Concepts of Concurrent Computation Spring 2014 Lecture 8: Lock-Free Approaches

> Bertrand Meyer Sebastian Nanz Chris Poskitt

Chair of Software Engineering



What's wrong with locks?



They are difficult to use correctly

- forget to take a lock?
- take too many locks?
- take the locks in the wrong order?
- take the wrong lock?

They are difficult to use correctly



• take too many locks?

danger of data race

danger of deadlock

• take the locks in the wrong order?

danger of deadlock

• take the wrong lock?



Blocking, faults, and performance...

• priority inversion

=> lower-priority thread preempted while holding a lock that a higher-priority thread needs

convoying

=> multiple threads of the same priority contend repeatedly for the same lock

• fault tolerance

=> what if a faulty process halts whilst holding a lock?

• granularity of locking

=> lock overhead vs. lock contention

Blocking, faults, and performance...

• priority inversion

=> lower-priority thread preempted while holding a lock that a higher-priority thread needs

convoying

=> multiple threads of the same priority contend repeatedly for the same lock

• fault tolerance

=> what if a faulty process halts whilst holding a lock?



Locks are not "composable" in general

• they don't support modular programming

=> i.e. building larger programs from smaller blocks

```
class Account {
    int balance;
    synchronized void deposit(int amount) {
        balance = balance + amount;
    }
    synchronized void withdraw(int amount) {
        balance = balance - amount;
    }
}
```

how to implement a "transfer" method?

Locks are not "composable" in general

 although deposit and withdraw are correctly implemented by themselves, the following is incorrect:



void transfer(Account acc1, Account acc2, int amount) {
 acc1.withdraw(amount);
 acc2.deposit(amount);

Locks are not "composable" in general

 although deposit and withdraw are correctly implemented by themselves, the following is incorrect:



void transfer(Account acc1, Account acc2, int amount) {
 acc1.withdraw(amount);
 acc2.deposit(amount);

have to add explicit locking code



How do we do concurrent programming without locks?

- message passing
 - => <u>no shared data</u> at all
 - => but: overheads of messaging, slower access to data, ...
- lock-free programming

=> instead of locks, use <u>stronger atomic operations</u>

• software transactional memory (STM)

=> based on the idea of <u>database transactions</u>

How do we do concurrent programming without locks?

- message passing
 - => <u>no shared data</u> at all
 - => but: overheads of messaging, slower access to data, ...
- Iock-free programming

=> instead of locks, use <u>stronger atomic operations</u>

software transactional memory (STM)

=> based on the idea of <u>database transactions</u>

Next on the agenda

- I. lock-free programming
- 2. software transactional memory (STM)
- 3. linearisability and sequential consistency

Lock-free programming

- write shared-memory concurrent programs without using locks (but still ensuring thread safety)
- idea: use stronger atomic operations (typically provided by the hardware)
- designing general lock-free algorithms is difficult

=> focus instead on developing lock-free data structures
=> stack, list, queue, buffer, ...

• typically distinguish two classes of lock-free algorithms



• typically distinguish two classes of lock-free algorithms

lock-free

=> <u>guaranteed</u> system-wide progress

=> i.e. infinitely often <u>some</u> process finishes

wait-free

=> <u>guaranteed</u> per-thread progress

=> i.e. all processes complete in a finite number of steps

• typically distinguish two classes of lock-free algorithms



• typically distinguish two classes of lock-free algorithms



- compare-and-swap (CAS) combines a load and a store into a single atomic operation
- takes three arguments: a memory address x, an old value, and a new value

CAS (x, old, new)

 <u>atomically</u> reads the contents at x, and, if it contains old, updates it to new

• CAS must indicate whether or not it performed the substitution

=> by returning the value read from memory
=> or by a simple Boolean response

 latter variant sometimes called compare-and-set:

```
CAS (x, old, new)
do-atomic
if *x = old then
*x := new;
result := true
else
result := false
end
end
```

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Ι	35	21	44	66	38	86	• • • • •

CAS (3,21,0)



I	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I	35	0	44	66	38	86	••••

CAS (5,21,0)



- CAS facilitates a lock-free stack implementation (due to Treiber, 1986)
- stack of integers represented as a linked list of nodes; the top of the stack denoted by the node head

class Node {
 Node* next;
 int item;
}
Node* head; // top of the stack

• to implement *push* and *pop*, a common pattern is used:

