Why Shared Memory?

- wide-spread availability of multi-core
  - in servers for more than 20 years
  - desktop for more than 15 years
  - GPU computing for more than 15 years
  - smart phones for more than 10 years

- power limits in CMOS technology
  - around 2005 frequency scaling stopped
  - Moore’s law still continued to hold
  - more cores instead of higher frequency

- threads
  - “known” programming model
  - similar to sequential model
  - but with globally shared memory
  - and multiple processing units

- processes
  - classical but more complicated
  - fork / join paradigm
  - communication over files / pipes
  - mmap (... , MAP_SHARED, ...)


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Shared Memory Programming Model

- programs / processes / threads
  - local architectural (CPU) state
  - including registers / program counter
  - shared heap for threads
  - shared memory for processes

- communicate over **global** memory
  - think globally shared variables

- **read** and **write** atomic
  - only for machine word values (and pointers)
  - need other synchronization mechanisms

- solution for mutual exclusion needed
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <pthread.h>

pthread_t t0, t1;
int x;

void *
incx (void * dummy)
{
    x++;
    return 0;
}

int
main (void)
{
    pthread_create (&t0, 0, incx, 0);
    pthread_create (&t1, 0, incx, 0);
    pthread_join (t0, 0);
    pthread_join (t1, 0);
    printf ("%d
", x);
    return 0;
}
Data Race

- this code already gives some ideas about pthreads
- increment function incx just increments the global variable x (without locking)
- the main function creates two threads running incx
- then waits for them to finish (joins with first thread t0 first, then with second t1)
- if first thread finishes executing incx before second starts then there is no problem
- incrementing twice should always yield 2 as output
- but there is a potential data race
  1. first thread t0 reads value 0 of x into local register r0
  2. also increments its local copy in r0 to value 1
  3. second thread t1 reads old value 0 of x into its local register r1
  4. also increments its local copy in r1 to value 1
  5. now first thread t0 writes back r0 to the global variable x with value 1
  6. finally second thread t1 writes back r0 to the global variable x with value 1
- testing with massif load (schedule steering)
  valgrind --tool=helgrind  Or  gcc -fsanitize=thread
void *
inCx (void * dummy)
{
    lock ();
    int tmp = x;
    tmp++;
    x = tmp;
    unlock ();
    return 0;
}

How to implement locking?
- will first look at software only solutions
- hardware solutions much more efficient
Eraser / Lock-Set Algorithm

Stefan Savage, Michael Burrows, Greg Nelson, Patrick Sobalvarro, Thomas E. Anderson:

- check for “locking discipline”
  - shared access protected by at least one lock
  - collect lock sets at read and write events
  - check that intersection of lock sets non-empty

- if a lock-set becomes empty
  - produce improper locking warning (potential data race)
  - even though the actual race might not have occurred

- initialization is tricky (phases)
  - spurious warnings
  - only some can suppressed automatically

- for instance implemented in helgrind

- major problem is that it needs “sandboxing” (interpreting memory accesses)
Mutual Exclusion with Deadlock

#include ...

pthread_t t0, t1;
int x;

int id[] = { 0, 1 };
int flag[] = { 0, 0 };

void lock (int * p) {
    int me = *p,
    int other = !me;
    flag[me] = 1;
    while (flag[other])
    

}

void unlock (int * p) {
    int me = *p;
    flag[me] = 0;
}

void *
incx (void * p)
{
    lock (p);
    x++;
    unlock (p);
    return 0;
}

int
main (void)
{
    pthread_create (&t0, 0, incx, &id[0]);
    pthread_create (&t1, 0, incx, &id[1]);
    pthread_join (t0, 0);
    pthread_join (t1, 0);
    printf ("%d\n", x);
    return 0;
}
Deadlock

- data race
  - uncoordinated access to memory
  - interleaved partial views
  - inconsistent global state (incorrect)
  - “always consistent” = safety property
  - avoided by locking
  - which in turn might slow-down application

- deadlock
  - two threads wait for each other
  - each one needs the other to “release its lock” to move on
  - “no deadlock” = liveness property
  - does not necessarily need sandboxing
  - might be easier to debug
  - might actually not be that bad (“have you tried turning it off and on again?”)
  - more fine-grained versions later

- debugging dead-lock
  - tools allow to find locking cycles
  - run your own cycle checker after wrapping lock / unlock
  - attach debugger to deadlocked program
Mutual Exclusion with Deadlock

```
#include ...

pthread_t t0, t1;
int x;

int id[] = { 0, 1 };
int victim = 0;

void lock (int * p) {
    int me = *p;
    victim = me;
    while (victim == me)
        ;
}

void unlock (int * p) {
}
```

- previous version
  - flag to go first
  - hope nobody else has the same idea at the same time
  - but check that and if this is not the case proceed
  - deadlock under contention

- this version
  - even more passive / helpful
  - always let the other go first
  - tell everybody that you are waiting
  - wait until somebody else waits too
  - almost always deadlocks (without contention)

- the Peterson algorithm combines both ideas
Peterson Algorithm

```c
void lock (int * p) {
    int me = *p;
    int other = !me;
    flag[me] = 1;
    victim = me;
    // __sync_synchronize ();
    while (flag[other] && victim == me)
    
}

void unlock (int * p) {
    int me = *p;
    flag[me] = 0;
}
```

actually broken on real modern hardware

- without the memory fence
- because read in other thread can be reordered before own write (even for restricted x86 memory model)

expected:

0: write(flag[0], 1) 1: write(flag[1], 1)
0: write(victim, 0) 1: write(victim, 1)
0: read(flag[1]) = 1 1: read(flag[0]) = 1

possible:

0: read(flag[1]) = 0 1: read(flag[0]) = 0
0: write(flag[0], 1) 1: write(flag[1], 1)
0: write(victim, 0) 1: write(victim, 1)
Mutual Exclusion Algorithms

■ classical “software-only” algorithms
  □ more of theoretical interest only now
  □ because memory model of multi-core machines weak (reorders reads and writes)
  □ but would be on reorder-free hardware still not really efficient (in space and time)

■ need hardware support anyhow
  □ various low-level (architecture) dependent primitives
  □ atomic increment, bit-set, compare-and-swap and memory fences
  □ better use platform-independent abstractions, such as pthreads

■ we will latter see how-those low-level primitives can be used
Sequential Consistency

Leslie Lamport:
How to Make a Multiprocessor Computer That Correctly Executes Multiprocess Programs.

