

# A Sophomoric Introduction to Shared-Memory Parallelism and Concurrency

## Lecture 5

### Programming with Locks and Critical Sections

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For more information, see <http://www.cs.washington.edu/homes/djg/teachingMaterials/>

# Outline

Done:

- The semantics of locks
- Locks in Java
- Using locks for mutual exclusion: bank-account example

This lecture:

- More bad interleavings (learn to spot these!)
- Guidelines/idioms for shared-memory and using locks correctly
- Coarse-grained vs. fine-grained

Next lecture:

- Readers/writer locks
- Deadlock
- Condition variables
- Data races and memory-consistency models

# Races

A **race condition** occurs when the computation result depends on scheduling (how threads are interleaved)

Bugs that exist only due to concurrency

- No interleaved scheduling with 1 thread

Typically, problem is some *intermediate state* that “messes up” a concurrent thread that “sees” that state

Note: This and the next lecture make a big distinction between *data races* and *bad interleavings*, both kinds of race-condition bugs

- Confusion often results from not distinguishing these or using the ambiguous “race condition” to mean only one

# Example

```
class Stack<E> {
    ... // state used by isEmpty, push, pop
    synchronized boolean isEmpty() { ... }
    synchronized void push(E val) { ... }
    synchronized E pop() {
        if(isEmpty())
            throw new StackEmptyException();
        ...
    }
    E peek() { // this is wrong
        E ans = pop();
        push(ans);
        return ans;
    }
}
```

# peek, sequentially speaking

- In a sequential world, this code is of questionable *style*, but unquestionably *correct*
- The “algorithm” is the only way to write a **peek** helper method if all you had was this interface:

```
interface Stack<E> {
    boolean isEmpty();
    void push(E val);
    E pop();
}

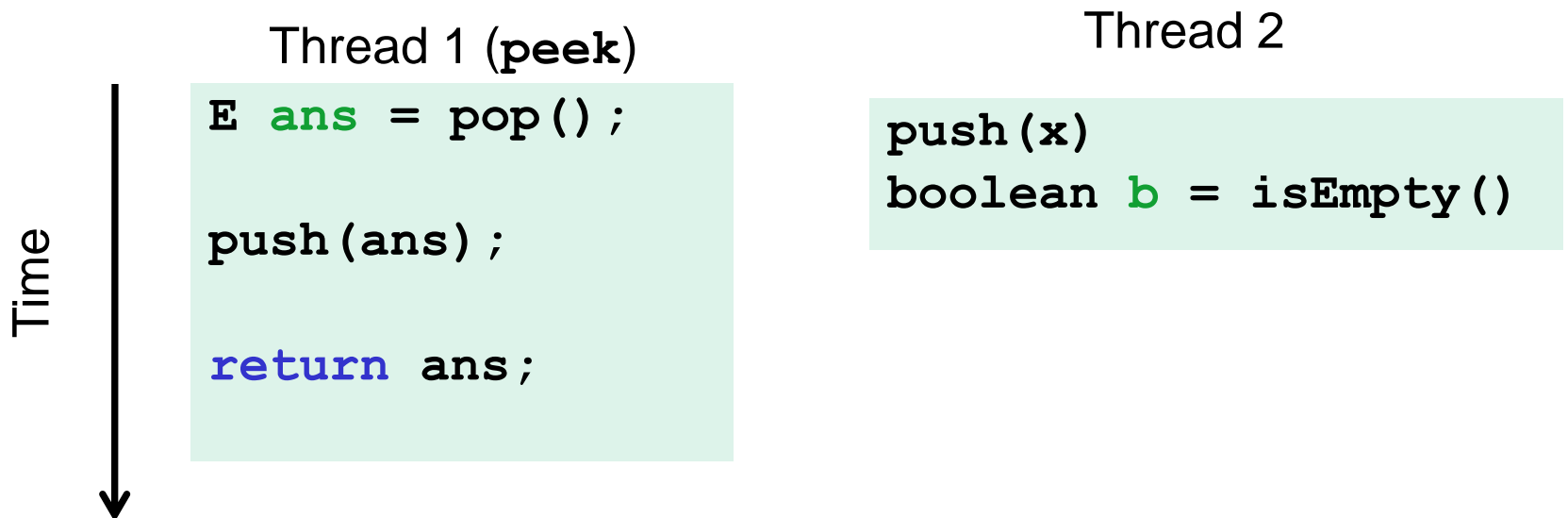
class C {
    static <E> E myPeek(Stack<E> s) { ??? }
}
```

