Introduction

INF4140

30.08.12

Lecture 1

INF4140 (30.08.12)

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Models of concurrency

Lecturers

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Homepage for the course

http://www.uio.no/studier/emner/matnat/ifi/INF4140/h12

Syllabus (see the homepage for details)

- Gregory R. Andrews: Foundations of Multithreaded, Parallel, and Distributed Programming
- The paper: Intra-Object versus Inter-Object: concurrency and Reasoning in Creol

INF4140 (30.08.12)

Lectures

Thur. 12:15 - 14:00, Room Shell, Ole-Johan Dahls Hus

Exercise course

- Tutor: Crystal Din and Lizeth Tapia
- Mondays 14:15 16:00, Room Java, Ole-Johan Dahls Hus
- Starts next week.

Evaluation

- Three compulsory assignments which must be approved.
- Final exam: 17 December at 14:30 (4 hours).

Introduction

- contents of the course
- motivation: why is this course important
- some simple examples and considerations

Start

- a bit about concurrent programming with critical sections and waiting
- interference
- the await language

- Fundamental issues related to cooperating parallel processes
- How to think about developing parallel processes
- Various language mechanisms and paradigms
- Deeper understanding of parallel processes: (informal and somewhat formal) analysis, properties

- Sequential program: one control flow thread
- Parallel program: several control flow threads

Parallel processes need to exchange information. We will study two different ways to organize communication between processes:

- Reading from and writing to shared variables (part I of the course)
- Communication with messages between processes (part II of the course)

- atomic operations
- interference
- deadlock, livelock, liveness, fairness
- parallel programs with locks, critical sections and (active) waiting
- semaphores and passive waiting
- monitors
- formal analysis (Hoare logic), invariants
- Java: threads and synchronization

- asynchronous and synchronous message passing
- Basic mechanisms: RPC (remote procedure call), rendezvous, client/server setting, channels
- Java's mechanisms
- analysis using histories
- asynchronous systems
- standard examples

Language mechanisms and theory for processes which operate on *shared global variables*.

Why use shared variables?

- Here's the situation: There may be several CPUs inside one machine.
- natural interaction for tightly coupled systems
- used in many important languages, as in Java's concept of threads
- do as if one has many processes, in order to get a natural partitioning
- can achieve greater efficiency if several things happen at the same time
- e.g. several active windows at the same time

We have global variables x, y, and z. Consider the following program:

pre post
{x is a and y is b}
$$x := x + z; y := y + z;$$
 {x is a+z and y is b+z}

If we have operations that can be performed *independently of one another*, then it can be advantageous to perform these concurrently.The conditions describe the state of the global variables before and after

the program statement and are called, respectively, pre- and

post-conditions.

• These conditions are meant to give an understanding of the program, and are not part of the executed code.

Can we use parallelism here?

Extends the language with a construction for *parallel composition*:

 $co S_1 || S_2 || \dots || S_n oc;$

Execution of a parallel composition happens via the concurrent execution of the component processes S_1, \ldots, S_n and terminates normally if all component processes terminate normally. Example Thus we can write an example as follows:

{x is a and y is b} $\mathbf{co x} := \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{z} || \mathbf{y} := \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{z} \mathbf{oc}; \{x \text{ is } a + \mathbf{z} \text{ and } y \text{ is } b + \mathbf{z}\}$

Processes which live in the same system can interact with each other in two different ways:

- Cooperation to obtain a result
- Competition for common resources

The organization of this interaction is what we will call *synchronization*.

- *Mutual exclusion (Mutex)*. We introduce *critical sections* of program instructions which can *not* be executed concurrently.
- *Condition synchronization.* A process must wait for a specific condition to be satisfied before execution can continue.

Definition from the book: An operation is atomic if it cannot be subdivided into smaller components.

Alternative definition: An operation is atomic if it can be understood without dividing it into smaller components.

What is atomic depends on which language we work with: fine-grained and coarse-grained atomicity.

e.g.: Reading and writing of a global variable is usually atomic. Some (high-level) languages can have assignment x := e as one atomic operation, others as several: reading of the variables in the expression e, computation of the value e, followed by writing to x.

Note: A statement with at most one atomic component operation, in addition to operations on local variables, can be considered atomic! **Note:** We can do as if atomic operations do not happen concurrently!

The treatment of global variables is fundamental:

Also, the *communication* between processes can be represented by variables, e.g. a communication channel as a variable of type vector. We associate with each global variable a set of *atomic operations*, e.g. reading and writing to normal global variables, sending and receiving of communication channels, etc. Atomic operations on a variable *x* are called *x-operations*.

Mutual exclusion

Atomic operations on a variable cannot happen simultaneously.

