Introduction to C

C Modules

- file translated into obj. file, which gets linked by linker to other object files and std libraries
- can refer to global variables/functions of other modules via. externs

Char input/output

- getchar(void)
- putchar(c)

printf() string formats

- %.2f floating pt to 2dp
- %p pointer

scanf()

- reads from std input
- returns number of read items
- parameters must be pointers

Introduction to Unix $\mathbf{2}$

file

- determines type of file
- e.g. ordinary, directory, device, 'special'

Shell environment

- at login, reads from /etc/profile
- gets .bash_profile, .profile

Permissions

- user, group, other
- read, write, execute
- use magical numbers (r: 4, w: 2, x: 1)

Redirections

- a.out < data >res 2>errors
- appending: >>

Shell scripts

- #!/bin/bash
- default search path \$PATH
- to execute a script, ./scriptname, otherwise if the current dir is in \$PATH it can be executed using scriptname

Shell

- UNIX cmd interpreter
- reads in cmds, runs appropriate programs

I/O redirection

- when prog runs, 3 std files opened 0 std input

 - 1 std output
 - 2 std error

Shell variables

- stored in environment of the program
- setting: VARNAME=value
- using: \$VARNAME
- script arguments: \$1, \$2 etc.

if statement

- if <cmd> then
 - <cmd>
 - fi

while loop

- while <condition>
 - do
 - <cmd>
 - done

for loop

- for <condition>
 - do
 - <cmd>
 - done

case

- case \$selector in
 - 1) <cmd>;;
 - 2) <cmd>;;
 - esac

UNIX cmds

- test: tests a condition, exists with true/false if test \$1 == "blah"
- sort: sorts lines of text in a file
- cut: cuts selected parts of lines of text in a file, and sends result to output
- tr: changes or removes chars from a file
- comm: compares files and prints lines that exist in only one or both files
- grep: searches text file/output, matching each line against specified regex, and prints all lines that match
- diff and sdiff: comparing files

Cmd substitution

- arg enclosed in backquotes indicates that a command is to run, and the output used as the actual argument(s)
- prog 'cat argfile'

Subshells

- run cmds in another copy of the shell
- environment copied from parent subshell can change environ., but it will be reverted when the subshell exits
- tar cf mydir | (cd *loc*; tar xf -)

Collecting output

• (echo data; cat filename) > output

Arithmetic

- ullet expr evaluates its args as an expression
- let for assignment of variables
- let count = count +1

Read text from shell

- read x: reads in line from std input, and stores as x
- "here document"

Finding files

- find: starts at curr dir and searches recursively
- locate: prints the full path names of all files that match
- du: prints disk usage starting at curr dir

Strange file names

- to open file named -x, use nano ./-x
- \bullet -- to stop parsing flags

rm -- -x

3 Pointers

- a memory address
- $\bullet\,$ obtain address of variable with &
- create pointer to the address of initial
 char initial = 'A';
 char *initial_ptr = &initial;
- * pointer to variable of specific type
- ** unravels indirection
- Iterating through a string with a pointer while (*str != '\0') { str++; }

Dynamic data structures

- dynamically allocate memory
- malloc, realloc etc.

Indirection operator

- declaration: pointer to specified type int * ptr
- dereferencing: dereferences the pointer to mean the content/value of the variable being pointed to

Array processing

- int array[10] array == &array[0]
- variables can change their values, but not their addresses
- pointer's value is the address of another variable, ∴ arithmetic ops permitted on pointer

Pointer scalars

- mathematical operations on pointers work regardless of the data type being pointed to
- ptr accesses to arrays will always move the correct number of bytes

Pass by reference

- swaps addresses of initial variables
- void swap (int *a, int *b) {
 int tmp = *a;
 *a = *b;
 *b = tmp;
 }

Pointers to pointers

- multiple indirection
- argv[][] == *argv[] == **argv

void pointers

- type signature of the pointer does not specify what it's pointing to
- can recieve/return ptrs of any type
- void *malloc(size_t size);

