Today: Side excursions into nitty-gritty stuff: Threads, storage management.
Threads

• So far, all our programs consist of single sequences of instructions.
• Each such sequence is called a thread (for “thread of control”) in Java.
• Java supports programs containing multiple threads, which (conceptually) run concurrently.
• To allow program access to threads, Java provides the type Thread in java.lang. Each Thread contains information about, and controls, one thread.
• Simultaneous access to data from two threads can cause chaos, so there are also constructs for controlled communication, allowing threads to lock objects, to wait to be notified of events, and to interrupt other threads.
But Why?

• Actually, on a uniprocessor, only one thread at a time actually runs, while others wait, but this is largely invisible. So why bother with threads?

• Typical Java programs always have \( > 1 \) thread: besides the main program, others clean up garbage objects, receive signals, update the display, other stuff.

• When programs deal with asynchronous events, it is sometimes convenient to organize into subprograms, one for each independent, related sequence of events.

• Threads allow us to insulate one such subprogram from another. They thus provide a form of modularization.

• GUIs often organized like this: application is doing some computation or I/O, another thread waits for mouse clicks (like 'Stop'), another pays attention to updating the screen as needed.

• Large servers like search engines may be organized this way, with one thread per request.

• And, of course, sometimes we do have a real multiprocessor.
Java Mechanics

• To specify the actions “walking” and “chewing gum”:

```java
class Chewer1 implements Runnable {
    public void run() {
        while (true) ChewGum();
    }
}
class Walker1 implements Runnable {
    public void run() {
        while (true) Walk();
    }
}
```

// Walk and chew gum
Thread chomp = new Thread(new Chewer1());
Thread clomp = new Thread(new Walker1());
chomp.start(); clomp.start();

• Concise Alternative (uses fact that Thread implements Runnable):

```java
class Chewer2 extends Thread {
    public void run() {
        while (true) ChewGum();
    }
}
class Walker2 extends Thread {
    public void run() {
        while (true) Walk();
    }
}
```

Thread chomp = new Chewer2(),
clomp = new Walker2();
chomp.start();
clomp.start();
Avoiding Interference

• When one thread has data for another, one must wait for the other to be ready.

• Likewise, if two threads use the same data structure, generally only one should modify it at a time; other must wait.

• E.g., what would happen if two threads simultaneously inserted an item into a linked list at the same point in the list?

• A: Both could conceivably execute

```
p.next = new ListCell(x, p.next);
```

with the *same* values of \( p \) and \( p.next \); one insertion is lost.

• Can arrange for only one thread at a time to execute a method on a particular object with either of the following equivalent definitions:

```
void f(...) {
    synchronized (this) {
        body of f
    }
}
```

```
synchronized void f(...) {
    body of f
}
```
Communicating data is tricky: the faster party must wait for the slower.

Obvious approaches for sending data from thread to thread don't work:

```java
class DataExchanger {
    Object value = null;
    Object receive() {
        Object r; r = null;
        while (r == null)
            { r = value; }
        value = null;
        return r;
    }
    void deposit(Object data) {
        while (value != null) { }
        value = data;
    }
}
```

BAD: One thread can monopolize the machine while waiting; two threads executing deposit or receive simultaneously cause chaos.

DataExchanger exchanger = new DataExchanger();

// thread1 sends to thread2 with exchanger.deposit("Hello!");

// thread2 receives from thread1 with msg = (String) exchanger.receive();
Primitive Java Facilities

- **Object.wait** method makes the current thread wait (not using processor) until notified by **notifyAll**, unlocking the Object while it waits.

- For example, **ucb.util.mailbox** has something like this (simplified):

```java
interface Mailbox {
    void deposit(Object msg) throws InterruptedException;
    Object receive() throws InterruptedException;
}

class QueuedMailbox implements Mailbox {
    private List<Object> queue = new LinkedList<Object>();

    public synchronized void deposit(Object msg) {
        queue.add(msg);
        this.notifyAll(); // Wake any waiting receivers
    }

    public synchronized Object receive() throws InterruptedException {
        while (queue.isEmpty()) wait();
        return queue.remove(0);
    }
}
```
Message-Passing Style

• The use of Java primitives very error-prone. CS162 goes into alternatives.
• Mailboxes are higher-level, and allow the following program structure:

Where each Player is a thread that looks like this:

```java
while (! gameOver()) {
    if (myMove())
        outBox.deposit(computeMyMove(lastMove));
    else
        lastMove = inBox.receive();
}
```
More Concurrency

• Previous example can be done other ways, but mechanism is very flexible.

