

# CSE 303: Concepts and Tools for Software Development

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Lecture 23— Concurrency Part 2

# Concurrency (Review)

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Computation where “multiple things happen at the same time” is inherently more complicated than *sequential* computation.

- Entirely new kinds of bugs and obligations

Two forms of concurrency:

- *time-slicing*: only one computation at a time but *pre-empt* to provide *responsiveness* or *mask I/O latency*.
- *true parallelism*: more than one CPU (e.g., the lab machines have two, the attu machines have 4, ...)

No problem unless the different computations need to *communicate* or use the same *resources*.

- Which, of course, they need to do if anything interesting is going to happen. . . .

## Example: Processes

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The O/S runs multiple processes “at once”.

Why? (Convenience, efficient use of resources, performance)

No problem: keep their address-spaces separate.

But they do communicate/share via files (and pipes).

Things can go wrong, e.g., a *race condition*:

```
echo "hi" > someFile
```

```
foo='cat someFile'
```

```
# assume foo holds the string hi??
```

The O/S provides *synchronization mechanisms* to avoid this

- See CSE451; we will focus on *intraprocess* concurrency.

# The Old Story

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We said a running Java or C program had code, a heap, global variables, a stack, and “what is executing right now” (in assembly, a *program counter*).

C, Java support parallelism similarly (other languages can be different):

- One pile of code, global variables, and heap.
- Multiple “stack + program counter”s — called *threads*
- Threads can be *pre-empted* whenever by a *scheduler*
- Threads can communicate (or mess each other up) via *shared memory*.
- Various *synchronization mechanisms* control what *thread interleavings* are possible.
  - “Do not do your thing until I am done with my thing”

# Basics (Review)

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C: The POSIX Threads (pthreads) *library*

- `#include <pthread.h>`
- Link with `-lpthread`
- `pthread_create` takes a function pointer and an argument for it; runs it as a separate thread.
- Many types, functions, and macros for threads, locks, etc.

Java: Built into the language

- Subclass `java.lang.Thread` overriding `run`
- Create a `Thread` object and call its `start` method
- Any object can “be synchronized on” (later)

# Simple synchronization

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Threads have to *communicate* and *coordinate*.

- Use each others' results; avoid messing up each other's computation.

Simplest two ways not to mess each other up (don't underestimate!):

1. Do not access the same memory.
2. Do not mutate shared memory.

Next simplest: One thread does not run until/unless another thread is done

- Called a *join*

# Using Threads

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- A common pattern for expensive computations:
  - Split the work
  - Join on all the helper threads
  - Called fork-join parallelism
- To avoid bottlenecks, each thread should have about the same amount of work (load-balancing)
  - Performance depends on number of CPUs available and will typically be less than “perfect speedup”
  - Does the algorithm lend itself to multiple, independent tasks, or do the steps need to be done in a particular order?
- C vs. Java (specific to threads)
  - Java takes an OO approach (shared data via fields of Thread)
  - Java separates Thread-object creation from Thread-start

## The Issue

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```
struct Acct { int balance; /* ... other fields ... */ };

int withdraw(struct Acct * a, int amt) {
    if(a->balance < amt) return 1; // 1==failure
    a->balance -= amt;
    return 0; // 0==success
}
```

This code is correct in a sequential program.

It may have a *race condition* in a concurrent program, allowing a negative balance.

Discovering this bug is very hard with testing since the interleaving has to be “just wrong”.

## atomic

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Programmers must indicate what must *appear to happen all-at-once*.

```
int withdraw(struct Acct * a, int amt) {
    atomic {
        if(a->balance < amt) return 1; // 1==failure
        a->balance -= amt;
    }
    return 0; // 0==success
}
```

Reasons not to do “too much” in an atomic:

- Correctness: If another threads needs an intermediate result to compute something you need, must “expose” it.
- Performance: Parallel threads must access disjoint memory
  - Actually read/read conflicts can happen in parallel

## Getting it “just right”

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This code is probably wrong because critical sections too small:

```
atomic { if(a->balance < amt) return 1; }  
atomic { a->balance -= amt; }
```

This code (skeleton) is probably wrong because critical section too big:

- Assume other guy does not compute until the data is set.