Function pointers

- refer to 12. string handling
- allows for selection of program behavior

NULL pointers

- pointer to something at address '0'
- \bullet invalid to read or write to that address \therefore god

3 Aggregate Data Structures

enums

- associates name to a value
- maps to an int
- enum day_name { mon, tue, wed, thur, fri, sat, sun } maps to ints 0..7
- can then use sun++;

Structures

- for a collection of data items of different types
- struct <tag> { <member-declarations>
- declare: struct <tag> <identifier-list>;
- access: <identifier>.<element>;
- if a pointer to a struct is used, -> operator is used to get an element in a struct

Source Code Control

Issues

- version control
- managing several versions of a program
- allows you to maintain current version whilst working on the next

Control

- checkin/checkout system
- e.g. svn, git, hg

Mercurial: hg

- distributed
 - 1. make copy of existing repo
 - 2. push changes to others
 - 3. pull changes from others
- hg init: creates repo
- hg diff -r2 -r3: diff b/w revision 2 and 3
- hg revert -r2 code.c: revert file to r2
- hg push/pull/clone <repo>
- repo: another dir/URL to a remote repo

4 make

- program can use many .c, .h files that re- Rules quire compiling
- time consuming to compile lots of files sepa-
- object file: machine language, but not yet linked with other parts of the program
- several .c, .o files can be combined to give an executable program via. linkage
- after changing one .c file, you need to recompile affected file and relink ∴ make is sexy

- prog.o: prog.c prog.h dependencies gcc -c prog.c action
- <target>: name of file to be made
- <1+ dependencies>: files the target file depends on
- <action>: shell cmd that creates target
- default rules are the bomb
- can combine rules when targets have common dependencies and actions
- can create rules without dependences clean:

make variables

- assignments: variable_name = value
- use: \$(variable_name)

Predefined variables

- CC: default C compiler
- CFLAGS: flags passed to the C compiler

Libraries

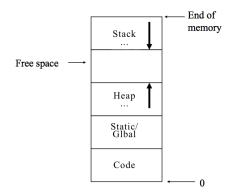
• gives you the ability to store the object code versions of the functions in one place and have

- them linked into your program
- stdlib automatically searched when prog is linked
- $\bullet\,$ use functions from other libraries using ${\tt -l}$ flag when linking
- the C compiler will search for the library in standard directories: /lib, /usr/lib
- create own library using ar, which makes library mylib.a and will contain specified .o files

ar c mylib.a readit.o util.o

• can then use created library when compiling gcc myprog.o mylib.a -o myprog

5 Memory Management



Memory areas

- ullet code: program instructions
- global/static: global/static variables
- stack: local variables, function arguments, return addresses, temporary storage
- heap: dynamically allocated memory

Stack

- all variables local to a function and function args stored on the stack
- to call func:
 - 1. push args to stack
 - $2.\,$ push return address to stack
 - 3. jump to function code
- inside function:
 - 1. increment the stack pointer to allow space for the local variables
 - 2. execute the code
 - 3. pop local variables and arguments off the stack
 - 4. push the return result onto the stack
 - 5. jump to return address

Heap

- accessed under direct control
- request allocation, if there is sufficient contiguous memory available, a pointer is re-

turned to the address of the stage of that memory block

Memory allocation functions

- returns a pointer to void
- pointer must be cast to a specific type

malloc

- void *malloc(size_t size)
- requests number of bytes of memory

calloc

- void *calloc(size_t num, size_t size)
- requests number of blocks of memory, and the size of each block
- allocated memory is cleared i.e. set to '0'

realloc

- void *realloc(void *ptr, size_t size)
- takes previously allocated memory, and attempts to resize it
- contents are preserved
- may require new block of memory (for contiguous-ness) : new void pointer is returned

free

- void free(void *ptr)
- deallocates memory previously allocated
- valgrind: check for leaks

to make program happy

- check memory allocation for success (NULL pointer is returned if unsuccessful)
- don't free memory that has already been freed or was never allocated

