CS350: Operating Systems Lecture 3: Threads

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Today: Threads



Hardware: CPU, Memory and Devices



Threads

② Case Study: Go Language and Runtime

8 How to implement threads in OS/161

Threads



- A thread is a schedulable execution context
 - Program counter, registers, stack (local variables) ...
- Multi-threaded programs share the address space (global variables, heap, ...)

Why threads?

- Most popular abstraction for concurrency
 - Lighter-weight abstraction than processes
 - All threads in one process share memory, file descriptors, etc.
- Allows one process to use multiple CPUs or cores
- Allows program to overlap I/O and computation
 - Same benefit as OS running emacs & gcc simultaneously

```
E.g., threaded web server services clients simultaneously:
    for (;;) {
        fd = accept_client ();
        thread_create (service_client, &fd);
    }
```

- Most kernels have threads, too
 - Typically at least one kernel thread for every process

POSIX thread API

- - Create a new thread identified by thr with optional attributes, run fn with arg
- void pthread_exit(void *return_value);
 - Destroy current thread and return a pointer
- int pthread_join(pthread_t thread, void **return_value);
 - Wait for thread thread to exit and receive the return value
- void pthread_yield();
 - Tell the OS scheduler to run another thread or process
- Plus lots of support for synchronization (next Lecture and see [Birell])

Kernel threads



- Can implement pthread_create as a system call
- To add pthread_create to an OS:
 - Start with process abstraction in kernel
 - pthread_create like process creation with features stripped out
 - Keep same address space, file table, etc., in new process
 - rfork/clone syscalls actually allow individual control
- Faster than a process, but still very heavy weight

Limitations of kernel-level threads

- Every thread operation must go through kernel
 - create, exit, join, synchronize, or switch for any reason
 - Syscall takes 100 cycles, function call 2 cycles
 - Result: threads 10×-30× slower when implemented in kernel
 - Worse today because of SPECTRE/Meltdown mitigations
- One-size fits all thread implementation
 - Kernel threads must please all people
 - Maybe pay for fancy features (priority, etc.) you don't need
- General heavy-weight memory requirements
 - E.g., requires a fixed-size stack within kernel
 - Other data structures designed for heavier-weight processes

User threads



- An alternative: implement in user-level library
 - One kernel thread per process
 - pthread_create, pthread_exit, etc., just library functions

Implementing user-level threads

- Allocate a new stack for each pthread_create
- Keep a queue of runnable threads
- Replace blocking system calls (read/write/etc.)
 - If operation would block, switch and run different thread
- Schedule periodic timer signal (setitimer)
 - Switch to another thread on timer signals (preemption)
- Multi-threaded web server example
 - Thread calls read to get data from remote web browser
 - "Fake" read function makes read syscall in non-blocking mode
 - No data? schedule another thread
 - On timer or when idle check which connections have new data

Limitations of user-level threads

- Can't take advantage of multiple CPUs or cores
- A blocking system call blocks all threads
 - Can replace read to handle network connections
 - But usually OSes don't let you do this for disk
 - So one uncached disk read blocks all threads
- A page fault blocks all threads
- Possible deadlock if one thread blocks on another
 - May block entire process and make no progress
 - [More on deadlock in future lectures.]

User threads on kernel threads



- User threads implemented on kernel threads
 - Multiple kernel-level threads per process
 - thread_create, thread_exit still library functions as before
- $\bullet \,$ Sometimes called $\mathbf{n}:\mathbf{m}$ threading
 - Have n user threads per m kernel threads (Simple user-level threads are n : 1, kernel threads 1 : 1)

Limitations of n : m threading

- Many of same problems as $\mathbf{n}:\mathbf{1}$ threads
 - Blocked threads, deadlock, ...
- Hard to keep same # ktrheads as available CPUs
 - Kernel knows how many CPUs available
 - Kernel knows which kernel-level threads are blocked
 - Tries to hide these things from applications for transparency
 - User-level thread scheduler might think a thread is running while underlying kernel thread is blocked
- Kernel doesn't know relative importance of threads
 - Might preempt kthread in which library holds important lock

Lessons

- Threads best implemented as a library
 - But kernel threads not best interface on which to do this
- Better kernel interfaces have been suggested
 - See Scheduler Activations [Anderson et al.]
 - Maybe too complex to implement on existing OSes (some have added then removed such features, now Windows is trying it)
- Today shouldn't dissuade you from using threads
 - Standard user or kernel threads are fine for most purposes
 - Use kernel threads if I/O concurrency main goal
 - Use n : m threads for highly concurrent (e.g,. scientific applications) with many thread switches
- ...though concurrency/synchronization lectures may
 - Concurrency greatly increases the complexity of a program!
 - Leads to all kinds of nasty race conditions





