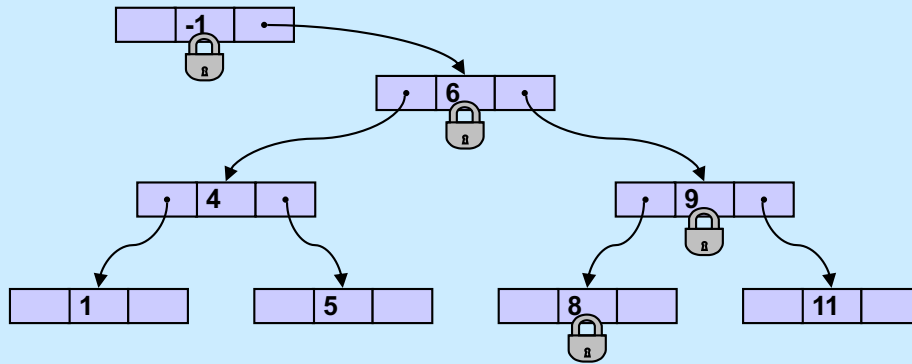


CS 33

Multithreaded Programming IV

Doing It Right ...



To avoid such problems, once we get a pointer to a child, we should lock the child's rw lock, and then unlock the parent's rw lock. This prevents other threads from deleting the child while we are using it.

C Code: Fine-Grained Search I

```
enum locktype {l_read, l_write};

#define lock(lt, lk) ((lt) == l_read)?
    pthread_rwlock_rdlock(lk):
    pthread_rwlock_wrlock(lk)

Node *search(int key,
             Node *parent, Node **parentpp,
             enum locktype lt) {
    // parent is locked on entry
    Node *next;
    Node *result;
    if (key < parent->key) {
        if ((next = parent->lchild)
            == 0) {
            result = 0;
        } else {
            lock(lt, &next->lock);
            if (key == next->key) {
                result = next;
            } else {
                pthread_rwlock_unlock(
                    &parent->lock);
                result = search(key,
                               next, parentpp, lt);
            }
        }
    }
}

return result;
```

And here is the fine-grained search function. Note that its last argument indicates whether it's called by a thread that's only searching the tree, or by a thread that intends to modify the tree. Note also that the routine assumes that the parent node is locked by the caller (and that the key being searched for is not in the parent node).

If a node containing the key is found, the found node is locked and a pointer to it is returned. If **parentp** is non-null, then the final parent node is locked and a pointer to it is stored in the location pointed to by **parentp** (the code for this is on the next slide).

C Code: Fine-Grained Search II

```
} else {
    if ((next = parent->rchild)
        == 0) {
        result = 0;
    } else {
        lock(lt, &next->lock);
        if (key == next->key) {
            result = next;
        } else {
            pthread_rwlock_unlock(
                &parent->lock);
            result = search(key,
                next, parentpp, lt);
            return result;
        }
    }
}
if (parentpp != 0) {
    // parent remains locked
    *parentpp = parent;
} else
    pthread_rwlock_unlock(
        &parent->lock);
return result;
}
```

Quiz 1

The search function takes read locks if the purpose of the search is for a *query*, but takes write locks if the purpose is for an *add* or a *delete*. Would it make sense for it always to take read locks until it reaches the target of the search, then take a write lock just for that target?

- a) No, it would work, but there would be no increase in concurrency
- b) No, it would not work
- c) Yes, since doing so allows more concurrency

C Code: Add with Fine-Grained Synchronization I

```
int add(int key) {  
    Node *parent, *target, *newnode;  
    pthread_rwlock_wrlock(&head->lock);  
    if ((target = search(key, &head, &parent,  
        l_write)) != 0) {  
        pthread_rwlock_unlock(&target->lock);  
        pthread_rwlock_unlock(&parent->lock);  
        return 0;  
    }  
}
```

Here is the add routine modified for fine-grained synchronization.

