Advanced Computer Architecture

Chapter 10 – Multicore, parallel, and cache coherency

Part 3:

Atomic operations, concurrency control primitives, and memory consistency models

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These lecture notes are partly based on the course text, Hennessy and Patterson's *Computer Architecture, a quantitative approach (3rd, 4th and 5th eds),* and on the lecture slides of David Patterson, John Kubiatowicz and Yujia Jin at Berkeley

What you should get from this

Parallel systems architecture is a vast topic, and we can only scratch the surface. The critical things I hope you will learn from this very brief introduction are:

- Why power considerations motivate multicore
- Why is shared-memory parallel programming attractive?
  - How is dynamic load-balancing implemented?
  - Why is distributed-memory parallel programming harder but more likely to yield robust performance?
- What is the cache coherency problem
  - There is a design-space of “snooping” protocols based on broadcasting invalidations and requests
- How are atomic operations and locks implemented?
  - Eg load-linked, store conditional
- What is sequential consistency?
  - Why might you prefer a memory model with weaker consistency?
- For larger systems, some kind of “directory” is needed to avoid/reduce the broadcasting

Synchronization and atomic operations

- Why Synchronize?
  - **We need to know when it is safe for different processes to use shared data**

- Issues for Synchronization:
  - We need some kind of uninterruptable primitive to fetch and update memory (*atomic* operation)
  - We can build user level synchronization operations using this primitive (lock/unlock, barrier, fetch-and-add, etc)
  - Synchronization can be a bottleneck – we need:
    - Fast non-contended path
    - Efficient in the high-contention case
    - fair

Hennessy and Patterson 6th ed section 5.5 pp412

Uninterruptable operations to Fetch from and Update Memory

Historically there have been several different atomic primitives directly implemented in hardware - eg

- Test-and-set: tests a value and sets it if the value passes the test
- Fetch-and-increment: it returns the value of a memory location and atomically increments it
  - 0 => synchronization variable is free
- Atomic exchange: interchange a value in a register for a value in memory

  For example you could use atomic exchange to implement a lock:

  0 => synchronization variable is free

  1 => synchronization variable is locked and unavailable

  - Set register to 1 & swap
  - New value in register determines success in getting lock
    - 0 if you succeeded in setting the lock (you were first)
    - 1 if other processor had already claimed access
  - Key is that exchange operation is indivisible

Uninterruptable operations to Fetch from and Update Memory

- Test-and-set
- Fetch-and-increment
- Atomic exchange

These operations all consist of a load *and* a store, that must be executed indivisibly

