# CS5300 Assignment 4 Comparing Obstruction-Free and Wait-Free Snapshot Algorithms

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Abstract—This report analyzes C++ implementations of Multi-Reader Multi-Writer (MRMW) obstruction-free and wait-free snapshot objects. In particular, we compare the two implementations with regards to scalability and impact of the update operation on snapshot collection in the average and worst cases. The rest of the report is organized as follows. In section 1, we describe the low-level program design on which experiments are run. In section 2, we compare the performance of both implementations with varying parameters. Finally, we conclude the report in section 3.

### 1 Program Design

We give here an overview of the implementation details of the two programs, one for the obstruction-free snapshot object and one for the wait-free snapshot object.

# 1.1 Stamped Values

Though both implementations use different stamped value types, we use the one described in the wait-free snapshot implementation, which helps in the MRMW implementation of both snapshot objects. The implementation is shown in Code 1.

The stamped value contains the following fields.

- 1) value: This is where the actual value is stored.
- 2) id: This is the ID of the thread that last wrote to this variable.
- 3) stamp: This is the timestamp that is used to determine when the value was written. Notice that since

## Code 1 Implementation of Timestamped Value.

```
template<class T>
2 struct StampedValue {
   T value;
                    // Value stored
   uint16_t stamp; // Timestamp
                   // Thread id
   uint16_t id;
   StampedValue(T val, uint16_t ts = 0,
   uint16_t tid = 0) : value(val),
   stamp(ts), id(tid) {}
   bool operator == (const
   StampedValue<T> stval) const {
     return value == stval.value and
     stamp == stval.stamp and id ==
     stval.id;
12 };
```

we are also storing the thread ID, the stamps may simply be a thread-local sequence number, since the pair (id, stamp) will be unique. This also avoids the use of shared atomic counters among threads, at the cost of smaller storage for the value.

To ensure that this data type can be made atomic, we must ensure its total size is at most 64 bytes, since most architectures have 64-bit registers. In our implementation, T can only be at most 32 bytes. For this application, we set T to be an unsigned 32-bit integer (uint32\_t in C++).

### 1.2 Implementation of Snapshot Algorithms

Both snapshot implementations follow the interface given in Code 2.

### **Code 2** C++ MRMW snapshot object interface.

```
template < class T>
class Snapshot {
public:
    virtual void update(int 1, T v) = 0;
    virtual std::vector < T> snapshot() = 0;
};
```

In C++, atomic data types are not copyable or movable. Thus, we cannot create or create or store a C++ array/vector of atomic objects. Instead, we create a shared array of pointers to these atomic objects, dereferencing them when we need to access the atomic stamped value they are pointing to.

#### 1.3 Threads and Runner Functions

Threads are created using the C++ std::thread class. This makes it convenient to pass thread IDs and references to other objects using std::ref to the thread runner functions. In particular, we pass the following arguments to the runner function.

- 1) Thread ID from 0 to N-1, where N is the number of threads. This is because the std::thread class creates threads with IDs that may not be in this range, as they are only meant to be unique. However, these IDs are only used in logging and not in the snapshot algorithms.
- 2) Reference to the MRMW snapshot object.
- 3) Logging output stream (a reference to a C++ std::stringstream object) to write timing information for further analysis and output.

Threads created using the std::thread class have a thread ID that may not fit into a 16-bit unsigned integer. Therefore, we use std::hash to hash it to this range. This hashed ID is then used in the snapshot algorithms. A limitation of doing this is that the algorithm can work only with upto  $2^{16}$  threads correctly, since after that there will exist two threads that are mapped to the same hashed 16-bit ID.

### 1.4 Timing

The timestamps are reported using the std::chrono library. To prevent zero values, we report times in nanoseconds, which is the smallest available unit of time. However, results in the analysis are suitably scaled and reported in milliseconds where needed.

