

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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Paul H J Kelly

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 Kubiawicz and Yujia Jin at Berkeley

What you should get from this³

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 operations⁴

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

Uninterruptable operations to Fetch from and Update Memory⁵

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 Memory⁶

• Test-and-set

• Fetch-and-increment

• Atomic exchange

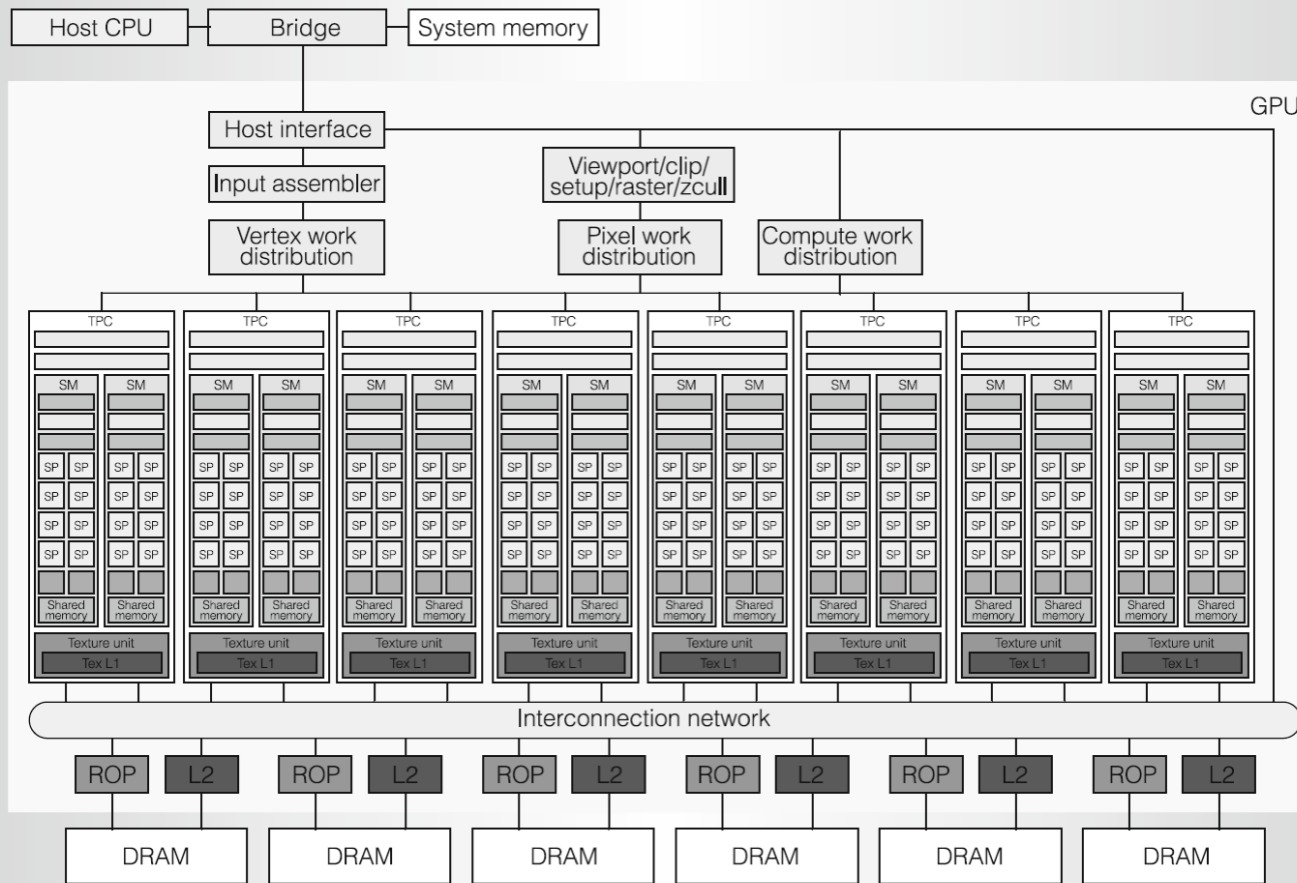
These operations all consist of a load *and* a store, that must be executed indivisibly

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?



- 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
 - ➡ I.e. if no invalidation has been received

Example: using LL/SC to do atomic exchange:

try:	mov	R3,R4	; mov exchange value	EXCH
	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:

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

Implementation:

**Check that no
invalidation for the
target line has
been received**

**This idea
generalises to
...transactions...**

LL and SC are used on RISC-V, Alpha, ARM, MIPS, PowerPC

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

User level synchronization operations using exchange

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

lockit:	li	R2,#1	
	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

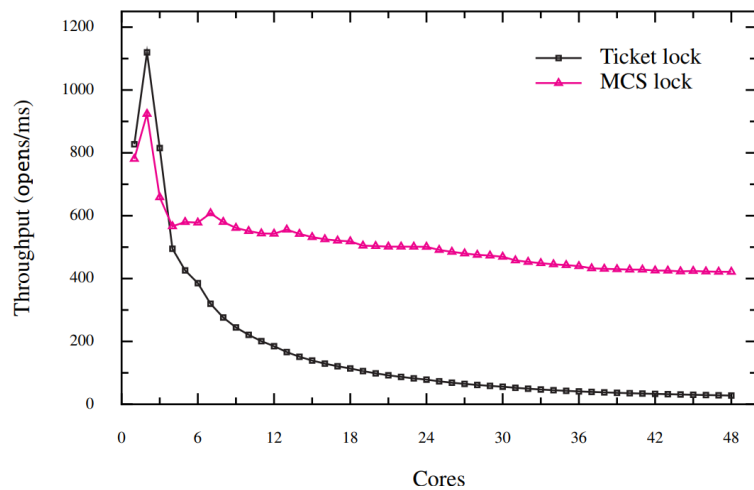
```
ticketLock_init(int *next_ticket, int *now_serving)
{
    *now_serving = *next_ticket = 0;
}

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

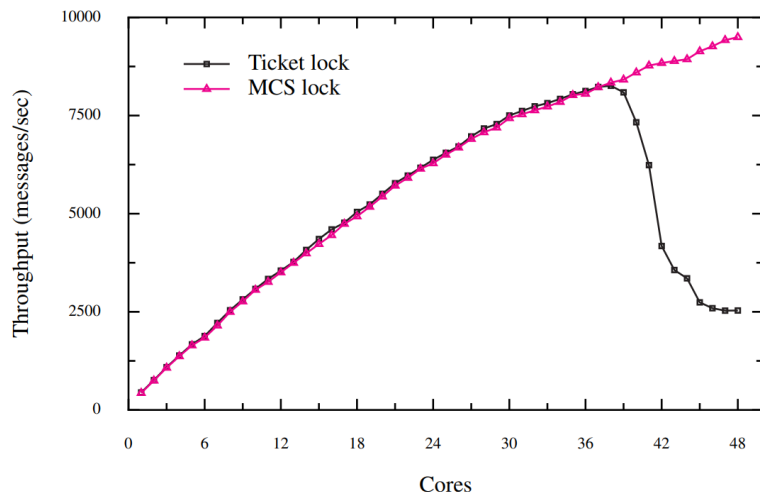
ticketLock_release(int *now_serving)
{
    ++*now_serving;
}
```

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

Lock behaviour with high core counts¹¹



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 Models¹²

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

Hennessy and
Patterson 6th ed
section 5.6 pp417

P1: A = 0; **Thread 1**

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

P2: B = 0; **Thread 2**

.....
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 Models¹³

- 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