# **peek**, *concurrently speaking*

- **peek** has no *overall* effect on the shared data
  - It is a “reader” not a “writer”
- But the way it is implemented creates an inconsistent *intermediate state*
  - Even though calls to **push** and **pop** are synchronized so there are no *data races* on the underlying array/list/whatever
  - (A data race is simultaneous (unsynchronized) read/write or write/write of the same memory: more on this soon)
- This intermediate state should not be exposed
  - Leads to several *bad interleavings*

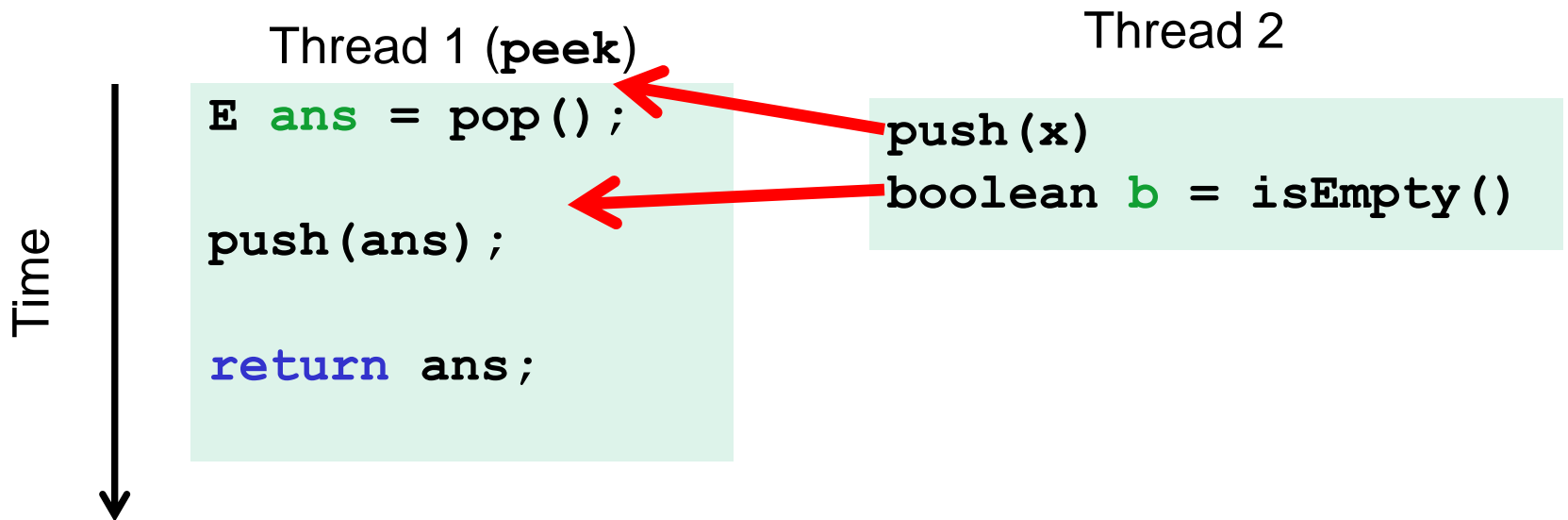
# *peek and isEmpty*

- Property we want: If there has been a **push** and no **pop**, then **isEmpty** returns **false**
- With **peek** as written, property can be violated – how?



