on your own
  - Language or library gives it to you, typically implemented with operating-system support
- An ADT that supports this: **condition variable**
  - Informs waiter(s) when the *condition* that causes it/them to wait has *varied*
- Terminology not completely standard; will mostly stick with Java

# Java approach: **not** quite right

```
class Buffer<E> {
    ...
    synchronized void enqueue(E elt) {
        if(isFull())
            this.wait(); // releases lock and waits
        add to array and adjust back
        if(buffer was empty)
            this.notify(); // wake somebody up
    }
    synchronized E dequeue() {
        if(isEmpty())
            this.wait(); // releases lock and waits
        take from array and adjust front
        if(buffer was full)
            this.notify(); // wake somebody up
    }
}
```

# Key ideas

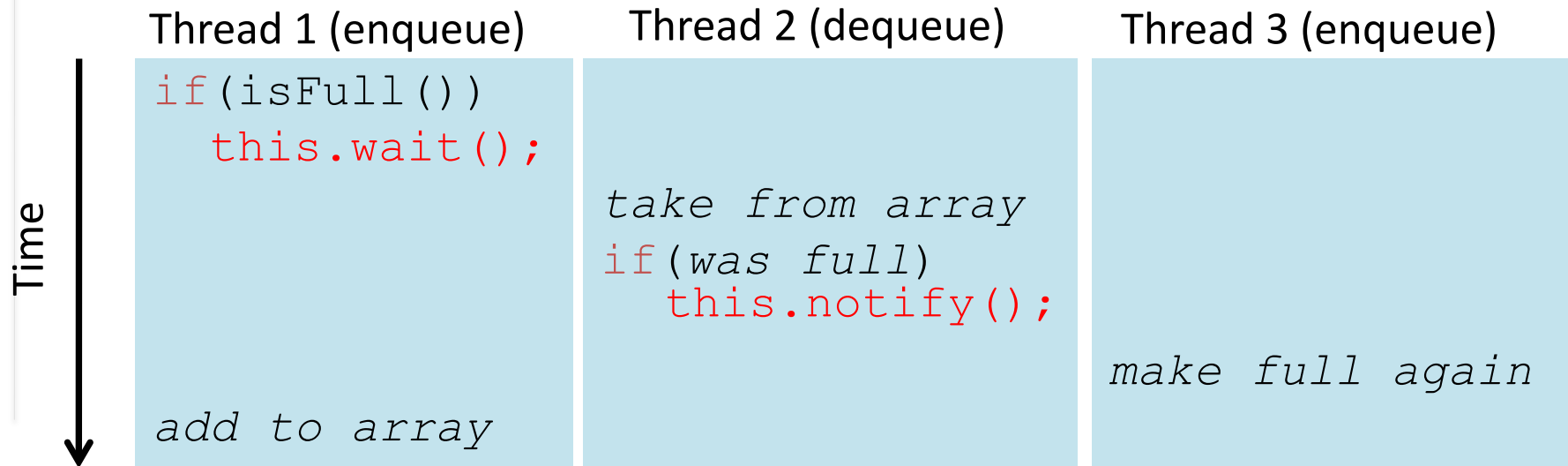
- Java weirdness: every object “is” a condition variable (and a lock)
  - other languages/libraries often make them separate
- **wait:**
  - “register” running thread as interested in being woken up
  - then atomically: release the lock and block
  - when execution resumes, *thread again holds the lock*
- **notify:**
  - pick one waiting thread and wake it up
  - no guarantee woken up thread runs next, just that it is no longer blocked on the *condition* – now waiting for the *lock*
  - if no thread is waiting, then do nothing



# Bug #1

```
synchronized void enqueue(E elt) {  
    if(isFull())  
        this.wait();  
    add to array and adjust back  
    ...  
}
```

Between the time a thread is notified and it re-acquires the lock, the condition can become false again!