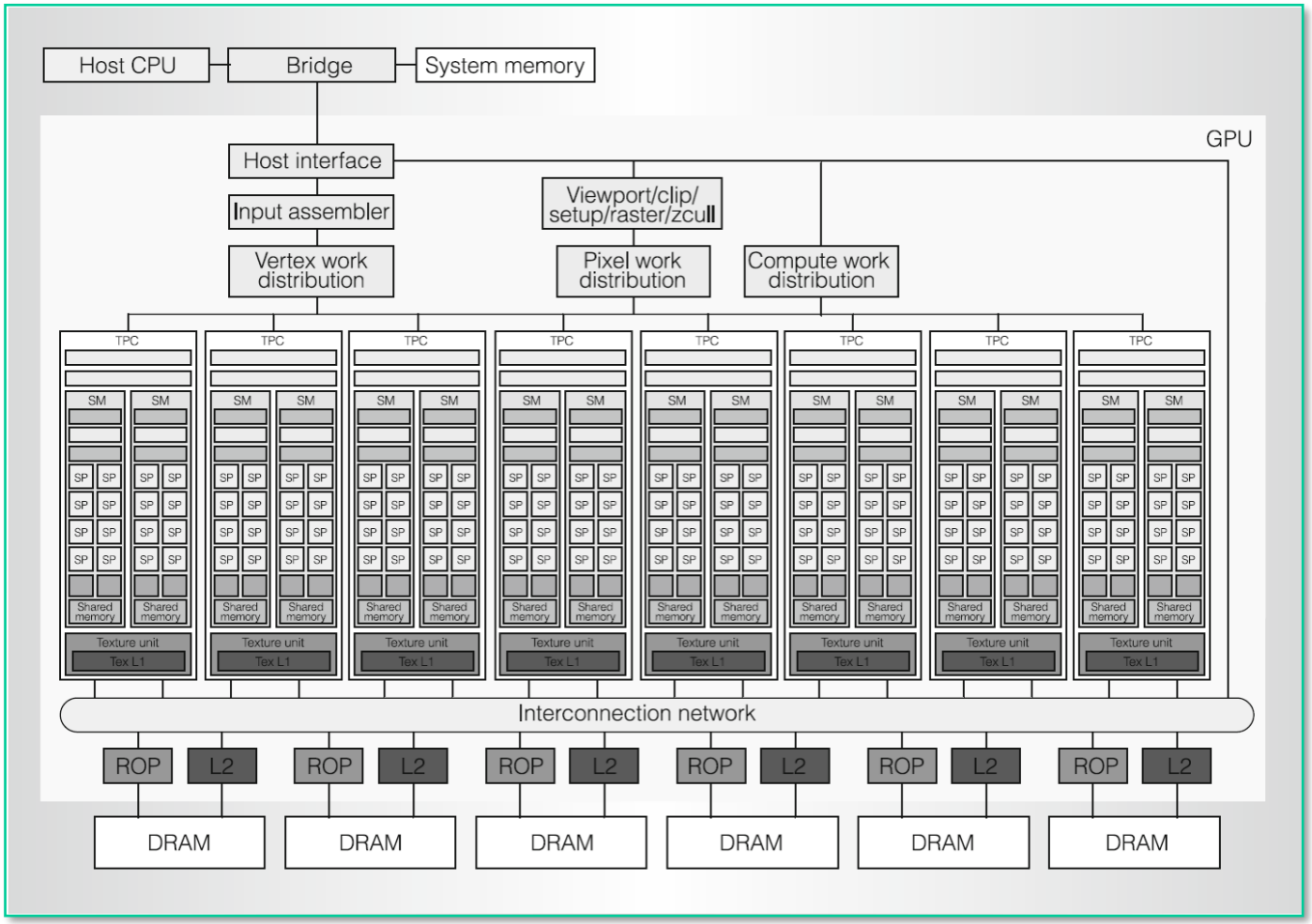
This is plausible in a single-core machine

This is plausible if implemented *in the memory*

- *Eg in a GPU*

- But how can we do this efficiently in a multicore processor with a cache coherency protocol?

Atomics in GPUs



- GPUs generally have no cache coherency protocol for the L1 caches
- So atomic operations on global memory have to be handled in the L2 cache controllers

Accelerating Atomic Operations on GPGPUs Sean Franey and Mikko Lipasti
https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.1081.2165&rep=rep1&type=pdf

Understanding and Using Atomic Memory Operations Lars Nyland & Stephen Jones, NVIDIA GTC 2013
https://on-demand.gputechconf.com/gtc/2013/presentations/S3101-Atomic-Memory-Operations.pdf

How can we implement an uninterruptable instruction to Fetch and update memory in a cache-coherent multicore?

- Hard to have read & write in one instruction - so use two instead
- Load linked (or load locked) + store conditional
  - Load linked returns the initial value
  - Store conditional returns 1 if it succeeds
    - Succeeds if there has been no other store to the same memory location since the preceding load) and 0 otherwise
    - Ie if no invalidation has been received
- Example: using LL/SC to do atomic exchange:

EXCH

```
try:  mov   R3,R4        ; mov exchange value
      ll    R2,0(R1)     ; load linked
      sc    R3,0(R1)     ; store conditional
      beqz  R3,try       ; branch store fails (R3 = 0)
      mov   R4,R2        ; put load value in R4
```

- Example: fetch & increment:

Fetch-and-inc

```
try:  ll    R2,0(R1)     ; load linked
      addi  R2,R2,#1     ; increment (OK if reg–reg)
      sc    R2,0(R1)     ; store conditional
      beqz  R2,try       ; branch store fails (R2 = 0)
```

LL and SC are used on RISCV, Alpha, ARM, MIPS, PowerPC

Eg see https://riscv.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/06/riscv-spec.pdf pg 48

Implementation:

Check that no invalidation for the target line has been received

This idea generalises to …transactions...