C Code: Add with Fine-Grained Synchronization II

```
newnode = malloc(sizeof(Node));
newnode->key = key;
newnode->lchild = newnode->rchild = 0;
pthread_rwlock_init(&newnode->lock, 0);
if (name < parent->name)
    parent->lchild = newnode;
else
    parent->rchild = newnode;
pthread_rwlock_unlock(&parent->lock);
return 1;
}
```

Quiz 2

The *add* function calls *malloc*. Could we use for this the *malloc* that you'll finish by next Monday at midnight, or do we need a different one that's safe for use in multithreaded programs?

- a) We need a new *malloc*, one that's safe for use in multithreaded programs
- b) Since the calling thread has a write lock on the parent of the new node, it's safe to call the standard *malloc*
- c) Even if the calling thread didn't have a write lock on the parent, it would be safe to call the standard *malloc*

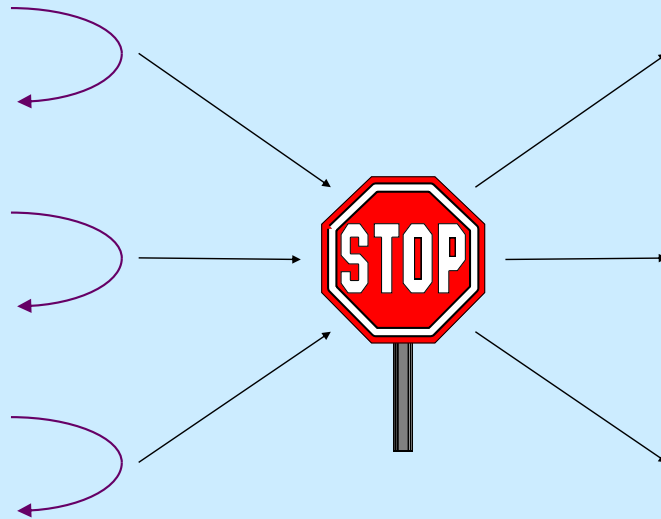
Why `cond_wait` is Weird ...

```
pthread_cond_wait(pthread_cond_t *c, pthread_mutex_t *m) {
    pthread_mutex_unlock(m);
    sem_wait(c->sem);
    pthread_mutex_lock(m);
}

pthread_cond_signal(pthread_cond_t *c) {
    sem_post(c->sem);
}
```

Consider the implementation of `pthread_cond_wait` and `pthread_cond_signal` shown in the slide. It has the property that calls to `pthread_cond_signal` are “remembered” if done when no threads are waiting on the condition-variable queue. While this is not a desirable property, it simplifies the implementation. To allow such implementations, the semantics of `pthread_cond_wait` are less restrictive than they should be.

Barriers



A **barrier** is a conceptually simple and very useful synchronization construct. A barrier is established for some predetermined number of threads; threads call the barrier's **wait** function to enter it; no thread may exit the barrier until all threads have entered it.

A Solution?

```
pthread_mutex_lock(&m);  
if (++count == number) {  
    pthread_cond_broadcast(&cond_var);  
} else while (!(count == number)) {  
    pthread_cond_wait(&cond_var, &m);  
}  
pthread_mutex_unlock(&m);
```

Is this a correct solution?

It works once, but, since it doesn't reset count to zero, it won't work more than once.

How About This?

```
pthread_mutex_lock(&m);  
if (++count == number) {  
    pthread_cond_broadcast(&cond_var);  
    count = 0;  
} else while (!(count == number)) {  
    pthread_cond_wait(&cond_var, &m);  
}  
pthread_mutex_unlock(&m);
```

How about this?

We can try all possible places to reset count to zero – none of them work.

And This ...

```
pthread_mutex_lock(&m);  
if (++count == number) {  
    pthread_cond_broadcast(&cond_var);  
    count = 0;  
} else {  
    pthread_cond_wait(&cond_var, &m);  
}  
pthread_mutex_unlock(&m);
```

Quiz 3

Does it work?

