CSE 374: Lecture 26

Concurrency



Code Divisions

Module.c/cpp

- Includes
 header files
 needed to
 compile
 (+Module.h)
- Declares
 things that
 are not shared
 with other
 modules
- Defines Things!

Module.h

- Includes header files needed to compile
- Declares things that are shared with other modules
- Does NOT define things
- Does NOT declare things that other modules don't need to know.

User.c/cpp

- Includes
 header files
 needed to
 compile
 (+Module.h)
- USES stuff from Module.h
- Defines own code

What makes a module?

User Interface:

I/O functions

Interface functions

tnine? Phone-OS? Audio processor & Speaker? Back End:

Code to build data objects

Code to store or retrieve information

Interface functions

trie? Look up table? Language Model?

Function Pointers

Can point to code the way we point to data. In C, the syntax is: <return_type> (*<pointer_name>) (function_arguments); Set equal to `address of function' (&f)



Function Pointers

```
Can point to code the way we point to data. In C, the syntax is:
<return_type> (*<pointer_name>) (function_arguments);
Set equal to `address of function' (&f)
```

```
double two(double x) {
  return 2.0;
}
```

```
printf("int two(x) = %e\n",
    integrate(&two, 0.0,
        2.0, 1.0));
```

```
double integrate(
    double (*f)(double),
    double lo, double hi,
    double delta) {
    ...
    ans += (*f)(x) *
        ((hi-lo) / ((n+1));
```

Function Pointers: nicer syntax

Typedef can be used to shorten datatype:

typedef double (*fdd) (double); //fdd is function double-double

The C compiler is smart enough to know what is a function and what is a variable:

ans += (*f)(x) * ((hi-lo) / (n+1)); // eval. @location of f
ans += f(x) * ((hi-lo) / (n+1));

Also interprets function name as a pointer to the code:

integrate(&sin, 0.0, PI/2.0, 0.01));
integrate(sin, 0.0, PI/2.0, 0.000001));

What is Concurrency?

- Running multiple processes simultaneously
 - Running separate programs simultaneously
 - Running two different 'threads' in one program
- Each 'process' is one 'thread'
- Parallelism refers to running things simultaneously on separate resources (ex. Separate CPUS)
- Concurrency refers to running multiple threads on SHARED resources

Sequential programming demands finishing sequence before starting the next one

Previously, performance improvements could be made by improving hardware - no longer (Goodbye Moore's Law)

Allows processes to run 'in the background'

- ★ Responsiveness allow GUI to respond while computation happens
- ★ CPU utilization allow CPU to compute while waiting (for data, input, etc)
- ★ Isolation keep threads separate so errors in one don't affect the others

'Nice' linux parallel processes

NAME

nice - run a program with modified scheduling priority

SYNOPSIS nice [OPTION] [COMMAND [ARG]...]

DESCRIPTION

Run COMMAND with an adjusted niceness, which affects process scheduling. With no COMMAND, print the current niceness. Niceness values range from -20 (most favorable to the process) to 19 (least favorable to the process).

Other Linux tools

Top - shows all processes with 'niceness' (NI)

