

Java: Using Threads and Synchronizers

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Outline

Understanding how to use threads and, in the Java scenario, what high-level mechanisms help support their synchronization and coordination

- Java Threads and JVM Runtime Data Areas (RDA)
- Tasks vs Threads
- The Executor framework and thread pooling
- Java synchronizers and thread-safe Data Structures
- Java Memory Consistency Model

Language-level Threading

Defining Threads in a Program

Defining a thread means:

- constructing all the supporting data structures, possibly specifying through them the thread characteristics.
- providing the relative management actions.

All this, in Java, is done making use of the class `Thread`.

Thread body: sequence of instructions.

How to define it? Natural choice: via a function/method body.

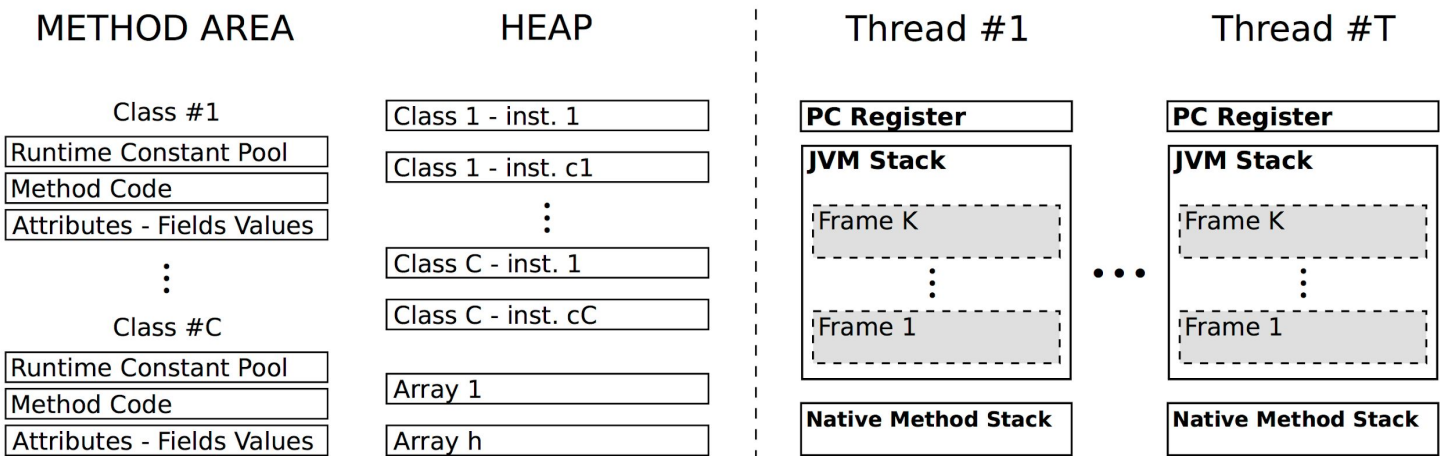
The body of a Java thread corresponds to a *dedicated method*.

JVM Runtime Data Area

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JVM RDA (Runtime Data Areas)

3 distinct parts to host: Bytecode, Objects, and Stacks for Threads



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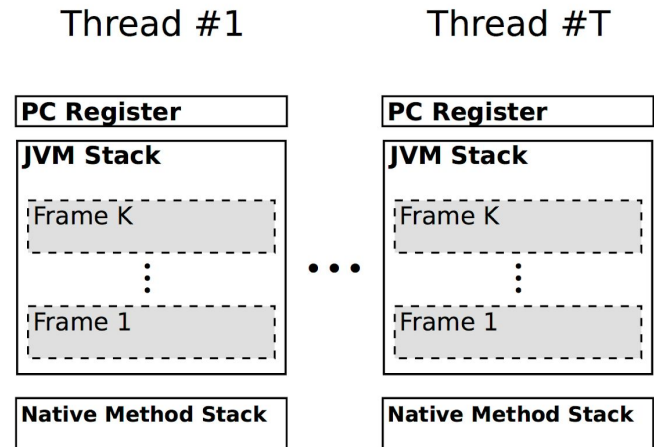
Stack Area

Each Thread has its own stack. Any function call is managed using a Frame in the pertinent stack.