5 Preprocessor

- into every file
- useful for externs, tyedefs, struct definitions

- #ifdef, #ifndef, #undef
- #if, #elif, #else, #end

Defined symbols

- replace identifier with string, everywhere it appears in the program
- can be any string of characters, : should bracket arithmetic expressions

Predefined symbols

- __LINE__: current line number at any point
- __FILE__: name of current program file

Macros

• define min(a,b) ((a) < (b) ? (a) : (b))

Preprocessor ninjaness

- gcc -E runs only preprocessor
- exploit #define call by name, and #ifdef etc. for conditional generation of hacky templates

Unions and Bitfields 6

Unions

- variables that occupy the same space
- union { struct { /* struct guts */ } type_one; struct { /* struct guts */ } type_two; } info;
- access elements: union_name.part_name
- don't know which variant of the union is being used, : need to use a separate variable to indicate this
- struct catalog x; switch (x.holding_type) { case book: <do stuff> break; case film: <do stuff> break; }

Bitfields

- can specify the size of bits for each element in a structure
- size placed after field name, with a colon
- struct IOdev { unsigned RW: 1; unsigned Dirn: 8; unsigned mode: 3; unsigned pad: 4;
- may not be portable:
 - depends on compiler whether structs are padded
 - endianness: whether fields are stored MSB or LSB
- unpack bitfields from data:
 - don't need C bitfield syntax
 - shift << >> and logical operators & \sim \wedge 1 $- R_W = x >> 15;$ - Dirn = (x >>7) & 0xFF;

Linked Lists

Internals

- terminated by the NULL pointer
- have pointer to the first element
- don't lose your nodes, that'd be awkward

Characteristics

- altering nth element:
 - array: O(1)
 - linked list: O(n)

7 Parallelism

Origin

- require continuous/reasonable performance improvements to support growing architecture
- portability, malleability, maintaining

Moore's Law

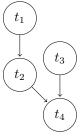
- number of transistors that can be placed on a circuit is doubling approximately every 2 years
- bottlenecks: power density, wire delays, DRAM access latency

Hardware/software development

- historically, transistors used to boost performance
- now, more cores per chip, ∴ more, not faster processors
- can't find solution to obtain substantial performance improvement of single core CPUs
- require new parallel architecture

Task parallelism

- processing the task in parallel
- dependencies between tasks some must be processed before other tasks can occur
- task dependency graph e.g. directed acrylic graph (DAG)



Data parallelism

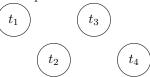
- parallel work on the data of a task
- i.e. performing the same task to different data items at the same time

Task

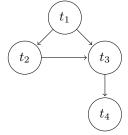
- computation that consists of a sequence of instructions
- a distinct part of programs/algorithms, as they can be decomposed into tasks

Dependencies

- execution order between 2 tasks
- ullet no dependencies = maximum parallelism



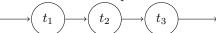
• dependencies



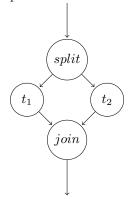
- impose partial ordering on tasks
- dependency is transitive
 - if $Ta \rightarrow Tb$ and $Tb \rightarrow Tc$, then $Ta \rightarrow Tc$

Stream programs

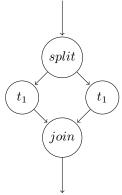
- some programs work on streams of data (audio, video etc.)
- used for regular, repeating computations
- pipeline parallelism:
 - pipeline: sequence of actors
 - reads input from upstream data channel, outputs to downstream channel
 - producer-consumer relationship (have dependencies)
 - stateful actors can be parallelised



- task parallelism:
 - between actors without producerconsumer relationship (no dependencies)
 - parallel execution of different tasks



- stream parallelism:
 - for stateless actors (don't remember information between executions)
 - parallel execution of the same task on different data items