[mh75@klaatu ~]\$ ps -o pid,comm,nice

PID COMMAND	NI
11483 bash	0
13034 ps	0

					Terminal - m	h75@klaatu:~					۰.	
File Edit	View Terminal Tabs	Help		14	0 07	_			_	0.01.0.1	0.05	
top -	top - 16:54:18 up 49 days, 14:53, 27 users, load average: 0.81, 0.50, 0.25											
Tasks: 277 total, 1 running, 220 sleeping, 3 stopped, 0 zombie												
%Cpu(s): 2.5 us, 1.0 sy, 0.0 ni, 95.2 id, 1.0 wa, 0.0 hi, 0.2 si, 0.2												
KiB Mem : 4042588 total, 3667220 free, 150968 used, 224400 buff/cache												
KiB S	KiB Swap: 2096124 total, 1537952 free, 558172 used. 3643860 avail Mem											
DID												
PID	USER	PR	NI	VIRI	RES	SHR	S	%CPU	%MEM	TIME+	COMMAND	
12677	tyvont	20	0	368764	28144	17436	S	1.7	0.7	0:00.65	emacs	
11628	nalegave	20	0	368908	14172	5512	S	1.3	0.4	0:01.82	emacs	
9644	tranp6	20	0	164012	796	708	S	0.7	0.0	0:02.65	sshd	
9965	memc3	20	0	368616	13876	5476	S	0.7	0.3	0:12.37	emacs	
12653	mh75	20	0	162152	4400	3576	R	0.7	0.1	0:00.14	top	
8	root	20	0	0	0	0	Ι	0.3	0.0	55:54.99	rcu_sched	
5713	memc3	20	0	157392	120	0	S	0.3	0.0	0:01.42	sshd	
10034	ameyap	20	0	223052	1544	1404	S	0.3	0.0	0:01.23	gdb	
11749	root	20	0	0	0	0	Ι	0.3	0.0	0:00.20	kworker/0	
12644	tranp6	20	0	221956	26556	16544	S	0.3	0.7	0:00.64	gdb	
1	root	20	0	191604	3296	2340	S	0.0	0.1	17:54.43	systemd	
2	root	20	0	0	0	0	S	0.0	0.0	0:01.12	kthreadd	
4	root	0	-20	0	0	0	Ι	0.0	0.0	0:00.00	kworker/0	
6	root	0	-20	0	0	0	Ι	0.0	0.0	0:00.00	mm percpu	
7	root	20	0	0	0	0	S	0.0	0.0	0:06.53	ksoftirad	

Concurrency in Detail

- C, Java support parallelism similarly (other languages can be different)
 - one pile of code, globals, heap
 - multiple "stack + program counter"s called threads
 - threads are run or pre-empted by a scheduler
 - threads all share the same memory
- Various synchronization mechanisms control when threads run
 - "don't run until I'm done with this"



Concurrency in C & Java

C: the POSIX Threads (pthreads) library

- #include <pthread.h>
- pass -lpthread to gcc (when linking)
- pthread_create takes a function pointer and arguments, runs as a separate thread

Java: built into the language

- Subclass java.lang.Thread, and override the run method
- Create a Thread object and call its start method
- Any object can "be synchronized on" (later today)

(Aside: POSIX)

"The Portable Operating System Interface (POSIX)[1] is a family of standards specified by the IEEE Computer Society for maintaining compatibility between operating systems. POSIX defines the application programming interface (API), along with command line shells and utility interfaces, for software compatibility with variants of Unix and other operating systems.[2][3]" - Wikipedia

The C 'pthread' conforms to the POSIX standard for threading.

Pthread functions

Pthread t threadID;

The threadID keeps track of which thread we are referring.

```
int pthread_create(pthread_t *thread, const pthread_attr_t *attr, void
*(*start_routine)(void*), void *arg);
https://man7.org/linux/man-pages/man3/pthread_create.3.html
```

Note - pthread_create takes two generic (untyped) pointers interprets the first as a function pointer and the second as an argument pointer. This kicks off a new thread.

```
int pthread_join(pthread_t thread, void **value_ptr);
```

Puts calling thread 'on hold' until 'thread' completes - useful for waiting to thread to exit

Memory Consideration

(ex. pthreadex.c)

- If one thread did nothing of interest to any other thread, why bother running?
- Threads must communicate and coordinate
 - Use results from other threads, and coordinate access to shared resources
- Simplest ways to not mess each other up:
 - Don't access same memory (complete isolation)
 - Don't write to shared memory (write isolation)
- Next simplest:
 - One thread doesn't run until/unless another is done

Parallel Processing

Common pattern for expensive computations (such as data processing)

- 1. split the work up, give each piece to a thread (fork)
- 2. wait until all are done, then combine answers (join)

To avoid bottlenecks, each thread should have about the same amount of work

Performance will always be less than perfect speedup

What about when all threads need access to the same mutable memory?