- a) definitely
- b) probably
- c) rarely
- d) never

Barrier in POSIX Threads

```
pthread_mutex_lock(&m);
if (++count < number) {
    int my_generation = generation;
    while(my_generation == generation) {
        pthread_cond_wait(&waitQ, &m);
    }
} else {
    count = 0;
    generation++;
    pthread_cond_broadcast(&waitQ);
}
pthread_mutex_unlock(&m);
```

Implementing barriers in POSIX threads is not trivial. Since *count*, the number of threads that have entered the barrier, will be reset to 0 once all threads have entered, we can't use it in the guard. But, nevertheless, we still must wakeup all waiting threads as soon as the last one enters the barrier. We accomplish this with the **generation** global variable and the **my_generation** local variable. An entering thread increments *count* and joins the condition-variable queue if it's still less than the target number of threads. However, before it joins the queue, it copies the current value of **generation** into its local **my_generation** and then joins the queue of waiting threads, via **pthread_cond_wait**, until **my_generation** is no longer equal to **generation**. When the last thread enters the barrier, it increments *generation* and wakes up all waiting threads. Each of these sees that its private **my_generation** is no longer equal to **generation**, and thus the last thread must have entered the barrier.

More From POSIX!

```
int pthread_barrier_init(pthread_barrier_t *barrier,
                        pthread_barrierattr_t *attr,
                        unsigned int count);
int pthread_barrier_destroy(
    pthread_barrier_t *barrier);
int pthread_barrier_wait(
    pthread_barrier_t *barrier);
```

As part of POSIX 1003.1j, barriers were introduced. Unlike other POSIX-threads objects, they cannot be statically initialized; one must call **pthread_barrier_init** and specify the number of threads that must enter the barrier. In some applications it might be necessary for one thread to be designated to perform some sort function on behalf of all of them when all exit the barrier. Thus **pthread_barrier_wait** returns **PTHREAD_BARRIER_SERIAL_THREAD** in one thread and zero in the others on success.

Deviations

- **Signals**



vs.



- **Cancellation**

- **tamed lightning**

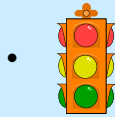
Deviations are things that modify a thread's normal flow of control. Unix has long had **signals**, and these must be dealt with in multithreaded improvements to Unix. There are actually two fairly different classes of signals: **asynchronous signals** and **synchronous signals**. The former are caused 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.

Signals



- who gets them?
- who needs them?



- how do you respond to them?

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. Traditional Unix approaches for dealing with this bad news are not terribly elegant.

Dealing with Signals

- **Per-thread signal masks**
- **Per-process signal vectors**
- **One delivery per signal**

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 unmask 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 using **sigaction**. Each thread may independently block and unblock signals using **pthread_sigmask**.

Asynchronous Signals (1)

```
int main( ) {
    void handler(int);
    signal(SIGINT, handler);

    ...

}

void handler(int sig) {
    ...
}
```

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.

Asynchronous Signals (2)

```
int main( ) {
    void handler(int);

    signal(SIGINT, handler);
    ... // complicated program
    printf("important message: "
           "%s\n", message);

    ... // more program
}

void handler(int sig) {
    ... // deal with signal
    printf("equally important "
           "message: %s\n", message);
}
```

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.

Quiz 4

```
int main( ) {
    void handler(int);

    signal(SIGINT, handler);

    ... // complicated program

    pthread_mutex_lock(&mut);
    printf("important message: "
           "%s\n", message);
    pthread_mutex_unlock(&mut);

    ... // more program
}

void handler(int sig) {
    ... // deal with signal

    pthread_mutex_lock(&mut);
    printf("equally important "
           "message: %s\n", message);
    pthread_mutex_unlock(&mut);
}
```

Does this work?

- a) always
- b) sometimes
- c) never

Does the use of mutexes help with the issues of asynchronous signals?

Synchronizing Asynchrony

```
computation_state_t state;
sigset_t set;
int main( ) {
    pthread_t thread;

    sigemptyset(&set);
    sigaddset(&set, SIGINT);
    pthread_sigmask(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;
}
```

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, **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, **sigwait** is normally called with the signals of interest masked off; **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 **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.