Implicit parallelism

- automatic, done by compiler
- speed up is limited

Explicit parallelism

- done by programmer, but they need to understand the program
- decompose it into tasks
- understand hardware to get decomposition that will fit it
- take care of communication/coordination between tasks

Notes

- loops executing in parallel need their own loop index
- SIMD vectorisation (SSE)
- scalar register a register of a conventional CPU that can only hold one data item at a time
- vector processors have large registers that can hold multiple values of the same data type
- SSE can apply an operation to all elements of a vector at once

POSIX Pthreads

- <pthread.h>
- compile: -lpthread
- pthread_t thread_a
- pthread_join(): waits for created threads to terminate, main function is blocked
- pthread_create()

- at any one time, more than one thread is being executed

Shared address space

• a global passed to thread, is visible in both

Execution indetermination

- no assumptions about execution order can be made about threads executing in parallel
- enforce order via. synchronisation

- function/lib routine/system call is thread safe if it can be called from several threads simultaneously and produce correct results
- printf() is safe as output happens atomi-
- serialises output

Thread-safe routine

OS schedules threads

- uniprocessor: threads share single processor that will interleave execution of threads
 - illusion that threads are executing in parallel
- multicore processor: true parallelism
 - if num threads ; num cores, OS will multiplex between threads

Thread creation arguments

- thread ID: variable used to refer back to created thread
- thread attributes: NULL is default
- function: function that thread will execute once created
- args: get passed to function at run-time
- threads are peers, may create other threads, no assumption on execution order

Thread termination arguments

- thread ID: for thread parent is waiting for
- completion status: gets copied unless NULL, where it is ignored
- once joined, thread ID invalid, as thread no longer exists

Passing arguments to thread

• same thread function used for each thread between the different threads

- 1+ arguments: structs! then pass a pointer to struct the struct variable
- pthread_create(&thread_ID, NULL, &func, (void*)&multi_arg_struct)

Thread termination

- Ways thread can be terminated:
 - thread returns from start routine
 - thread calls pthread_exit()

- thread cancelled by another thread
- when thread destroyed, resources unavailable
- then you gotsta free()
- close files opened by threads
- when main() terminates, so do all threads
- pthread_exit() can be used to pass on exit status to any thread that will join the existing thread
- value of exit status meant be (void *)

8 Synchronisation

Mutual exclusion

- serialises access: only one thread must be in the critical section at any time
- race conditions due to interleaved execution of process access to critical section would result in incorrect results

Race conditions

- multiple threads read and write a shared data item, and the final result depends on the relative timing of their execution
- shared resource
- critical section: 2+ code parts that access and manipulate shared data
- prevents mutual exclusion

Mutexes

- pthread_mutex_t lock = PTHREAD_MUTEX_INITIALISER
- synchronise access to shared global variables
- entering critical zone: lock mutex pthread_mutex_lock(&lock);
- leaving critical: unlock mutex
- initial state: mutex free/unlocked
- calling lock() means thread acquires lock
- while mutex is locked, other threads calling lock() are blocked
- ullet blocked threads sit in a queue
- trylock() doesn't block threads in a queue if lock isn't free, it'll return immediately
- use return value of trylock() distinguishes between the 2 locks

Dynamic creation of mutex

- create mutex at runtime
- pthread_mutex_init(): initialise mutex
- pthread_mutex_destroy(): atomic bomb
- free(lock)

Monitors

- encapsulates access to shared data structures
- hides counter variable from direct access
- only way to access counter is via. function, which already has counter in a mutex
- access via function call is less efficient

Serialisation

- threads execute critical section one after the other
- place computations that don't access shared data outside of critical