(I) read a value from the current state

- (2) compute an updated value based on the read one
- (3) atomically update the state by swapping the new for old

```
void push (int value) {
    Node* oldHead;
    Node* newHead := new Node();
    newHead.item := value;
    do {
        oldHead := head;
        newHead.next := head;
    } while (!CAS(&head, oldHead, newHead));
}
```

```
void push (int value) {
  Node* oldHead:
  Node* newHead := new Node();
   newHead.item := value;
  do {
     oldHead := head;
     newHead.next := head:
  } while (!CAS(&head, oldHead, newHead));
              operation fails if another process has changed
              the head in the meantime (then loop repeats)
```

```
int pop () {
  Node* oldHead;
  Node* newHead:
  do {
     oldHead := head;
     if(oldHead = null) return EMPTY;
     newHead := oldHead.next;
  } while(!CAS(&head, oldHead, newHead));
  return oldHead.item:
```



- consider the following pattern:
 - T_I : a value is read from state A
 - T₂: the state is changed to state B
 - T₁: CAS operation does not distinguish between A and B, so assumes the state is still A
- called the ABA problem
- avoided in our stack since push always creates a new node (and old node's location is not freed)

Lock-free programming: discussion

 good performance in some situations, avoiding many of the problems of locks

=> deadlock, priority inversion, ...

• but difficult to <u>correctly</u> implement lock-free algorithms

=> e.g. the ABA problem
=> can lead to unnatural structuring of algorithms

 focused on lock-free data structures (well-established algorithms and implementations available)

Next on the agenda

I. lock-free programming



- 2. software transactional memory (STM)
- 3. linearisability and sequential consistency

Motivating STM

• the conventional atomic primitives of lock-free approaches operate on one memory location at a time

=> algorithms can have an unnatural structure

- software transactional memory (STM) aims at simplifying atomic updates of multiple independent memory locations
- inspiration: transactions in database management systems

Database transactions

- a database transaction is a sequence of operations performed within a DBMS enjoying these properties:
 - => Atomicity: transactions <u>appear</u> to execute completely or not at all
 - => Consistency: transactions preserve consistency of the DB
 - => Isolation: other operations cannot access data modified by an incomplete transaction
 - => Durability: all committed transactions guaranteed to persist
- for STM, atomicity and isolation are most interesting

Software transactional memory (STM)

- development has focused on software implementations
 - => starting with the work of Shavit & Touitou, 1995
 - => based on earlier ideas of a multiprocessor hardware architecture to support lock-free programming (Herlihy & Moss, 1993)



idea: allow code to be enclosed by an atomic-block

=> guarantee: executes *atomically* with respect to <u>other</u> atomic-blocks

Implementing STM

• an "optimistic" implementation scheme:

=> atomic-blocks run without locking; write to transaction log
=> onus placed on readers to check consistency
=> transaction can be committed aborted and/or recorded

- => transaction can be committed, aborted, and/or re-executed
- many implementations of STM (quality varies!)
 - => nice support in <u>concurrent Haskell</u>
 - => facilitates composability and modularity
 - => <u>http://research.microsoft.com/pubs/67418/2005-ppopp-composable.pdf</u>

STM: discussion



advantages:

=> simple and effective programming model
=> transactions can be composed (Harris et al., 2005)
=> increased concurrency, no waiting for resources



disadvantages:

=> restrictions on operations within atomic-blocks, since rollback must be available (e.g. no externally observable effects)
=> performance loss with respect to fine-grained locking; the overhead of transaction logs and consistency checking
Next on the agenda



3. linearisability and sequential consistency

Correctness conditions

 we can understand the execution of a system as operations of a collection of (sequential) processes on data objects

=> objects equipped with types and operations

in a sequential system, it is easy to specify the behaviour of operations

=> pre- and postconditions

$$\{pre\} q.op \{post\}$$

=> operations <u>cannot</u> be called on objects that are in an "intermediate state"

Concurrent objects

- in a concurrent system, operations can potentially be invoked on objects that are in intermediate states
- more difficult to define correctness for concurrent objects
- linearisability provides a correctness condition for concurrent objects

Linearisability: the intuition

(。)

 idea: a concurrent object is linearisable if every concurrent execution of its operations can be shown to be "equivalent" (in some sense) to a sequential execution