#### 1.5 Random Number Generation

Random delays for simulating sleep times of update and scan threads are generated using exponential distributions with mean  $\mu_w$  and  $\mu_s$  respectively. This is done using the std::exponential\_distribution class. Further, the locations and 32-bit values for update threads are generated using uniform integer distributions, provided by the std::uniform\_int\_distribution class. The randomness is generated using a Mersenne Twister, instantiated using an std::mt19937 object. This random number generator is seeded using the current time since epoch.

### 2 Results and Analysis

In this section, we analyze the performance of the snapshot algorithms on metrics such as scalability and impact of constant updates on snapshot in the average case and the worst case. This application was run on the CSE servers in IITH.

### 2.1 Scalability

As the number of threads increases, we expect the time taken for the snapshot in either algorithm to increase, since more update threads can move, causing the snapshot algorithm to run for longer. The average case and worst case scalability of the algorithms are given in Figure 1 and Figure 2.

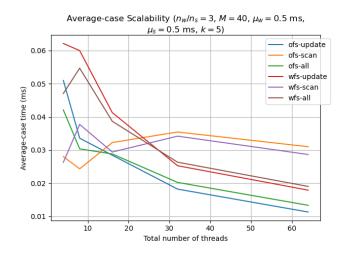


Figure 1. Average case scalability with varying number of threads.

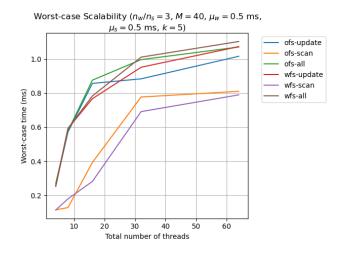


Figure 2. Worst case scalability with varying number of threads.

We observe the following.

- In the average and worst case, the obstruction-free snapshot is faster and more scalable than the waitfree snapshot.
- In the worst case, both snapshot algorithms exhibit a worst-case running time approximately linear with the total number of threads.
- 3) The gap between the times taken for the update and snapshot operation is huge for the obstruction-free snapshot and small for the wait-free snapshot in the average case.
- 4) The reason for poor performance and scalability of the wait-free snapshot is because of the fact that update threads have to perform a snapshot as well to ensure wait-freedom, which is not the case for the obstruction-free snapshot.

# 2.2 Impact of Update on Scan

As the number of update threads per scan thread increases, there are more threads that can obstruct the snapshot operation, thus we should expect the snapshot operation to take longer for a larger  $\frac{n_w}{n_s}$ , the number of update to scan threads. The average and worst case analysis are shown in Figure 3 and Figure 4.

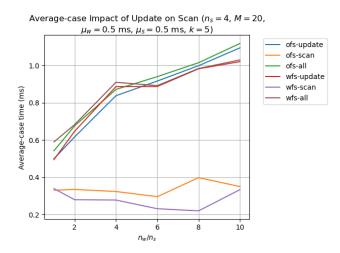


Figure 3. Average case impact of update on snapshot with varying  $\frac{n_w}{n_z}$ .

We observe the following.

- The wait-free scan is only marginally faster than the obstruction-free scan in both the average case and worst case. A reason for that could be the exponential sleep time that prevents the scan from being obstructed.
- In this setting, due to the larger number of update threads, the update threads are the bottleneck for both algorithms.
- 3) Here, the wait-free snapshot performs better with larger number of update threads since there is more

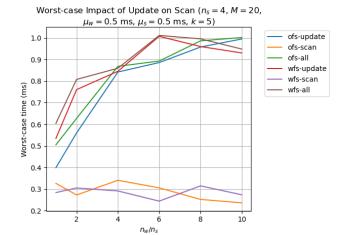


Figure 4. Worst case impact of update on snapshot with varying  $\frac{n_w}{n_0}$ .

chance for update threads to move. This makes the obstruction-free algorithm slower.

### 3 Conclusion

From the analysis, we conclude that even though there are no wait-free guarantees, the obstruction-free snapshot algorithm seems to scale better than the wait-free snapshot algorithm. However, if there is a larger proportion of update threads, then the wait-free snapshot performs better. An analysis with a larger shared array may be required to fully assess the speed of the obstruction-free snapshot algorithm in practice since the runtimes of both algorithms are comparable.