Each frame contains:

- an array of local variables
- its operand stack
(the JVM is a stack machine!)
- a ref to its runtime const pool

Native methods are supported by “C stacks.”



Basic Thread Handling in Java

Thread Creation and Running

This topic has been already presented in other courses.

Two basic ways:

- **Extension of class Thread** - a.k.a. “Threading by subclassing.”
Problem: no possibility to extend any other class.
- **Use of a Runnable instance in the constructor of Thread** -
a more flexible mechanism.

This is a “functional” interface,
i.e. with only one abstract method

Explicit thread spawning:

“unblocking” instance method `mythread.start()`

Thread Definition by Runnable

The Runnable object can be defined either via a class that implements Runnable, or via an anonymous class, or via a 0-parameter lambda.

For example:

```
Runnable mytask = () -> {
    String myName = Thread.currentThread().getName();
    System.out.println("This is " + myName);
};

mytask.run(); //the run method can be either invoked...
// ... or used as the body of a thread
Thread myThread = new Thread(mytask);
myThread.start();
```

Ordinary
method call

Thread
spawning

Thread Termination

Some early methods *deprecated* due to related problems:

`stop()` - A stopped thread releases all the locked monitors,
so it may lead to *state inconsistencies*

`suspend()/resume()` - Deadlock-prone: a thread may suspend
in a critical section, and another thread able to resume it
cannot access the code to do it.

Solution: *cooperative mechanism* based on *inter-thread interruption*
where one thread asks another to stop.

Inter-Thread Interruption

Each Thread holds an “interrupted” flag to be possibly set
by another thread, by invoking the `interrupt()` method on it.

A Thread can check its own interrupted flag via the static method
`Thread.interrupted()`, which *clears the flag as well*.

The flag of any thread can be checked via the instance method
`isInterrupted()`, which does not modify the flag value.



Typically, a thread that becomes aware of being interrupted
is programmed to perform cleanup actions and terminate.

Interruption and Locking

What if an inter-thread interruption is performed to a *blocked* thread? It depends...

- If it is blocked on an explicit waiting operation, an `InterruptedException` awakes the target thread (and clears the flag).
- If it is blocked on accessing a lock/monitor, it is not awoken; with explicit locks, `lockInterruptibly()` can also be used.

Dealing with `InterruptedException`

It is particularly important to provide the proper handling of interrupt exceptions.

Guidelines: apart possible cleanup actions, we should either:

- re-throw the exception, after a possible re-wrapping,
- or restore the interrupted flag by invoking `Thread.currentThread().interrupt()`, so to keep memory of the occurrence of the interruption event.

Thread Pooling and the Executor Framework

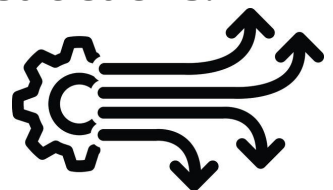
Task vs Thread, i.e. *What vs How*

“**Thread**”: a sequence of instructions that can be executed independently of others in the same program, typically under the control of a scheduler.

Prime concern in concurrent programs: identification of actions/jobs to be carried out, *regardless of the way they will be executed*.

In this cases, the term “**task**” is used for the relative instructions.

Example: in a server, requests have to trigger *tasks*; such tasks *could* be executed using multithreading.



Separating Definition and Execution

A **task** can be defined via a `Runnable` class, in the `run()` method.

The task execution could be done in many different ways;

A general solution asks for *developing classes aimed at this*.

Such classes must implement at least the following interface:

```
public interface Executor {
    void execute(Runnable command);
}
```

This, as most of classes/interfaces for concurrent programming, is in `java.util.concurrent` packages

Use of an Executor Class

In a program, specific executor classes can be first defined and then instantiated.

A task can be executed by means of them.