User level synchronization operations using exchange

- Spin locks: processor continuously tries to acquire, spinning around a loop trying to get the lock

```
        li      R2,#1
lockit: EXCH    R2,0(R1)        ;atomic exchange
        bnez    R2,lockit       ;already locked?
```

- What about in a multicore processor with cache coherency?
  - Want to spin on a cache copy to avoid keeping the memory busy
  - Likely to get cache hits for such variables
- Problem: exchange includes a write, which invalidates all other copies; this generates considerable bus traffic
- Solution: start by simply repeatedly reading the variable; when it changes, then try exchange ("test and test&set"):

```
try:    li      R2,#1
lockit: lw      R3,0(R1)        ;load var
        bnez    R3,lockit       ;not free=>spin
        EXCH    R2,0(R1)        ;atomic exchange
        bnez    R2,try          ;already locked?
```

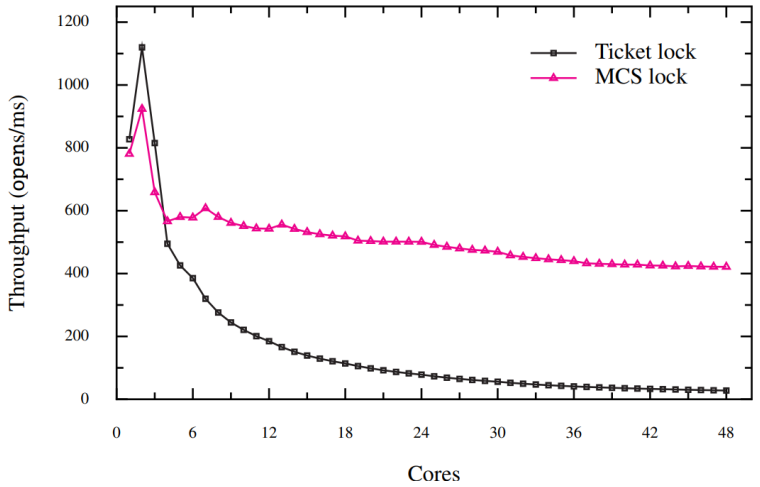
- What happens when a lock is released when many cores are spinning on the lock?
- How much data moves? Who wins?

Fairness: ticket locks

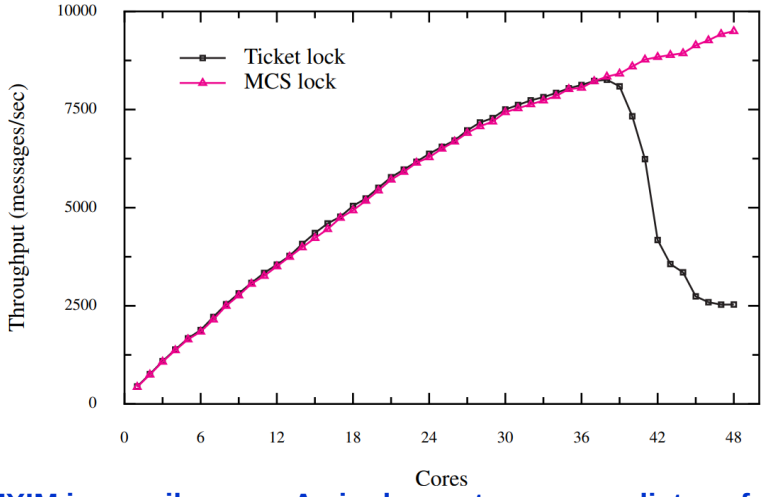
```
ticketLock_init(int *next_ticket, int *now_serving)
{
    *now_serving = *next_ticket = 0;
}

ticketLock_acquire(int *next_ticket, int *now_serving)
{
    my_ticket = fetch_and_inc(next_ticket);
    while (*now_serving != my_ticket) {} // Spin
}

ticketLock_release(int *now_serving)
{
    ++*now_serving;
}
```