• E.g., suppose you want to think during opponent’s move:

```java
while (!gameOver()) {
    if (myMove())
        outBox.deposit(computeMyMove(lastMove));
    else {
        do {
            thinkAheadALittle();
            lastMove = inBox.receiveIfPossible();
        } while (lastMove == null);
    }
}
```

• `receiveIfPossible` (written `receive(0) in our actual package`) doesn’t wait; returns `null` if no message yet, perhaps like this:

```java
public synchronized Object receiveIfPossible() throws InterruptedException {
    if (queue.isEmpty())
        return null;
    return queue.remove(0);
}
```
**Coroutines**

- A *coroutine* is a kind of synchronous thread that explicitly hands off control to other coroutines so that only one executes at a time, like Python generators. Can get similar effect with threads and mailboxes.

- Example: recursive inorder tree iterator:

```java
class TreeIterator extends Thread {
    Tree root; Mailbox r;
    TreeIterator(Tree T, Mailbox r) {
        this.root = T; this.dest = r;
    }
    public void run() {
        traverse(root);
        r.deposit(End marker);
    }
    void traverse(Tree t) {
        if (t == null) return;
        traverse(t.left);
        r.deposit(t.label);
        traverse(t.right);
    }
}
```

```java
void treeProcessor(Tree T) {
    Mailbox m = new QueuedMailbox();
    new TreeIterator(T, m).start();
    while (true) {
        Object x = m.receive();
        if (x is end marker)
            break;
        do something with x;
    }
}
```
Use In GUIs

- Java runtime library uses a special thread that does nothing but wait for \textit{events} like mouse clicks, pressed keys, mouse movement, etc.
- You can designate an object of your choice as a \textit{listener}; which means that Java’s event thread calls a method of that object whenever an event occurs.
- As a result, your program can do work while the UI continues to respond to buttons, menus, etc.
- Another special thread does all the drawing. You don’t have to be aware when this takes place; just ask that the thread wake up whenever you change something.
Highlights of a GUI Component

/** A widget that draws multi-colored lines indicated by mouse. */
class Lines extends JComponent implements MouseListener {
    private List<Point> lines = new ArrayList<Point>();

    Lines() { // Main thread calls this to create one
        setPreferredSize(new Dimension(400, 400));
        addMouseListener(this);
    }

    public synchronized void paintComponent(Graphics g) { // Paint thread
        int x, y; x = y = 200;
        Color c = Color.black;
        for (Point p : lines)
            g.setColor(c); c = chooseNextColor(c);
            g.drawLine(x, y, p.x, p.y); x = p.x; y = p.y;
    }

    public synchronized void mouseClicked(MouseEvent e) // Event thread
    { lines.add(new Point(e.getX(), e.getY())); repaint(); }

    ...
}
Interrupts

• An *interrupt* is an event that disrupts the normal flow of control of a program.

• In many systems, interrupts can be totally *asynchronous*, occurring at arbitrary points in a program. The Java developers considered this unwise and arranged that interrupts would occur only at controlled points.

• In Java programs, one thread can interrupt another to inform it that something unusual needs attention:

  ```java
  otherThread.interrupt();
  ```

• But otherThread **does not** receive the interrupt until it waits: methods `wait`, `sleep` (wait for a period of time), `join` (wait for thread to terminate), and library methods like `mailbox deposit` and `receive`.

• An interrupt causes these methods to throw `InterruptedException`, so typical use is like this:

  ```java
  try {
      msg = inBox.receive();
  } catch (InterruptedException e) { HandleEmergency(); }
  ```
Remote Mailboxes (A Side Excursion)

- **RMI**: Remote Method Interface allows one program to refer to objects in another program.