Interface

Concrete class

```
Executor myExecutor = new MyCustomExecutor();
myExecutor.execute(new RunnableTask1());
myExecutor.execute(new RunnableTask2());
```

Two Trivial Examples

A task can be executed as part of the same thread that asks its execution...

```
class DirectExecutor implements Executor {
    public void execute(Runnable mytask) {
        mytask.run();
    }
}
```

Or we can spawn a brand new thread to execute one task!

```
class ThreadPerTaskExecutor implements Executor {
    public void execute(Runnable mytask) {
        new Thread(mytask).start();
    }
}
```

Of course, none of these looks to be a brilliant solution.

Performance Penalties: Common Causes

Penalties come from wasting time in *management* actions, which can be seen as *overhead* in our program. Possible causes:

- **Context switches** - not only they take time, but they also determine cache flushes that slow down the subsequent execution.
- **Lock contention** - determines task serialization (no parallelism), hampering scalability: thread waiting time should be reduced.
- **Memory Synch** - many threads may need to see last updates.

Some unnecessary synch can be removed by the JVM (*lock elision*)

```
synchronized (new Object()) {
    foo();
}
```

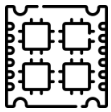


or upon static escape analysis to spot out thread-local objects.

Towards Thread Pooling

Thread creation/disposal determines computational overhead.

It is not reasonable to allow an unbounded amount of threads to execute at the same time a large number of tasks, because:



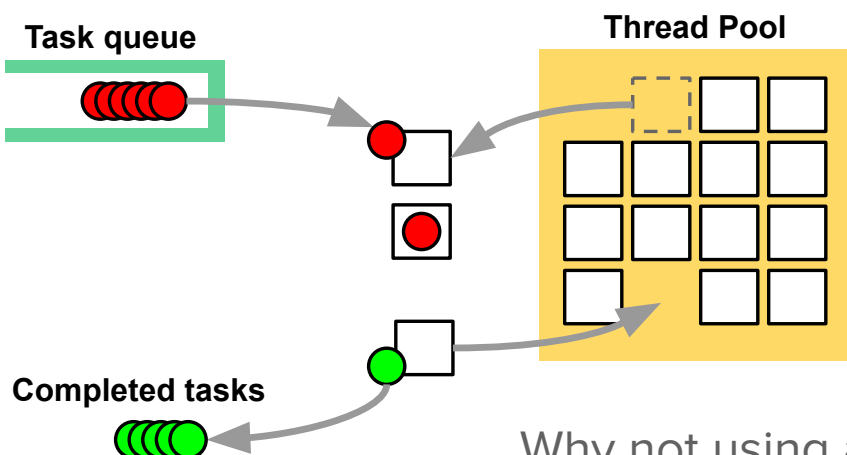
- the number of CPUs/cores is limited
- memory is a limited resource!

This kind of problems usually affect *server* software.

Idea: Keep some threads ready to execute upcoming tasks and, upon completion of each execution, make the thread available again for another task.

Thread Pooling

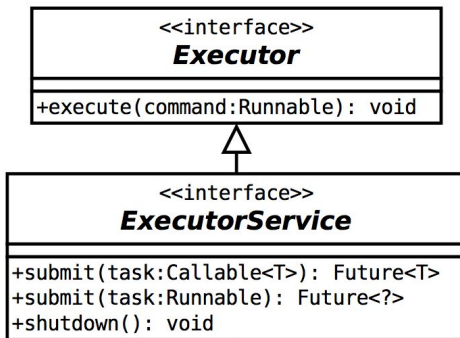
One of the most popular design pattern for multithreaded software.



The pool size can be either static or dynamic, and different policies can be devised for the size update.

Why not using an Executor for this?

Executor Interfaces



Executor: only support for the execution of a task

ExecutorService: support for managing the lifecycle of both the task and the executor

ScheduledExecutorService: support to timed/periodic execution of tasks.

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Separating Submission and Execution

Executors can be designed to *implement an execution policy*, so it is important to tell apart task submission and execution. This is the rationale behind methods in `ExecutorService`.

Executors are a means to separate task *submission* and *execution*.

The management of executions can be more complex than expected, as some additional aspects must be considered:

- A task result may need to be explicitly managed;
- Synchronization for getting the result may be required.

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Tasks: Beyond Runnable

Whenever a result for a task has to be managed, the task must be implemented according to the `Callable` interface:

```
public interface Callable<V> {  
    (V) call() throws Exception;  
}
```

How to retrieve the returned value? This is not a plain invocation!

