## **Outline**

- Cache coherence the hardware view
- Synchronization and memory consistency review
- C11 Atomics
- 4 Avoiding locks

### Important memory system properties

#### Coherence – concerns accesses to a single memory location

- Must obey program order if access from only one CPU
- There is a total order on all updates
- There is bounded latency before everyone sees a write

#### Consistency – concerns ordering across memory locations

- Even with coherence, different CPUs can see the same write happen at different times
- Sequential consistency is what matches our intuition (As if operations from all CPUs interleaved on one CPU)
- Many architectures offer weaker consistency
- Yet well-defined weaker consistency can still be sufficient to implement thread API contract from concurrency lecture

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## Multicore cache coherence

#### Performance requires caches

- Divided into chuncks of bytes called lines (e.g., 64 bytes)
- Caches create an opportunity for cores to disagree about memory

#### Bus-based approaches

- "Snoopy" protocols, each CPU listens to memory bus
- Use write-through and invalidate when you see a write bits
- Bus-based schemes limit scalability

#### Modern CPUs use networks (e.g., hypertransport, QPI, UPI)

- CPUs pass each other messages about cache lines

## **MESI** coherence protocol

#### Modified

- One cache has a valid copy
- That copy is dirty (needs to be written back to memory)
- Must invalidate all copies in other caches before entering this state

- Same as Modified except the cache copy is clean

One or more caches and memory have a valid copy

#### Invalid

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Doesn't contain any data

#### Owned (for enhanced "MOESI" protocol)

- Memory may contain stale value of data (like Modified state)
- But have to broadcast modifications (sort of like Shared state)
- Can have both one owned and multiple shared copies of cache line

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## **Core and Bus Actions**

#### Actions performed by CPU core

- Read
- Write
- Evict (modified? must write back)

## Transactions on bus (or interconnect)

- Read: without intent to modify, data can come from memory or another cache
- Read-exclusive: with intent to modify, must invalidate all other cache copies
- Writeback: contents put on bus and memory is updated

#### cc-NUMA

#### Old machines used dance hall architectures

- Any CPU can "dance with" any memory equally
- An alternative: Non-Uniform Memory Access (NUMA)
  - Each CPU has fast access to some "close" memory
  - Slower to access memory that is farther away
  - Use a directory to keep track of who is caching what

#### Originally for esoteric machines with many CPUs

- But AMD and then intel integrated memory controller into CPU
- Faster to access memory controlled by the local socket (or even local die in a multi-chip module)

#### cc-NUMA = cache-coherent NUMA

- Rarely see non-cache-coherent NUMA (BBN Butterfly 1, Cray T3D)

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## **Real World Coherence Costs**

- See [David] for a great reference. Xeon results:
  - 3 cycle L1, 11 cycle L2, 44 cycle LLC, 355 cycle local RAM
- If another core in same socket holds line in modified state:
  - load: 109 cycles (LLC + 65)
  - store: 115 cycles (LLC + 71)
  - atomic CAS: 120 cycles (LLC + 76)
- If a core in a different socket holds line in modified state:
  - NUMA load: 289 cycles
  - NUMA store: 320 cycles
  - NUMA atomic CAS: 324 cycles
- But only a partial picture
  - Could be faster because of out-of-order execution
  - Could be slower if interconnect contention or multiple hops

**Outline** 

# NUMA and spinlocks

- Test-and-set spinlock has several advantages
  - Simple to implement and understand
  - One memory location for arbitrarily many CPUs
- But also has disadvantages
  - Lots of traffic over memory interconnect (especially w. > 1 spinner)
  - Not necessarily fair (same CPU acquires lock many times)
  - Even less fair on a NUMA machine
- Idea 1: Avoid spinlocks altogether (today)
- Idea 2: Reduce interconnect traffic with better spinlocks (next lecture)
  - Design lock that spins only on local memory
  - Also gives better fairness

