



## CSE332: Data Abstractions

### Lecture 21: Programming with Locks and Critical Sections

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Winter 2011

## Announcements

- **Homework 7** – due Friday March 4<sup>th</sup> at the BEGINNING of lecture!
- **Project 3** – the last programming project!
  - **Version 1 & 2** - Tues March 1, 2011 11PM - (10% of overall grade)
  - ALL Code - Tues March 8, 2011 11PM - (65% of overall grade):
  - Writeup - Thursday March 10, 2011, 11PM - (25% of overall grade)

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## Outline

Done:

- The semantics of locks
- Locks in Java
- Using locks for mutual exclusion: bank-account example

This lecture:

- More bad interleavings (learn to spot these!)
- Guidelines/idioms for shared-memory and using locks correctly
- Coarse-grained vs. fine-grained

Next lecture:

- Readers/writer locks
- Deadlock
- Condition variables
- Data races and memory-consistency models

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## Races

A **race condition** occurs when the computation result depends on scheduling (how threads are interleaved)

- If T1 and T2 happened to get scheduled in a certain way, things go wrong
- We, as programmers, cannot control scheduling of threads; result is that we need to write programs that work independent of scheduling

Race conditions are bugs that exist only due to concurrency

- No interleaved scheduling with 1 thread

Typically, problem is that some *intermediate state* can be seen by another thread; screws up other thread

- Consider a 'partial' insert in a linked list; say, a new node has been added to the end, but 'back' and 'count' haven't been updated

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## Data Races

- A **data race** is a specific type of **race condition** that can happen in 2 ways:
  - Two different threads can **potentially** write a variable at the same time
  - One thread can **potentially** write a variable while another reads the variable
  - Simultaneous reads are fine; not a data race, and nothing bad would happen
  - 'Potentially' is important; we say the code itself has a data race – it is independent of an actual execution
- Data races are bad, but we can still have a race condition, and bad behavior, when no data races are present

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## Stack Example

```
class Stack<E> {  
    private E[] array = (E[])new Object[SIZE];  
    int index = -1;  
    synchronized boolean isEmpty() {  
        return index == -1;  
    }  
    synchronized void push(E val) {  
        array[++index] = val;  
    }  
    synchronized E pop() {  
        if (isEmpty())  
            throw new StackEmptyException();  
        return array[index--];  
    }  
}
```

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## Example of a Race Condition, but not a Data Race

```
class Stack<E> {
    ...
    synchronized boolean isEmpty() { ... }
    synchronized void push(E val) { ... }
    synchronized E pop(E val) {
        if(isEmpty())
            throw new StackEmptyException();
        ...
    }
    E peek() {
        E ans = pop();
        push(ans);
        return ans;
    }
}
```

- Maybe we're writing peek in an external class that only has access to Stack's push and pop
- In a sequential world, this code is of questionable style, but correct

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## peek, sequentially speaking

- In a sequential world, this code is of questionable style, but unquestionably correct
- The "algorithm" is the only way to write a peek helper method if all you had was this interface:

```
interface Stack<E> {
    boolean isEmpty();
    void push(E val);
    E pop();
}

class C {
    static <E> E myPeek(Stack<E> s){ ??? }
}
```

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## Problems with peek

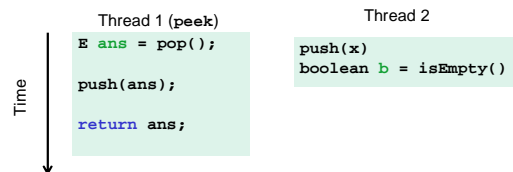
```
E peek() {
    E ans = pop();
    push(ans);
    return ans;
}
```

- peek has no overall effect on the shared data
  - It is a "reader" not a "writer"
  - State should be the same after it executes as before
- But the way it's implemented creates an inconsistent intermediate state
  - Calls to push and pop are synchronized so there are no **data races** on the underlying array/list/whatever
    - Can't access 'top' simultaneously
  - There is still a **race condition** though
- This intermediate state should not be exposed; errors can occur

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## Example 1: peek and isEmpty

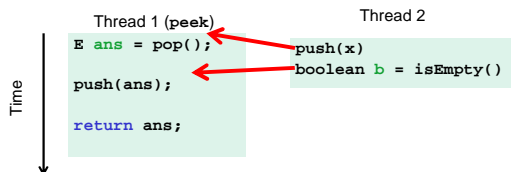
- **Property we want:** If there has been a push (and no pop), then isEmpty should return false
- With peek as written, property can be violated – how?