- **We use it to allow mailboxes in one program to be received from or be deposited into in another.**

- **To use this, you define an `interface` to the remote object:**

  ```java
  import java.rmi.*;
  interface Mailbox extends Remote {
      void deposit(Object msg)
          throws InterruptedException, RemoteException;
      Object receive()
          throws InterruptedException, RemoteException;
      ...
  }
  ```

- **On the machine that actually will contain the object, you define**

  ```java
  class QueuedMailbox ... implements Mailbox {
      Same implementation as before, roughly
  }
  ```
Remote Objects Under the Hood

// On machine #1:
Mailbox outBox
   = new QueuedMailbox();

// On Machine #2:
Mailbox inBox
   = get outBox from machine #1

Because Mailbox is an interface type, you don’t see whether you are looking at a mailbox or at a (remote) stub that stands in for it.

Requests for method calls are relayed by I/O to the machine that has real object.

Any argument or return type OK if it also implements Remote or can be serialized—turned into a stream of bytes and back, as can primitive types and String.

Because I/O is involved, expect failures, hence every method can throw RemoteException (subtype of IOException).
New Topic: Storage Management
Scope and Lifetime

- The **scope** of a declaration is portion of program text to which it applies (is *visible*).
  - Need not be a contiguous region.
  - In Java, as in Python, it is static: independent of data.

- The **lifetime** or **extent** of storage is the portion of program execution during which it exists.
  - Always contiguous.
  - Generally dynamic: depends on data

- Classes of extent:
  - **Static**: entire duration of program
  - **Local** or **automatic**: duration of the execution of a call or block—as for local variables or parameters.
  - **Dynamic**: From time of explicit allocation (**new**) to deallocation, if any.
Explicit vs. Automatic Freeing

• Java has no explicit means to free dynamic storage.

• However, when no expression in any thread can possibly be influenced by or change an object, it might as well not exist:

```java
IntList wasteful()
{
    IntList c = new IntList(3, new IntList(4, null));
    return c.tail;
    // variable c now deallocated, so no way
    // to get to first cell of list
}
```

• At this point, Java's runtime, like Scheme's, “recycles” the object that `c` pointed to: *garbage collection*. 

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Under the Hood: Allocation

- Java pointers (references) are represented as integer addresses.
- Corresponds to machine’s own practice.
- In Java, cannot convert integers $\leftrightarrow$ pointers,
- But crucial parts of Java’s runtime are implemented in C, or sometimes machine code, where you can conflate integers and pointers.
- Example of a crude allocator in C:

```c
char store[STORAGE_SIZE];  // Allocated array
size_t remainder = STORAGE_SIZE;

/** A pointer to a block of at least N bytes of storage */
void* simpleAlloc(size_t n) {
    // void*: pointer to anything
    if (n > remainder) ERROR();
    remainder = (remainder - n) & ~0x7;  // Make multiple of 8
    return (void*) (store + remainder);
}
```
Example of Storage Layout: Unix

- OS provides a way to turn chunks of unallocated region into heap.
- Happens automatically for stack.
Explicit Deallocating

- C/C++ normally require explicit deallocation, because of
  - Lack of run-time information about types and array sizes;
  - Possibility of converting pointers to integers;
  - Lack of run-time information about **unions**:

```
union Various {
  int Int;
  char* Pntr;
  double Double;
} X;  // X is either an int, char*, or double
```

- Java avoids all three problems; automatic collection possible.

- Explicit freeing can be somewhat faster, but rather error-prone:
  - Memory corruption (freeing twice, freeing something that isn’t actually a valid pointer.)
  - Memory leaks (failing to ever release something.)
Free Lists

- Explicit allocator grabs chunks of storage from OS to give to applications.
- Or gives recycled storage, when available.
- When storage is freed, it is added to a free list data structure to be recycled.
- Used both for explicit freeing and some kinds of automatic storage management.

Variables (visible to program)

The Heap

Free list

In use
Free List Strategies

• Memory requests generally come in multiple sizes.