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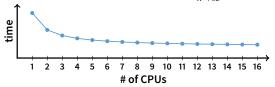
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- Cache coherence the hardware view
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- 3 C11 Atomics
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## Amdahl's law

$$T(n) = T(1)\left(B + \frac{1}{n}(1-B)\right)$$

- Expected speedup limited when only part of a task is sped up
  - T(n): the time it takes n CPU cores to complete the task
  - B: the fraction of the job that must be serial
- Even with massive multiprocessors,  $\lim_{n\to\infty} = B \cdot T(1)$



- Places an ultimate limit on parallel speedup
- Problem: synchronization increases serial section size

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#### **Locking basics**

```
mutex_t m;
lock(&m);
cnt = cnt + 1; /* critical section */
unlock(&m);
```

- Only one thread can hold a mutex at a time
  - Makes critical section atomic
- Recall thread API contract
  - All access to global data must be protected by a mutex
  - Global = two or more threads touch data and at least one writes
- Means must map each piece of global data to one mutex
  - Never touch the data unless you locked that mutex
- But many ways to map data to mutexes

## **Locking granularity**

 Consider two lookup implementations for global hash table: struct list \*hash\_tb1[1021];

```
coarse-grained locking
mutex_t m;
    :
    mutex_lock(&m);
struct list_elem *pos = list_begin (hash_tbl[hash(key)]);
/* ... walk list and find entry ... */
mutex_unlock(&m);
```

```
fine-grained locking
mutex_t bucket_lock[1021];
     :
    int index = hash(key);
    mutex_lock(&bucket_lock[index]);
    struct list_elem *pos = list_begin (hash_tbl[index]);
    /* ... walk list and find entry ... */
    mutex_unlock(&bucket_lock[index]);
```

Which implementation is better?

# Locking granularity (continued)

- Fine-grained locking admits more parallelism
  - E.g., imagine network server looking up values in hash table
  - Parallel requests will usually map to different hash buckets
  - So fine-grained locking should allow better speedup
- When might coarse-grained locking be better?

## Locking granularity (continued)

- Fine-grained locking admits more parallelism
  - E.g., imagine network server looking up values in hash table
  - Parallel requests will usually map to different hash buckets
  - So fine-grained locking should allow better speedup
- When might coarse-grained locking be better?
  - Suppose you have global data that applies to whole hash table

- Read num\_buckets each time you insert
- Check num\_elements each insert, possibly expand buckets & rehash
- Single global mutex would protect these fields
- Can you avoid serializing lookups to hash table?

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## **Readers-writers problem**

- Recall a mutex allows access in only one thread
- But a data race occurs only if
  - Multiple threads access the same data, and
  - At least one of the accesses is a write
- How to allow multiple readers or one single writer?
  - Need lock that can be shared amongst concurrent readers
- Can implement using other primitives (next slides)
  - Keep integer i # of readers or -1 if held by writer
  - Protect i with mutex
  - Sleep on condition variable when can't get lock

## **Implementing shared locks**

```
struct sharedlk {
  int i;    /* # shared lockers, or -1 if exclusively locked */
  mutex_t m;
  cond_t c;
};

void AcquireExclusive (sharedlk *sl) {
  lock (&sl->m);
  while (sl->i) { wait (&sl->m, &sl->c); }
  sl->i = -1;
  unlock (&sl->m);
}

void AcquireShared (sharedlk *sl) {
  lock (&sl->m);
  while (&sl->i < 0) { wait (&sl->m, &sl->c); }
  sl->i++;
  unlock (&sl->m);
}
```

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## Implementing shared locks (continued)

```
void ReleaseShared (sharedlk *sl) {
  lock (&s1->m);
  if (!--s1->i)
    signal (&s1->c);
  unlock (&s1->m);
}

void ReleaseExclusive (sharedlk *sl) {
  lock (&s1->m);
  s1->i = 0;
  broadcast (&s1->c);
  unlock (&s1->m);
}
```

Any issues with this implementation?

# Implementing shared locks (continued)

```
void ReleaseShared (sharedlk *s1) {
  lock (&s1->m);
  if (!--s1->i)
    signal (&s1->c);
  unlock (&s1->m);
}

void ReleaseExclusive (sharedlk *s1) {
  lock (&s1->m);
  s1->i = 0;
  broadcast (&s1->c);
  unlock (&s1->m);
}
```

- Any issues with this implementation?
  - Prone to starvation of writer (no bounded waiting)
  - How might you fix?