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## Example 1: peek and isEmpty

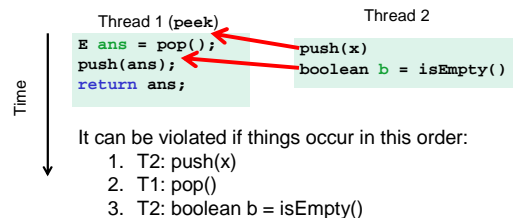
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## Example 1: peek and isEmpty

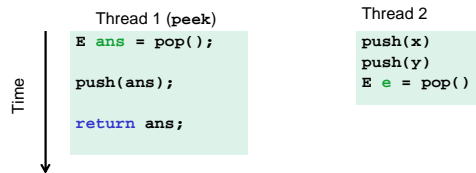
- **Property we want:** If there has been a push (and no pop), then isEmpty should return false
- With peek as written, property can be violated – how?



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### Example 2: peek and push

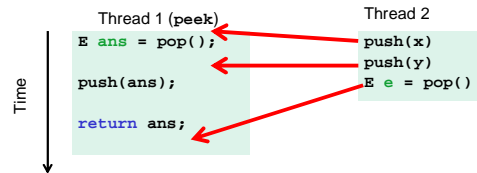
- **Property we want:** Values are returned from `pop` in LIFO order
- With `peek` as written, property can be violated – how?



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### Example 2: peek and push

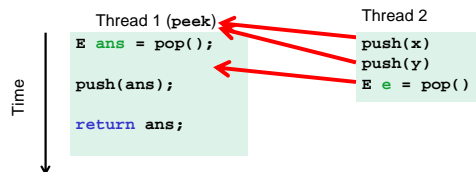
- **Property we want:** Values are returned from `pop` in LIFO order
- With `peek` as written, property can be violated – how?



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### Example 2: peek and pop (again)

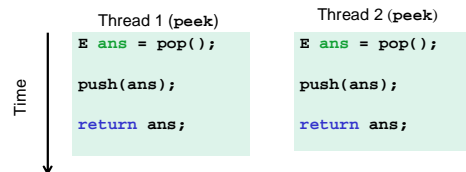
- **Property we want:** Values are returned from `pop` in LIFO order
- With `peek` as written, property can be violated – how?



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### Example 3: peek and peek

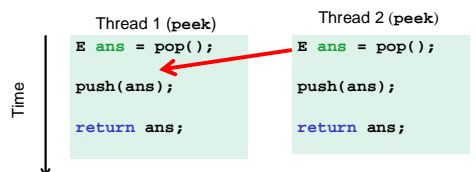
- **Property we want:** `peek` doesn't throw an exception unless stack is empty
- With `peek` as written, property can be violated – how?



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### Example 3: peek and peek

- **Property we want:** `peek` doesn't throw an exception unless stack is empty
- With `peek` as written, property can be violated – how?



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### The fix

- In short, `peek` needs synchronization to disallow interleavings
  - The key is to make a *larger critical section*
    - That intermediate state of `peek` needs to be protected
  - Use re-entrant locks; will allow calls to `push` and `pop`
  - Code on right is a `peek` external to the `Stack` class

```

class Stack<E> {
...
synchronized E peek(){
    E ans = pop();
    push(ans);
    return ans;
}
}

class C {
    <E> E myPeek(Stack<E> s){
        synchronized (s) {
            E ans = s.pop();
            s.push(ans);
            return ans;
        }
    }
}

```

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## The wrong “fix”

- **Focus so far:** problems from `peek` doing writes that lead to an incorrect intermediate state
- **Tempting but wrong:** If an implementation of `peek` (or `isEmpty`) does not write anything, then maybe we can skip the synchronization?
- Does **not** work due to *data races* with `push` and `pop`...

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## Example, again (no resizing or checking)

```
class Stack<E> {
    private E[] array = (E[])new Object[SIZE];
    int index = -1;
    boolean isEmpty() { // unsynchronized: wrong?!
        return index == -1;
    }
    synchronized void push(E val) {
        array[++index] = val;
    }
    synchronized E pop() {
        return array[index--];
    }
    E peek() { // unsynchronized: wrong!
        return array[index];
    }
}
```

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## Why wrong?

- It *looks like* `isEmpty` and `peek` can “get away with this” since `push` and `pop` adjust the state “in one tiny step”
- But this code is still *wrong* and depends on language-implementation details you cannot assume
  - Even “tiny steps” may require multiple steps in the implementation: `array[++index] = val` probably takes at least two steps
  - Code has a *data race*, which may result in strange behavior
    - Compiler optimizations may break it in ways you had not anticipated
    - We’ll talk about this more in the future
- Moral: Don’t introduce a data race, even if every interleaving you can think of is correct

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## Getting it right

Avoiding race conditions on shared resources is difficult

- What ‘seems fine’ in a sequential world can get you into trouble when race conditions are involved
- Decades of bugs has led to some *conventional wisdom*: general techniques that are known to work

Rest of lecture distills key ideas and trade-offs

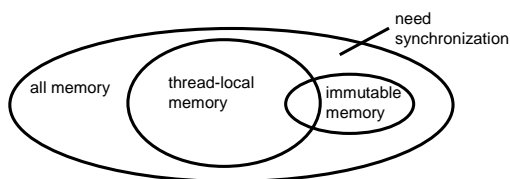
- Parts paraphrased from “Java Concurrency in Practice”
  - Chapter 2 (rest of book more advanced)
- But none of this is specific to Java or a particular book!

