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Atomic Executions

A concurrent program consists of several threads that share *resources*:

- resources can be *memory locations* or *memory mapped I/O*
 - a file can be modified through a shared handle, e.g.
- usually *invariants* must be retained wrt. resources
- e.g. a head and tail pointer must delimit a linked list
- ▶ an invariant may span *multiple* resources
- during an update, the invariant may be temporarily locally broken

multiple resources must be updated together to ensure the invariant

Ideally, a sequence of operations that update shared resources should be *atomic* [Harris et al.(2010)Harris, Larus, and Rajwar]. This would ensure that the invariant never seems to be broken.

Definition (Atomic Execution)

A computation forms an *atomic execution* if its effect can only be *observed* as a single transformation on the memory.

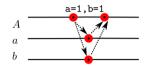
Why Memory Barriers are not Enough



Often, *multiple memory locations* may only be modified exclusively by one thread during a computation.

- use barriers to implement automata that ensure *mutual exclusion*
- → generalize the re-occurring *concept* of enforcing mutual exclusion

Needed: interaction with *multiple memory locations* within a *single step*:



Overview

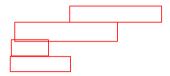


We will address the *established* ways of managing synchronization. The presented techniques

- are available on most platforms
- likely to be found in most existing (concurrent) software
- provide solutions to common concurrency tasks
- are the source of common concurrency problems

The techniques are applicable to C, C++ (pthread), Java, C# and other imperative languages.

Wait-Free Atomic Executions



Wait-Free Bumper-Pointer Allocation



Garbage collectors often use a *bumper pointer* to allocated memory:

```
char heap[2^20];
char* firstFree = &heap[0];

char* alloc(int size) {
    char* start = firstFree;
    firstFree = firstFree + size;

if (start+size>sizeof(heap)) garbage_collect();
    return start;
}
```

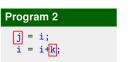
- firstFree points to the first unused byte
- \bullet each allocation reserves the next ${\tt size}$ bytes in ${\tt heap}$

Wait-Free Updates



Which operations on a CPU are atomic? (j,k and tmp are registers)

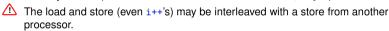
```
Program 1
```





Answer:

• none by default (even without store and invalidate buffers, why?)



All of the programs *can* be made atomic executions (e.g. on x86):

- i must be in memory
- Idea: lock the cache bus for an address for the duration of an instruction







Wait-Free Bumper-Pointer Allocation



Garbage collectors often use a *bumper pointer* to allocated memory:

- firstFree points to the first unused byte
- each allocation reserves the next size bytes in heap

Thread-safe implementation:

• alloc's core functionality matches Program 2: fetch-and-add

inline accombler (GCC/AT&T cuntar in the example)

Marking Statements as Atomic

Rather than writing assembler: use *made-up* keyword atomic:

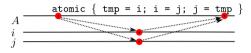
```
Program 1

atomic {
  i++;
}
```

```
Program 2
atomic {
    j = i;
    i = i+k;
}
```

```
Program 3
atomic {
   int tmp = i;
   i = j;
   j = tmp;
}
```

The statements in an atomic block execute as atomic execution:



- atomic only translatable when a corresponding atomic CPU instruction exist
- the notion of requesting atomic execution is a general concept

Lock-Free Algorithms



If a *wait-free* implementation is not possible, a *lock-free* implementation might still be viable.

Common usage pattern for compare and swap:

- read the initial value in i into k (using memory barriers)
- 2 compute a new value i = f(k)
- \bigcirc go to first step if $i \neq k$ meanwhile

$$i = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (i)$$

Wait-Free Synchronization



Wait-Free algorithms are limited to a single instruction:

- no control flow possible, no behavioral change depending on data
- often, there are instructions that execute an operation conditionally

Program 4



Program 6 atomic { r = (k==i); if (r) | i = |j; }

Operations *update* a memory cell and *return* the previous value.

- the first two operations can be seen as setting a flag b to $v \in \{0,1\}$ and returning its previous state.
- the operation implementing programs 4 and 5 is called set-and-test
- the third case generalizes this to setting a variable i to the value of j, if i's old value is
 equal to k's.
- ▶ the operation implementing program 6 is called *compare-and-swap*
- → use as building blocks for algorithms that can fail

Lock-Free Algorithms



If a *wait-free* implementation is not possible, a *lock-free* implementation might still be viable.