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## **Review: Test-and-set spinlock**

```
struct var {
  int lock;
  int val;
};

void atomic_inc (var *v) {
  while (test_and_set (&v->lock))
  ;
  v->val++;
  v->lock = 0;
}

void atomic_dec (var *v) {
  while (test_and_set (&v->lock))
  ;
  v->val--;
  v->lock = 0;
}
```

• Is this code correct without sequential consistency?

# Memory reordering danger

- Suppose no sequential consistency (& don't compensate)
- Hardware could violate program order

```
Program order on CPU #1
v->lock = 1;
register = v->val;
v->val = register + 1;
v->lock = 0;

v->lock = 0;

v->lock = 0;
/* danger */;
v->val = register + 1;
```

If atomic\_inc called at /\* danger \*/, bad val ensues!

## **Ordering requirements**

```
void atomic_inc (var *v) {
  while (test_and_set (&v->lock))
  ;
  v->val++;
  /* danger */
  v->lock = 0;
}
```

- Must ensure all CPUs see the following:
  - 1. v->lock = 1 ran before v->val was read and written
  - 2. v->lock = 0 ran after v->val was written
- How does #1 get assured on x86?
  - Recall test\_and\_set uses xchgl %eax,(%edx)
- How to ensure #2 on x86?

## **Ordering requirements**

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```
void atomic_inc (var *v) {
  while (test_and_set (&v->lock))
   ;
  v->val++;
  /* danger */
  v->lock = 0;
}
```

- Must ensure all CPUs see the following:
  - 1. v->lock = 1 ran before v->val was read and written
  - 2. v->lock = 0 ran after v->val was written
- How does #1 get assured on x86?
  - Recall test\_and\_set uses xchgl %eax,(%edx)
  - xchgl instruction always "locked," ensuring barrier
- How to ensure #2 on x86?

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### Ordering requirements

```
void atomic_inc (var *v) {
  while (test_and_set (&v->lock))
  ;
  v->val++;
  asm volatile ("sfence" ::: "memory");
  v->lock = 0;
}
```

- Must ensure all CPUs see the following:
  - 1. v->lock = 1 ran before v->val was read and written
  - 2. v->lock = 0 ran after v->val was written
- How does #1 get assured on x86?
  - Recall test\_and\_set uses xchgl %eax,(%edx)
  - xchgl instruction always "locked," ensuring barrier
- How to ensure #2 on x86?
  - Might need fence instruction after, e.g., non-temporal stores
  - Definitely need compiler barrier

# Gcc extended asm syntax [gnu]

```
asm volatile (template-string : outputs : inputs : clobbers);
```

- Puts template-string in assembly language compiler output
  - Expands %0, %1, ... (a bit like printf conversion specifiers)
  - Use "%%" for a literal % (e.g., "%%cr3" to specify %cr3 register)
- inputs/outputs specify parameters as "constraint" (value)

```
int outvar, invar = 3;
asm ("movl %1, %0" : "=r" (outvar) : "r" (invar));
/* now outvar == 3 */
```

- clobbers lists other state that get used/overwritten
  - Special value "memory" prevents reordering with loads & stores
  - Serves as compiler barrier, as important as hardware barrier
- volatile indicates side effects other than result
  - Otherwise, gcc might optimize away if you don't use result

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## Correct spinlock on alpha

 Recall implementation of test\_and\_set on alpha (with much weaker memory consistency than x86):

```
_test_and_set:
    ldq_l
           v0, 0(a0)
                              # v0 = *lockp (LOCKED)
    bne
           v0, 1f
                              # if (v0) return
    addq
           zero, 1, v0
                              # v0 = 1
                             # *lockp = v0 (CONDITIONAL)
           v0, 0(a0)
    stq_c
           v0, _test_and_set # if (failed) try again
    beq
    mb
           zero, zero, v0
                              # return 0
    addq
           zero, (ra), 1
    ret
```

- Memory barrier instruction mb (like mfence)
  - All processors will see that everything before mb in program order happened before everything after mb in program order
- Need barrier before releasing spinlock as well:

