# Systems I – CS 6013 Computer Architecture and Operating Systems Lecture 29: Locked Data Structures

MASTER OF SOFTWARE DEVELOPMENT (MSD) PROGRAM
J. DAVISON DE ST. GERMAIN
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(Adapted from Slides by Prof. Andrea Arpaci-Dusseau & Nima Honarmand, and previous MSD presentations)

## Lecture 29 – Topics

Locked Data Structures

### Announcements

• Lisp — lots of insidious parentheses

#### Review

- Concurrency leads to non-deterministic results
  - Different results even with same inputs
  - We call this a race condition
  - Data races are race conditions involving write contention.
- We saw mutexes (locks) for protecting critical sections.
- We saw condition variables for more complicated thread operations.
  - One thread signaling another thread(s)
  - Condition variables + locks = the monitor pattern.
    - Monitoring a global condition.

## Today

Some practical applications of locks / mutexes

- We'll design (to work with Threads):
  - A simple counter
  - A concurrent (thread-safe) linked list
  - A concurrent queue
  - A concurrent hash table

## Case Study I: A Threaded Counter

```
int value;
void init() {
   value = 0;
void increment() {
   value++;
   // How many assembly
   // instructions?
void decrement() {
   value--;
```

- Potential Race Conditions?
  - Everything except init has a race condition.
  - How would you fix these?
  - A simple approach: lock every operation that could have a race condition.

## Case Study I: A Concurrent Counter

```
int value;
std::mutex m;
void init(){
   value = 0;
void increment(){
   m.lock();
   value++;
   m.unlock();
void decrement() {
   m.lock();
   value--;
   m.unlock();
```

- Evaluation
  - This is indeed a safe counter.
  - However, is it actually faster to use multiple threads in this example?
    - Thread creation and locks have overhead.
    - This actually slows down as we throw more threads at it!
- This does illustrate the pitfalls of naive locking.
- The solution to this is nontrivial, and we won't go over it.
  - See textbook, Chapter 29, Approximate counter.

```
int data;
                           node t * new node =
                                  malloc( sizeof( node t ) );
  struct node t * next;
} node t;
                           if( new node == NULL ) {
                             return -1;
typedef struct list it {
  node t * head;
                           new node->data = data;
} list t;
                           new node->next = L->head;
                           L->head = new node;
void init( list t * L ) {
                           return 0;
  L->head = NULL;

    Difference from C++?
```

- - Constructor, functional vs OOP, etc. (see next slides)

## C Syntax - Explanation

every time you use node t, so to

struct node t \* head;

create the head of the list:

```
typedef struct node t {
   int data;
   struct node t *next;
} node t;
• ' ' <- naming convention to say "you
 should never use/see this"

    typedef defines a type named node t;

• node t * head;
```

```
typedef struct __node_t {
   int data;
   struct __node_t *next;
} node_t;
```

- In C++, you would say:
  - list.insert( data )
- In C, you have to pass both the list, and the data into the insert function.

```
int insert( list t * L, int data ) {
   node t * new node =
           malloc( sizeof( node t ) );
   if( new node == NULL ) {
      return -1;
   new node->data = data;
   new node->next = L->head;
   L->head = new node;
   return 0;
```

```
struct node t { int
                       data;
               node t * next; }
                                        head
                                                 → null
struct list t { node t * head; }
void insert( list t * L, int data ) {
  node t * new node =
          malloc( sizeof( node t ) );
  new node->data = data;
  new node->next = L->head;
                                                      new node
                             Draw the picture!!!
  L->head = new node;
                                           void init( list t * L ) {
                                              L->head = NULL;
insert(list, 99);
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```



- Ask: What happens if multiple threads run this code at the same time?
  - Identify the race conditions.
  - Where should the mutex object live?
  - Where should I lock and unlock the mutex?
  - 1st attempt: don't want any of it interrupted lock everything

## Case Study 2: Concurrent List v2

```
void insert( list t * L, int data ) {
  lock(m);
                                                            head
  node t new node =
          malloc( sizeof( node t ) );
  if( new node == NULL ) {
     return;
                             m.unlock();
  new node->data = data;
  new node->next = L->head;
  L->head = new node;
  unlock( m );
```

- What is m? Where is it defined?
  - Mutex. Somewhere in the global scope so all threads can see it.

- What's missing?
  - How do we fix (avoid) needing this 2<sup>nd</sup> unlock?
  - Use a scoped lock!
  - But is there a better way?

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## Case Study 2: Concurrent List v3

```
void insert( list t * L, int data ) {
   lock( m ); // scoped lock
  node t new node =
           malloc( sizeof( node t ) );
   if( new node == NULL ) {
      return; // throw error?
  new node->data = data;
  new node->next = L->head;
  L->head = new node;
```

#### Evaluation

- This is thread-safe.
- However, it is inefficient. There is a giant lock around every bit of code.
- This is a coarse-grained lock.
- A little reading reveals that malloc() is thread safe.
- Then we don't need to lock malloc().
- This allows a finer-grained lock.
- What about the update of new\_node? Does it need to be locked?
  - Is there a difference between the update of data and next?
  - new\_node is a local (non-shared) variable.
  - However, next is referencing L, which is a global variable, so must be locked.
  - (See next slide for updated version of code)

## Case Study 2: Concurrent List v3

