CS 33

Multithreaded Programming IV
Outline

- Unix signals
- Cancellation
Deviations are things that modify a thread’s normal flow of control. Unix has long had signals, and these must be dealt with in multithreaded improvements to Unix. There are actually two fairly different classes of signals: asynchronous signals and synchronous signals. The former are caused by events beyond the process’s control, such as I/O events, clock events, system calls issued by other processes, etc. The latter are responses to what the current thread has just done, such as divide by zero, addressing exceptions, etc.

Cancellation is a new concept that pertains strictly to multithreaded programming. It is the means by which one thread can request the termination of another and provides a way for the terminating thread to terminate cleanly.
Asynchronous signals were designed (like almost everything else) with single-threaded processes in mind. A signal is delivered to the process; if the signal is caught, the process stops whatever it is doing, deals with the signal, and then resumes normal processing. But what happens when a signal is delivered to a multithreaded process? Which thread or threads deal with it?

Asynchronous signals, by their very nature, are handled asynchronously. But one of the themes of multithreaded programming is that threads are a cure for asynchrony. Thus we should be able to use threads as a means of getting away from the “drop whatever you are doing and deal with me” approach to asynchronous signals.

Synchronous signals often are an indication that something has gone wrong: there really is no point continuing execution in this part of the program because you have already blown it. Traditional Unix approaches for dealing with this bad news are not terribly elegant.
The standard Unix model has a process-wide signal mask and a vector indicating what is to be done in response to each kind of signal. When a signal is delivered to a process, an indication is made that this signal is pending. If the signal is unmasked, then the vector is examined to determine the response: to suspend the process, to resume the process, to terminate the process, to ignore the signal entirely, or to invoke a signal handler.

A number of issues arise in translating this model into a multithreaded-process model. First of all, if we invoke a signal handler, which thread or threads should execute the handler? What seems to be closest to the spirit of the original signal semantics is that exactly one thread should execute the handler. Which one? The consensus is that it really does not matter, just as long as exactly one thread executes the signal handler. But what about the signal mask? Since one sets masks depending on a thread’s local behavior, it makes sense for each thread to have its own private signal mask. Thus a signal is delivered to any one thread that has the signal unmasked (if more than one thread has the signal unmasked, a thread is chosen randomly to handle the signal). If all threads have the signal masked, then the signal remains pending until some thread un_masks it.

A related issue is the vector indicating the response to each signal. Should there be one such vector per thread? If so, what if one thread specifies process termination in response to a signal, while another thread supplies a handler? For reasons such as this, it was decided that, even for multithreaded processes, there would continue to be a single, process-wide signal-disposition vector.
Signals and Threads

`int pthread_kill(pthread_t thread, int signo);`

– thread equivalent of `kill`

`int pthread_sigmask(int how,
  const sigset_t *newmask,
  sigset_t oldmask);`

– thread equivalent of `sigprocmask`

Signals may be sent to individual threads using `pthread_kill`. Though the targeted thread will handle the signal, the behavior is as set for the entire process (or clone group in Linux) using `sigaction`. Each thread may independently block and unblock signals using `pthread_sigmask`. 
The slide shows the standard approach for dealing with signals: one sets up a handler that's invoked by the thread that received the signal.
Here we have the example we saw a few weeks ago of the reason for requiring that signal handlers call only async-signal-safe functions.
Here we use a different technique for dealing with the signal. Rather than have the thread performing the long-running computation be interrupted by the signal, we dedicate a thread to dealing with the signal. We make use of a new signal-handling routine, \texttt{sigwait}. This routine puts its caller to sleep until one of the signals specified in its argument occurs, at which point the call returns and the number of the signal that occurred is stored in the location pointed to by the second argument. As is done here, \texttt{sigwait} is normally called with the signals of interest masked off; \texttt{sigwait} responds to signals even if they are masked. (Note also that a new thread inherits the signal mask of its creator.)