# Bug fix #1

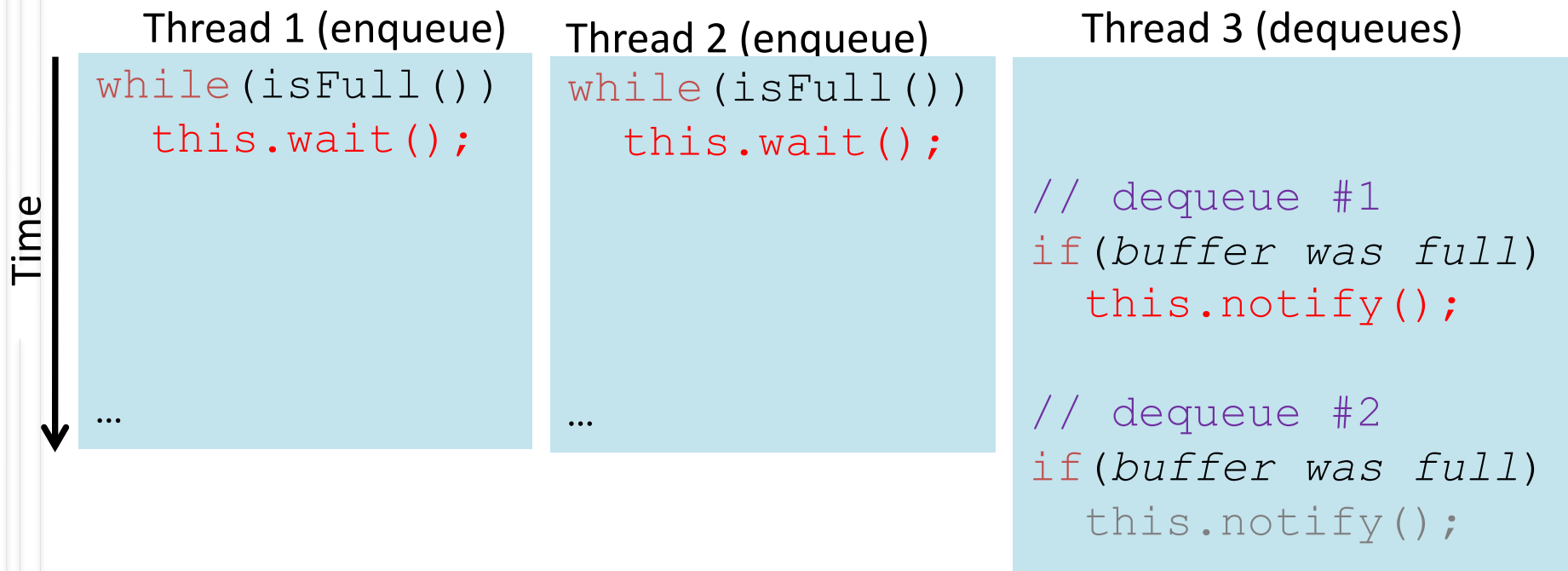
```
synchronized void enqueue(E elt) {  
    while(isFull())  
        this.wait();  
    ...  
}  
synchronized E dequeue() {  
    while(isEmpty())  
        this.wait();  
    ...  
}
```

Guideline: *Always* re-check the condition after re-gaining the lock

- In fact, for obscure reasons, Java is technically allowed to notify a thread *spuriously* (i.e., for no reason)

# Bug #2

- If multiple threads are waiting, we wake up only one
  - Sure only one can do work *now*, but can't forget the others!



# Bug fix #2

```
synchronized void enqueue(E elt) {  
    ...  
    if(buffer was empty)  
        this.notifyAll(); // wake everybody up  
}  
synchronized E dequeue() {  
    ...  
    if(buffer was full)  
        this.notifyAll(); // wake everybody up  
}
```

**notifyAll** wakes up all current waiters on the condition variable

Guideline: If in any doubt, use **notifyAll**

- Wasteful waking is better than never waking up
- So why does **notify** exist?
  - Well, it is faster when correct...

