Concurrency

We want a solution that's *more correct* than letting everyone grab out a peach at once, but *more efficient* than having them all line up.

An Introduction

Building on top of previous abstractions, which provided the illusion of multiple *virtual CPUs* and a large and private *virtual memory*, we can have an abstraction for points of execution. Classical programs have just one point of execution, but we could plausibly have multiple. The result *threads*, looks like multiple processes, except that they all share the same address space.

Each thread has a program counter and a private set of registers (so switching threads involves a *context switch*, though we don't have to switch page tables). Each thread has its own stack (so multiple function executions can happen in the address space at once), sometimes called *thead-local storage*.

Why Use Threads?

- Parallelism: it's possible to more effectively use multi-core CPUs
- Avoiding blocking: overlap of IO/blocking activities and other activities becomes possible within one program

The Basic API

On Unix, threads can be created with pthread_create, and pthread_join makes the calling thread wait for another thread to terminate before it proceeds. The order that threads are run is otherwise non-deterministic, governed by some scheduling algorithm. This can lead to data races, where uncontrolled scheduling can produce non-deterministic results when code is run. This basically happens because operations are often not atomic meaning the program can be pre-empted in the middle of their execution, causing the end result to come out different from what's expected.

Mutual Exclusion

To solve this, we need *mutual exclusion*, to ensure that only one point of execution passes through certain *critical sections* at a time. One approach would be to have more sophisticated instructions, like memory-add that are processed atomically, but this breaks down first because we would have to have tons of them, and second because we'd end up with the same problem composing these operations.

Instead, we build a set of *synchronization primatives* in hardware which allow us to section off critical sections in a way that's much more flexible.

Condition Variables

Another common situation is when we have one thread that needs to wait for another to finish executing before moving forward. For example, we could have a thread that initiates some IO, and we want it to sleep until the IO is finished and be awoken then. This will involve *condition variables*.

Interlude: Unix Threat API

- Threads are created with pthread_create
- A thread can wait for another to finish by calling pthread_join
- A lock can be initialized by calling pthread_mutex_init, locked with pthread_mutex_lock, and unlocked with pthread_mutex_unlock
- Condition variables can be implemented with pthread_cond_wait and pthread_cond_signal

Code using these primitives can be compiled with pthread.h.

Locks

Locks allow *critical sections* to behave as if they are just one atomic instruction.

Locks: The Basic Idea

The state of a lock is tracked by a *lock variable*, which is either *acquired* or *available* at a given time. Calls to lock try to acquire the lock (and succeed if it's available), and calls to unlock render it free again. This basic API gives the programmer some control over scheduling back. POSIX locks are called *mutexes*. These locks are implemented using a combination of hardware support and implementation in the OS.

Evaluating Locks

- Locks should provide mutual exclusion (basically, they need to work)
- Locks should be as fair as possible, with no process getting starved
- $\bullet\,$ Locks shouldn't introduce a significant performance overhead

Some Lock Implementations

The simplest possible implementations is having calls to lock disable interrupts and calls to unlock re-enable them. The guarantees that operations within the lock run atomically, but require trusting the user program to call a privileged instruction and not abuse it. This also doesn't work on multiprocessors, since the code section could easily be run on other processors that don't have interrupts disabled. The approach can also be inefficient, and losing interrupts can cause negative effects. Thus, the approach is not really used, except in limited cases within the OS.

Without Hardware Support

An attempt at a solution that doesn't require this trust could use a flag variable which is set and unset when the lock is held and released. When the variable is locked, a waiting process can just spin-wait, doing nothing and burning cycles till it has a turn. The problem with this naive implementation is a failure of mutual exclusion: multiple threads could get access to the flag at a time.