# *peek and isEmpty*

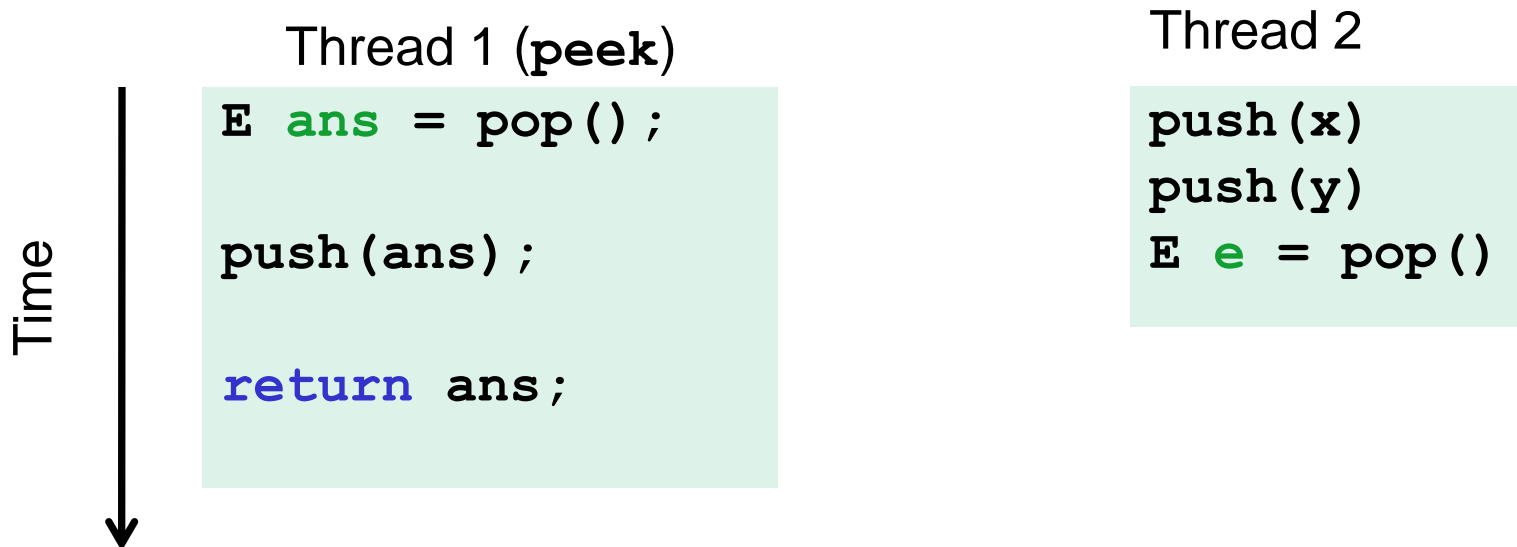
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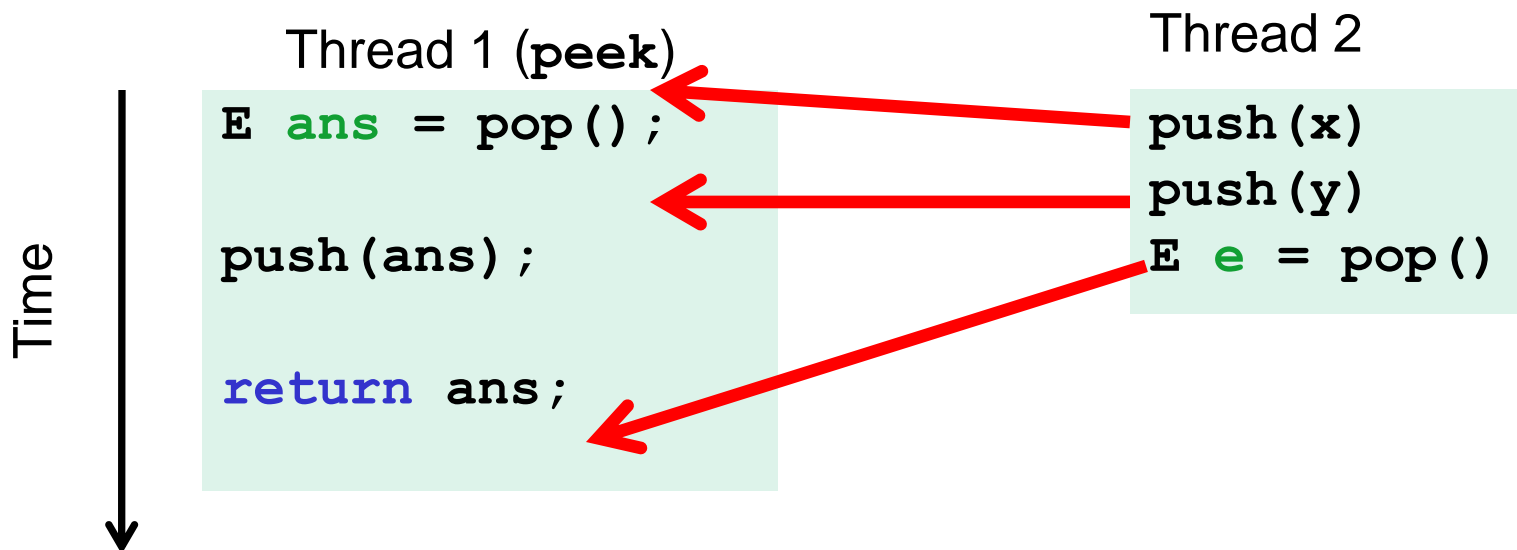
# *peek and push*

- Property we want: Values are returned from `pop` in LIFO order
- With `peek` as written, property can be violated – how?



