Outline Important memory system properties Coherence – concerns accesses to a single memory location - Must obey program order if access from only one CPU Cache coherence – the hardware view - There is a total order on all updates - There is bounded latency before everyone sees a write 2 Synchronization and memory consistency review Consistency – concerns ordering across memory locations - Even with coherence, different CPUs can see the same write 3 C11 Atomics happen at different times Sequential consistency is what matches our intuition (As if operations from all CPUs interleaved on one CPU) 4 Avoiding locks - 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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MESI coherence protocol

Modified

- Exactly 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

Exclusive

- Same as Modified except the cache copy is clean

Shared

- One or more caches and memory have a valid copy

Invalid

- 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 one owned + multiple shared copies of cache line

Core and Bus Actions

Multicore cache coherence

- Divided into chuncks of bytes called lines (e.g., 64 bytes)

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

- CPUs pass each other messages about cache lines

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

- Caches create an opportunity for cores to disagree about memory

Actions performed by CPU core

Performance requires caches

- Bus-based schemes limit scalability

Bus-based approaches

- 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

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 (lacks bounded waiting)
 - 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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OutlineAmdahl's law $T(n) = T(1) \left(B + \frac{1}{n}(1-B)\right)$ 1 Cache coherence – the hardware view2 Synchronization and memory consistency review2 Synchronization and memory consistency review4 Even with massive multiprocessors, $\lim_{n \to \infty} = B \cdot T(1)$

3 C11 Atomics

4 Avoiding locks

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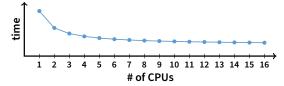
Locking basics

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

```
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```



- Places an ultimate limit on parallel speedup

Problem: synchronization increases serial section size

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Locking granularity

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

coarse-grained locking

fine-grained locking

• Which implementation is better?

 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 Borne-grained locking should allow better speedup When might coarse-grained locking be better? Suppose you have global data that applies to whole hash table Single global must would protect these fields Can you avoid serializing lookups to hash table? Single global must would protect these fields Can you avoid serializing lookups to hash table? Suprose you avoid serializing lookups to hash t	Locking granularity (continued)	Locking granularity (continued)
<pre>e 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 Sleep on condition variable when can't get lock</pre>	 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? 	 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 struct hash_table { size_t num_elements; /* num items in hash table */ size_t num_buckets; /* size of buckets array */ struct list *buckets; /* array of buckets */ }; Read num_buckets each time you insert Check num_elements each insert, possibly expand buckets & rehash Single global mutex would protect these fields
 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 Wait (ks1->m); while (s1->i) { wait (ks1->m, ks1->c); } s1->i+; while (s1->i) { wait (ks1->m, ks1->c); } s1->i+; while (s1->i) { wait (ks1->m, ks1->c); } s1->i+; while (ks1->m); 		
14/47 15/47	Readers-writers problem	Implementing shared locks

Implementing shared locks (continued)

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

• Any issues with this implementation?

Implementing shared locks (continued)

```
void ReleaseShared (sharedlk *sl) {
    lock (&sl->m);
    if (!--sl->1)
      signal (&sl->c);
    unlock (&sl->m);
}
void ReleaseExclusive (sharedlk *sl) {
    lock (&sl->m);
    sl->i = 0;
    broadcast (&sl->c);
    unlock (&sl->m);
}
```

• Any issues with this implementation?

- Prone to starvation of writer (no bounded waiting)
- How might you fix?

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;
}
```

Memory reordering danger

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

```
Program order on CPU #1 View on CPU #2
v->lock = 1;
register = v->val;
v->val = register + 1;
v->lock = 0;
/* danger */;
v->val = register + 1;
```

• If atomic_inc called at /* danger */, bad val ensues!

