# NON-BLOCKING DATA STRUCTURES 

 AND TRANSACTIONAL MEMORYTim Harris, 12 Oct 2018

## Lecture 2/3

- Linearizability
- Lock-free progress properties
- Hashtables and skip-lists
- Queues
- Reducing contention
- Explicit memory management


## Linearizability

## More generally

- Suppose we build a shared-memory data structure directly from read/write/CAS, rather than using locking as an intermediate layer

- Why might we want to do this?
- What does it mean for the data structure to be correct?


## What we're building

- A set of integers, represented by a sorted linked list
- find(int) -> bool
- insert(int) -> bool
- delete(int) -> bool


## Searching a sorted list

- find(20):

find(20) -> false


## Inserting an item with CAS

- insert(20):

insert(20) -> true


## Inserting an item with CAS

- insert(20):
- insert(25):



## Searching and finding together

- find(20) -> false This thread saw 20
was not in the set...
- insert(20) -> true
...but this thread succeeded in putting it in!
- Is this a correct implementation of a set?
- Should the programmer be surprised if this happens?
-What about more complicated mixes of operations?


## Correctness criteria

Informally:

Look at the behaviour of the data structure (what operations are called on it, and what their results are).

If this behaviour is indistinguishable from atomic calls to a sequential implementation then the concurrent implementation is correct.

## Sequential history

- No overlapping invocations:



## Concurrent history

- Allow overlapping invocations:



## Linearizability

- Is there a correct sequential history:
- Same results as the concurrent one
- Consistent with the timing of the invocations/responses?


## Example: linearizable

insert(10)->true insert(20)->true
Thread 1:

Thread 2:


## Example: linearizable



## Example: not linearizable

insert(10)->true insert(10)->false
Thread 1:

Thread 2: time

## Returning to our example

- find(20) -> false - insert(20) -> true



## Recurring technique

- For updates:
- Perform an essential step of an operation by a single atomic instruction
- E.g. CAS to insert an item into a list
- This forms a "linearization point"
- For reads:
- Identify a point during the operation's execution when the result is valid
- Not always a specific instruction


## Adding "delete"

- First attempt: just use CAS delete(10):



## Delete and insert:

- delete(10) \& insert(20):



## Logical vs physical deletion

- Use a 'spare' bit to indicate logically deleted nodes:



## Delete-greater-than-or-equal

- DeleteGE(int x) -> int
- Remove " $x$ ", or next element above " $x$ "

- DeleteGE(20) -> 30



## Does this work: DeleteGE(20)



## Delete-greater-than-or-equal



# Lock-free progress properties 

## Progress: is this a good "lock-free" list?

```
static volatile int MY_LIST = 0;
bool find(int key) {
    // Wait until list available
    while (CAS(&MY_LIST, 0, 1) == 1) {
    }
    ...
    // Release list
    MY_LIST = 0;
}
```


## "Lock-free"

- A specific kind of non-blocking progress guarantee
- Precludes the use of typical locks
- From libraries
- Or "hand rolled"
- Often mis-used informally as a synonym for
- Free from calls to a locking function
- Fast
- Scalable


## "Lock-free"

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The version number mechanism is an example of a technique that is often effective in practice, does not use locks, but is not lock-free in this technical sense

## System model



## Wait-free

- A thread finishes its own operation if it continues executing steps



## Implementing wait-free algorithms

- Important in some significant niches
- Worst-case execution time guarantees
" General construction techniques exist ("universal constructions")
- Queuing and helping strategies: everyone ensures oldest operation makes progress
- Often a high sequential overhead
- Often limited scalability
- Fast-path / slow-path constructions
- Start out with a faster lock-free algorithm
- Switch over to a wait-free algorithm if there is no progress
- ...if done carefully, obtain wait-free progress overall
- In practice, progress guarantees can vary between operations on a shared object
- e.g., wait-free find + lock-free delete


## Lock-free

- Some thread finishes its operation if threads continue taking steps



## A (poor) lock-free counter

```
int getNext(int *counter) {
    while (true) {
        int result = *counter;
    if (CAS(counter, result, result+1)) {
            return result;
        }
    }
}
```

> Not wait free: no guarantee that any particular thread will succeed

## Implementing lock-free algorithms

- Ensure that one thread (A) only has to repeat work if some other thread (B) has made "real progress"
- e.g., insert(x) starts again if it finds that a conflicting update has occurred
- Use helping to let one thread finish another's work
- e.g., physically deleting a node on its behalf


## Obstruction-free

- A thread finishes its own operation if it runs in isolation



## A (poor) obstruction-free counter



## Building obstruction-free algorithms

- Ensure that none of the low-level steps leave a data structure "broken"
- On detecting a conflict:
- Help the other party finish
- Get the other party out of the way
- Use contention management to reduce likelihood of livelock


## Hashtables and skiplists

## Hash tables



## Hash tables: Contains(16)



## Hash tables: Delete(11)



## Lessons from this hashtable

- Informal correctness argument:
- Operations on different buckets don't conflict: no extra concurrency control needed
- Operations appear to occur atomically at the point where the underlying list operation occurs
- (Not specific to lock-free lists: could use whole-table lock, or per-list locks, etc.)