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## Pick one of these 3 choices for memory:

For every *memory location* (e.g., object field) in your program, you must obey at least one of the following:

1. **Thread-local:** Don’t use the location in > 1 thread
2. **Immutable:** Don’t write to the memory location
3. **Synchronized:** Use synchronization to control access to the location



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## Thread-local

Whenever possible, don’t share resources

- Easier to have each thread have its own *thread-local copy* of a resource than to have one with shared updates
- This is correct only if threads don’t need to communicate through the resource
  - That is, multiple copies are a correct approach
  - Example: **Random** objects
- Note: Since each call-stack is thread-local, never need to synchronize on local variables

*In typical concurrent programs, the vast majority of objects should be thread-local: shared-memory should be rare – minimize it*

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## Immutable

Whenever possible, don't update objects

- Make new objects instead!

- One of the key tenets of *functional programming* (see CSE 341)
  - Generally helpful to avoid *side-effects*
  - Much more helpful in a concurrent setting
- If a location is only read, never written, then no synchronization is necessary!
  - Simultaneous reads are *not* races and *not* a problem

*In practice, programmers usually over-use mutation – minimize it*

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## The rest: Keep it synchronized

After minimizing the amount of memory that is (1) thread-shared and (2) mutable, we need guidelines for how to use locks to keep other data consistent

### Guideline #0: No data races

- *Never allow two threads to read/write or write/write the same location at the same time* (use locks!)
- Even if it 'seems safe'

*Necessary:* In Java or C, a program with a data race is almost always wrong

- Even if our reasoning tells us otherwise; ex: compiler optimizations

*But Not sufficient:* Our `peek` example had no data races, and it's still wrong...

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## Consistent Locking

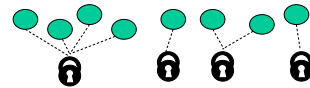
### Guideline #1: Use consistent locking

- *For each location needing synchronization, have a lock that is always held when reading or writing the location*
- We say the lock *guards* the location
- The same lock can (and often should) guard multiple locations (ex. multiple fields in a class)
- Clearly document the guard for each location
- In Java, often the guard is the object containing the location
  - `this` inside the object's methods

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## Consistent Locking (continued)

- The mapping from locations to guarding locks is *conceptual*, and is something that you have to enforce as a programmer
- It partitions the shared-&-mutable locations into "which lock"



Consistent locking is:

- *Not sufficient:* It prevents all *data* races, but still allows higher-level races (exposed intermediate states)
  - Our `peek` example used consistent locking, but had exposed intermediate states (and allowed potential bad interleavings)
- *Not necessary:* Can change the locking protocol dynamically...

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## Beyond consistent locking...

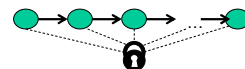
- Consistent locking is an excellent guideline
  - A "default assumption" about program design
  - You will save yourself many a headache using this guideline
- But it isn't required for correctness: Can have different *program phases* use different locking techniques
  - Provided all threads coordinate moving to the next phase
- Example from project 3, version 5:
  - A shared grid being updated, so use a lock for each entry
  - But after the grid is filled out, all threads except 1 terminate
    - So synchronization no longer necessary (thread local)
  - And later the grid becomes immutable
    - Makes synchronization doubly unnecessary

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## Lock granularity

**Coarse-grained:** Fewer locks, i.e., more objects per lock

- Example: One lock for entire data structure (e.g., array)
- Example: One lock for all bank accounts



**Fine-grained:** More locks, i.e., fewer objects per lock

- Example: One lock per data element (e.g., array index)
- Example: One lock per bank account



"Coarse-grained vs. fine-grained" is really a continuum

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## Trade-offs

### Coarse-grained advantages:

- Simpler to implement
- Faster/easier to implement operations that access multiple locations (because all guarded by the same lock)
- Much easier for operations that modify data-structure shape

### Fine-grained advantages:

- More simultaneous access (performance when coarse-grained would lead to unnecessary blocking)
- Can make multi-node operations more difficult: say, rotations in an AVL tree

**Guideline #2:** Start with coarse-grained (simpler) and move to fine-grained (performance) only if contention on the coarser locks becomes an issue.

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## Example: Separate Chaining Hashtable

- Coarse-grained: One lock for entire hashtable
- Fine-grained: One lock for each bucket

Which supports more concurrency for **insert** and **lookup**?