Common usage pattern for compare and swap:

- \bullet read the initial value in i into k (using memory barriers)
- ② compute a new value i = f(k)
- \bigcirc update *i* to *j* if i = k still holds
- \bigcirc go to first step if $i \neq k$ meanwhile

 \triangle note: i = k must imply that no thread has updated i

General recipe for lock-free algorithms

- given a compare-and-swap operation for n bytes
- try to group variables for which an invariant must hold into n bytes
- read these bytes atomically
- compute a new value
- \bullet perform a compare-and-swap operation on these n bytes

Locked Atomic Executions

Semaphores and Mutexes

A (counting) *semaphore* is an integer s with the following operations:

```
void wait(int *s) {
    bool avail;
    do {
    void signal(int *s) {
        atomic {
        atomic { *s = *s + 1; }
        }
        if (avail) (*s)--;
        }
        while (!avail);
}
```

A counting semaphore can track how many resources are still available.

- a thread *acquiring* a resource executes wait()
- if a resource is still available, wait() returns
- once a thread finishes using a resource, it calls signal() to release

Special case: initializing with s=1 gives a *binary* semaphore:

- can be used to block and unblock a thread
- can be used to protect a single resource
- → in this case the data structure is also called *mutex*

Locks



Definition (Lock)

A lock is a data structure that

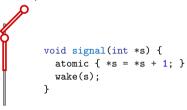
- can be acquired and released
- ensures mutual exclusion: only one thread may hold the lock at a time
- blocks other threads attempts to acquire while held by a different thread
- protects a critical section: a piece of code that may produce incorrect results when entered concurrently from several threads

may *deadlock* the program



Implementation of Semaphores

A *semaphore* does not have to wait busily:



```
void wait(int *s) {
  bool avail;
  do {
    atomic {
      avail = *s>0;
      if (avail) (*s)--;
    }
    if (!avail) de_schedule(s);
} while (!avail);
```

Busy waiting is avoided:

- a thread failing to decrease *s executes de_schedule()
- de_schedule() enters the operating system and inserts the current thread into a queue
 of threads that will be woken up when *s becomes non-zero, usually by monitoring
 writes to s (\simple FUTEX_WAIT)
- once a thread calls wake(s), the first thread t waiting on s is extracted
- the operating system lets t return from its call to de_schedule()

Practical Implementation of Semaphores

Certain optimisations are possible:

```
void wait(int *s) {
    bool avail;
    do {
    atomic { *s = *s + 1; }
    wake(s);
    }
    if (!avail) (*s)--;
    }
    if (!avail);
}

void wait(int *s) {
    atomic {
        atomic {
            avail = *s>0;
            if (avail) (*s)--;
            }
            if (!avail) de_schedule(s);
            } while (!avail);
}
```

In general, the implementation is more complicated

- wait() may busy wait for a few iterations
- avoids de-scheduling if the lock is released frequently
- better throughput for semaphores that are held for a short time
- wake(s) informs the scheduler that s has been written to
- → using a semaphore with a single core reduces to if (*s) (*s)--; /* critical section */ (*s)++;

Implementation of a Basic Monitor



A monitor contains a semaphore count and the id tid of the occupying thread:

```
typedef struct monitor mon_t;
struct monitor { int tid; int count; };
void monitor_init(mon_t* m) { memset(m, 0, sizeof(mon_t)); }
```

Define monitor_enter and monitor_leave:

- ensure mutual exclusion of accesses to mon_t
- track how many times we called a monitored procedure recursively

```
void monitor_enter(mon_t *m) {
                                               void monitor_leave(mon_t *m) {
  bool mine = false:
                                                 m->count--;
  while (!mine) {
                                                 if (m->count==0) {
    mine = thread_id() = m->tid;
                                                   atomic {
    if (mine) m >count++; else
                                                     m->tid=0:
    atomic {
      if (m->tid==0) {
                                                   wake(&m->tid);
        m->tid = thread_id();
       mine = true; m->count=1;
                                              }
       (!mine) de_schedule(&m->tid);
} }
```

Monitors: An Automatic, Re-entrant Mutex



Often, a data structure can be made thread-safe by

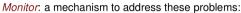
- acquiring a lock upon entering a function of the data structure
- releasing the lock upon exit from this function

Locking each procedure body that accesses a data structure:

- is a re-occurring pattern, should be generalized
- becomes problematic in recursive calls: it blocks

E.g. a thread t waits for a data structure to be filled

- ▶ t will call pop() and obtain -1
- ▶ t then has to call again, until an element is available
- \rightarrow t is busy waiting and produces contention on the lock \triangle



- a procedure associated with a monitor acquires a lock on entry and releases it on exit
- if that lock is already taken by the current thread, proceed

Condition Variables



√ Monitors simplify the construction of thread-safe resources.