Using the semantics of an object

- imagine an object implementing a FIFO queue with two operations, enq(x) and deq()
- decide whether a concurrent execution is correct using the object's intended semantics



Using the semantics of an object

- imagine an object implementing a FIFO queue with two operations, enq(x) and deq()
- decide whether a concurrent execution is correct using the object's intended semantics



Observation

()

 observation: each operation should appear to "take effect" instantaneously at some moment between its invocation and response



 for the second history, no equivalent sequential execution can be found



Histories

• a call of an operation is split into two events:

```
invocation [A q.op(a_1, ..., a_n)]
response [A q:Ok(r)]
```

- where A is a thread ID, q an object, op(a1, ..., an) an invocation of call with arguments, and Ok(r) a successful response of call with result r
- a history is a sequence of invocation / response events

Histories

• a call of an operation is split into two events:

```
invocation [A q.op(a_1, ..., a_n)]
response [A q:Ok(r)]
```

 where A is a thread ID, q an object, op(a1, ..., an) an invocation of call with arguments, and Ok(r) a successful response of call with result r

```
    a history is a sequence of invocation / response events
```

[A q.enq(2)], [B q.enq(5)], [B q:Ok], [A q:Ok], [B q.deq()], [B q:Ok(2)], [A q.deq()], [A q:Ok(5)]



Projections

 $\widehat{\mathbf{O}}$

- we can define projections on objects and on threads \odot
- assume we have a history:

H = [A q1.enq(2)], [B q2.enq(5)], [B q2:Ok], [A q1:Ok], [B q1.deq()], [B q1:Ok(2)], [A q2.deq()], [A q2:Ok(5)]

• object projection:

H|q1 = [A q1.enq(2)], [A q1:Ok], [B q1.deq()], [B q1:Ok(2)]

• thread projection:

H|A = [A q1.enq(2)], [A q1:Ok], [A q2.deq()], [A q2:Ok(5)]

Sequential histories

- (
- a response matches an invocation if their object and thread names agree
- a history is sequential if it starts with an invocation, and each invocation (except possibly the last) is immediately followed by a matching response

H = [A q.enq(2)], [A q:Ok], [B q.enq(5)], [B q:Ok], ...

 a sequential history is legal if it agrees with the sequential specification of each object

More definitions

- a call op1 precedes another call op2 (op1-> op2) if op1's response event occurs before op2's invocation event
- we write $->_H$ for the precedence relation induced by H

=> e.g. q.enq(2) $->_{H}$ q.enq(5)

- an invocation is pending if it has no matching response
- a history is complete if it does not have pending responses
- complete(H) is the subhistory of H with all pending invocations removed

Linearisability: the definition

- two histories H and G are equivalent if H|A = G|A for all threads A
- a history H is linearisable if it can be extended to a history G by adding zero or more response events, such that:

=> complete(G) is equivalent to some legal sequential history S => $_{->_{H}} \subseteq _{->_{S}}$ (i.e. the precedences of H are maintained)

Linearisability: the definition

 (\cdot)

 two histories H and G are equivalent if H|A = G|A for all threads A

 a history H is linearisable if it can be extended to a history G by adding zero or more response events, such that:

=> complete(G) is equivalent to some legal sequential history S => $_{->_{H}} \subseteq _{->_{S}}$ (i.e. the precedences of H are maintained)

Example: $->_{H} = \{a \rightarrow c, b \rightarrow c\}$ $->_{S} = \{a \rightarrow b, a \rightarrow c, b \rightarrow c\}$ H Thread A Thread B S time

Example: linearisability

Read/write registers:





H' is linearizable

Sequential consistency

 a history H is sequentially consistent if it can be extended to a history G by adding zero or more response events, such that:

=> complete(G) is equivalent to some legal sequential history S

- note that $->_H \subseteq ->_S$ is <u>not</u> a requirement
- idea: calls from a particular thread appear to take place in program order

Sequential consistency

H is not sequentially consistent:

− r.write(0) − r.write(2) − 0 = r.read() →

H' is sequentially consistent but not linearizable:



Compositionality

- every linearisable history is also sequentially consistent
- linearisability is compositional: H is linearisable if and only if each object H|x is linearisable
- sequential consistency is <u>not</u> compositional

Thanks! Questions?

I. lock-free programming
 software transactional memory (STM)
 Iinearisability and sequential consistency