Deadlocks

- involves 1+ threads and 1+ resources, such that each thread is waiting for one of the resources, but all resources already held
- self-deadlock: thread attempts to acquire a mutex it already possesses
- ABBA deadlock: $A\rightarrow B$, $B\rightarrow A$ 2 threads attempt to acquire each other's mutexes
- prevent by obtaining multiple mutexes in the same order, unlock operation is immaterial
- conditions necessary for deadlock:
 - 1. mutual exclusion: a resource can be assigned to at most one thread
 - 2. hold and wait: threads both hold resources and request other resources
 - 3. no preemption: a resource can only be released by the thread that holds it
 - 4. circular wait: a cycle exists in which each thread waits for a resource that is assigned to another thread

Lock contention

- lock in use, but another thread tries to use it
- highly contended lock limits parallelism
- bottleneck due to serialised activity
- limits scalability (measure of how well a system can be expanded)

Lock granularity

- coarse, medium, fine
- describes amount of data that a lock protects
- \bullet coarse \to fine, if lock contention becomes a problem
- locking/unlocking adds overhead

Barriers

- synchronising point at which a certain number of threads must arrive
- pthread_barrier_t
- participating threads call pthread_barrier_wait: all threads block until specified number of threads have called it
- pthread_barrier_init(&barrier, NULL, 3)

Semaphores

- non-negative integer synchronisation vari-
- works for mutual exclusion and thread synchronisation
- #include <semaphore.h>
- P(s): thread must wait until s ; 0, then sand allowed to continue execution
- V(s): increment s
- binary semaphores:
 - sem_init(&s, 0, 1): 0 = unlocked
 - initialised at 1 initially
 - behaves like mutex
 - sem_wait(&s) <critical> sem_post(&s)
- counting semaphore:
 - initialised at N ; 1
 - allows N threads into critical

Condition variables

- "spinning": consumes CPU cycles while it circles through loop waiting for something to happen
- waiting: pthread_cond_wait(condition, mutex)

- blocks thread until signal recieved
- must be called while mutex locked
- releases mutex while it waits, once condition signalled, the mutex is locked
- signalling: pthread_cond_signal(condition)
 - wake up at least 1 thread
 - must be called after mutex locked, and unlock mutex aftwards
 - pthread_cond_broadcast(condition): wakes all threads blocked at condition (bottleneck if there is contention for resources)

Critique of lock synchronisation

- locks don't compose
- tedious for large systems
- while holding locks, problematic to make calls to unknown code, as called code might acquire locks also

Monitors vs. (semaphores/mutexes)

- semaphore/mutex use voluntary, : can forget to use the s/m associated with a shared data item and introduce a race condition
- deadlock: violation of locking hierarchy
- monitor = shared data + mutual exclusion/sync. mechanism
- safer and more flexible
- assumed behaviour: only one thread can access shared data at any one time
- slightly more inefficient

Problems with thread synchronisation

- deadlocks
- livelocks: two or more threads are busy synchronising and don't make progress
- starvation: one thread never allowed into critical section, : require fairness property to ensure every thread can make progress

Performance 9

Limits to performance scalability

- programs have parallel and sequential parts
- sequential: have data dependencies

Amdahl's law

- potential speedup defined by the fraction of the code that can be parallelised
- $speedup = \frac{oldrunningtime}{newrunningtime} = \frac{1}{(1-p) + \frac{p}{n}}$

- sequential part limits scalability
- p: fraction of work that can be parallelised
- n: num threads
- n: num threads if $n \to \infty$, speedup = $\frac{1}{1-p}$
- p = 0, embarrassingly sequential
- p = 1, embarrassingly parallel

Performance scalability

• linear speedup

- not always achievable due to overhead etc.
- $efficiency = \frac{speedup}{}$
- e = 1, linear speedup
- e ; 1, super linear speedup (possible due to registers and cache)

Load balancing

- granularity of parallelism = frequency of interaction between threads
- high communication/synchronisation overhead: less opportunity for performance improvement
- coarse: low communication/synchronisation overheard, harder to load balance effectively
- threads that finish early have to wait for the thread with the largest amount of work to complete
- idle times lower process utilisation
- load imbalance: work unevenly assignment to cores, underutilises parallelism
- assignment of work, not data
- static assignment: more prone to imbalance
- dynamic: quantum of work must be large enough to amortise overhead, allows for solving of load imbalance