```
asm volatile ("mb" ::: "memory");
v->lock = 0;
```

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## **Memory barriers/fences**

- Fortunately, consistency need not overly complicate code
  - If you do locking right, only need a few fences within locking code
  - Code will be easily portable to new CPUs
- Most programmers should stick to mutexes
- But advanced techniques may require lower-level code
  - Later this lecture will see some wait-free algorithms
  - Also important for optimizing special-case locks (E.g., linux kernel rw\_semaphore,...)
- Algorithms often explained assuming sequential consistency
  - Must know how to use memory fences to implement correctly
  - E.g., see [Howells] for how Linux deals with memory consistency
  - And another plug for Why Memory Barriers
- Next: How C11 allows portable low-level code

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## **Outline**

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## **Atomics and portability**

- Lots of variation in atomic instructions, consistency models, compiler behavior
  - Changing the compiler or optimization level can invalidate code
- Different CPUs today: Your laptop is x86, but cell phone ARM
  - x86: Total Store Order Consistency Model, CISC
  - arm: Relaxed Consistency Model, RISC
- Could make it impossible to write portable kernels and applications
- Fortunately, the C11 standard has builtin support for atomics
  - Enable in GCC with the -std=gnu11 flag (now the default)
- Also available in C++11, but won't discuss today

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# Background: C memory model [C11]

- Within a thread, many evaluations are sequenced
  - E.g., in "f1(); f2();", evaluation of f1 is sequenced before f2
- Across threads, some operations synchronize with others
  - E.g., releasing mutex *m* synchronizes with a subsequent acquire *m*
- Evaluation A happens before B, which we'll write  $A \rightarrow B$ , when:
  - A is sequenced before B (in the same thread),
  - A synchronizes with B,
  - A is dependency-ordered before B (ignore for now—means A has release semantics and B consume semantics for same value), or
  - There is another operation X such that  $A \rightarrow X \rightarrow B$ .<sup>1</sup>

## **C11 Atomics: Big picture**

- C11 says behavior of a data race is undefined
  - A write conflicts with a read or write of same memory location
  - Two conflicting operations *race* if not ordered by happens before
  - Undefined can be anything (e.g., delete all your files, ...)
- Spinlocks (and hence mutexes that internally use spinlocks) synchronize across threads
  - Synchronization adds happens before arrows, avoiding data races
- Yet hardware supports other means of synchronization
- C11 atomics provide direct access to synchronized lower-level operations
  - E.g., can get compiler to issue lock prefix in some cases

<sup>1</sup>Except chain of " $\rightarrow$ " cannot end: ..., dependency-ordered, sequenced before

### **C11 Atomics: Basics**

- Include new <stdatomic.h> header
- New \_Atomic type qualifier: e.g., \_Atomic int foo;
  - Convenient aliases: atomic\_bool, atomic\_int, atomic\_ulong,...
  - Must initialize specially:

```
#include <stdatomic.h>
Atomic_ int global_int = ATOMIC_VAR_INIT(140);
    :
    Atomic_(int) *dyn = malloc(sizeof(*dyn));
    atomic_init(dyn, 140);
```

- Compiler emits read-modify-write instructions for atomics
  - E.g., +=, -=, |=, &=, ^=, ++, -- do what you would hope
  - Act atomically and synchronize with one another
- Also functions including atomic\_fetch\_add, atomic\_compare\_exchange\_strong,...

## **Locking and atomic flags**

- Implementations might use spinlocks internally for most atomics
  - Could interact badly with interrupt/signal handlers
  - Can check if ATOMIC\_INT\_LOCK\_FREE, etc., macros defined
  - Fortunately modern CPUs don't require this
- atomic\_flag is a special type guaranteed lock-free
  - Boolean value without support for loads and stores
  - Initialize with: atomic\_flag mylock = ATOMIC\_FLAG\_INIT;
  - Only two kinds of operation possible:

Above functions guarantee sequential consistency (atomic operation serves as memory fence, too)

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# **Exposing weaker consistency**

```
enum memory_order { /*...*/ };