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Ordering requirements

Is this code correct without sequential consistency?

```
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

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?

Definitely need compiler barrier

- 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

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

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)
                               # if (v0) return
    bne
            v0, 1f
    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, vO
                               # return 0
    addq
1:
    {\tt 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:

2 Synchronization and memory consistency review

asm volatile ("mb" ::: "memory");

 $v \rightarrow lock = 0;$

3 C11 Atomics

4 Avoiding locks

Memory barriers/fences

- If you do locking right, only need a few fences within locking code

Fortunately, consistency need not overly complicate 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, ...) zero, (ra), 1 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 21/47 Outline **Atomics and portability** Lots of variation in atomic instructions, consistency models, compiler behavior Cache coherence – the hardware view 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 $A \rightarrow X \rightarrow B^{1}$.

- C11 says behavior of a data race is undefined
 - A write conflicts with a read or write of same memory location

C11 Atomics: Big picture

- 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

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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:
```

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:
 - Bool atomic_flag_test_and_set(volatile atomic_flag *obj);
 - void atomic_flag_clear(volatile atomic_flag *obj);
 - 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);

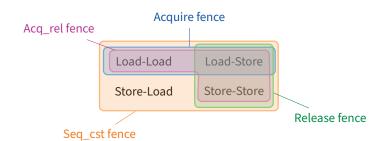
Atomic functions have _explicit variants

- These guarantee coherence but not sequential consistency
- May allow compiler to generate faster code

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Types of memory fence²



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

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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Example: Atomic counters

_Atomic(int) packet_count;

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)

²Credit to [Preshing] for explaining it this way

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; }

Example: Producer, consumer 2

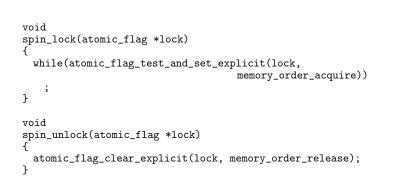
```
struct message msg_buf;
_Atomic(_Bool) msg_ready;
void send(struct message *m) {
  msg_buf = *m;
  atomic_store_explicit(&msg_ready, 1,
                         memory_order_release);
}
struct message *recv(void) {
  _Bool ready = atomic_load_explicit(&msg_ready,
                                        memory_order_acquire);
  if (!ready)
    return NULL;
  return &msg_buf;
}

    This is potentially faster than previous example

    E.g., other stores after send can be moved before msg_buf
```

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Example: Test-and-set spinlock



Outline

Example: Better test-and-set spinlock

```
void
spin_lock(atomic_bool *lock)
ł
 while(atomic_exchange_explicit(lock, 1,
                            memory_order_acquire)) {
   while(atomic_load_explicit(lock, memory_order_relaxed))
     }
}
void
spin_unlock(atomic_bool *lock)
ſ
 atomic_store_explicit(lock, 0, memory_order_release);
}
```

See [Rigtorp] for a good discussion

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Recall producer/consumer (lecture 3)

1 Cache coherence – the hardware view	<pre>/* PRODUCER */ for (;;) { item *nextProduced = produce_item ();</pre>	<pre>/* CONSUMER */ for (;;) { mutex_lock (&mutex); while (count == 0)</pre>
2 Synchronization and memory consistency review	<pre>mutex_lock (&mutex); while (count == BUF_SIZE)</pre>	<pre>cond_wait (&nonempty,</pre>
3 C11 Atomics	<pre>cond_wait (&nonfull,</pre>	<pre>nextConsumed = buffer[out]; out = (out + 1) % BUF_SIZE; count;</pre>
4 Avoiding locks	<pre>buffer[in] = nextProduced; in = (in + 1) % BUF_SIZE; count++; cond_signal (&nonempty); mutex_unlock (&mutex); }</pre>	<pre>cond_signal (&nonfull); mutex_unlock (&mutex); consume_item (nextConsumed); }</pre>

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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

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]
                                                           40/47
```

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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 (); 7 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
}
```

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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;
}
```

Non-blocking synchronization

• Design algorithm to *avoid critical sections*

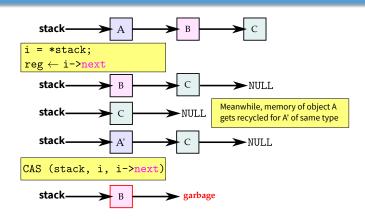
- Any threads can make progress if other threads are preempted
- Which wouldn't be the case if preempted thread held a lock
- Requires that hardware provide the right kind of atomics
 - Simple test-and-set is insufficient
 - Atomic compare and swap is good: CAS (mem, old, new) If *mem == old, then swap *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* = ∞ [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

"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

Next class

Read-copy update [McKenney]

- 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;
 - Calllookup (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...

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- 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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