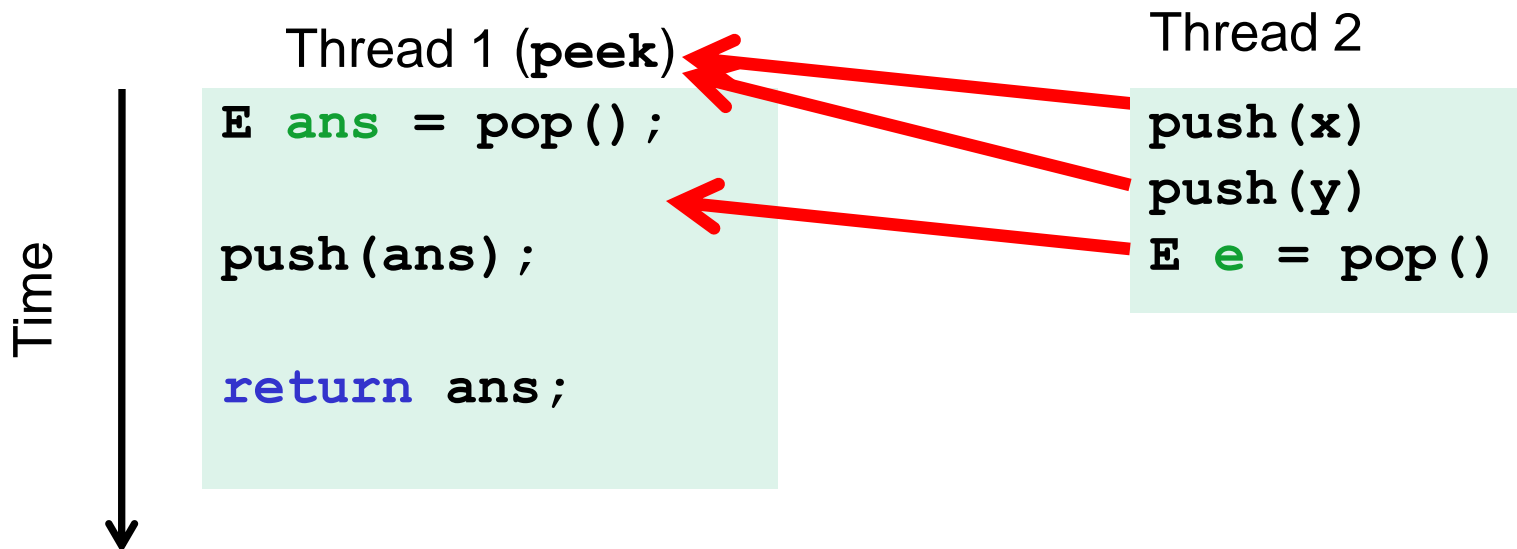
# *peek and push*

- Property we want: Values are returned from `pop` in LIFO order
- With `peek` as written, property can be violated – how?