# A new liveness hazard: missed signals

- A missed signal occurs when a thread must wait for a specific condition that is already true, but fails to check before waiting
- `notifyAll` is almost always better than `notify`, because it is less prone to missed signals

# Alternate approach

- An alternative is to call **notify** (not **notifyAll**) on every **enqueue** / **dequeue**, not just when the buffer was empty / full
  - Easy: just remove the **if** statement
- Alas, makes our code subtly **wrong** since it's technically possible that an **enqueue** and a **dequeue** are both waiting.
  - See notes for the step-by-step details of how this can happen
- Works fine if buffer is unbounded since then only dequeuers wait

# Alternate approach fixed

- The alternate approach works if the enqueueers and dequeuers wait on *different* condition variables
  - But for mutual exclusion both condition variables must be associated with the same lock
- Java's "everything is a lock / condition variable" doesn't support this: each condition variable is associated with itself
- Instead, Java has classes in `java.util.concurrent.locks` for when you want multiple conditions with one lock
  - `class ReentrantLock` has a method `newCondition` that returns a new `Condition` object associate with the lock
  - See the documentation if curious

# Last condition-variable comments

- `notify/notifyAll` often called `signal/broadcast`, also called `pulse/pulseAll`
- Condition variables are subtle and harder to use than locks
- But when you need them, you need them
  - Spinning and other work-arounds don't work well
- Fortunately, like most things in a data-structures course, the common use-cases are provided in libraries written by experts
  - Example:  
`java.util.concurrent.ArrayBlockingQueue<E>`
  - All uses of condition variables hidden in the library; client just calls `put` and `take`



# Condition synchronization

Java has built-in mechanisms for waiting for a condition to become true:

`wait()` and `notify()`

They are tightly bound to intrinsic locking and can be difficult to use correctly

Often easier to use existing **synchronizer classes**:

- coordinate control flow of cooperating threads  
e.g. `BlockingQueue` and `Semaphore`

# Java Blocking queues and the producer-consumer **design pattern**

- BlockingQueue extends Queue with blocking insertion and retrieval operations
  - `put` and `take` methods
  - timed equivalents: `offer` and `poll`
- If queue is empty, a retrieval (`take`) blocks until an element is available
- If queue is full (for bounded queues), insertion (`put`) blocks until there is space available

# Producer-consumer design pattern

separates identification of work to be done from execution of that work

- work items are placed on “to do” list for later processing
- removes code dependencies between producers and consumers

Most common design is a thread pool coupled with a work queue

# Several implementations of blocking queue

- `LinkedBlockingQueue`, `ArrayBlockingQueue`:
  - FIFO queues
- Priority blocking queue
- `SynchronousQueue`:
  - queued THREADS

# The Executor Framework and Thread Pools

- usually the easiest way to implement a producer-consumer design is to use a thread pool implementation as part of the Executor framework

```
public interface Executor {  
    void execute(Runnable command);  
}
```

An Executor object typically creates and manages a group of threads called a **thread pool**

- threads execute the Runnable objects passed to the execute method

# Concurrency summary

- Access to shared resources introduces new kinds of bugs
  - Data races
  - Critical sections too small
  - Critical sections use wrong locks
  - Deadlocks
- Requires synchronization
  - Locks for mutual exclusion (common, various flavors)
  - Condition variables for signaling others (less common)
- Guidelines for correct use help avoid common pitfalls
- Not clear shared-memory is worth the pain
  - But other models (e.g., message passing) not a panacea

# Java synchronizers

A synchronizer is any object that coordinates the control flow of threads based on its state.