• Not all chunks on the free list are big enough, and one may have to search for a chunk and break it up if too big.

• Various strategies to find a chunk that fits have been used:
  
  - **Sequential fits:**
    * Link blocks in LIFO or FIFO order, or sorted by address.
    * Coalesce adjacent blocks.
    * Search for *first fit* on list, *best fit* on list, or *next fit* on list after last-chosen chunk.

  - **Segregated fits:** separate free lists for different chunk sizes.

  - **Buddy systems:** A kind of segregated fit where some newly adjacent free blocks of one size are easily detected and combined into bigger chunks.

• Coalescing blocks reduces *fragmentation* of memory into lots of little scattered chunks.
Automatic Garbage Collection: Reference Counting

- Idea: Keep count of number of pointers to each object. Release when count goes to 0.

\[ Y = X.\text{tail}; \]

\[ Y = X; \]

\[ X = Y; \]

...etc., until:
Garbage Collection: Mark and Sweep

Roots (locals + statics)

1. Traverse and mark graph of objects.
2. Sweep through memory, freeing unmarked objects.

Before sweep:

| A | B* | C | D | G | F | A |

| 42 | D | G | F | A |

| D* | E* | F | C | E |

After sweep:

| B | D | G |

| D | 7 | G |

| D | E | G |
Cost of Mark-and-Sweep

- Mark-and-sweep algorithms don’t move any existing objects—pointers stay the same.

- The total amount of work depends on the amount of memory swept—i.e., the total amount of active (non-garbage) storage + amount of garbage. Not necessarily a big hit: the garbage had to be active at one time, and hence there was always some “good” processing in the past for each byte of garbage scanned.
Another approach: *copying garbage collection* takes time proportional to amount of active storage:

- Traverse the graph of active objects breadth first, *copying* them into a large contiguous area (called “to-space”).
- As you copy each object, mark it and put a *forwarding pointer* into it that points to where you copied it.
- The next time you have to copy an already marked object, just use its forwarding pointer instead.
- When done, the space you copied from (“from-space”) becomes the next to-space; in effect, all its objects are freed in constant time.
Copying Garbage Collection Illustrated

(a) Roots from: \[\text{B} \quad \text{5} \quad \text{E} \] to: \[\text{42} \quad \text{D} \quad \text{G} \quad \text{F} \quad \text{A} \quad \text{7} \quad \text{G} \quad \text{D} \quad \text{F} \quad \text{C} \quad \text{E} \]

(b) Roots from: \[\text{B'} \quad \text{5} \quad \text{E'} \] to: \[\text{D} \quad \text{G} \quad \text{D} \]

(c) Roots from: \[\text{B'} \quad \text{5} \quad \text{E'} \] to: \[\text{D'} \quad \text{G'} \quad \text{D} \quad \text{7} \quad \text{G} \quad \text{E'} \]

(d) Roots from: \[\text{B'} \quad \text{5} \quad \text{E'} \] to: \[\text{D'} \quad \text{G'} \quad \text{D'} \quad \text{7} \quad \text{G'} \quad \text{E'} \]

B: Old object
B': New object
*: marked

forwarding pointers

Copy roots

Copy from to-space in (b).
Only D is new

Copy from to-space in (c).
No new objects
Most Objects Die Young: Generational Collection

- Most older objects stay active, and need not be collected.
- Would be nice to avoid copying them over and over.
- **Generational garbage collection** schemes have two (or more) from spaces: one for newly created objects (**new space**) and one for “tenured” objects that have survived garbage collection (**old space**).
- A typical garbage collection collects only in new space, ignores pointers from new to old space, and moves objects to old space.
- As roots, uses usual roots plus pointers in old space that have changed (so that they might be pointing to new space).
- When old space full, collect all spaces.
- This approach leads to much smaller **pause times** in interactive systems.
There's Much More

- These are just highlights.
- Lots of work on how to implement these ideas efficiently.
- **Distributed garbage collection**: What if objects scattered over many machines?
- **Real-time collection**: where predictable pause times are important, leads to *incremental* collection, doing a little at a time.