CSC2/452 Computer Organization
Threading and Parallelism

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URCS

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Outline

Administrivia

Recap

Threading Concepts

PThreads

Hardware Support for Concurrency
Outline

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Hardware Support for Concurrency
Assignment #4 is out
  Due date: Tuesday, Nov 26, 7PM
Assignment #5 (last!) will be out Dec 2
  Due on Dec 11
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PThreads

Hardware Support for Concurrency
Process-based Concurrency

- Create multiple processes to handle multiple "work items" (or requests)
  - `fork` is cheap
  - Resources (CPU, Memory) managed by OS
- Use OS-based interprocess communication (IPC) mechanisms to communicate
  - Shared memory
  - Semaphores (Named and unnamed)
  - Files/Pipes, etc.
Some properties of process-based concurrency

- Each process is isolated from the other
  - By design
  - "Shared nothing" concurrency
- Processes have to opt-in to share data
  - Must use OS services (i.e. system calls) to do so
- Cost of sharing mechanisms can vary
  - Some are cheap like mmap
  - Others are less cheap, like semaphores
Where is process-based concurrency used?

- **Web Browsers**
  - Each tab of your web browser is a separate process
  - Security? Reliability?

- **Distributed Computing**
  - The processes are usually not on the same machine
  - Remote procedure calls (RPC)
  - e.g., SETI@HOME or Folding@HOME
  - e.g., nearly every website

- **High-performance Cluster Computing**
  - A cluster is a connected network of computers
  - One of the many possible designs for supercomputers (but most popular right now)
  - “Message-passing”
An alternative: Thread-based parallelism

- Thread-based parallelism
  - Notion of a “thread of execution”
  - A thread is nearly always just a program counter + stack
  - Compare to process which has its own address space, etc.
- Also called “shared memory parallelism”
  - All threads share the same address space
- Each thread can read/write other threads data directly
  - Without going through the OS
Two prominent implementations of threading

- **User-mode threading**
  - Threads are invisible to OS
  - OS only sees a process
  - Process manages creation, termination and *scheduling* of threads

- **OS-level threading**
  - Threads are visible to OS
  - OS sees both processes and threads
  - Process uses OS facilities to create and terminate threads
  - OS schedules threads
Our focus today: OS-level threading

- OS-level threading is supported in Unix-like systems through POSIX Threads
  - Usually referred to as pthreads
- You need to link your program with libpthread
  - gcc -pthread yourfile.c
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Hardware Support for Concurrency
Threads Concepts

- Threads are created using `pthread_create`
  - Processes created using `fork/execve`
  - Each thread has a unique thread ID (within the process)
- A new thread starts at a specified function
  - A `fork` starts at instruction after call to `fork`
  - `execve` starts in `main`
- A thread exits using `pthread_exit`
  - This terminates the process *only* if this was the last thread
- Threads can wait for each other using `pthread_join`
  - Just like `waitpid`
Advantages of threads

▶ Very lightweight (compared to processes)
▶ Share the same address space as other threads
   ▶ Same (global) data and heap
   ▶ So all global variables and malloc’ed data is shared by default
   ▶ But different stacks, so all function-local variables are still private
▶ Threads can read/write each others data directly
   ▶ Using load/store instructions
Disadvantages of threads

▶ Share the same address space as other threads
  ▶ Same (global) data and heap
  ▶ So all global variables and malloc’ed data is shared by default
  ▶ But different stacks, so all function-local variables are still private
▶ Threads can read/write each others data directly
  ▶ “Shared everything”
  ▶ No protection
  ▶ Programmers must carefully control access to all shared data
If you’re writing a program using pthreads, you’re aware of what data is shared and not in your code. And you will use mutual exclusion mechanisms to correctly order accesses to shared data.

But what about all the code written by others that you’re using?

- e.g. printf, fopen, etc.
- Some of these functions were designed in a pre-threads world.
- Do they store internal data that might inadvertently be shared by multiple threads?
The rand Function

```c
#include <stdlib.h>

int rand(void);

void srand(unsigned int seed);
```

- The `rand` function returns a (pseudo-)random value
- The `srand` function sets the seed for the next invocation of `rand`
  - The same seed produces the same random number sequence
- How does `srand` communicate the seed value to `rand`?
One possible implementation

unsigned int glseed;

void srand(unsigned int seed) {
    glseed = seed;
}

int rand() {
    ... read glseed to produce next random number ... 
    ... store next random number in glseed ... 
}