Spin Locks

A simple hardware primitive, test_and_set, helps out. The instruction returns the old value and updates it atomically, which is enough to implement a *spin-lock* in software (set the variable to acquire the lock, check the return value to decide whether to proceed into the critical section). Spin locks are correct, but not fair (they don't provide guarantees against starvation). Performance will differ based on the number of available cores – lots of performance is sacrificed if lots of threads are contending for a lock on one CPU core, since entire cycles would be spent spinning. But across multiple cores, this cost is less because while one lock spins on one core, actual progress through the critical section could be made on another.

Compare and Swap

A slightly more powerful instruction than test_and_set is compare_and_swap, which checks if the value at an address equals some expected, and updates it to some new value if so. It's straightforward to implement a spin-lock using this primitive (set the flag if it's unset, otherwise don't set it), but it can also be used to support lock-free synchronization (described later).

Load-Linked and Store-Conditional

Another way we could acquire locks is by retrieving the value of the lock flag in one step, but only updating it if it remains unchanged from the time it was read from memory. This is the idea behind load_linked and store_conditional.

Fetch-And-Add

A final primitive is fetch_and_add, which atomically increments a value while returning the old value. This can be used to implement a lock that guarantees progress for all threads: each value has a turn for some value of a counter, and whenever a thread wants access to a lock it increments the counter.

Reducing Spinning

Each of the above approaches involves a lot of spinning, which we would ideally want to reduce. A naive approach is to just have processes yield whenever they try to acquire the lock and fail. This sort of works, but when we have a lot of threads going we can still end up wasting a lot of CPU time checking if the lock is available and finding it's not.

Using Queues: Sleeping Instead of Spinning

Rather than just relying on the scheduler to determine when processes check for the locks, we could assert more control. One way to do this is to have the OS maintain a queue of processes waiting on a lock, which are put to sleep when the request fails, and have the OS wake them up when the lock becomes available. This is just like yielding, except the process ends up asleep and doesn't burn CPU cycles. These ideas are implemented in terms of park and unpark on Solaris and as futexes on Linux.

Lock-based Concurrent Data Structures

When thinking about how to allow concurrent access to data in data structures, we want to add the locks such that operations are all *correct*, without sacrificing too much *performance*.

Concurrent Counter

A simple "data structure" is just a counter that gets incremented across several threads. By acquiring a lock before modifying it and releasing it, we can guarantee correctness. Even in this case, we can observe how poorly performance scales (the goal is *perfect scaling*).

Scalable Counting

A tradeoff to improve performance of counters are approximate counters. Each CPU keeps its own counter (with a lock, so threads on that CPU can contend for

it), and periodically synchronizes with a global counter by acquiring the global lock.

More Complex Data Structures

In general, scaling for more complex data structures involves protecting specific parts of the structure with locks, rather than having one global lock.

Condition Variables

Besides locking data structures, we also want to be able to check *condition* and then conditionally continue execution (ex. join).

Definitions and Routines

When a thread wants to wait for something, it an put itself in a queue to be awoken when a signal comes in for them (*condition variable*). On Unix, this is done with pthread_cond_wait and pthread_cond_signal.

wait takes a lock, in order to avoid concurrency problems where the parent incorrectly detects the status of the child, which matters if it decides to call join. Since updating isn't an atomic operation, without a lock it could read an incorrect status and stay asleep forever.

Producers and Consumers

A common situation is having a buffer where some process (producer) is putting stuff in, and another (consumer) is taking stuff out (for example, Unix pipes). Since this happens concurrently, we need to use locks somehow. This problem can be solved generally with two condition variables indicating the number of available and filled slots in the buffer (so we know the exact status of the buffer and know which processes to signal when the buffer is completely full or empty).

Covering Conditions

One common problem (encountered in the producer-consumer example) is dealing with uncertainty while sending and receiving signals. For example, when multiple processes request memory that isn't yet available, they might all be put to sleep, but when memory doesn't become available we don't want to accidentally wake up one that requested more than was newly freed. A simple but inefficient solution is to *broadcast* signals to all processes, which then wake up and check if the condition they wanted is true, and go to sleep if it isn't.