## Practical difficulties:

- Key-val
- Popı
- Iterá
- Resi


## Options to consider when implementing a "difficult" operation: <br> Relax the semantics <br> (e.g., non-exact count, or non-linearizable count)

Fall back to a simple implementation if permitted (e.g., lock the whole table for resize)

Design a clever implementation (e.g., split-ordered lists)

Use a different data structure (e.g., skip lists)

## Skip lists



All items in a single list:
this defines the set's
contents

## Skip lists: Delete(11)

## Principle: lowest list is the truth



## Queues

## Work stealing queues

## PopTop() -> Item

1. Semantics relaxed for "PopTop"
2. Restriction: only one thread ever calls "Push/PopBottom"
3. Implementation costs skewed toward "PopTop" complex

## Bounded deque



## Bounded deque



## Bounded deque



## Bounded deque

Item popTop() \{
if (bottom <= top) return null;
<tmp_top,tmp_v> = <top, version>;
result = tasks[tmp_top];
if (CAS ( \&<top, version>,
<tmp_top, tmp_v>,
<tmp_top+1, tmp_v+1>)) \{
return result;
\}
return null;
\}

```
void pushBottom(Item i)\{
    tasks[bottom] \(=\mathrm{i}\);
    bottom++;
\}
```

Item popBottom() \{

## Bounded deque


void pushBottom(Item i)\{
tasks[bottom] = i;
bottom++;
\}


## ABA problems



## General techniques

- Local operations designed to avoid CAS
- Traditionally slower, less so now
- Costs of memory fences can be important ("Idempotent work stealing", Michael et al, and the "Laws of Order" paper)
" Local operations just use read and write
- Only one accessor, check for interference
- Use CAS:
- Resolve conflicts between stealers
- Resolve local/stealer conflicts
- Version number to ensure conflicts seen

Reducing contention

## Reducing contention

- Suppose you're implementing a shared counter with the following sequential spec:


```
void decrement(int *counter) {
    atomic {
        (*counter) --;
    }
}
```

```
bool isZero(int *counter) {
    atomic {
        return (*counter) == 0;
    }
}
```

How well can this scale?

## SNZI trees



## SNZI trees, linearizability on 0->1 change



1. T1 calls increment
2. T1 increments child to 1
3. T2 calls increment
4. T2 increments child to 2
5. T2 completes
6. Tx calls isZero
7. Tx sees o at parent
8. T1 calls increment on parent
9. T1 completes

## SNZI trees

```
void increment(snzi *s) {
    bool done=false;
    int undo=0;
    while(!done) {
    <val,ver> = read(s->state);
    if (val >= 1 && CAS(s->state, <val,ver>, <val+1,ver>)) { done = true; }
    if (val == 0 && CAS(s-> state, <val,ver>, <1/2, ver+1>)) {
        done = true; val=1/2; ver=ver+1
    }
    if (val == 1/2) {
                increment(s->parent);
            if (!CAS(s->state, <val, ver>, <1, ver>)) { undo ++; }
        }
    }
    while (undo > 0) {
    decrement(s->parent);
    }
}
```


## Reducing contention: stack



## Existing lock-free stack (e.g., Treiber's): good performance under low contention, poor scalability

A scalable lock-free stack algorithm, Hendler et al

## Pairing up operations



## Back-off elimination array



# Explicit memory management 

## Deletion revisited: Delete(10)



## De-allocate to the OS?



## Re-use as something else?



## Re-use as a list node?



## Reference counting



## Reference counting



## Reference counting



## Reference counting



## Reference counting



## Reference counting



## Epoch mechanisms

Global epoch: 1000
Thread 1 epoch:-
Thread 2 epoch: -


## Epoch mechanisms

Global epoch: 1000
Thread 1 epoch: 1000
Thread 2 epoch: -

1. Record global epoch at start of


## Epoch mechanisms

Global epoch: 1000 Thread 1 epoch: 1000 Thread 2 epoch: 1000

1. Record global epoch at start of operation
2. Keep per-epoch deferred deallocation lists


## Epoch mechanisms

Global epoch: 1001 Thread 1 epoch: 1000

Thread 2 epoch: -


## Epoch mechanisms

Global epoch: 1002
Thread 1 epoch: -
Thread 2 epoch: -

1. Record global epoch at start of operation
2. Keep per-epoch deferred deallocation lists
3. Increment global epoch at end of operation (or periodically)
4. Free when everyone past epoch


## The "repeat offender problem"

Free: ready for allocation


Allocated and linked in to a data structure


Escaping: unlinked, but possibly temporarily in use

## Re-use via ROP



Thread 1
guards

## Re-use via ROP



## Re-use via ROP



## Re-use via ROP



## Re-use via ROP



## Re-use via ROP



## Re-use via ROP