Measuring performance

- wallclock time
- time: real (elasped), user (time executed in user mode), sys (time executed in kernel
- gettimeofday(): measure wallclock time for specific parts of the program

False sharing

- private sum variable \neq private cache line
- force into different cache lines using padded variables

Profiling

- program instrumentation and execution
- CPU provides performance counters to measure various elements
- Heisenberg effect: measuring can perturb a program's execution time

Source of performance loss

- overhead: communication, synchronisation, computation, memory
- non-parallelisable computation
- idle times: lack of work, waiting for external event, load imbalance, memory bound com-
- contention for resources

Performance trade-offs

- communication vs. computation: often possible to reduce communication overhead by performing additional computations
- memory vs. parallelism: increase parallelism can often be increased at cost of increased memory usage (privatisation, padding)
- overhead vs. parallelism: parallelisation overhead, load balance vs. overhead, granularity trade-offs

9 Scalable algorithms

Recursion

• procedure calls itself to solve a simpler version of problem, terminates at base case

Divide and conquer

- break problem down into subsections, solve solution to the original problem
- mergesort

recursively, and combine solutions to create

• generate until hard coded number of threads, then continues recursively

reduction of shallow tree contains less com-

putations, not much faster than sequential

• more efficient than unlimited, doesn't scale

Reduction

- Schwartz algorithm: scalable
- reduces a collection of data items to a single, by repeatedly combining the data items pairwise with a binary operator
- op usually associative and commutative

Scalable parallelisation

• reduction ops: + *

Fixed parallelisation

- switch to sequential depending on number of cores
- most efficient
- scales to higher number of cores

• deeper trees = more speed-ups

• algorithms harder to program for

Unlimited parallelisation

- generate threads with each dividing step
- highest amount of logical parallelism
- bad nearer base case

10 Pipes and signals

Process communication

- exec: start process
- fork \rightarrow exec: processes operating in parallel
- pipes and signals: communication

File descriptors

- small integers
- low level I/O to operate on these
- 0: std in
- 1: std out
- 2: std error

Pipe

- int pipe(int filedes[2])
 - 2 elem array of integers
 - 0: writing
 - 1: reading
- pipe returns 0 (success), -1 (failure)
- parent to child communication by creating a pipe before fork
- small buffer: when filled the writer is suspended until more data has been read

Signals

- interprocess communication
- form of software interrupt, can be generated by OS
- exec interrupted, function call made to user specified function; exec resumes when function returns

Kill

- send signal to process from cmd line
- some signals can be caught and handled, but some can't (SIGKILL)
- kill -9 12345

Catching signals

- catch by specifying function to be called once signal is recieved
- signal(signame, ptr to func)
- returns a ptr to function that previously caught the signal

10 Processes

Process initiation

- functions that involve system calls
- set of these functions let you initiate and manage the running of other processes
- shell uses these to start programs corresponding to cmd given
- starting another process: execl, execv etc.
- after process is started, the main function is called
- exec: switches program execution to another
 - program terminated and main function of other program is called
 - no return: exec successful
 - -ve return: program not found
 - 0+ return: exec function failed

Parallel execution

- exec is like a GOTO: jumps to other program and doesn't return
- forking allows for execution of another program while still continuing execution of cur-

rent

- fork: creates child process that is a copy of the memory image of a parent
- return value of fork function is different for parent and child, by checking this value, running program can determine its identity
 - 0: child
 - PID of child: parent
 - -1: in parent process if fork fails
- parent can ignore or wait for child to exit

wait

- parent can wait until child exists and get the exact value
- waits for a child process to exit
 int s = <num>;
 wait(&s);
- $\bullet\,$ returns the PID of child process
- exit value can be extracted from status value s, other info in value indicates if child failed or was terminated
- waitpid(): waits for specific process to exit