The solution is in the way the task is submitted: `submit()` returns back a **Future<V>**, which in turn will include the result as it will be computed by the task (and accessible via `get()`).

Futures and Promises

A **future** is a general thread-safe construct adopted in concurrent languages, referring *a proxy for a result computed asynchronously*. The value for a future is allowed to be written only once.

Sometimes the function in charge of setting the value for a future is named **promise**.

Different possible promises may set the value of a given future, though this can be done only once for a given future.

Java Futures

The behavior of a “future” is described by the relative interface:

```
public interface Future<V> {  
    boolean isDone();  
    V get(); //also a timed version exists  
    boolean cancel(boolean m);  
    boolean isCancelled();  
}
```

It is possible to check if a result is ready (isDone()), retrieve it (get()), try to cancel a task execution, check if a task has been cancelled.

Off-the-shelf ExecutorServices

`java.util.concurrent.Executors` has factory methods to create instances of executors with pooled threads, e.g.:

`newFixedThreadPool(int n)` creates a pool of `n` threads, with fixed size

`newCachedThreadPool()` provides a thread pool that creates new threads as needed, but will reuse previously constructed threads when they are available

`newWorkStealingPool(int parallelism)` creates a pool with dynamically managed threads, able to handle the specified level of parallelism; the task execution order does not necessarily reflect the order of submission.

ScheduledExecutorService

Interface for an `ExecutorService` that can schedule commands to run after a given delay, or to execute periodically.

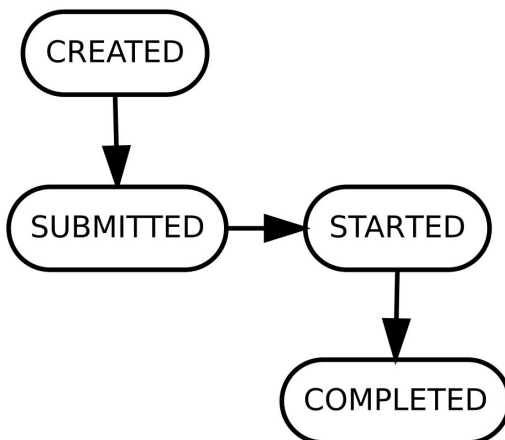
Scheduling options: see API documentation



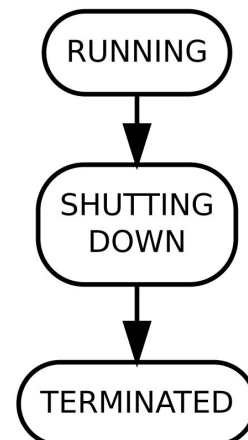
Standard implementation returned by factory method in “Executors”:

`newScheduledThreadPool(int n)` creates a pool of `n` threads, to be scheduled (often used with `n=1`)

Lifecycle of Tasks and ExecutorService



Lifecycle of a Task



**Lifecycle
of an `ExecutorService`**

Stopping Executors



If we want to shut down an executor, we need to take care:
the relative threads *might possibly be still running at that time*.

Distinct operations, as methods of `ExecutorService`:

- `shutdown()` starts the shutdown procedure; previously submitted tasks are completed, and no new task will be accepted.
- `shutdownNow()` - only *currently executing* tasks are completed.
- Check state by using `isShutdown()`;
`isTerminated()` checks if all tasks have been terminated.
- Methods above are not-blocking;
to wait for completion of all tasks, call `awaitTermination()`

Java Synchronizers

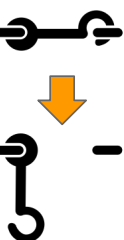
Synchronizers in Java

Cooperation across threads often requires specific synchronization actions, to be performed according to a given pattern.

A construct designed to address a specific synchronization pattern is called “Synchronizer,” and it coordinates control flow of threads based on its internal state.

Java provides several classes for common special-purpose synchronization. Among them:

Latches, Barriers, Semaphores, Exchangers

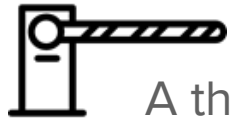
 A **latch** is aimed at making a group of threads wait *until it reaches its terminal state*: → all threads pass through. An instance of a latch can be used only once.