Java has:

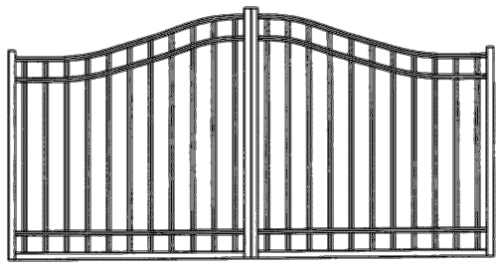
- Blocking Queues
- Semaphores
- Barriers
- Latches

# Java synchronizers

All synchronizers:

- determine whether arriving threads should be allowed to pass or be forced to wait based on encapsulated state
- provide methods to manipulate state
- provide methods to wait efficiently for the synchronizers to enter the desired state





# Latches



Acts as a gate: no thread can pass until the gate opens, and then all can pass

- delays progress of threads until it enters terminal state
- cannot then change state again (open forever)

For example, can be used to wait until all parties involved in an activity are ready to proceed:

– like all players in a multi-player game

# CountDownLatch

`CountDownLatch` allows one or more threads to wait for a set of events to occur

Latch state is a counter initialized to a positive number, representing number of elements to wait for



# Semaphores



**Counting semaphores** are used to control the **number** of activities that can access a certain resource or perform a given action at the same time

- like a set of virtual permits
  - activities can acquire permits and release them when they are done with them
- Useful for implementing resource pools, such as database connection pools.



## Barriers



Similar to latches – block a group of threads until an event has occurred – but:

- **latches** wait for **events**
- **barriers** wait for **other threads**

# CyclicBarrier

Allows a fixed number of parties to rendezvous repeatedly at a barrier point

Threads call `await` when they reach the barrier point and `await` blocks until all threads have reached the barrier point.

Once all threads are there, the barrier is passed, all threads are released and the barrier is **reset**.

# CyclicBarrier

Useful in parallel iterative algorithms that break down a problem into a fixed number of independent subproblems:

- In many simulations, the work done in one step can be done in parallel, but all work in one step must be completed before the next step begins...

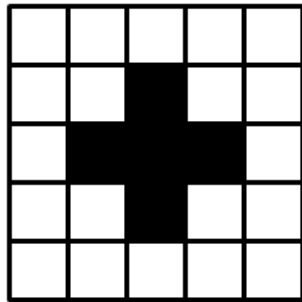
# Conway's game of life

Conway's game of life is a cellular automaton first proposed by the British mathematician John Horton Conway in 1970.

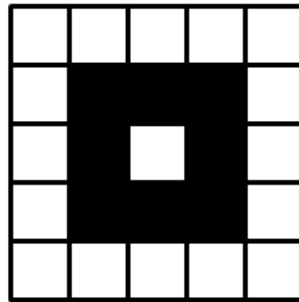
The game is a simulation on a two-dimensional grid of cells. Each cell starts off as either alive or dead. The state of the cell changes depending on the state of its 7 neighbours in the grid. At each time-step, we update the state of each cell according to the following four rules.

- A live cell with fewer than two live neighbors dies due to underpopulation.
- A live cell with more than three live neighbors dies due to overpopulation.
- A live cell with two or three live neighbors survives to the next generation.
- A dead cell with exactly three live neighbors becomes a live cell due to breeding.

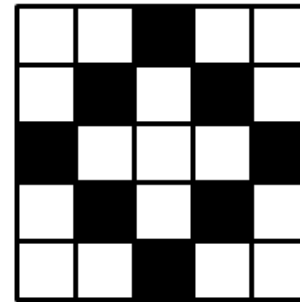
# Multithreaded Conway's game of life



Time Step 0



Time Step 1



Time Step 2

Parallel program generates threads equal to the number of cells,

- or, better, a part of the grid -

and updates the status of each cell independently.

- Before proceeding to the next time step, it is necessary that all the grids have been updated.
- This requirement can be ensured by using a global barrier for all threads.



# Causes of Efficiency Problems in Java

## **Too much locking**

- Cost of using synchronized
- Cost of blocking waiting for locks
- Cost of thread cache flushes and reloads

## **Too many threads**

- Cost of starting up new threads
- Cost of context switching and scheduling
- Cost of inter-CPU communication, cache misses

## **Too much coordination**

- Cost of guarded waits and notification messages
- Cost of layered concurrency control

## **Too many objects**

- Cost of using objects to represent state, messages, etc