Quiz 5

```
void long_running_procedure( )    void display(state_t *statep)
{
  pthread_mutex_lock(&m);        {
  state = function(state);        pthread_mutex_lock(&m);
  pthread_mutex_unlock(&m);      print_state(statep)
}                                  pthread_mutex_unlock(&m);
}
```

***long_running_procedure* is run by the main thread; *display* is run by the thread that is handling signals (via *sigwait*). Is there a potential deadlock resulting from their use of mutexes?**

- a) Yes, since *display* is called in response to a signal and thus uses the same stack as does the call to *long_running_procedure*
- b) No, since the functions are run by separate threads

Some Thread Gotchas ...

- **Exit vs. pthread_exit**
- **Handling multiple arguments**

Worker Threads

```
int main() {
    pthread_t thread[10];
    for (int i=0; i<10; i++)
        pthread_create(&thread[i], 0,
                      worker, (void *)i);
    return 0;
}
```

This program will probably do nothing! When the main function returns, it returns to code that calls **exit**. Exit terminates all threads in the process.

Better Worker Threads

```
int main() {
    pthread_t thread[10];
    for (int i=0; i<10; i++)
        pthread_create(&thread[i], 0,
                      worker, (void *)i);
    pthread_exit(0);
}
```

A better way to do what was intended in the previous slide is for the first thread (the one creating the workers) to terminate itself by calling **pthread_exit**. This allows the other threads to continue to run. The entire process will terminate when all of its threads have terminated.

Multiple Arguments

```
void relay(int left, int right) {
    pthread_t LRthread, RLthread;

    pthread_create(&LRthread,
                  0,
                  copy,
                  left, right);      // Can't do this ...

    pthread_create(&RLthread,
                  0,
                  copy,
                  right, left);     // Can't do this ...
}
```

We discussed earlier that a limitation of **pthread_create** is that only one argument may be passed to the thread's first function.

Multiple Arguments

```
typedef struct args {
    int src;
    int dest;
} args_t;

void relay(int left, int right) {
    args_t LRargs, RLargs;
    pthread_t LRthread, RLthread;
    ...
    pthread_create(&LRthread, 0, copy, &LRargs);
    pthread_create(&RLthread, 0, copy, &RLargs);
    pthread_join(LRthread, 0);
    pthread_join(RLthread, 0);
}
```

Not a Quiz

Does this work?

- a) yes
- b) no

To pass more than one argument to the first procedure of a thread, we must somehow encode multiple arguments as one. Here we pack two arguments into a structure, then pass the pointer to the structure. We saw earlier that this doesn't work if the calls to **pthread_join** are not there. Does it work if the calls are there, as in the slide?

Multiple Arguments

```
struct 2args {  
    int src;  
    int dest;  
} args;
```

```
void relay(int left, int right) {  
    pthread_t LRthread, RLthread;  
    args.src = left; args.dest = right;  
    pthread_create(&LRthread, 0, copy, &args);  
    args.src = right; args.dest = left;  
    pthread_create(&RLthread, 0, copy, &args);  
}
```

Quiz 6

Does this work?

- a) yes
- b) no

Here, **args** isn't a local variable, but is global.

Cancellation



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**.

Sample Code

```
void *thread_code(void *arg) {
    node_t *head = 0;
    while (1) {
        node_t *nodep;
        nodep = (node_t *)malloc(sizeof(node_t));
        nodep->next = head;
        head = nodep;
        if (read(0, &node->value,
                sizeof(node->value))
            free(nodep);
            break;
        }
    }
    return head;
}
```

```
pthread_cancel(thread);
```

This code is invoked by a thread (as its first function). The thread reads values from stdin, which it then puts into 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?

Cancellation Concerns

- Getting cancelled at an inopportune moment
- Cleaning up

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.

Cancellation State

- **Pending cancel**
 - `pthread_cancel(thread)`
- **Cancels enabled or disabled**
 - `int pthread_setcancelstate(
 {PTHREAD_CANCEL_DISABLE
 PTHREAD_CANCEL_ENABLE},
 &oldstate)`
- **Asynchronous vs. deferred cancels**
 - `int pthread_setcanceltype(
 {PTHREAD_CANCEL_ASYNCHRONOUS,
 PTHREAD_CANCEL_DEFERRED},
 &oldtype)`

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.

