Locks & barriers

INF4140 - Models of concurrency Locks & barriers, lecture 2

Høsten 2014

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Mandatory assignment 1 ("oblig")

- Deadline: Friday September 26 at 18.00
- Possible to work in pairs
- Online delivery (Devilry): https://devilry.ifi.uio.no

- Central to the course are general mechanisms and issues related to parallel programs
- **Previous class:** *await language* and a simple version of the *producer/consumer* example

Today

- Entry- and exit protocols to critical sections
 - Protect reading and writing to shared variables
- Barriers
 - Iterative algorithms:
 - Processes must synchronize between each iteration
 - Coordination using *flags*

Remember: await-example: Producer/Consumer

Invariants

An invariant holds in *all states* in all histories of the program.

- global invariant: $c \le p \le c+1$
- local (in the producer): $0 \le p \le N$

Critical section

- Fundamental for concurrency
- Immensely intensively researched, many solutions
- Critical section: part of a program that is/needs to be "protected" agains interference by other processes
- Execution under mutual exclusion
- Related to "atomicity"

Main question we are discussing today:

How can we *implement* critical sections / conditional critical sections?

- Various solutions and properties/guarantees
- Using *locks* and low-level operations
- SW-only solutions? HW or OS support?
- Active waiting (later semaphores and passive waiting)

- Several processes compete for access to a shared resource
- Only one process can have access at a time: "mutual exclusion" (mutex)
- Possible examples:
 - Execution of bank transactions
 - Access to a printer
- A solution to the CS problem can be used to *implement* await-statements

Operations on shared variables happen inside the CS. Access to the CS must then be protected to prevent interference.

```
process p[i=1 to n] {
  while (true) {
    CSentry  # entry protocol to CS
    CS
    CSexit  # exit protocol from CS
    non-CS
  }
}
```

General pattern for CS

- Assumption: A process which enters the CS will eventually leave it.
- \Rightarrow Programming advice: be aware of exceptions inside CS!

```
int in = 1 \# possible values in \{1,2\}
```

```
process p1 {
    while (true) {
        while (in=2) {skip};
        CS;
        in := 2;
        non-CS
    }
    process p2 {
    while (true) {
        while (true) {
        while (in=1) {skip};
        CS;
        in := 1
        non-CS
    }
```

- entry protocol: active/busy waiting
- exit protocol: atomic assignment

Good solution? A solution at all? What's good, what's less so?

- More than 2 processes?
- Different execution times?

- Mutual exclusion (Mutex): At any time, at most one process is inside CS.
- Absence of deadlock: If all processes are trying to enter CS, at least one will succeed.
- Absence of unnecessary delay: If some processes are trying to enter CS, while the other processes are in their non-critical sections, at least one will succeed.
- Eventual entry: A process attempting to enter CS will eventually succeed.

NB: The three first are safety properties,¹

The last a liveness property.

(SAFETY: no bad state LIVENESS: something good will happen.)

¹point 2 and 3 are slightly up-to discussion/standpoint!

A safety property expresses that a program does not reach a "bad" state. In order to prove this, we can show that the program will never leave a "good" state:

- Show that the property holds in all initial states
- Show that the program statements preserve the property

Such a (good) property is often called a *global invariant*.

Used for synchronization of processes

• General form:

< await (B) S; >

- B: Synchronization condition
- ${\scriptstyle \bullet}\,$ Executed atomically when B is true
- Unconditional critical section (B is true): < S: >

S executed atomically

• Conditional synchronization:²

< await (B); >

 $^{^2 \}rm We$ also use then just await (B) or maybe await B. But also in this case we assume that B is evaluated atomically.

Critical sections using locks

```
bool lock = false;
process [i=1 to n] {
   while (true) {
      < await (¬ lock) lock := true >;
      CS;
      lock := false;
      non CS;
   }
}
```

Safety properties:

- Mutex
- Absence of deadlock
- Absence of unnecessary waiting

What about taking away the angle brackets < ... > ?