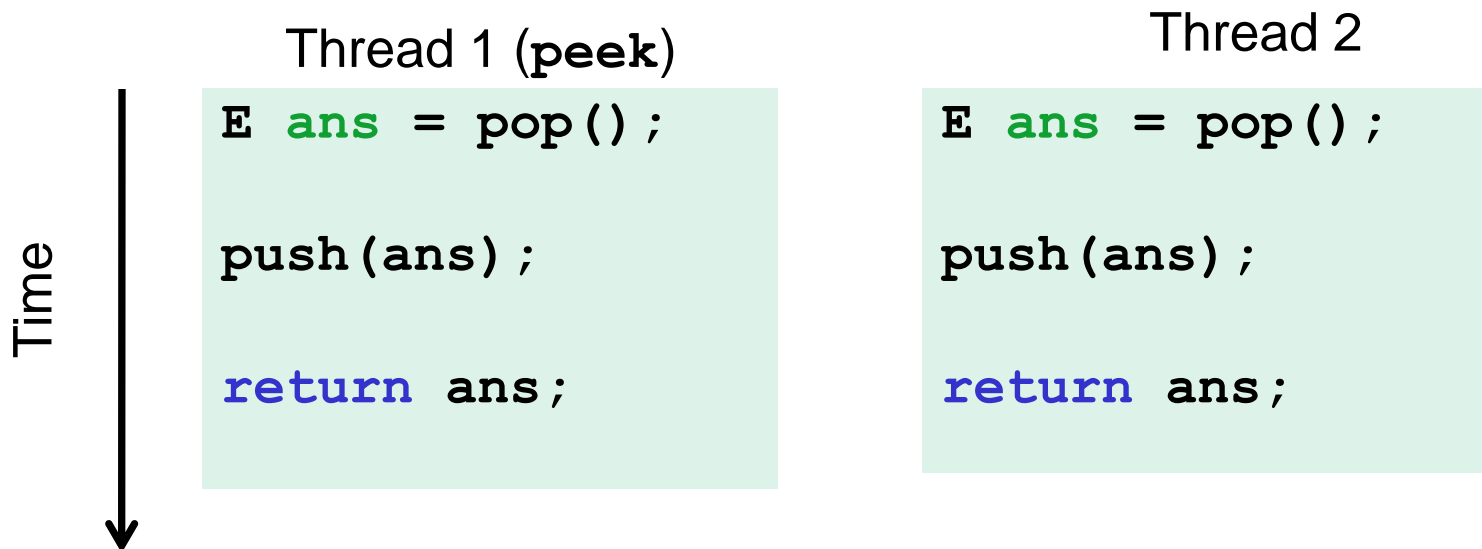
# *peek and pop*

- Property we want: Values are returned from `pop` in LIFO order
- With `peek` as written, property can be violated – how?



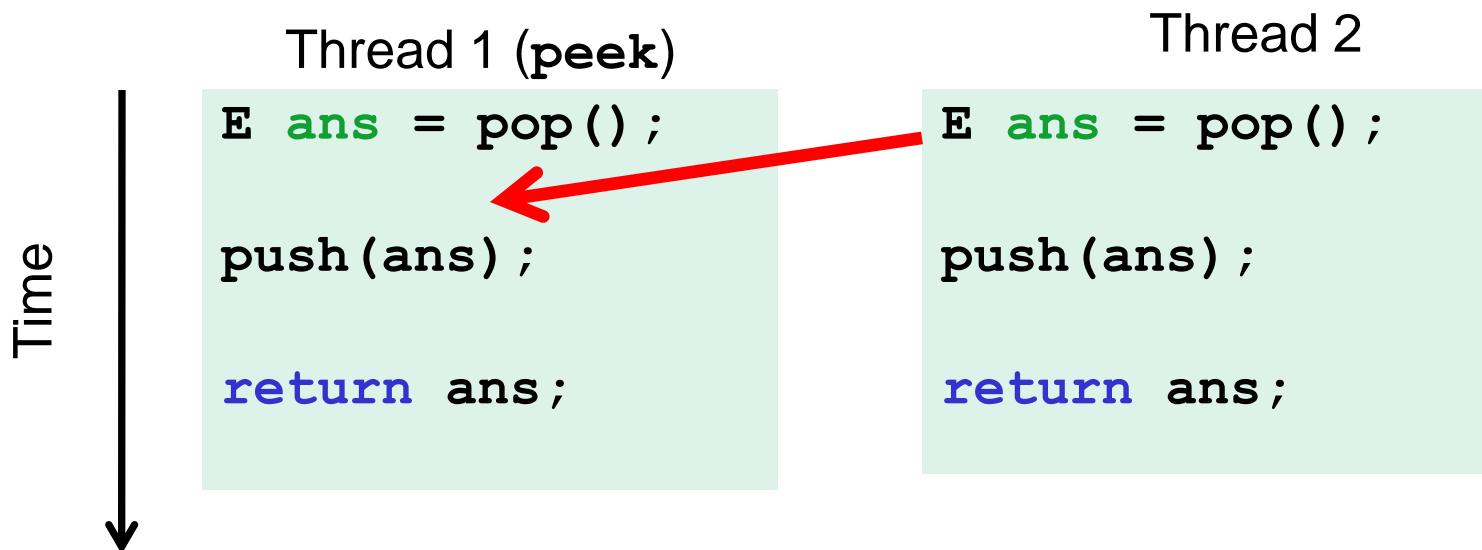
# *peek and peek*

- Property we want: **peek** does not throw an exception if number of pushes exceeds number of pops
- With **peek** as written, property can be violated – how?



# *peek and peek*

- Property we want: **peek** doesn't throw an exception if number of pushes exceeds number of pops
- With **peek** as written, property can be violated – how?