In Java, the `CountDownLatch` class is present: the constructor takes a positive integer to initialize the state (“count” var).

State: updated by `countDown()` (count--); read by `getCount()`

A thread waits until the release point in time by invoking `await()` - a timed version is available as well.

Barriers



A **barrier** makes a group of threads meet at a barrier point.

A thread that gets to the barrier waits for all the others to come.
As the last thread arrives, all threads are released to proceed.

The reference Java implementation is `CyclicBarrier`.

A `CyclicBarrier` object can be reused
upon invoking `reset()` on it.

A thread waits until the release point in time by invoking `await()`
- a timed version is available as well.

An optional “barrier action” can be specified as well.

Phasers

A **phaser** is a more sophisticated version of a barrier/latch.

It is a reusable synchronizer.

Differently from `CyclicBarrier`, the number of parties can change
over time: it is designed to operate in successive phases.

For details, refer to the API documentation.

Semaphores



A **semaphore** is aimed to *control the number of accesses* to a resource. It thus supports a generalization of mutual exclusion.

In Java, the `Semaphore` class implements this synchronizer.

The number of accesses is controlled by using **permits**;
the maximum number of available permits is set at initialization time.

`acquire()` is used to get a permit; if it is not available, it blocks.

`release()` is used to give a permit back to the semaphore.

The corresponding classical names are `P()`/`V()` or `down()`/`up()`

Exchangers

An exchanger is aimed at making two threads wait for each other at a synchronization point, and swap objects.

In Java, it is implemented by the `Exchanger<V>` class.

`V` is the type of the object to be exchanged.

Example of code for an exchange operation:

```
myBuffer = exchanger.exchange(myBuffer);
```

Thread-safe Data Structures

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“Synchronized” Collections

A first, trivial attempt to define a thread-safe collection is to make its methods “synchronized.” This can be done in a systematic way by using the Decorator pattern.

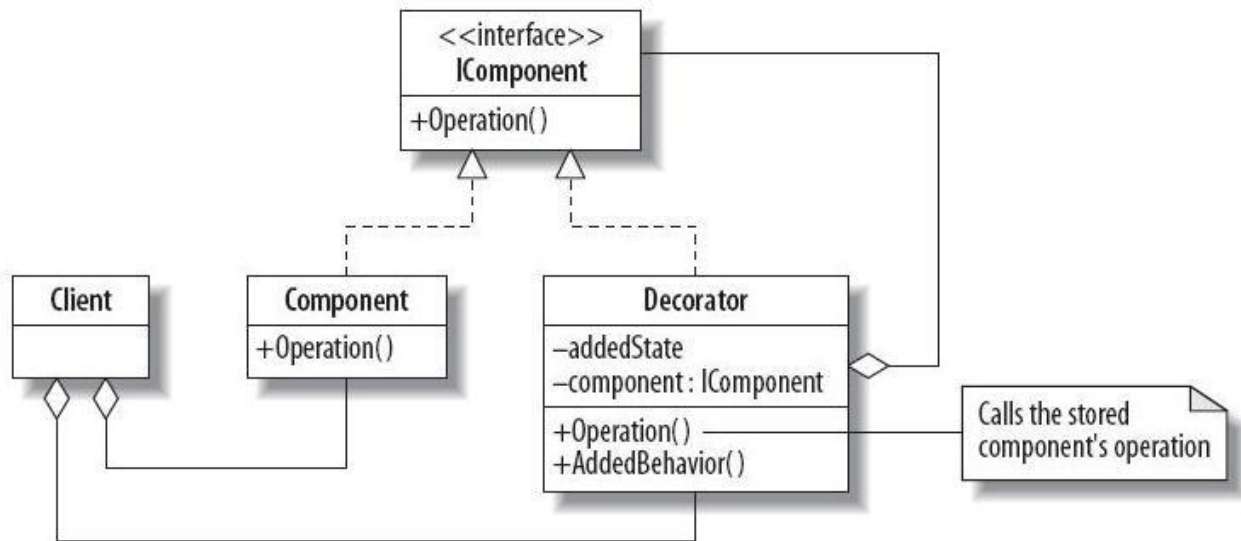
A standard way to decorate an ordinary collection can let us obtain *a corresponding thread-safe version*.