Test & Set is a method/pattern for implementing *conditional atomic action*:

```
TS(lock) {
    < bool initial := lock;
    lock := true >;
    return initial
}
```

Effect of TS(lock)

- side effect: The variable lock will always have value true after TS(lock),
- returned value: true or false, depending on the original state of lock
- exists as an atomic HW instruction on many machines.

Spin lock:

```
bool lock := false;
process p [i=1 to n] {
  while (true) {
    while (TS(lock)) {skip}; # entry protocol
    CS
    lock := false; # exit protocol
    non-CS
  }
}
```

NB:

Safety: Mutex, absence of deadlock and of unnecessary delay.

Strong fairness needed to guarantee eventual entry for a process

Variable lock becomes a hotspot!

Better safe than sorry?

What about *double-checking* in the entry protocol whether it is *really, really* safe to enter?

```
bool lock := false;
process p[i = i to n] {
  while (true) {
    while (lock) {skip}; # additional spin lock check
    while (TS(lock)) {
        while (lock) {skip}}; # + more inside the TAS loop
    CS;
    lock := false;
    non-CS
  }
}
```

Does that make sense?

Multiprocessor performance under load (contention)



number of threads

A glance at HW for shared memory



- Test-and-set operation:
 - (Powerful) HW instruction for synchronization
 - Accesses main memory (and involves "cache synchronization")
 - Much slower than cache access
- Spin-loops: faster than TAS loops
- "Double-checked locking": important design pattern/programming idiom for efficient CS (under certain architectures)³

 $^{^{3}\}text{depends}$ on the HW architecture/memory model. In some architectures: does not guarantee mutex! in which case it's an anti-pattern \ldots

Let CSentry and CSexit implement entry- and exit-protocols to the critical section.

Then the statement $\langle S \rangle$ can be implemented by

CSentry; S; CSexit;

Implementation of *conditional critical section* < await (B) S;> :

```
CSentry;
while (!B) {CSexit ; CSentry};
S;
CSexit;
```

The implementation can be optimized with Delay between the exit and entry in the body of the **while** statement.

So far: no(!) solution for "Eventual Entry"-property, except the very first (which did not satisfy "Absence of Unnecessary Delay").

- Liveness: Something good will happen
- Typical example for sequential programs: (esp. in our context) Program termination⁴
- Typical example for parallel programs:
 - A given process will eventually enter the critical section

Note: For parallel processes, *liveness is affected by the scheduling strategies.*

⁴In the first version of the slides of lecture 1, termination was defined misleadingly.

- A command is *enabled* in a state if the statement can in principle be executed next
- Concurrent programs: often more than 1 statement enabled!

```
bool x := true;
co while (x){ skip }; || x := false co
```

Scheduling: resolving non-determinism

A strategy such that for all points in an execution: if there is more than one statement enabled, pick one of them.

Fairness

Informally: enabled statements should not systematically be neglected by the scheduling strategy.

- Fairness: how to pick among enabled actions without being "passed over" indefinitely
- Which actions in our language are potentially non-enabled? ⁵
- Possible status changes:
 - disabled \rightarrow enabled (of course),
 - $\bullet~$ but also enabled $\rightarrow~$ disabled
- Differently "powerful" forms of fairness: guarantee of progress
 - 1. for actions that are always enabled
 - 2. for those that *stay enabled*
 - 3. for those whose enabledness show "on-off" behavior

⁵provided the control-flow/program pointer stands in front of them.

A scheduling strategy is *unconditionally fair* if each unconditional atomic action which can be chosen, will eventually be chosen.

Example:

bool x := true;

- co while (x){ skip }; || x := false co
- x := false is unconditional
- \Rightarrow The action will eventually be chosen
 - This guarantees termination
 - Example: "Round robin" execution
 - Note: if-then-else, while (b) ; are *not* conditional atomic statements!

Weak fairness

A scheduling strategy is weakly fair if

- it is unconditionally fair
- every conditional atomic action will eventually be chosen, assuming that the condition becomes true and thereafter remains true until the action is executed.