# The fix

- In short, **peek** needs synchronization to disallow interleavings
  - The key is to make a *larger critical section*
  - Re-entrant locks allow calls to **push** and **pop**

```
class Stack<E> {  
    ...  
    synchronized E peek() {  
        E ans = pop();  
        push(ans);  
        return ans;  
    }  
}
```

```
class C {  
    <E> E myPeek(Stack<E> s) {  
        synchronized (s) {  
            E ans = s.pop();  
            s.push(ans);  
            return ans;  
        }  
    }  
}
```

## *The wrong “fix”*

- Focus so far: problems from **peek** doing writes that lead to an incorrect intermediate state
- Tempting but wrong: If an implementation of **peek** (or **isEmpty**) does not write anything, then maybe we can skip the synchronization?
- Does **not** work due to *data races* with **push** and **pop**...

## *Example, again (no resizing or checking)*

```
class Stack<E> {
    private E[] array = (E[])new Object[SIZE];
    int index = -1;
    boolean isEmpty() { // unsynchronized: wrong?!
        return index==-1;
    }
    synchronized void push(E val) {
        array[++index] = val;
    }
    synchronized E pop() {
        return array[index--];
    }
    E peek() { // unsynchronized: wrong!
        return array[index];
    }
}
```



# Why wrong?

- It *looks like* `isEmpty` and `peek` can “get away with this” since `push` and `pop` adjust the state “in one tiny step”
- But this code is still *wrong* and depends on language-implementation details you cannot assume
  - Even “tiny steps” may require multiple steps in the implementation: `array[++index] = val` probably takes at least two steps
  - Code has a [data race](#), allowing very strange behavior
    - Important discussion in next lecture
- Moral: Do not introduce a data race, even if every interleaving you can think of is correct

# *The distinction*

The (poor) term “race condition” can refer to two *different* things resulting from lack of synchronization:

1. **Data races:** Simultaneous read/write or write/write of the same memory location
  - (for mortals) **always an error**, due to compiler & HW (next lecture)
  - Original **peek** example has no data races
2. **Bad interleavings:** Despite lack of data races, exposing bad intermediate state
  - “Bad” depends on your specification
  - Original **peek** example had several

# *Getting it right*

Avoiding race conditions on shared resources is difficult

- Decades of bugs have led to some *conventional wisdom*: general techniques that are known to work

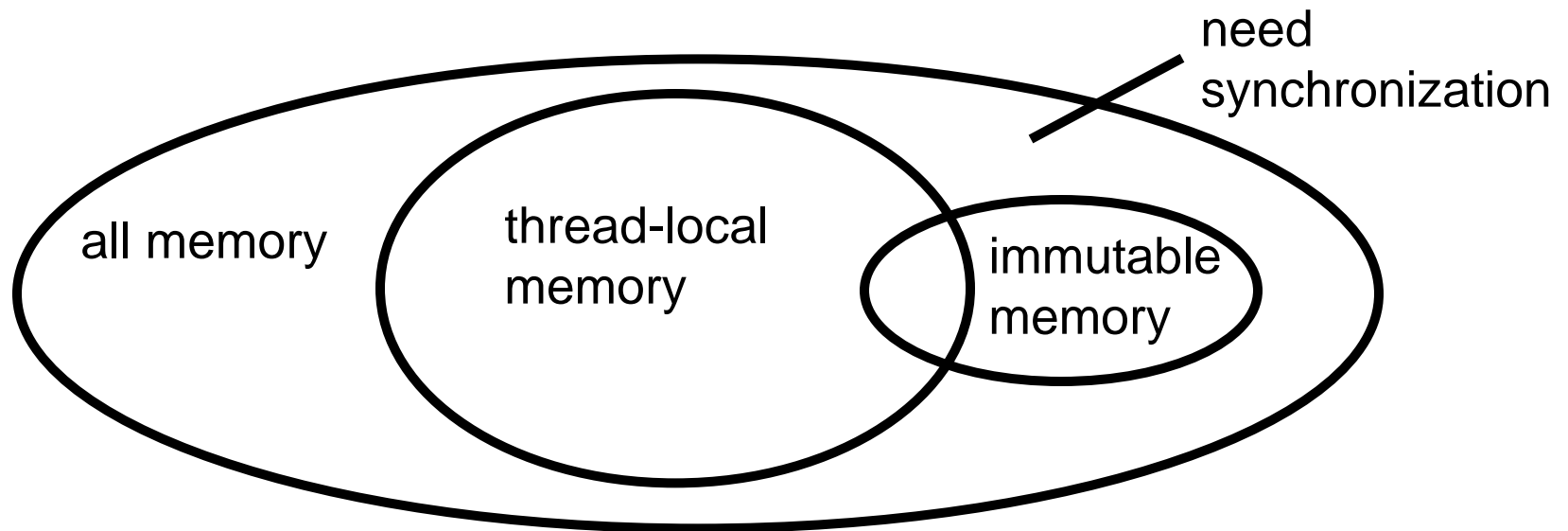
Rest of lecture distills key ideas and trade-offs

- Parts paraphrased from “Java Concurrency in Practice”
  - Chapter 2 (rest of book more advanced)
- But none of this is specific to Java or a particular book!
- May be hard to appreciate in beginning, but come back to these guidelines over the years – don’t be fancy!