Among the advantages of this approach is that there are no concerns about async-signal safety since a signal handler is never invoked. The signal-handling thread waits for signals synchronously — it is not interrupted. Thus it is safe for it to use even mutexes, condition variables, and semaphores from inside of the \textit{display} routine. Another advantage is that, if this program is run on a multiprocessor, the “signal handling” can run in parallel with the mainline code, which could not happen with the previous approach.

```c
computation_state_t state;
sigset_t set;
int main() {
    pthread_t thread;
    sigemptyset(&set);
sigaddset(&set, SIGINT);
sigprocmask(SIG_BLOCK,
    &set, 0);
    pthread_create(&thread, 0,
        monitor, 0);
    long_running_procedure( );
}

void *monitor(void *dummy) {
    int sig;
    while (1) {
        sigwait(&set, &sig);
        display(&state);
        return(0);
    }
```
It is sometimes useful for a thread to wait for a certain period of time before continuing. The traditional Unix approach of using alarm and SIGALRM not only is not suitable for multithreaded programming, but also does not provide fine enough granularity. The routine `nanosleep` provides a better approach. A thread calls it with two arguments; the first indicates (in seconds and nanoseconds) how long the thread wishes to wait. The second argument is relevant only if the thread is interrupted by a signal: it indicates how much additional time remains until the originally requested time period expires. Note that most Unix implementations do not have a clock that measures time in nanoseconds: the first argument to `nanosleep` is rounded up to an integer multiple of whatever sleep resolution is supported.
POSIX threads provides a version of `pthread_cond_wait` that has a timeout: `pthread_cond_timedwait`. It takes an additional argument indicating when the thread should give up on being awoken by a `pthread_cond_signal`. This argument is an absolute time, as opposed to a relative time (as used in the previous slide); i.e., it is the clock time at which the call times out. To convert from a relative time to an absolute time, one must perform the machinations shown in the slide (or something similar)—note that `gettimeofday` returns seconds and microseconds, whereas `pthread_cond_timedwait` wants seconds and nanoseconds.

Why is it done this way? Though at first (and most subsequent) glances it seems foolish to require an absolute timeout value rather than a relative one, the use of the former makes some sense if you keep in mind that `pthread_cond_timedwait` could return with the “may_continue” condition false even before the timeout has expired (either because it’s returned spontaneously or because the “may_continue” was falsified after the thread was released from the condition-variable queue). By having the timeout be absolute, there’s no need to compute a new relative timeout when `pthread_cond_timedwait` is called again.
In a number of situations one thread must tell another to cease whatever it is doing. For example, suppose we’ve implemented a chess-playing program by having multiple threads search the solution space for the next move. If one thread has discovered a quick way of achieving a checkmate, it would want to notify the others that they should stop what they’re doing, the game has been won.

One might think that this is an ideal use for per-thread signals, but there’s a cleaner mechanism for doing this sort of thing in POSIX threads, called cancellation.
This code is invoked by a thread (as its first procedure). The thread reads values from stdin, which it then puts on a singly linked list that it allocates on the fly, and returns a pointer to the list.

Suppose our thread is forced to terminate in the midst of its execution (some other thread invokes the operation `pthread_cancel` on it). What sort of problems might ensue?
We have two concerns about the forced termination of threads resulting from cancellation: a thread might be in the middle of doing something important that it must complete before self-destructing; and a canceled thread must be given the opportunity to clean up.
A thread issues a cancel request by calling `pthread_cancel`, supplying the ID of the target thread as the argument. Associated with each thread is some state information known as its cancellation state and its cancellation type. When a thread receives a cancel request, it is marked indicating that it has a pending cancel. The next issue is when the thread should notice and act upon the cancel. This is governed by the cancellation state: whether cancels are enabled or disabled and by the cancellation type: whether the response to cancels is asynchronous or deferred. If cancels are disabled, then the cancel remains pending but is otherwise ignored until cancels are enabled. If cancels are enabled, they are acted on as soon as they are noticed if the cancellation type is asynchronous. Otherwise, i.e., if the cancellation type is deferred, the cancel is acted upon only when the thread reaches a cancellation point.

Cancellation points are intended to be well defined points in a thread’s execution at which it is prepared to be canceled. They include pretty much all system and library calls in which the thread can block, with the exception of `pthread_mutex_lock`. In addition, a thread may call `pthread_testcancel`, which has no function other than being a cancellation point.