Example:

bool x = true, int y = 0;

co while (x) y = y + 1; $|| < await y \ge 10; > x = false;$ oc

- $\bullet\,$ When y $\geq\,10$ becomes true, this condition remains true
- This ensures termination of the program
- Example: Round robin execution

Strong fairness

Example

```
bool x := true; y := false;
co
    while (x) {y:=true; y:=false}
||
    < await(y) x:=false >
oc
```

Definition (Strongly fair scheduling strategy)

- unconditionally fair and
- each conditional atomic action will eventually be chosen, if the condition is true infinitely often.

For the example:

- under strong fairness: y true ∞ -often \Rightarrow termination
- under weak fairness: non-termination possible

The CS solutions shown need to assume strong fairness to guarantee liveness, i.e., access for a given process (i):

- Steady inflow of processes which want the lock
- value of lock alternates (infinitely often) between true and false
- Weak fairness:

Process *i* can read lock only when the value is **false**

• Strong fairness:

Guarantees that *i* eventually sees that lock is true

Difficult: to make a scheduling strategy that is both practical and strongly fair.

We look at CS solutions where access is guaranteed for $\ensuremath{\textit{weakly}}$ fair strategies

- Tie-Breaker Algorithm
- Ticket Algorithm
- The book also describes the *bakery* algorithm

- Requires no special machine instruction (like TS)
- We will look at the solution for two processes
- Each process has a private lock
- Each process sets its lock in the entry protocol
- The private lock is read, but is not changed by the other process

```
int in = 1 \# possible values in \{1,2\}
```

```
process p1 {
    while (true) {
        while (in=2) {skip};
        CS;
        in := 2;
        non-CS
    }
    process p2 {
    while (true) {
        while (true) {
        while (in=1) {skip};
        CS;
        in := 1
        non-CS
    }
```

- entry protocol: active/busy waiting
- exit protocol: atomic assignment

Good solution? A solution at all? What's good, what's less so?

- More than 2 processes?
- Different execution times?

```
in1 := false, in2 := false;
process p1 {
 while (true){
    while (in2) {skip};
   in1 := true;
   CS
 in1 := false;
   non-CS
 }
}
```

```
process p2 {
  while (true) {
     while (in1) {skip};
       in2 := true;
       CS :
       in2 := false;
       non-CS
 }
```

}

What is the global invariant here? Problem: No *mutex*

```
in1 := false, in2 := false;
process p1 {
                                    process p2 {
  while (true){
                                      while (true) {
    in1 := true;
                                        in2 := true;
                                        while (in1) {skip};
    while (in2) {skip};
    CS
                                        CS :
    in1 := false;
                                        in2 := false;
    non-CS
                                        non-CS
}
    Deadlock^{6} := (
```

⁶Technically, it's more of a live-lock, since the processes still are doing "something", namely spinning endlessly in the empty while-loops, never leaving the entry-protocol to do real work. The situation though is analogous to a "deadlock" conceptually.

Tie-Breaker algorithm: Attempt 3 (with await)

- Problem: both half flagged their wish to enter \Rightarrow deadlock
- Avoid deadlock: "tie-break"
- Be fair: Don't always give priority to one specific process
- Need to know which process last started the entry protocol.
- Add new variable: last

in1 := false, in2 := false; int last

```
process p1 {
                                      process p2 {
  while (true){
                                        while (true){
    in1 := true;
                                          in2 := true;
    last := 1;
                                          last := 2;
    < await ( (not in2) or
                                          < await ( (not in1) or
              |ast = 2\rangle; >
                                                    |ast = 1); >
    CS
                                          CS
    in1 := false;
                                          in2 := false;
    non-CS
                                          non-CS
                                        }
}
                                      }
```

Even if the variables in1, in2 and last can change the value while a wait-condition evaluates to true, the wait condition will *remain true*.

p1 sees that the wait-condition is true:

- in2 == false
 - in2 can eventually become **true**, but then p2 must also set last to 2
 - Then the wait-condition to p1 still holds

• Then last == 2 will hold until p1 has executed

Thus we can replace the await-statement with a while-loop.

```
process p1 {
    while (true){
        in1 := true;
        last := 1;
    while (in2 and last = 2){skip}
    CS
        in1 := false;
        non-CS
    }
}
```

Generalizable to many processes (see book)

Scalability: If the Tie-Breaker algorithm is scaled up to n processes, we get a loop with n - 1 2-process Tie-Breaker algorithms.