Methods like `isEmpty()` or `size()` are not really meaningful in a concurrent setting, as the returned value might not be necessarily accurate just at the subsequent operation.

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The Decorator Pattern



Getting a Synchronized Collection

Specific static factory methods in class `java.util.Collections` of the form `.synchronizedXXX(XXX<T> ds)` return synchronized versions of the plain data structure `ds`.

`XXX` stands for the interface `Collection`, or for `List`, `Map`, etc..



Iteration on synchronized collections needs explicit synchronization *on the whole data structure*, e.g.

```

Collection<T> c = Collections.synchronizedCollection(myCol);
synchronized(c) {
    for (T item : c) foo(item);
}
    
```

Addressing Performance

A “synchronized” collection shows poor performance *under high contention*.

Main reason: coarse-grained synchronization level.

Solution:

reduction of synchronization overhead, applying *any possible trick*.

“Concurrent” versions of “Synchronized” collections have been developed: e.g.,

ConcurrentHashMap is an improvement of SynchronizedMap

ConcurrentHashMap

It implements the `ConcurrentMap<K, V>` interface, which includes also atomic read+write operations, e.g.:

`boolean replace(K key, V oldValue, V newValue)`
- equivalent to the atomic execution of

```
if (map.containsKey(key) && Objects.equals(map.get(key), oldValue)) {  
    map.put(key, newValue);  
    return true;  
} else return false;
```

Null-safe equals,
since Java 1.7

Iteration over Concurrent Collections

Iterating over a concurrent collection is risky:
other threads may access the data structure at the same time!

The same problems arise with “for-each” loops,
which are compiled to the corresponding iterator-based form.

It is necessary *specifying new semantics for a concurrent iterator*,
so to fully describe its behavior in case of possible interferences.

Fail-fast Iterators

Provided by most of non-concurrent collections.

Used to traverse the *actual* collection:
no modification to the collection is allowed.

As soon as a modification is detected (on a best effort basis),
`ConcurrentModificationException` is thrown.

Modifications are detected by inspecting specific counters.

Note: it is safe to remove an element via the `remove()` method
of the iterator - not the `remove()` of the collection!

Weakly-consistent Iterators

Called also “fail safe.” Provided by most of concurrent collections.

According to the official docs, such iterators:

- may proceed concurrently with other operations
- will never throw `ConcurrentModificationException`
- are guaranteed to traverse elements as they existed upon construction exactly once, and may (but are not guaranteed to) reflect any modifications subsequent to construction.

Snapshot Iterators

Used with copy-on-write collections like `CopyOnWriteArrayList`.

The iterator provides a snapshot of the state of the collection when the iterator was constructed.

No synchronization is needed while traversing the iterator.

The iterator does NOT support the `remove()` method.

In such collections, all “mutative operations” are implemented by making a fresh copy of the underlying data structure, i.e. *Copy-On-Write*.



Blocking Queues

High-performance, thread-safe version of *bounded buffer*, designed according to the `BlockingQueue<E>` interface.

Methods are present to support insertion, extraction, and inspection in different fashions (blocking, throwing exceptions, polled, timed): see API documentation.

Blocking queues support the producers/consumers pattern.

Blocking queues make resource management more reliable.

Impl. of the classic bounded buffer: `ArrayBlockingQueue<E>`

Memory Consistency Rules (... for Java)

Example: Lazy Singleton Initialization

A popular design pattern to have one single instance of a class.

A static factory method has to return the single instance, which is usually setup with *lazy initialization*.

The solution aside **is not suited to a multithreaded setting!**

```
class SingletonPlace { //Single-threaded version
    private static Helper ref;
    public static Helper getUniqueInstance() {
        if (ref == null) { //lazy initialization
            ref = new Helper();
        }
        return ref;
    }
    // other functions and members...
}
```

Singleton: Double-Checked Locking!

Idea: let's try to shrink the synchronized portion!