# 3 choices

For every **memory location** (e.g., object field) in your program, you must obey at least one of the following:

1. **Thread-local**: Do not use the location in  $> 1$  thread
2. **Immutable**: Do not write to the memory location
3. **Synchronized**: Use synchronization to control access to the location



# Thread-local

Whenever possible, do not share resources

- Easier to have each thread have its own **thread-local copy** of a resource than to have one with shared updates
- This is correct only if threads do not need to communicate through the resource
  - That is, multiple copies are a correct approach
  - Example: **Random** objects
- Note: Because each call-stack is thread-local, never need to synchronize on local variables

*In typical concurrent programs, the vast majority of objects should be thread-local: shared-memory should be rare – minimize it*

# *Immutable*

Whenever possible, do not update objects

- Make new objects instead
- One of the key tenets of *functional programming*
  - Hopefully you study this in another course
  - Generally helpful to avoid *side-effects*
  - Much more helpful in a concurrent setting
- If a location is only read, never written, then no synchronization is necessary!
  - Simultaneous reads are *not* races and *not* a problem

*In practice, programmers usually over-use mutation – minimize it*

# *The rest*

After minimizing the amount of memory that is (1) thread-shared and (2) mutable, we need guidelines for how to use locks to keep other data consistent

Guideline #0: No data races

- Never allow two threads to read/write or write/write the same location at the same time

*Necessary:* In Java or C, a program with a data race is almost always wrong

*Not sufficient:* Our **peek** example had no data races

# *Consistent Locking*

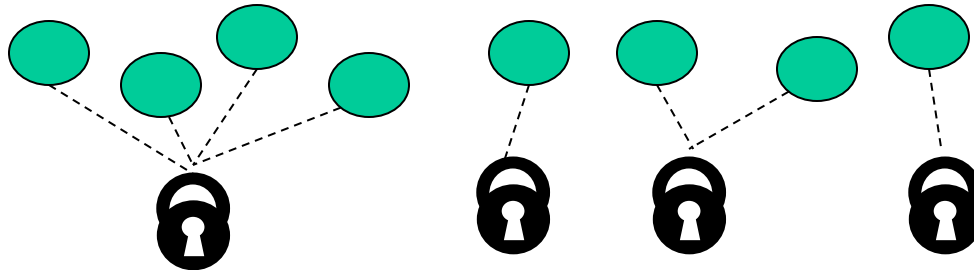
Guideline #1: For each location needing synchronization, have a lock that is always held when reading or writing the location

- We say the lock **guards** the location
- The same lock can (and often should) guard multiple locations
- Clearly document the guard for each location
- In Java, often the guard is the object containing the location
  - **this** inside the object's methods
  - But also often guard a larger structure with one lock to ensure mutual exclusion on the structure



# Consistent Locking continued

- The mapping from locations to guarding locks is *conceptual*
  - Up to you as the programmer to follow it
- It partitions the shared-and-mutable locations into “which lock”



Consistent locking is:

- *Not sufficient*: It prevents all data races but still allows bad interleavings
  - Our **peek** example used consistent locking
- *Not necessary*: Can change the locking protocol dynamically...

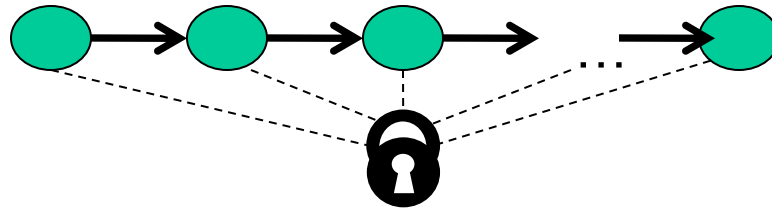
# *Beyond consistent locking*

- Consistent locking is an excellent guideline
  - A “default assumption” about program design
- But it isn’t required for correctness: Can have different program phases use different invariants
  - Provided all threads coordinate moving to the next phase
- Example from the programming project attached to these notes:
  - A shared grid being updated, so use a lock for each entry
  - But after the grid is filled out, all threads except 1 terminate
    - So synchronization no longer necessary (thread local)
  - And later the grid becomes immutable
    - So synchronization is doubly unnecessary