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Go Routines

- Go routines are very light-weight
 - Running 100k go routines is practical
 - Custom compiler enables stack segmentation, preemption, and garbage collection
 - Runs on segmented stack stack allocated on demand to avoid memory use
 - OS thread typically allocate 2 MiB fixed stacks
- Go routines on top of Kernel threads (n:m Model)
 - Multi-core scalability and efficient user-level threads
 - One pthread (kernel-level thread) per CPU core
 - Supports many user-level threads as you like

Go Routine Continued

- Each kernel-level thread finds and runs a go routine (user-level thread)
- Every logical core is owned by a kernel thread when running
- Convert blocking system calls (when possible):
 - Converted to non-blocking by in the runtime yielding the CPU to another core
 - Cores poll using kernel event API poll, epoll, or kqueue
- Blocking system calls:
 - Release the "CPU" to another kernel-level thread before the call
 - Let the kernel thread sleep
 - Regain the "CPU" thread when done

Go Channels

• Go routine communicate and synchronize through *channels*

```
func worker(done chan bool) {
   // Notify the main routine
   done <- true
func main() {
   // Create a channel to notify us
   done := make(chan bool, 1)
   // Create go routine
   go worker(done)
   // Block until we receive a message
   <-done
```





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Background: MIPS calling conventions

- Registers divided into 2 groups
 - Functions free to clobber caller-saved regs (%t0-%t9 on MIPS)
 - But must restore callee-saved ones to original value upon return (%s0-%s7, %fp)
- %sp register always base of stack
 - Frame pointer (%fp) is old %sp
- Local variables stored in registers and on stack
- Function arguments go in caller-saved regs and on stack
 - First four arguments in %a0–%a3
 - Remaining arguments on stack
- Return value %v0 and %v1



Background: procedure calls



- Some state saved on stack
 - Return address, caller-saved registers
- Some state not saved
 - Callee-saved regs, global variables, stack pointer

Threads vs. procedures

- Threads may resume out of order:
 - Cannot use LIFO stack to save state
 - General solution: one stack per thread
- Threads switch less often:
 - Don't partition registers (why?)
- Threads can be involuntarily interrupted:
 - Synchronous: procedure call can use compiler to save state
 - Asynchronous: thread switch code saves all registers
- More than one than one thread can run at a time:
 - Procedure call scheduling obvious: Run called procedure
 - Thread scheduling: What to run next and on which CPU?

OS/161 Kernel Threads

- OS/161 supports fork, exec, exit, and wait
 - You will implement these functions in Assignments 2a/2b
- One thread per process

```
int thread_fork(const char *name,
    struct proc *proc,
    void (*entrypoint)(void *data1, unsigned long data2),
    void *data1, unsigned long data2);
```

- OS/161 supports kernel threads (no user-level threading)
- Create a kernel thread with: thread_fork()
- Bad nameing: Not fork() this is actually pthread_create!

Switching Threads

- All thread switches go through thread_yield() and thread_switch()
- thread_switch() calls switchframe_switch generates switchframe
- switchframe_switch switches from one stack to other

General (from Kernel)

Hardware Interrupt (typically Timer)





OS/161 switchframe_switch – save old thread

From OS/161 kern/arch/mips/thread/switch.S

```
switchframe switch:
 \mathbf{2}
    /* a0: switchframe pointer to old thread */
 3
    /* a1: switchframe pointer to new thread */
\frac{4}{5}
     /* Allocate space for saving 10 registers. 10*4 = 40 */
     addi sp, sp, -40
sw ra, 36(sp) /* Save callee save registers */
     sw gp, 32(sp) /* Caller saved registers saved by thread switch() */
     sw s8, 28(sp)
10
     sw s6, 24(sp)
11
     sw s5, 20(sp)
12
     sw s4, 16(sp)
13
     sw s3, 12(sp)
14
     sw s2, 8(sp)
15
     sw s1, 4(sp)
16
     sw s0, 0(sp)
17
18
     /* Store the old stack pointer in the old thread */
19
     sw sp, 0(a0)
```

OS/161 switchframe_switch – restore new thread

123456789

10

11

12

13

14

15

 $\frac{16}{17}$

18

```
/* Get the new stack pointer from the new thread */
lw sp, 0(a1)
nop /* Delay slot for load */
lw s0, 0(sp) /* Now, restore callee saved registers */
lw s1, 4(sp) /* Caller saved registers restored by thread switch() */
lw s2, 8(sp)
lw s3, 12(sp)
lw s4, 16(sp)
lw s5, 20(sp)
lw s6, 24(sp)
lw s8, 28(sp)
lw gp, 32(sp)
lw ra, 36(sp)
nop /* Delay slot for load */
j ra /* jump register to return address. */
addi sp, sp, 40 /* Fix sp in delay slot for j */
```