Still: Efficiency problem when using resource to synchronize:

E.g. a thread t waits for a data structure to be filled:

- ▶ t will call pop() and obtain -1
- ▶ t then has to call again, until an element is available
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Idea: create a *condition variable* on which to block while waiting:

```
struct monitor { int tid; int count; int cond; int cond2;... };
```

Condition Variables

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Idea: create a condition variable on which to block while waiting:

```
struct monitor { int tid; int count; int cond; int cond2;... };
```

Define these two functions:

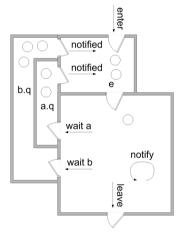
- wait for the condition to become true
 - called while being inside the monitor
 - temporarily releases the monitor and blocks
 - when *signalled*, re-acquires the monitor and returns
- signal waiting threads that they may be able to proceed
 - one/all waiting threads that called wait will be woken up, two possibilities:

signal-and-urgent-wait: the signalling thread suspends and continues once the signalled thread has released the monitor

signal-and-continue the **signalling** thread continues, any **signalled** thread enters when the monitor becomes available

Signal-And-Continue Semantics

Here, the signal function is usually called notify.



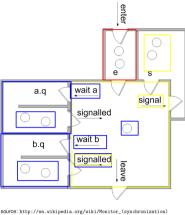
 a call to wait on condition a adds thread to the queue a.a

- a call to notify for a adds one thread from a.q to e (unless a.q is empty)
- ullet if a thread leaves, it wakes up one thread waiting on e
- \rightsquigarrow signalled threads compete for the monitor
- assuming FIFO ordering on e, threads who tried to enter between wait and notify will run first
- need additional queue s if waiting threads should have priority

Signal-And-Urgent-Wait Semantics



Requires one queue for each condition c and a suspended queue s:



- ullet a thread who tries to enter a monitor is added to queue e if the monitor is occupied
- a call to wait on condition a adds thread to the queue a.q
- a call to signal for a adds thread to queue s (suspended)
- one thread form the a queue is woken up
- ullet signal on a is a no-op if a.q is empty
- if a thread leaves, it wakes up one thread waiting on s
- if s is empty, it wakes up one thread from e
- \rightarrow queue s has priority over e

Implementing Condition Variables



We implement the simpler signal-and-continue semantics for a single condition variable:

→ a *notified* thread is simply woken up and competes for the monitor

```
void cond_wait(mon_t *m) {
   assert(m->tid==thread_id());
   int old_count = m->count;
   m->tid = 0;
   wait(&m->cond);
   bool next_to_enter;

   do {
      atomic {
        next_to_enter = m->tid==0;
        if (next_to_enter) {
            m->tid = thread_id();
            m->count = old_count;
        }
      }
      if (!next_to_enter) de_schedule(&m->tid);
      } while (!next_to_enter);}
```

```
void cond_notify(mon_t *m) {
   // wake up other threads
   [signal(&m->cond)]
}
```

A Note on Notify



With signal-and-continue semantics, two notify functions exist:

1 notify: wakes up exactly one thread waiting on condition variable

OnotifyAll: wakes up all threads waiting on a condition variable

⚠ an implementation often becomes easier if notify means notify some

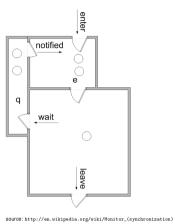
→ programmer should assume that thread is not the only one woken up

Deadlocks

Monitors with a Single Condition Variable



Monitors with a single condition variable are built into Java and C#:



```
class C {
 public synchronized void f() {
   // body of f
 }}
is equivalent to
class C {
 public void f() {
   monitor_enter(this);
   // body of f
   monitor_leave(this);
with Object containing:
 private int mon_var;
 private int mon_count;
 private int cond_var;
 protected void monitor_enter();
 protected void monitor_leave();
```