```
void insert( list t * L, int data ) {
  node t new node =
           malloc( sizeof( node t ) );
   if( new node == NULL ) {
      return; // throw error?
   new node->data = data;
  lock( m );
  new node->next = L->head;
  L->head = new node;
   unlock( m );
```

- Performance ramifications?
  - Better because less code is locked
- Note, could actually use a scoped lock in this code too (in which case we would not need the unlock at the end)

## Expanding List Functionality

- · Let's see another linked-list example for locking.
- Next, we will write a function (lookup) to search our linked list.
  - We'll return return false if the item is not found, true if it is found.
- We can write a concurrent version right away if we use a coarse-grained lock.

## Case Study 3: Concurrent List Lookup

```
bool lookup( list t * L, int data ) {
  m.lock();
   node t * curr = L->head;
   while( curr ) {
      if( curr->data == data ) {
         m.unlock();
         return true; // success
      curr = curr -> next;
   m.unlock();
   return false; // failure
```

- Why do we need to lock the list during a lookup?
  - List could be changed out from under us.
- Why the 2 unlocks?
  - 2 paths out of the function must remember to unlock in both paths.
- Why is this a really bad way to lock this function?
  - Here, we're locking the whole list before we go through it a coarse-grained locking strategy.
- What would a fine-grained strategy look like?
  - Think about what actually needs a lock...

## Hand-over-Hand Locking

- Lock each node as we traverse the list.
- When done with a node, unlock it and lock the next one in turn.
- If locks can be implemented with low overhead, this is great.
- In practice, this is too fine-grained and will be expensive.
- Lock once every few times? Possible.



## Case Study 4: Michael and Scott Two-Lock Concurrent Queue

- This is the algorithm that you must use for your assignment.
- Represent the queue as a singly-linked list with head and tail pointers (two ends to the list).
  - \*Always want enqueue and dequeue to be O(1) operations.
- Use a single lock for enqueue, and a separate lock for dequeue.
- Head always points to a dummy node. Dummy node is the first node in the list.
- Nodes are inserted after the last node of the list.
- Nodes are deleted from the beginning of the list.



## Case Study 4: Michael and Scott Two-Lock Concurrent Queue

- Initially, both head and tail point to a dummy node.
- If we didn't have the dummy variable, both head and tail could point to the same node.
  - This would cause problems if enqueue and dequeue occurred simultaneously.
  - Two locks + two threads = potential for "deadlock" or "livelock".
    - More later.
- · As we enqueue stuff, we update tail pointer.
- As we dequeue stuff, we update the head pointer.

## Case 4: Michael/Scott Concurrent Queue

```
struct node t { int data;
               node t * next; }
struct queue t { node t * head;
                node t * tail;
                mutex head m,
                      tail m; }
void init( queue t * q ) {
  node t * tmp = malloc(...);
  tmp->next = NULL;
  q->head = tmp;
  q->tail = tmp;
```

```
void enqueue( queue t * q, int value ) {
   node t * tmp = malloc( ... );
   tmp->data = value;
   tmp->next = NULL;
   q->tail->next = tmp;
   q->tail = tmp;
   tail m.unlock();
```

- Why have a separate tail and head lock?
  - Allows enqueue and dequeue to happen simultaneously!
  - Almost always, the head and tail are not next to each other.

## Case 4: Michael/Scott Concurrent Queue

```
bool dequeue( queue t * q, int * value ) {
struct node t { int data;
                                       head m.lock();
                node t * next; }
                                        node t * tmp = q->head; // dummy node
                                        node t * new head = tmp->next;
struct queue t { node t * head;
                                       if( new head == NULL ) {
                 node t * tail;
                                            head m.unlock();
                 mutex head m,
                                            return false; // Nothing in queue
                       tail m; }
void init( queue t * q ) {
                                        *value = new head->data;
   node t * tmp = malloc(...);
                                        q->head = new head;
  tmp->next = NULL;
                                        free( tmp );
   q->head = tmp;
                                        head m.unlock();
  q->tail = tmp;
                                        return true;
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```

## Evaluation

- Enqueue is a nice example of fine-grained locking.
- The dummy node is a great example of how serial data structures must be modified for concurrency
  - ...beyond just adding locks.
- Michael and Scott show that two-lock queue scales very well and avoids deadlock / livelock.
- If you use scoped locks, the lock will automatically unlock when it goes out of scope.
  - Use curly braces { } to define scopes.
  - Allows for unlock even after returning from middle of function!

## Case Study 5: Concurrent Hash Table

- Final example: a hash table without resizing.
- We'll use separate chaining instead of probing.
  - · Recall that this means an array of linked lists.
  - Each "bucket" in the table is now a linked list.
  - Collisions are resolved by hashing to the same bucket, then growing the corresponding linked list.
- We can use our concurrent list from earlier!
  - list\_t table[ NUM\_BUCKETS ].
- Hash table insert is just a call to the list\_t insert function.
- Lookup is a call to the list\_t lookup.

### Evaluation

- The concurrent hash table scales well.
- Far better than the linked list does.
- Constant time roughly maintained as we increase the number of threads.

## Summary

- Coarse-grained locking (locking large chunks of code) is easy, but inefficient.
- Fine-grained locking
  - trickier to get right without deadlock/livelock
  - may need to redesign data structure or code
  - may still scale poorly
- Enabling concurrency doesn't always improve performance!
  - · Sometimes all we can do is hope it doesn't degrade it.
- Next week: concurrency bugs, lock-free data structures

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