This way, it does not work properly: WHY?

Cause:
Unsafe publication of "ref,"
because of **visibility of memory updates...**

```
class SingletonPlace { //multithreaded version
    private static Helper ref;
    public static Helper getUniqueInstance() {
        if (ref == null) {
            synchronized(this) {
                if (ref == null) {
                    ref = new Helper();
                }
            }
        }
        return ref;
    }
    // other functions and members...
}
```



Correct Double-Checked Locking

We need to get sure the “ref” publication is subsequent to the construction of “Helper.”

Proper *precedence constraints* must be forced.

This has been done by modifying the semantics of “volatile.”

```
class SingletonPlace { //multithreaded version
    private static volatile Helper ref;
    public static Helper getUniqueInstance() {
        if (ref == null) {
            synchronized(this) {
                if (ref == null) {
                    ref = new Helper();
                }
            }
        }
        return ref;
    }
    // other functions and members...
}
```

Behavior of Java Volatile Variables

It has been decided to give *volatile* variables additional properties:

- **Visibility guarantee** - read/writes are directly issued in main memory
- **Happens before guarantees** - to address problems due to reordering of instructions by compiler/CPU, a volatile operation sets a sort of *memory barrier*: with a W_{vol} , no preceding R/W to other vars in the same thread can ever be postponed after it; with a R_{vol} , no subsequent R/W can be executed before it.

In general, it is important to specify how the language constructs behave with regards to memory operations.

(Memory) Consistency Models

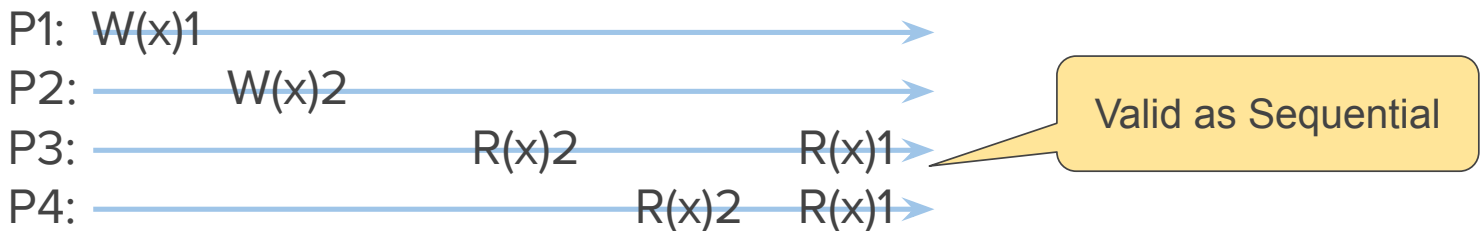
The goal of a memory consistency model is to characterize, with a set of rules, the way operations towards memory locations are visible to processes. Studied for multiprocessors (SMPs).

The consistency model specifies a *contract* between the programmer and the system, so that the programmer can count on some guarantees about the behavior of memory operations.

The less stringent the consistency model is, the easier it will be to implement it in HW (and SW) components, *in a more efficient way*.

Example: Sequential Consistency

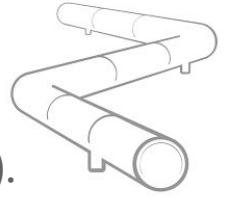
In this model, a write to a variable does not have to be seen instantaneously, but writes to variables by different processes have to be seen *in the same order by all processors*.



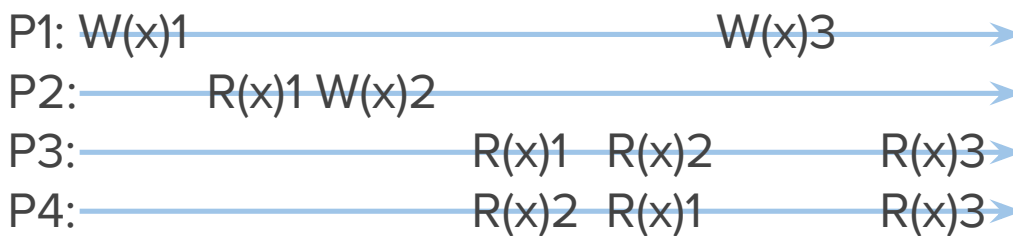
Generalized in a weaker model named “Causal consistency” (only causally-related writes must be seen in the same order by all processes)

Example: PRAM Consistency

All processes see memory writes *from one process* in the order they have been executed by the process (as though they were “moved” to RAM through a pipeline).