Cancellation Points

- aio_suspend
- close
- creat
- fcntl (when F_SETLCKW is the command)
- fsync
- mq_receive
- mq_send
- msync
- nanosleep
- open
- pause
- pthread_cond_wait
- pthread_cond_timedwait
- pthread_join
- pthread_testcancel
- read
- sem_wait
- sigwait
- sigwaitinfo
- sigsuspend
- sigtimedwait
- sleep
- system
- tcdrain
- wait
- waitpid
- write

The slide lists all of the required cancellation points in POSIX.

The function **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.

Cleaning Up

- `void pthread_cleanup_push((void) (*routine) (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 functions **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 function indicates whether or not the cleanup function should be called as a side effect of calling **pthread_cleanup_pop**.

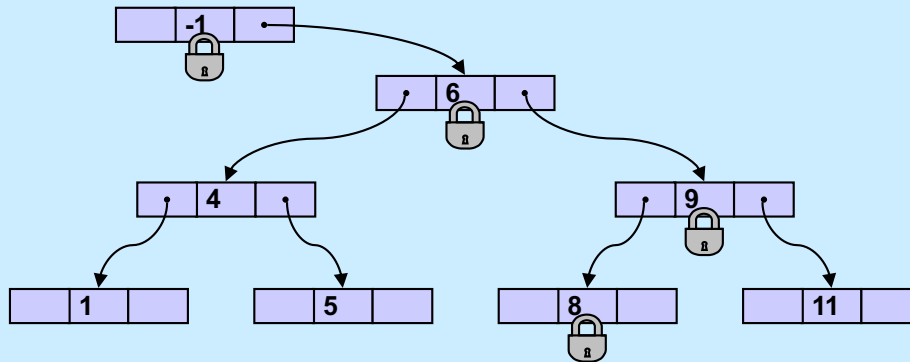
Sample Code, Revisited

```
void *thread_code(void *arg) {
    node_t *head = 0;
    pthread_cleanup_push(
        cleanup, &head);
    while (1) {
        node_t *nodep;
        nodep = (node_t *)
            malloc(sizeof(node_t));
        nodep->next = head;
        head = nodep;
        if (read(0, &nodep->value,
            sizeof(nodep->value)) == 0) {
            free(nodep);
            break;
        }
    }
    pthread_cleanup_pop(0);
    return head;
}

void cleanup(void *arg) {
    node_t **headp = arg;
    while(*headp) {
        node_t *nodep = head->next;
        free(*headp);
        *headp = nodep;
    }
}
```

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.

A More Complicated Situation ...



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

```
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

```
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);  
}
```

Not a Quiz

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

Cancellation and Conditions

```
pthread_mutex_lock(&m);
pthread_cleanup_push(cleanup_handler, &m);
while(should_wait)
    pthread_cond_wait(&cv, &m);

read(0, buffer, len); // read is a cancellation point

pthread_cleanup_pop(1);
```

This example illustrates why it's important that threads cancelled while in **pthread_cond_wait** must first lock the mutex before calling their cleanup handler. In this example, it's important (for an unspecified reason) that **read** be called while the mutex is locked and **should_wait** is false. If the thread receives a cancel and **cleanup_handler** is called, it won't be known whether the cancel occurred within **pthread_cond_wait** or within **read**. Thus **cleanup_handler** must perform the same actions in both cases. Since the thread must unlock the mutex if the cancel occurred while the thread was in **read**, it must also unlock the mutex if the cancel occurred while the thread was in **pthread_cond_wait**. Thus, it's important that a thread cancelled while in **pthread_cond_wait** lock the mutex before it calls its cleanup handler, so that it's locked when the thread enters the cleanup handler.

Start/Stop



- Start/Stop interface

```
void wait_for_start(state_t *s) {
    pthread_mutex_lock(&s->mutex);
    pthread_cleanup_push(
        pthread_mutex_unlock, &s);
    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);
}
```

Here we use **pthread_mutex_unlock** as the cleanup handler for our start/stop interface.