▶ This implementation uses global variables (i.e. glseed) to communicate the seed from srand to rand
▶ What will happen when rand is called by different threads?
Thread Unsafe Functions

- A thread unsafe function is a function that is not designed to be called (at the same time) by multiple threads.
- Some functions in C and POSIX cannot be used in a thread-safe manner.
  - A list of such functions is available in the pthreads manual page.
  - They usually have thread-safe replacements, e.g. `rand_r` for `rand`. 
Thread-Safe Functions

```c
int rand_r(unsigned int *seedp);
```

- A thread-safe function is a function that can be safely called (at the same time) by multiple threads
- Unless explicitly noted, functions in C and POSIX are required to thread-safe
  - The manual page for each function contains a note on this (e.g. “MT-Safe”)
- Common strategy is to expose any hidden state to the user
  - e.g., `rand_r` takes the seed as input
Thread Unsafe Data

#include <errno.h>

int errno;

- The `errno` global variable contains the error code of the last system or library call
- If two threads both encounter an error, what should the value of `errno` contain?
Thread-safe data

- Newer versions of POSIX redefine `errno` to be thread-specific global data
  - instead of process-specific global data
- Each thread gets its own copy of `errno`
A related concept: Re-entrant Functions

- A re-entrant function is a function that can be “re-entered” even when another call to it is in progress
  - POSIX calls these “async-signal-safe”
- A program installs a signal handler for SIGCHLD
- It then calls printf in main
  - But while printf is executing, you receive the signal
  - And in the signal handler you call printf to print a debug message
  - What happens to the first printf call still in progress?
- Note: no threads are used in this example
Undefined behaviour

▶ None of the functions in `stdio.h` are re-entrant
▶ Invoking any of these functions when a call is in progress (in the same thread) results in undefined behaviour
▶ However, `printf` is thread safe (required since C11)
  ▶ It can be called even when a call is in progress in a different thread
▶ All re-entrant functions are thread safe IF called on thread-private data
  ▶ Not all thread-safe functions are re-entrant
  ▶ Usually applies when writing signal handlers
Writing Thread-Safe Functions

- Thread-unsafe functions access shared data without synchronization
- Therefore, to make a function thread safe, add synchronization
  - e.g. use semaphores for mutual exclusion
Writing Re-entrant Functions

- Re-entrant functions should not use synchronization
- Re-entrant functions must only access data that is:
  - a function-local variable, or
  - an argument passed to the function
- Re-entrant functions are also thread safe if their arguments are thread-private
  - Shared data as arguments would violate thread-safety because re-entrant functions do not use synchronization
Pitfalls of Threads

- Synchronization and ordering must be used for correctness
  - Similar to processes
- Shared by default data
  - All global variables and `malloc`
  - All pointers are in the same address space
- Must only use thread-safe functions
  - Or re-entrant functions with thread-private data
  - A consequence of shared everything...
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Hardware Support for Concurrency
/ * holds arguments to thread function *
struct thread_arg {
    int i;
    int *a;
    int N;
    int NPERTHREAD;
    atomic_uint *sum;
    pthread_t tid;
};

void *tsum(void *arg) {
    struct thread_arg *ta = (struct thread_arg *) arg;

    printf("In thread %d, adding array elements from %d\n", ta->i, 
             ta->i * ta->NPERTHREAD);

    for(int j = ta->i * ta->NPERTHREAD; 
        j < (ta->i * ta->NPERTHREAD + ta->NPERTHREAD) && j < ta->N; j++) {
        *ta->sum += ta->a[j];
    }

    printf("In thread %d, sum is %d\n", ta->i, *ta->sum);
    pthread_exit(NULL);
}
Thread entry functions (here `tsum`) can only accept a single `void *` argument.

- We use that to send a structure containing all the arguments.
  - We could avoid this in `fork` because child processes would start after `fork` in `main`.
  - But now, the thread will start in `tsum`, which has no access to variables in `main`.

- The code within `tsum` is not much altered from the code in the `fork()` variant.
  - Except all arguments are read from the `ta` structure.