Consider the following program:

$$\begin{array}{ll} P_1 & P_2 \\ \{x==0\} & \mathbf{co} \ x := x+1 || x := x-1 \ \mathbf{oc}; & \{?\} \end{array}$$

What will be the final state here?

- We assume that each process is executed on its own processor, with its own registers, and that x is part of a shared state space with global variables.
- Arithmetic operations in the two processes can be executed simultaneously, but read and write operations on x must be performed sequentially.
- The order of these operations is dependent on relative processor speed.
- The outcome of such programs thus becomes very difficult to predict!

$$\begin{array}{ll} P_1 & P_2 \\ \{x==0\} & \mathbf{co} \ x := x+1 | | x := x-1 \ \mathbf{oc}; & \{?\} \end{array}$$

There are 4 atomic x-operations: P_1 reads (R1) value of x, P_1 writes (W1) a value into x, P_2 reads (R2) value of x, and P_2 writes (W2) a value into x. R1 must happen before W1 and R2 before W2, so these operations can be sequenced in 6 ways:

R1	R1	R1	R2	R2	R2
W1	R2	R2	R1	R1	W2
R2	W1	W2	W1	W2	R1
W2	W2	W1	W2	W1	W1
0	-1	1	-1	1	0

From this table we can obtain the final state of the program: $x=-1 \lor x=0 \lor x=1$. The program is thus *non-deterministic*: the result can vary from execution to execution.

int
$$x := 0$$
; co $x := x + 1 ||x := x - 1$ oc; $\{x = -1 \lor x = 0 \lor x = 1\}$

Number of possible executions

If we have 3 processes, each with a given number of atomic operations, we will obtain the following number of possible executions:

process 1	process 2	process 3	number of executions
2	2	2	90
3	3	3	1680
4	4	4	34 650
5	5	5	756 756

NB: Different executions can lead to different final states.

Impossible, even for quite simple systems, to consider every possible execution!

Different executions

For n processes with m atomic statements each, the formula is

 $\frac{(n * m)!}{m!^n}$

Definition. If an expression e in one process does not reference a variable altered by another process, expression evaluation will appear to be atomic. An assignment x := e satisfies the property if either e satisfies the property and x is not referenced by others, or e does not reference any shared variables and x can be read or written by other processes. Such expressions/statements can be considered atomic! Examples:

$$\begin{array}{l} x := 0; y := 0; \textbf{co} \ x := x + 1 || y := x + 1 \ \textbf{oc} \\ x := 0; y := 0; \textbf{co} \ x := y + 1 || y := x + 1 \ \textbf{oc}; \ \{x \ \text{and} \ y \ \text{is} \ 1 \ \text{or} \ 2\} \\ x := 0; y := 0; \textbf{co} \ x := y + 1 || x := y + 3 || y := 1 \ \textbf{oc}; \ \{y = 1 \land x = 1, 2, 3, 4\} \\ \textbf{co} \ z := y + 1 || z' := y - 1 || y := 5 \ \textbf{oc} \\ z := x - x || \dots \ \{\text{is z now } 0?\} \\ x := x || \dots \ \{\text{same as skip}?\} \\ \textbf{if } y > \textbf{0} \ \textbf{then } y := y - \textbf{1} \ \textbf{fi} || \textbf{if } y > \textbf{0} \ \textbf{then } y := y - \textbf{1} \ \textbf{fi} \end{array}$$

The course's first programming language: the "await" language

- the usual sequential, imperative constructions such as assignment, if-, for- and while-statements
- cobegin-construction for parallel activity
- processes
- critical sections
- await-statements for (active) waiting and conditional critical sections

We use the following syntax for basic constructions

Declarations

Compound statement Conditional While-loop For-loop { statements }
if (condition) statement
while (condition) statement
for [i=0 to n-1] statement

¹corresponds to: int a[0:n-1]

INF4140 (30.08.12)

Assignments

 $coS_1||S_2||...||S_noc;$

- Each arm S_i contains a program statement which is executed in parallel with the other arms.
- The co-statement terminates when all the arms S_i have terminated.
- The next instruction after the **co**-statement is executed after the **co**-statement has terminated.

```
process foo {
    int sum := 0;
    for [i= 1 to 10]
        sum += i;
    x := sum;
}
```

- Processes run in the background
- Processes evaluated in arbitrary order.
- Processes are declared (as methods/functions)

```
process bar2[i=1 to n] {
write(i);
}
```

Starts one process.

The numbers are printed in increasing order.

Starts n processes.

The numbers are printed in arbitrary order because the execution order of the processes is *non-deterministic*.

Let \mathcal{V} : statement \longrightarrow variable set be a syntactic function which computes the set of global variables which are referenced in the program. \mathcal{W} : statement \longrightarrow variable set is the set of (write)variables which can be changed by the program.