No guarantee exists about the order in which different processes see writes from other different process (apart the “pipeline” rule).



Valid as PRAM,
not valid as Causal

Java Memory Model (I)

Describes legal behaviours in a multi-threaded Java code with respect to the shared memory.

JSR-133 substituted (in 2005) the previous flawed model.

Requirements for the JMM:

- Making common optimizations possible.
- If a program is correctly synchronized, then all its executions will appear to be sequentially consistent.

Related subtleties not easy to be fully understood.

Java Memory Model (II)

Basic idea: formally describing the precedence constraints (“happens before”) to be guaranteed in a valid execution, considering the Java constructs involved with synchronization.

In practice, this leads to the definition of rules; any JVM implementation (+ compiler) must comply with these rules. I.e., JMM implicitly specifies the set of all admissible executions; a JVM (+ compiler) must support a subset of these, possibly all.

Real-world JVMs sometimes do not strictly observe all limitations.

Java Memory Model - Rules (I)

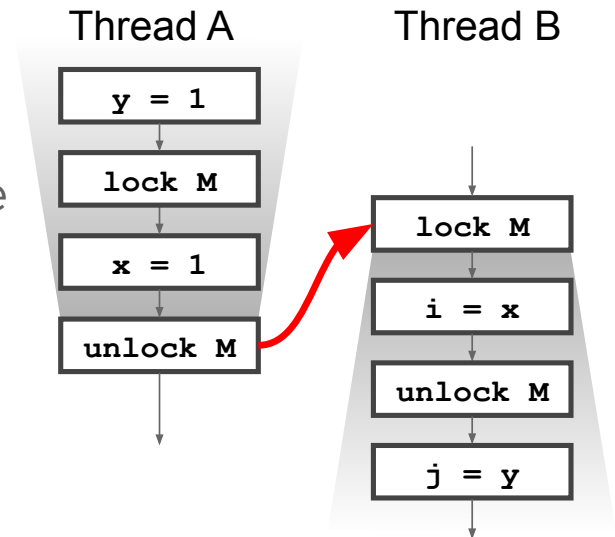
Program order rule - Each action in a thread happens-before every action in that thread that comes later in the program order.

In practice, a *within-thread as-if-serial* semantics is suitable for optimizations/out of order executions: the runtime is free to introduce any useful execution optimizations as long as the result of the thread *in isolation* is guaranteed to be exactly the same as it would have been had all the statements been executed in the order the statements occurred in the program (also called *program order*).

Java Memory Model - Rules (II)

Monitor lock rule - An unlock on a monitor lock happens-before every subsequent lock on that same monitor lock; the same holds for explicit locks.

Volatile variable rule - A write to a volatile field happens-before every subsequent read of that same field; the same memory semantics holds for atomic variables.



Java Memory Model - Rules (III)

Thread start rule - A call to `Thread.start()` on a thread happens-before every action in the started thread.

Thread termination rule - Any action in a thread happens-before any other thread detects that thread has terminated, either by successfully return from `Thread.join()` or by `Thread.isAlive()` returning false.

To deal with *safe publication* issues, the synchronization semantics of `final` has been better defined (see official docs).

Java Memory Model - Rules (IV)

Interruption rule - A thread calling `interrupt()` on another thread happens-before the interrupted thread detects the interrupt (either by having `InterruptedException` thrown, or invoking `isInterrupted()` or `interrupted()`).

Finalizer rule - The end of a constructor for an object happens-before the start of the finalizer for that object.

Transitivity - If A happens-before B, and B happens-before C, then A happens-before C.

Recap: Java Synch Mechanisms

- Volatile variables
- Atomic variables
- Synchronized blocks (implicit locking/monitor)
- Explicit locks
- Concurrent collections

Not covered in these slides;
Please check [official docs](#).