```
atomic {  
    data_for_other_guy = 42; // set some global  
    ans = wait_for_other_guy_to_compute();  
    return ans;  
}
```

## So far

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Shared-memory concurrency where multiple threads might access the same mutable data at the same time is tricky

- Must get size of critical sections just right

It's worse because

- `atomic` does not yet exist in languages like C and Java (open research problem).

Instead programmers must use *locks* (a.k.a. mutexes) or other mechanisms, usually to get the behavior of critical sections

- But misuse of locks will violate the “all-at-once” property
- Or lead to other bugs we haven't seen yet

## Lock basics

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*A lock is acquired and released by a thread.*

- At most one thread “holds it” at any moment
- Acquiring it “blocks” until the holder releases it and the blocked thread acquires it
  - Many threads might be waiting; one will “win” .
  - The lock-implementor avoids race conditions on the lock-acquire
- So to keep two things from happening at the same time, surround them with the same lock-acquire/lock-release

## Locks in C/Java

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C: Need to *initialize* and *destroy* mutexes (a synonym for locks).

- The joys of C

An initialized (pointer to a) mutex can be locked or unlocked via library function calls.

Java: A synchronized statement is an acquire/release.

- Any object can serve as a lock.
- Lock is released on any control-transfer out of the block (return, break, exception, ...)
- “Synchronized methods” just save keystrokes.

# Choosing how to lock

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Now we know what locks are (how to make them, what acquiring/releasing means), but programming with them correctly and efficiently is difficult...

- As before, if critical sections are too small we have races and too big we may not communicate enough to get our work done efficiently.
- But now, if two “synchronized blocks” grab different locks, they can be interleaved even if they access the same memory
  - A “data race”
- Also, a lock-acquire blocks until a lock is available and only the current-holder can release it.
  - Can have “deadlock” ...

# Deadlock

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```
Object a;
Object b;
void m1() {
    synchronized a {
        synchronized b {
            ...
        }
    }
}
void m2() {
    synchronized b {
        synchronized a {
            ...
        }
    }
}
```

A cycle of threads waiting on locks means none will ever run again!

Avoidance: All code acquires locks in the same order (very hard to do). Ad hoc: Don't hold onto locks too long or while calling into unknown code.

## Rules of Thumb

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Any one of the following are *sufficient* for avoiding races:

- Keep data *thread-local* (an object is *reachable*, or at least only accessed by, one thread).
- Keep data *read-only* (do not assign to object fields after an object's constructor)
- Use locks consistently (all accesses to an object are made while holding a particular lock)
- Use a partial-order to avoid deadlock (over-simple example: do not hold multiple locks at once?)

These are tough invariants to get right, but that's the price of multithreaded programming today.

But... one way to do all the above is to have “one lock for all shared data” and that is inefficient...

## False sharing

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“False sharing” refers to not allowing separate things to happen in parallel.

Example:

```
synchronized x {          synchronized x {
    ++y;                   ++z;
}                          }
```

More realistic example: one lock for all bank accounts rather than one for each account

On the other hand, acquiring/releasing locks is not so cheap, so “locking more with the same lock” can improve performance.

This is the “locking granularity” question

- Coarser vs. finer granularity

## A Challenge

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If each bank account has its own lock, how do you write a “transfer” method such that no other thread can see the “wrong total balance”?

```
// race (not data race)           // potential deadlock
void xfer(int a, Acct other) {    void xfer(int a, Acct other) {
    synchronized(this) {         synchronized(this) {
        balance += a;           synchronized(other) {
        other.balance -= a;     balance += a;
    }                            other.balance -= a;
}                                }}}}
}
```

The problem is there is no relative order among accounts, so “inverse transfers” could deadlock

## A final gotcha

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You would naturally assume that all memory accesses happen in “some consistent order” that is “determined by the code”.

Unfortunately, compilers and chips are often allowed to cheat (reorder)! The assertion in the right thread may fail!

```
        initially flag==false
data = 42;          while(!flag) {}
flag = true;       assert(data==42);
```

To disallow reordering the programmer must:

- Use lock acquires (no reordering across them), or
- Declare flag to be `volatile` (for experts, not us)

## Conclusion

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Threads make a lot of otherwise-correct approaches incorrect.

- Writing “thread-safe” libraries can be excruciating.
- Use an expert implementation, e.g., Java’s ConcurrentHashMap?

But they are increasingly important for efficient use of computing resources (“the multicore revolution”).

Locks and shared-memory are (just) one common approach.

Learn about other useful synchronization mechanisms (e.g., condition variables) in CSE451.