_Bool atomic_flag_test_and_set_explicit(
    volatile atomic_flag *obj, memory_order order);
void atomic_flag_clear_explicit(
    volatile atomic_flag *obj, memory_order order);

C atomic_load_explicit(
    const volatile A *obj, memory_order order);
void atomic_store_explicit(
    volatile A *obj, C desired, memory_order order);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak_explicit(
    A *obj, C *expected, C desired,
    memory_order succ, memory_order fail);
```

- Atomic functions have \_explicit variants
  - These guarantee coherence but not sequential consistency
  - May allow compiler to generate faster code

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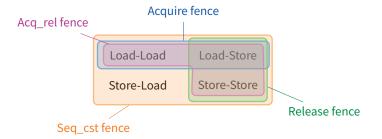
# **Memory ordering**

- Six possible memory\_order values:
  - 1. memory\_order\_relaxed: no memory ordering
  - 2. memory\_order\_consume: super tricky, see [Preshing] for discussion
  - 3. memory\_order\_acquire: for start of critical section
  - memory\_order\_release: for end of critical section
  - 5. memory\_order\_acq\_rel: combines previous two
  - 6. memory\_order\_seq\_cst: full sequential consistency
- Also have fence operation not tied to particular atomic:
   void atomic\_thread\_fence(memory\_order order);
- Suppose thread 1 releases and thread 2 acquires
  - Thread 1's preceding accesses can't move past release store
  - Thread 2's subsequent accesses can't move before acquire load
  - Warning: other threads might see a completely different order

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# Types of memory fence<sup>2</sup>



 X-Y fence = operations of type X sequenced before the fence happen before operations of type Y sequenced after the fence

# **Example: Atomic counters**

- Need to count packets accurately
- Don't need to order other memory accesses across threads
- Relaxed memory order can avoid unnecessary overhead
  - Depending on hardware, of course (not x86)

<sup>2</sup>Credit to [Preshing] for explaining it this way

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## **Example: Producer, consumer 1**

```
struct message msg_buf;
_Atomic(_Bool) msg_ready;
void send(struct message *m) {
 msg_buf = *m;
  atomic_thread_fence(memory_order_release);
  /* Prior loads+stores happen before subsequent stores */
  atomic_store_explicit(&msg_ready, 1,
                        memory_order_relaxed);
}
struct message *recv(void) {
  _Bool ready = atomic_load_explicit(&msg_ready,
                                      memory_order_relaxed);
  if (!ready)
   return NULL;
  atomic_thread_fence(memory_order_acquire);
  /* Prior loads happen before subsequent loads+stores */
  return &msg_buf;
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```

## **Example: Producer, consumer 2**

- This is potentially faster than previous example
  - E.g., other stores after send can be moved before msg\_buf

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## **Example: Spinlock**

- Outline
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## **Recall producer/consumer (lecture 3)**

```
/* PRODUCER */
                                 /* CONSUMER */
for (;;) {
                                 for (;;) {
  \verb|item *nextProduced|\\
                                   mutex_lock (&mutex);
    = produce_item ();
                                   while (count == 0)
                                    cond_wait (&nonempty,
 mutex_lock (&mutex);
                                                &mutex);
  while (count == BUF_SIZE)
   cond_wait (&nonfull,
                                  nextConsumed = buffer[out]:
               &mutex);
                                   out = (out + 1) % BUF_SIZE;
                                   count --:
 buffer[in] = nextProduced;
                                   cond_signal (&nonfull);
  in = (in + 1) % BUF_SIZE;
                                   mutex_unlock (&mutex);
  count++;
  cond_signal (&nonempty);
                                   consume_item (nextConsumed);
 mutex_unlock (&mutex);
}
```

## **Eliminating locks**

- One use of locks is to coordinate multiple updates of single piece of state
- How to remove locks here?
  - Factor state so that each variable only has a single writer
- Producer/consumer example revisited
  - Assume one producer, one consumer
  - Why do we need count variable, written by both? To detect buffer full/empty
  - Have producer write in, consumer write out (both \_Atomic)
  - Use in/out to detect buffer state
  - But note next example busy-waits, which is less good