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathcal{V}[\texttt{v}:=\texttt{e}] = \mathcal{V}[\texttt{e}] \cup \{\texttt{v}\}\\ \mathcal{V}[S_1; S_2] = \mathcal{V}[S_1] \cup \mathcal{V}[S_2]\\ \mathcal{V}[\texttt{if} (\texttt{b}) S] = \mathcal{V}[\texttt{b}] \cup \mathcal{V}[S]\\ \mathcal{V}[\texttt{while} (\texttt{b}) S] = \mathcal{V}[\texttt{b}] \cup \mathcal{V}[S] \end{array}$$

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{W}[\texttt{v}:=\texttt{e}] &= \{\texttt{v}\} \\ \mathcal{W}[S_1; S_2] &= \mathcal{W}[S_1] \cup \mathcal{W}[S_2] \\ \mathcal{W}[\texttt{if} (\texttt{b}) S] &= \mathcal{W}[S] \\ \mathcal{W}[\texttt{while} (\texttt{b}) S] &= \mathcal{W}[S] \end{split}$$

where $\mathcal{V}[\mathbf{e}]$ is the set of variables in expression e.

Parallel processes are without interference if they are disjoint, i.e. without common global variables:

$$\mathcal{V}[S_1] \cap \mathcal{V}[S_2] = \emptyset$$

Meanwhile, variables which are only read cannot give rise to interference. The following *interference criterion* is thus sufficient:

$$\mathcal{V}[S_1] \cap \mathcal{W}[S_2] = \mathcal{W}[S_1] \cap \mathcal{V}[S_2] = \emptyset$$

- A *state* in a parallel program consists of the values of the global variables at a given moment in the execution.
- Each process executes independently of the others by *modifying* global variables using atomic operations.
- An execution of a parallel program can be modelled using a *history*, i.e. a sequence of operations on global variables, or as a sequence of states.
- For non-trivial parallel programs there are very many possible histories.
- Synchronization is used to *limit* the possible histories.

A *property* of a program is a predicate which is true for all possible histories of the program.

- Two types:
 - *Safety properties* say that the program will not reach an undesirable state
 - Liveness properties say that the program will reach a desirable state.
- *Partial correctness*: The program reaches a desired final state if the program terminates (safety property).
- Termination: All histories have finite length.
- Total correctness: The program terminates and is partially correct.

Definition A common property for all states which can be reached during execution, i.e. a property which holds at any time.

- safety property
- appropriate for non-terminating systems (does not talk about a final state)
- global invariant talks about the state of many processes at once, preferably the entire system
- local invariant talks about the state of one process
- one can show that an invariant is correct by showing that it holds initially, and that each atomic statement maintains it.
 Note: we avoid looking at all possible executions!

- *Testing* or *debugging* increases our confidence in a program, but gives no guarantee of correctness.
- Operational reasoning considers all histories of a program.
- *Formal analysis*: Method for reasoning about the properties of a program without considering the histories one by one.
- A test can show an error, but can never prove correctness!

Mutual exclusion: combines sequences of operations in a *critical section* which then behave like atomic operations.

- When the non-interference requirement parallel processes does not hold, we use *synchronization* to restrict the possible histories.
- Synchronization gives coarse-grained atomic operations.
- The notation < S > means that S is performed atomically.

Atomic operations:

- Internal states are *not visible* to other processes.
- Variables *cannot* be changed by other processes.

Example The example from before can now be written as:

int x := 0; **co** $\langle x := x + 1 \rangle || \langle x := x - 1 \rangle$ **oc**; {x is 0 here}

Introduce the following expression:

- < await (B) S; >
 - The Boolean expression B specifies an await condition.
 - The angle brackets indicate that the body S is executed as an atomic operation.

Example < await (y > 0) y := y-1; >

The variable y is first decremented when the condition y > 0 holds.

Mutex:

• Condition synchronization:

```
< await (counter > 0) ; >
```

```
We can use await to specify both synchronization methods:
int counter = 1;
```

```
---
< await (counter > 0) counter := counter-1; > start section
critical statements;
counter := counter+1; end section
```

```
Invariant: 0 \le counter \le 1
```

Let Producer be a process which delivers data to a Consumer process. int buf, p := 0, c := 0;

process Producer { process Consumer { int a[n];... int b[n];... while (p < n) { while (c < n) { < await (p > c) ; > < await (p == c) ; > b[c] := buf buf := a[p] p := p+1; c := c+1; } } 7 ł This type of synchronization is usually called *busy waiting*.

Example (continued)



Global Invariant: c <= p <= c+1 Local Invariant (Producer): 0 <= p <= n An invariant holds in all states in the history of the program.