Multiple threads with one memory

Often you have a bunch of threads running at once and they might need the same mutable (writable) memory at the same time but probably not Want to be correct, but not sacrifice parallelism

Example: bunch of threads processing bank transactions withdraw, deposit, transfer, currentBalance, etc...

unlikely two will overlap, but there's a chance

very important that answer is correct when they overlap

Data races

```
struct Acct {int balance; /*etc...*/ };
int withdraw(struct Acct* a, int amt) {
    if (a->balance < amt) return FAIL;
    a->balance -= amt; return SUCCESS;
```

This code is correct in a sequential program

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

Discovering this bug with testing is very hard

A Data Race - two threads withdraw \$100 simultaneously Thread 1 Thread 2

```
struct Acct {int balance; /*etc...*/ };
int withdraw(struct Acct* a, int amt) {
    if (a->balance < amt) {
        return FAIL; }</pre>
```

```
struct Acct {int balance; /*etc...*/ };
int withdraw(struct Acct* a, int amt) {
    if (a->balance < amt) {
        return FAIL; }
        a->balance -= amt; return SUCCESS;
}
```

a->balance -= amt; return SUCCESS;

Atomic Operations

- An operation we want to be done all at once
 - No interruptions
- Note: Must be the right size
 - Too big program runs sequentially
 - Too small program has potential races
- 'Atomic' requires a hardware primitive

We can wrap the hardware primitive with a lock

```
In C : 'mutex'
```

```
std::mutex BankAccount::m_;
void BankAccount::withdraw(double amount) {
    m_.lock();
    if (getBalance() > b) {
        throw std::invalid_argument();
    }
    setBalance(getBalance() - amount);
    m_.unlock();
```

C mutex lock

- 1. Create a lock for specific data
- 2. Lock before atomic part of code
- 3. Unlock after atomic operation

What happens if more than one piece of code affects the data?

}

Idea: Use same mutex ('m') for each
piece of code that modifies
'balance '

```
std::mutex BankAccount::m_;
void BankAccount::withdraw(double amount)
{
```

```
m_.lock();
if (getBalance() > b) {
    throw std::invalid_argument();
}
setBalance(getBalance() - amount);
m_.unlock();
```

Deadlocking

Every piece of code that refers to a datum calls the lock for that datum

If foo locks D, and then calls bar which also must lock D, we get a deadlock - we can't progress because bar can not complete

One solution is to write a helper function to replace bar – lockedBar

```
void BankAccount::withdraw(double amount) {
 m .lock();
  if (getBalance() < amount) {</pre>
    throw std::invalid argument();
  setBalanceUnderLock(getBalance() - amount);
 m .unlock();
void setBalance(double amount) {
 m .lock();
  setBalanceUnderLock(amount);
 m .unlock();
void setBalanceUnderLock(double amount) {
  balance = amount;
```

Deadlock

Problem:

If every method that modifies balance_ is locked with mutex m, that balance can not be updated.

Solution:

Must create helper function that allows for modifying balance_ under the lock.

```
void BankAccount::withdraw(double amount) {
 m .lock();
  if (getBalance() < amount) {
    throw std::invalid argument();
  setBalanceUnderLock(getBalance() - amount);
  m .unlock();
void setBalance(double amount) {
  m .lock();
  setBalanceUnderLock(amount);
  m .unlock();
void setBalanceUnderLock(double amount) {
  balance = amount;
```

C++ Lock Guards

- A "lock guard" is an object that
 - Locks the mutex in the constructor
 - Unlocks in the destructor
- If the lock guard is added to the stack it is locked upon creation
- Mutex is unlocked when object is removed from the stack; even correctly responding for an exception.

void deposit(double amount) {

std::lock_guard<std::mutex> lock(m_);
// locks mutex m_ in the lock_guard constructor
// mutex is now locked

setBalanceWithLock(getBalance() + amount);
// When deposit() returns,
// the stack-allocated lock_guard will be deleted,

// calling the destructor and releasing the mutex.

Another Deadlock

If we have an operation for two accounts

```
Must lock the value on each account.
```

But what happens if one transfer is started from account A to account B while a simultaneous transfer is started from account B to account A?

```
void transferTo(double amount, BankAccount& other) {
    m_.lock();
    other.m_.lock();
```

```
setBalanceInternal(getBalance() - amount);
other.setBalanceInternal(other.getBalance() + amount);
```

```
other.m_.unlock();
m_.unlock();
}
```

Thread T1: A.transferTo(50, B); m_.lock(); // Locks A's mutex

other.m_.lock();