The default is that cancels are enabled and deferred. One can change the cancellation state of a thread by using the routines shown in the slide. Calls to `pthread_setcancelstate` and `pthread_setcanceltype` return the previous value of the affected portion of the cancellability state.
Cleaning Up

- `void` `pthread_cleanup_push((void (*)(void (*) (void *)),
                           void *arg)`
- `void` `pthread_cleanup_pop(int execute)`

When a thread acts upon a cancel, its ultimate fate has been established, but it first gets a chance to clean up. Associated with each thread may be a stack of cleanup handlers. Such handlers are pushed onto the stack via calls to `pthread_cleanup_push` and popped off the stack via calls to `pthread_cleanup_pop`. Thus when a thread acts on a cancel or when it calls `pthread_exit`, it calls each of the cleanup handlers in turn, giving the argument that was supplied as the second parameter of `pthread_cleanup_push`. Once all the cleanup handlers have been called, the thread terminates.

The two routines `pthread_cleanup_push` and `pthread_cleanup_pop` are intended to act as left and right parentheses, and thus should always be paired (in fact, they may actually be implemented as macros: the former contains an unmatched “{”, the latter an unmatched “}”). The argument to the latter routine indicates whether or not the cleanup function should be called as a side effect of calling `pthread_cleanup_pop`. 
Here we've added a cleanup handler to our sample code. Note that our example has just one cancellation point: `read`. The cleanup handler iterates through the list, deleting each element.
Whether threads are using mutexes or readers/writers locks when manipulating a search tree, if we have to deal with cancellation points in the middle of such operations, things can get pretty complicated and error-prone. Thus the operations to lock mutexes and readers/writers locks are not cancellation points. (Note, however, that for the case of readers/writers locks, POSIX permits waiting for readers/writers locks to be cancellation points, for the sake of vendors who have poor implementations of them. Neither Linux nor OSX implements such waiting as cancellation points.)
Start/Stop

- Start/Stop interface

```c
void wait_for_start(state_t *s)
    pthread_mutex_lock(&s->mutex);
    while(s->state == stopped)
        pthread_cond_wait(&s->queue, &s->mutex);
    pthread_mutex_unlock(&s->mutex);
}

void start(state_t *s) {
    pthread_mutex_lock(&s->mutex);
    s->state = started;
    pthread_cond_broadcast(&s->queue);
    pthread_mutex_unlock(&s->mutex);
}
```
Start/Stop

- Start/Stop interface

```c
void wait_for_start(state_t *s) {
    pthread_mutex_lock(&s->mutex);
    while (s->state == stopped)
        pthread_cond_wait(&s->queue, &s->mutex);
    pthread_mutex_unlock(&s->mutex);
}

void start(state_t *s) {
    pthread_mutex_lock(&s->mutex);
    s->state = started;
    pthread_cond_broadcast(&s->queue);
    pthread_mutex_unlock(&s->mutex);
}
```

Quiz 1

You’re in charge of designing POSIX threads. Should `pthread_cond_wait` be a cancellation point?

a) no  
b) yes; cancelled threads must acquire mutex before invoking cleanup handler  
c) yes; but they don’t acquire mutex
Start/Stop

- Start/Stop interface

```c
void wait_for_start(state_t *s) {
    pthread_mutex_lock(&s->mutex);
    pthread_cleanup_push(
        pthread_mutex_unlock, &m);
    while(s->state == stopped)
        pthread_cond_wait(&s->queue, &s->mutex);
    pthread_cleanup_pop(1);
}

void start(state_t *s) {
    pthread_mutex_lock(&s->mutex);
    s->state = started;
    pthread_cond_broadcast(&s->queue);
    pthread_mutex_unlock(&s->mutex);
}
```
In this example we handle cancels that might occur while a thread is blocked within \texttt{pthread_cond_wait}. Again we assume the thread has cancels enabled and deferred. The thread first pushes a cleanup handler on its stack — in this case the cleanup handler unlocks the mutex. The thread then loops, calling \texttt{pthread_cond_wait}, a cancellation point. If it receives a cancel, the cleanup handler won’t be called until the mutex has been reacquired. Thus we are certain that when the cleanup handler is called, the mutex is locked.

What’s important here is that we make sure the thread does not terminate without releasing its lock on the mutex $m$. If the thread acts on a cancel within \texttt{pthread_cond_wait} and the cleanup handler were invoked without first taking the mutex, this would be difficult to guarantee, since we wouldn’t know if the thread had the mutex locked (and thus needs to unlock it) when it’s in the cleanup handler.
The slide lists all of the required cancellation points in POSIX.
The routine `pthread_testcancel` is strictly a cancellation point — it has no other function.
If there are no pending cancels when it is called, it does nothing and simply returns.