# Lock granularity

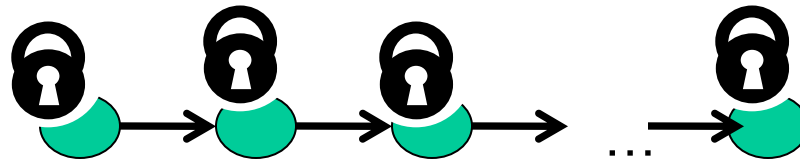
Coarse-grained: Fewer locks, i.e., more objects per lock

- Example: One lock for entire data structure (e.g., array)
- Example: One lock for all bank accounts



Fine-grained: More locks, i.e., fewer objects per lock

- Example: One lock per data element (e.g., array index)
- Example: One lock per bank account



“Coarse-grained vs. fine-grained” is really a continuum

# Trade-offs

## Coarse-grained advantages

- Simpler to implement
- Faster/easier to implement operations that access multiple locations (because all guarded by the same lock)
- Much easier: operations that modify data-structure shape

## Fine-grained advantages

- More simultaneous access (performance when coarse-grained would lead to unnecessary blocking)

Guideline #2: Start with coarse-grained (simpler) and move to fine-grained (performance) only if *contention* on the coarser locks becomes an issue. Alas, often leads to bugs.

# *Example: Separate Chaining Hashtable*

- Coarse-grained: One lock for entire hashtable
- Fine-grained: One lock for each bucket

Which supports more concurrency for **insert** and **lookup**?

Which makes implementing **resize** easier?

- How would you do it?

Maintaining a **numElements** field for the table will destroy the benefits of using separate locks for each bucket

- Why?

# *Critical-section granularity*

A second, orthogonal granularity issue is critical-section size

- How much work to do while holding lock(s)

If critical sections run for too long:

- Performance loss because other threads are blocked

If critical sections are too short:

- Bugs because you broke up something where other threads should not be able to see intermediate state

Guideline #3: Do not do expensive computations or I/O in critical sections, but also don't introduce race conditions

# Example

Suppose we want to change the value for a key in a hashtable without removing it from the table

- Assume `lock` guards the whole table

*Papa Bear's  
critical section  
was too long*

*(table locked  
during  
expensive call)*

```
synchronized(lock) {  
    v1 = table.lookup(k);  
    v2 = expensive(v1);  
    table.remove(k);  
    table.insert(k, v2);  
}
```

# Example

Suppose we want to change the value for a key in a hashtable without removing it from the table

- Assume `lock` guards the whole table

*Mama Bear's  
critical section  
was too short*

*(if another thread  
updated the entry,  
we will lose an  
update)*

```
synchronized(lock) {  
    v1 = table.lookup(k);  
}  
v2 = expensive(v1);  
synchronized(lock) {  
    table.remove(k);  
    table.insert(k, v2);  
}
```



# Example

Suppose we want to change the value for a key in a hashtable without removing it from the table

- Assume `lock` guards the whole table

*Baby Bear's  
critical section  
was just right*

*(if another update  
occurred, try our  
update again)*

```
done = false;
while (!done) {
    synchronized(lock) {
        v1 = table.lookup(k);
    }
    v2 = expensive(v1);
    synchronized(lock) {
        if (table.lookup(k) == v1) {
            done = true;
            table.remove(k);
            table.insert(k, v2);
        }
    }
}
```

# *Atomicity*

An operation is *atomic* if no other thread can see it partly executed

- Atomic as in “appears indivisible”
- Typically want ADT operations atomic, even to other threads running operations on the same ADT

Guideline #4: Think in terms of what operations need to be *atomic*

- Make critical sections just long enough to preserve atomicity
- *Then* design the locking protocol to implement the critical sections correctly

*That is: Think about atomicity first and locks second*

# *Don't roll your own*

- It is rare that you should write your own data structure
  - Provided in standard libraries
  - Point of these lectures is to understand the key trade-offs and abstractions
- Especially true for concurrent data structures
  - Far too difficult to provide fine-grained synchronization without race conditions
  - Standard **thread-safe** libraries like **ConcurrentHashMap** written by world experts

Guideline #5: Use built-in libraries whenever they meet your needs