// Waits for B's mutex

```
Thread T2: B.transferTo(20, A);
```

```
m_.lock(); // Lock's B's mutex
```

other.m_.lock() // Waits for A's mutex

Another Solution

- Use smaller critical sections. Lock A's mutex only around the modification of A's balance, and lock B's mutex when modifying B's balance.
 - a. But we expose an intermediate state in which A's account has been debited but the funds haven't been put in B's account yet we've temporarily lost money, which isn't great.
- Use larger critical sections. Add a single lock for all bank accounts that must be acquired before doing multi-account transactions.
 - a. But it means that we can only do one transaction at a time throughout the entire bank, even if the accounts aren't related to each other. This is a performance loss.
- Always lock mutexes in a specific order. We can choose to always lock the mutex of the account with the lower account id first, then lock the id of the higher account id. This works because account ids are unique and immutable, thus we can rely on them without synchronization.

C++ Atomic

Even single line integer operations (++accountCount) may be subject to race conditions.

Instead of manually locking and unlocking every integer operation, can make the data declaration std::atomic

Atomic renders that variable safe for read/write operations.

// In h:
static std::atomic<int> accountCount_;

// In cpp: BankAccount::BankAccount() { accountId_ = ++accountCount_; balance_ = 0; }

Other types of locks

There are other types of locks and primitives that are useful, besides the regular mutex, lock guard, and std::atomic:

- **Reentrant locks.** We had a problem earlier where one function that locked the mutex tried to call another function that would lock the same mutex, but this didn't work because the first function already had the lock! Use this behavior with a "reentrant lock": the same thread may re-lock the same lock any number of times. The lock will be released to a different thread once all of the lock() calls have been correspondingly unlock()'ed. Re-entrant locks can be difficult to trace.
- **Reader-writer locks.** All of the problems that we've seen so far have resulted by read/write or write/write combinations of calls. It is only the writing that causes problem. To improve efficiency, you might use "reader-writer locks": these allow multiple threads to read the same data at a time, but if any thread tries to write, it will make sure that no other thread is either reading or writing at the same time. This improves the performance of reads (allowing them to happen at once) while still maintaining correctness of the program.
- **Condition variables.** Let's say you are trying to dequeue from a queue, but there's no data in the queue at the moment. You want to wait until some other thread inserts into the queue, then you can wake up and dequeue that element! In this case you can use a "condition variable": a primitive that can be used to block a thread until another thread notifies the condition variable that the waiting condition has been satisfied.

Memory Guidelines

For every memory location, you should obey at least one of the following:

- Make it **thread-local**. Whenever possible, avoid sharing resources between threads make a copy for each thread. If threads do not need to communicate with each other through the shared resource (for example, a random-number generator), then make it thread-local. In typical concurrent programs, the vast majority of objects should be thread-local.
 - Shared-memory should be rare minimize it.
- Make it **immutable**. Whenever possible, do not update objects; make new objects instead. If a location is only read (never written), then no synchronization is necessary. Simultaneous reads are not data races, and not a problem.
 - In practice, programmers over-use mutation minimize it.
- Make access **synchronized**, ie use locks and other primitives to prevent race conditions.

Synchronicity

- 1. **No data races.** Never allow two threads to read/write or write/write a location at the same time.
- 2. Think of what operations need to be atomic. Consider atomicity first, then figure out how to implement it with locks).
- 3. **Consistent locking.** For each location that should be synchronized, have a lock that is ALWAYS locked when reading or writing that location. The same lock may (and often should) be used to guard multiple locations/pieces of memory. Clearly document with comments the mutex that guards a particular piece of memory.
- 4. **Start with coarse-grained locking; move to finer-grained locking only if blocking for locks becomes an issue.** Coarse-grained locking is the practice of having fewer locks: one for the whole data structure, or one for all bank accounts. It is simpler to implement, but performance can be bad (fewer operations can be done at the same time). But if there isn't a lot of concurrent access, then coarse locking is probably fine. Fine-grained locking is the practice of having more locks, each guarding less data: one lock per data element, or one lock per field in the bank account. Fine-grained locking is trickier to get correct, requires more programming, and has more overhead (more locks to lock), but it we can do more things at once.
- 5. **Don't do expensive computations or I/O in critical sections, but also don't introduce race conditions.** This balances performance with correctness.
- 6. **Use built-in libraries whenever possible.** Concurrency is extremely tricky and difficult to get right; experts have spent countless hours building tools for you to use to make your code safe.