The *ticket algorithm* provides a simpler solution to the CS problem for n processes.

- Works like the "take a number" queue at the post office (with one loop)
- A customer (process) which comes in takes a number which is higher than the number of all others who are waiting
- The customer is served when a ticket window is available and the customer has the lowest ticket number.

- The first line in the loop must be performed atomically!
- await-statement: can be implemented as while-loop
- Some machines have an *instruction* fetch-and-add (FA): FA(var, incr):< int tmp := var; var := var + incr; return tmp;>

Ticket algorithm: Implementation

```
int number := 1; next := 1; turn [1:n] := ([n] 0);
process [i = 1 to n] {
  while (true) {
    turn[i] := FA(number, 1);
    while (turn [i] != next) {skip};
    CS
    next := next + 1;
    non-CS
  }
}
FA(var, incr) \le int tmp := var; var := var + incr; return tmp; >
Without this instruction, we use an extra CS:<sup>7</sup>
```

CSentry; turn[i]=number; number = number + 1; CSexit;

Problem with *fairness* for CS. Solved with the *bakery algorithm* (see book).

⁷Why?

Invariants

• What is the global invariant for the ticket algorithm?

 $0 < next \le number$

- What is the *local* invariant for process *i*:
 - turn[i] < number</pre>
 - if p[i] is in the CS then turn[i] == next.
- for pairs of processes $i \neq j$:

if turn[i] > 0 then $turn[j] \neq turn[i]$

This holds initially, and is preserved by all atomic statements.

- Computation of disjoint parts in parallel (e.g. array elements).
- Processes go into a loop where each iteration is dependent on the results of the previous.

```
process Worker[i=1 to n] {
  while (true) {
    task i;
    wait until all n tasks are done  # barrier
  }
}
```

All processes must reach the barrier ("join") before any can continue.

A number of processes will synchronize the end of their tasks. Synchronization can be implemented with a *shared counter*:

```
int count := 0;
process Worker[i=1 to n] {
  while (true) {
    task i;
    < count := count+1>;
    < await(count=n)>;
  }
}
```

Can be implemented using the FA instruction.

Disadvantages:

- count must be reset between each iteration.
- Must be updated using atomic operations.
- Inefficient: Many processes read and write count concurrently.

Goal: Avoid too many read- and write-operations on one variable!! Divides shared counter into several local variables.

```
Worker[i]:
    arrive[i] = 1;
    < await (continue[i] == 1);>
Coordinator:
    for [i=1 to n] < await (arrive[i]==1);>
    for [i=1 to n] continue[i] = 1;
```

NB: In a loop, the flags must be cleared before the next iteration!

Flag synchronization principles:

- 1. The process waiting for a flag is the one to reset that flag
- 2. A flag will not be set before it is reset

Both arrays continue and arrived are initialized to 0.

```
process Worker [i = 1 \text{ to } n] {
                                     process Coordinator {
                                        while (true) {
  while (true) {
    code to implement task i;
                                          for [i = 1 to n] {
    arrive[i] := 1;
                                            <await (arrived [i] = 1)>;
    < await (continue[i] := 1>;
                                            arrived [i] := 0
    continue := 0;
                                            };
                                          for [i = 1 to n] {
 }
}
                                            continue[i] := 1
                                       }
```

- The roles of the Worker and Coordinator processes can be *combined*.
- In a *combining tree barrier* the processes are organized in a tree structure. The processes signal *arrive* upwards in the tree and *continue* downwards in the tree.

bool lock = false;Entry:<await (!lock) lock = true>
Critical sectionExit:<lock = false;>

Spin lock implementation of entry: while (TS(lock)) skip

Drawbacks:

- Busy waiting protocols are often complicated
- Inefficient if there are fever processors than processes
 - Should not waste time executing a skip loop!
- No clear distinction between variables used for synchronization and computation!

Desirable to have a special tools for synchronization protocols Next week we will do better: semaphores !! [Andrews, 2000] Andrews, G. R. (2000). Foundations of Multithreaded, Parallel, and Distributed Programming. Addison-Wesley.