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## **Lock-free producer/consumer**

```
atomic_int in, out;

void producer (void *ignored) {
    for (;;) {
        item *nextProduced = produce_item ();
        while (((in + 1) % BUF_SIZE) == out) thread_yield ();
        buffer[in] = nextProduced;
        in = (in + 1) % BUF_SIZE;
    }
}

void consumer (void *ignored) {
    for (;;) {
        while (in == out) thread_yield ();
        nextConsumed = buffer[out];
        out = (out + 1) % BUF_SIZE;
        consume_item (nextConsumed);
    }
}
```

[Note fences not needed because no relaxed atomics]

Non-blocking synchronization

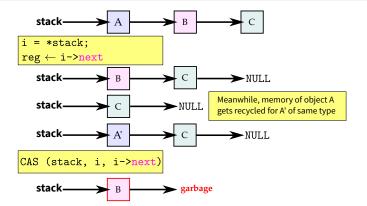
# • Design algorithm to avoid critical sections

- Any threads can make progress if other threads are preempted
- Which wouldn't be the case if preempted thread held a lock
- Requires that hardware provide the right kind of atomics
  - Simple test-and-set is insufficient
  - Atomic compare and swap is good: CAS (mem, old, new)
    If \*mem == old, then swap \*mem←→new and return true, else false
- Can implement many common data structures
  - Stacks, queues, even hash tables
- Can implement any algorithm on right hardware
  - Need operation such as atomic compare and swap (has property called *consensus number* =  $\infty$  [Herlihy])
  - Entire kernels have been written without locks [Greenwald]

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#### Wait-free stack issues



- "ABA" race in pop if other thread pops, re-pushes i
  - Can be solved by counters or hazard pointers to delay re-use

### Version with relaxed atomics

```
void producer (void *ignored) {
  for (;;) {
    item *nextProduced = produce_item ();
    int myin = atomic_load_explicit(&in, memory_order_relaxed);
    for (;;) {
     if ((myin + 1) % BUF_SIZE !=
         atomic_load_explicit(&out, memory_order_relaxed))
       break:
     thread_yield ();
   buffer[myin] = nextProduced;
    atomic_store_explicit(&in, (myin+1) % BUF_SIZE,
                          memory_order_release);
}
void consumer (void *ignored) {
  // use memory_order_acquire when loading in
  // to ensure you get correct buffer[myin] value
```

**Example: non-blocking stack** 

```
struct item {
    /* data */
    _Atomic (struct item *) next;
};
typedef _Atomic (struct item *) stack_t;

void atomic_push (stack_t *stack, item *i) {
    do {
        i->next = *stack;
    } while (!CAS (stack, i->next, i));
}

item *atomic_pop (stack_t *stack) {
    item *i;
    do {
        i = *stack;
    } while (!CAS (stack, i, i->next));
    return i;
}
```

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## "Benign" races

- Could also eliminate locks by having race conditions
- Maybe you think you care more about speed than correctness

++hits; /\* each time someone accesses web site \*/

Maybe you think you can get away with the race

```
if (!initialized) {
  lock (m);
  if (!initialized) {
   initialize ();
   atomic_thread_fence (memory_order_release); /* why? */
   initialized = 1;
  }
  unlock (m);
}
```

- But don't do this [Vyukov], [Boehm]! Not benign at all
  - Get undefined behavior—akin to out-of-bounds array access in C11
  - If needed for efficiency, use relaxed-memory-order atomics

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# **Read-copy update [McKenney]**

## **Next class**

- Some data is read way more often than written
  - Routing tables consulted for each forwarded packet
  - Data maps in system with 100+ disks (updated on disk failure)
- Optimize for the common case of reading without lock
  - E.g., global variable: routing\_table \*rt;
  - Call lookup (rt, route); with no lock
- Update by making copy, swapping pointer

```
routing_table *newrt = copy_routing_table (rt);
update_routing_table (newrt);
atomic_thread_fence (memory_order_release);
rt = newrt;
```

• Is RCU really safe? Stay tuned next lecture...

- The exciting conclusion of RCU
  - Spoiler: safe on all architectures except on alpha
- Building a better spinlock
- What interface should kernel provide for sleeping locks?
- Deadlock
- Scalable interface design

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