Which makes implementing **resize** easier?

- How would you do it?

If a hashtable has a **numElements** field, maintaining it will destroy the benefits of using separate locks for each bucket, why?

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## Example: Separate Chaining Hashtable

- Coarse-grained: One lock for entire hashtable
- Fine-grained: One lock for each bucket

Which supports more concurrency for **insert** and **lookup**?

Fine-grained; allows simultaneous access to diff. buckets

Which makes implementing **resize** easier?

Coarse-grained; just grab one lock and proceed

- How would you do it?

If a hashtable has a **numElements** field, maintaining it will destroy the benefits of using separate locks for each bucket, why?

Updating it each insert w/o a lock would be a data race

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## Critical-section granularity

A second, orthogonal granularity issue is critical-section size

- How much work to do while holding lock(s)?

If critical sections run for too long:

- Performance loss because other threads are blocked

If critical sections are too short:

- Bugs because you broke up something where other threads should not be able to see intermediate state

**Guideline #3:** Don't do expensive computations or I/O in critical sections, but also don't introduce race conditions; keep it as small as possible but still be correct

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## Example: Critical-section granularity

Suppose we want to change the value for a key in a hashtable without removing it from the table

- Assume **lock** guards the whole table
- **expensive()** takes in the old value, and computes a new one, but takes a long time

Papa Bear's  
critical section  
was too long

```
synchronized(lock) {  
    v1 = table.lookup(k);  
    v2 = expensive(v1);  
    table.remove(k);  
    table.insert(k,v2);  
}
```

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## Example: Critical-section granularity

Suppose we want to change the value for a key in a hashtable without removing it from the table

- Assume **lock** guards the whole table
- **expensive()** takes in the old value, and computes a new one, but takes a long time

Papa Bear's  
critical section  
was too long  
  
(table locked  
during  
expensive call)

```
synchronized(lock) {  
    v1 = table.lookup(k);  
    v2 = expensive(v1);  
    table.remove(k);  
    table.insert(k,v2);  
}
```

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### Example: Critical-section granularity

Suppose we want to change the value for a key in a hashtable without removing it from the table

- Assume `lock` guards the whole table

Mama Bear's  
critical section  
was too short

```
synchronized(lock) {  
    v1 = table.lookup(k);  
}  
v2 = expensive(v1);  
synchronized(lock) {  
    table.remove(k);  
    table.insert(k,v2);  
}
```

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### Example: Critical-section granularity

Suppose we want to change the value for a key in a hashtable without removing it from the table

- Assume `lock` guards the whole table

Mama Bear's  
critical section  
was too short

(if another thread  
updated the entry,  
we will lose an  
update)

```
synchronized(lock) {  
    v1 = table.lookup(k);  
}  
v2 = expensive(v1);  
synchronized(lock) {  
    table.remove(k);  
    table.insert(k,v2);  
}
```

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### Example: Critical-section granularity

Suppose we want to change the value for a key in a hashtable without removing it from the table

- Assume `lock` guards the whole table

Baby Bear's  
critical section  
was just right

```
done = false;  
while(!done) {  
    synchronized(lock) {  
        v1 = table.lookup(k);  
    }  
    v2 = expensive(v1);  
    synchronized(lock) {  
        if(table.lookup(k)==v1) {  
            done = true; // I can exit the loop!  
            table.remove(k);  
            table.insert(k,v2);  
        }  
    }  
}}
```

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### Example: Critical-section granularity

Suppose we want to change the value for a key in a hashtable without removing it from the table

- Assume `lock` guards the whole table

Baby Bear's  
critical section  
was just right

(if another update  
occurred, try our  
update again)

```
done = false;  
while(!done) {  
    synchronized(lock) {  
        v1 = table.lookup(k);  
    }  
    v2 = expensive(v1);  
    synchronized(lock) {  
        if(table.lookup(k)==v1) {  
            done = true; // I can exit the loop!  
            table.remove(k);  
            table.insert(k,v2);  
        }  
    }  
}}
```

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## Atomicity

An operation is *atomic* if no other thread can see it partly executed

- Atomic as in "(appears) indivisible"
- Typically want ADT operations atomic, even to other threads running operations on the same ADT

**Guideline #4:** Think in terms of what operations need to be atomic

- Make critical sections just long enough to preserve atomicity
- Then design the locking protocol to implement the critical sections correctly

That is: Think about atomicity first and locks second

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## Don't roll your own

- It is rare that you should write your own data structure
  - Provided in standard libraries
  - Point of CSE 332 is to understand the key trade-offs, abstractions and analysis
- Especially true for concurrent data structures
  - Far too difficult to provide fine-grained synchronization without race conditions
  - Standard *thread-safe* libraries like `ConcurrentHashMap` written by world experts

**Guideline #5:** Use built-in libraries whenever they meet your needs

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