- Note the `void *` return type of thread function.
  - This function calls `pthread_exit` explicitly.
  - If you used `return` instead, `pthread_exit` would be called implicitly with the return value: `return NULL` is equivalent to `pthread_exit(NULL)`.
Threads: Initializing arguments

```c
atomic_uint sum = 0;
NPERTHREAD = (N+nthread-1)/nthread;

struct thread_arg *ta = calloc(nthread, sizeof(struct thread_arg));

for(int i = 0; i < nthread; i++) {
    ta[i].a = a;
    ta[i].NPERTHREAD = NPERTHREAD;
    ta[i].N = N;
    ta[i].sum = &sum;
}
```
/* loop that creates threads */
for(int i = 0; i < nthread; i++) {
    ta[i].i=i;
    if(pthread_create(&ta[i].tid, NULL, tsum, &ta[i]) != 0) {
        fprintf(stderr, "ERROR: Failed to create thread\n");
        exit(1);
    }
}
int s = 0;
void *res;
for(int i = 0; i < nthread; i++) {
   s = pthread_join(ta[i].tid, &res);
   if(s != 0) {
      fprintf(stderr, "ERROR: Could not join\n");
      exit(2);
   }
}

printf("In main, sum is %d\n", sum);
Synchronization

- Semaphores can still be used with threads
  - `sem_init`, `sem_wait`, and `sem_post`
- But PThreads also offers other synchronization mechanisms
  - Mutexes: `pthread_mutex_init`, ...
  - Barriers: `pthread_barrier_init`, ...
  - Condition variables: `pthread_cond_signal`, ...
Mutexes

- Like binary semaphores
- Call `pthread_mutex_init` to initialize a mutex variable
- All threads wishing to enter a critical section call `pthread_mutex_lock` on a shared mutex variable
  - This attempts to “obtain a lock”
  - It will wait if the lock is already taken by another thread
- A thread that has the lock will call `pthread_mutex_unlock` to exit the critical section
  - One of the waiting threads will then be allowed in
Barriers

- Barriers cause threads to wait until a pre-determined number of threads arrive at the barrier
  - Usually, the number of threads is all the threads
- Barriers are commonly used to order phases of program execution
  - Each thread executes a phase independently, and then waits for all other threads to complete the phase before moving to the next
- Call `pthread_barrier_init` to initialize a barrier variable
  - You need to specify the number of threads
- Each thread calls `pthread_barrier_wait` on the barrier variable
  - This will force the thread to wait until all other threads reach the barrier
- When the last thread arrives at the barrier, all threads proceed
Condition Variables

- Condition variables allow threads to wait for condition to be true
  - Efficient alternative to “spinning” (i.e. a loop that constantly checks a variable)
- A thread locks a mutex, and waits on a condition variable that becomes associated with that mutex
  - The mutex is unlocked and the thread put to sleep in one atomic action
  - When the condition becomes true, the thread wakes after the lock is re-acquired
  - Example: Producer puts item in queue, consumer thread wakes up and can immediately dequeue it
- A thread can “wake up” the waiting threads by “signalling” the condition
Condition Variables: API

- Call `pthread_cond_init` to initialize a condition variable.
- A thread calls `pthread_cond_wait` on the condition variable and a mutex.
  - This causes it to wait until condition variable is “signalled”.
- A thread calls `pthread_cond_signal` to wake up waiting threads.
  - Wakes up one thread.
  - Can also call `pthread_cond_broadcast` to wake up all waiting threads.
Multiple Processors and Cores

- You can run concurrent code on a system with 1 processor
  - Thanks to time sharing
- But most computers have multiple cores today
  - Each core is an independent computational unit
- Systems can also have multiple processors
  - Each processor contains multiple cores
  - Rare in consumer-grade systems
Mapping Processes and Threads to Cores

- The OS scheduler maps processes and threads to cores
- It is possible to “pin” threads/processes to certain cores
  - Avoids scheduling overhead
  - Can improve performance in some situations
- On Linux, the `sched_setaffinity` function allows you to set thread affinities
  - Can also use the `pthread_setaffinity_np` function
A Sneak Peek at Cache Coherence

- Recall that caches contain copies of data variables
  - This is fine when only one process/thread is accessing the data
- What happens when different threads access shared data?
  - Core 1 has shared variable `sum` in its cache
  - Will Core 2 try to get `sum` from memory?
Cache Coherence

- Cache coherence is a hardware mechanism to locate copies of a piece of data and use the “latest” version
  - Usually, the last written version
- Core 2 will send a request for sum
  - Core 1 will reply to that request
  - RAM may also reply, but Core 1 has more recent version and will be used by Core 2
- Coherence protocols also prevent multiple cores from writing to the same piece of data
- Cache coherence is covered in CS2/458, and also in CS2/451 and (possibly) ECE404
References

- Chapter 12
  - Except 12.2 (I/O Multiplexing)