- Ticket lock: explicitly hand off access to the next in line

Lock behaviour with high core counts



FOPS: creates a single file and starts one process on each core. Each thread repeatedly opens and closes the file.



EXIM is a mail server. A single master process listens for incoming SMTP connections via TCP and forks a new process for each connection, which accepts the incoming message.

"A scalable lock is one that generates a constant number of cache misses per acquisition and therefore avoids the collapse that non-scalable locks exhibit. All of these locks maintain a queue of waiters and each waiter spins on its own queue entry."

For example:

- **MCS lock maintains an explicit queue of qnode structures**
- **A core acquiring the lock adds itself with an atomic instruction to the end of the list of waiters by having the lock point to its qnode,**
- **and then sets the next pointer of the qnode of its predecessor to point to its qnode**
- **If the core is not at the head of the queue, then it spins on its qnode.**

- Ticket locks are better but still behave really badly in bad cases. For better answers, see:
  - Silas Boyd-Wickizer, M. Frans Kaashoek, Robert Morris and Nickolai Zeldovich, "Non-Scalable Locks are Dangerous", in Proceedings of Linux Symposium (OLS2012):121-132. https://people.csail.mit.edu/nickolai/papers/boyd-wickizer-locks.pdf

Memory Consistency Models

- What is consistency? When must a processor see the new value? e.g. consider:

Hennessy and Patterson 6th ed section 5.6 pp417

Thread 1

```
P1:  A = 0;
     .....
     A = 1;
L1:  if (B == 0) ...
```

Thread 2

```
P2:  B = 0;
     .....
     B = 1;
L2:  if (A == 0) ...
```

- Impossible for both if statements L1 & L2 to be true?
  - What if write invalidate is delayed & processor continues?
- Different processor families implement different *memory consistency models*
- Sequential consistency: result of any execution is the same as if the accesses of each processor were kept in order and the accesses among different processors were interleaved => assignments before ifs above
  - SC: delay all memory accesses until all invalidates done

Memory Consistency Models

- Weak consistency can be faster than sequential consistency
- Several processors provide fence instructions to enforce sequential consistency when an instruction stream passes such a point. Expensive!
- Not really an issue for most programs if they are *explicitly synchronised*
  - A program is synchronised if all access to shared data are ordered by synchronisation operations

```
write (x)
...
release (s) {unlock}
...
acquire (s) {lock}
...
read(x)
```

- Only those programs willing to be nondeterministic are not synchronised: programs with "data races"
- There are several variants of weak consistency, characterised by attitude towards: RAR, WAR, RAW, WAW to different addresses

Summary and Conclusions

- Shared memory parallel programs must synchronise
- Synchronisation primitives can be executed either
  - at the memory (as seen in GPUs)
  - On in the CPU – but this leads to issues cache coherency traffic when spinning, and when a contended lock is released
- While older ISAs offer test&set, compare-and-swap and atomic exchange as primitives, these are hard to implement
- Load-linked, store-conditional provides a solution that is easy to implement on a cache-coherent CPU
  - Key idea: operation only succeeds if no invalidation occurs in-between
- Test-and-test-and-set reduces contention for cache line ownership when spinning
- Ticket locks provide fairness
- Scalable locks limit coherency traffic on lock release
- Weak coherency results from not wanting to stall until invalidation is acknowledged
- Weak memory consistency models mean processes cannot reliably observe ordering of remote events unless explicit synchronisation takes place