- systems with processors (cores) and memories (caches)
  - think HW: processors and memories work in parallel
  - processors read (fetch) values and write (store) computed values to memories
  - common abstraction: consider each memory address as single memory module

- (single) processor **sequential** iff programs (reads / writes) executed sequentially
  - sequentially means without parallelism
  - between memories and the single processor

- processors **sequentially consistent** iff
  - every parallel execution of programs
  - can be reordered into a sequential execution
  - such that sequential semantics of programs and memories are met
  - sequential (single) program semantics: read / writes executed in program order
  - sequential (single) memory semantics: read returns what was written (array axioms in essence)
FIFO Read / Write Order

global FIFO read / write operation gives sequential consistency (left)
projected to individual memory addresses too (right)
Out-of-Order Write-to-Read

```c
long a, b;

void * f (void * q) {
    a = 1;
    long c = a;
    long d = b;
    long u = c + d;
    return (void*) u;
}

void * g (void * p) {
    b = 1;
    long e = b;
    long f = a;
    long v = e + f;
    return (void*) v;
}

int main () {
    pthread_t s, t;
    pthread_create (&s, 0, f, 0);
    pthread_create (&t, 0, g, 0);
    long u, v;
    pthread_join (s, (void**) &u);
    pthread_join (t, (void**) &v);
    long m = u + v;
    printf ("%ld\n", m);
    return 0;
}
```
Out-of-Order Write-to-Read

```c
long a, b;

long f () { a = 1; long tmp = a; return tmp + b; }
long g () { b = 1; long tmp = b; return tmp + a; }

void * f (void * q) {
    a = 1;       // fwa1 = f writes a value 1 to memory
    long c = a;  // frac = f reads a value c from memory
    long d = b;  // frbd = f reads b value d from memory
    long u = c + d;  // fadd = f adds c and d locally
    return (void*) u;
}

void * g (void * p) {
    b = 1;       // gwb1 = g writes b value 1 to memory
    long e = b;  // grb1 = g reads b value e from memory
    long f = a;  // graf = g reads a value f from memory
    long v = e + f;  // gadd = g adds e and f locally
    return (void*) v;
}
```
A common sequentially consistent interleaved scenario with result 3:

```c
long a, b;

void * f (void * q) {
    a = 1; // fwa1
    long c = a; // frac
    long d = b; // frbd
    long u = c + d; // fadd
    return (void*) u;
}

void * g (void * p) {
    b = 1; // gwb1
    long e = b; // grbe
    long f = a; // graf
    long v = e + f; // gadd
    return (void*) v;
}
```

abcd ef v m memory-fifo
00------- fwa1
00------- fwa1 frac frbd
10------- frac frbd
101------- frbd
1010------ gwb1
1010------ gwb1 grbe
1010------ gwb1 grbe graf
1110------ grbe graf
11101------ graf
111011---- fadd
111011---- fadd gadd
111011---- fadd gadd madd
1110112-- gadd madd
11101122- madd
111011223
rare sequentially consistent interleaved scenario with result 4

```c
long a, b;

void * f (void * q) {
    a = 1;    // fwa1
    long c = a;  // frac
    long d = b;  // frbd
    long u = c + d;  // fadd
    return (void*) u;
}

void * g (void * p) {
    b = 1;    // gwb1
    long e = b;  // grbe
    long f = a;  // graf
    long v = e + f;  // gadd
    return (void*) v;
}
```

abcdefuv memory-fifo
00------- fwa1
00------- fwa1 gwb1
00------- fwa1 gwb1 frac
00------- fwa1 gwb1 frac grbe
00------- fwa1 gwb1 frac grbe frbd
00------- fwa1 gwb1 frac grbe frbd graf
10------- gwb1 frac grbe frbd graf
11------- frac grbe frbd graf
111------ grbe frbd graf
111-1----- frbd graf
11111----- graf
111111---- fadd
111111---- fadd gadd
111111---- fadd gadd madd
1111112-- fadd madd
11111122- madd
111111224
less frequent sequentially inconsistent scenario with result 2

```c
long a, b;

void * f (void * q) {
    a = 1;     // fwa1
    long c = a; // frac
    long d = b; // frbd
    long u = c + d; // fadd
    return (void*) u;
}

void * g (void * p) {
    b = 1;     // gwb1
    long e = b; // grbe
    long f = a; // graf
    long v = e + f; // gadd
    return (void*) v;
}
```

### Memory-FIFO

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fwa1</td>
<td>00 - 00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fwa1 frac</td>
<td>00 - 00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frbd 000</td>
<td>00 - 00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fwa1</td>
<td>00 - 00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gwb1</td>
<td>0010 - 001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gwb1 grbe</td>
<td>0010 - 001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>graf 000</td>
<td>00101 - 001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gwb1</td>
<td>00101 - 001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

111010112
long a, b;

void * f (void * q) {
    a = 1;      // fwa1
    long c = a;  // frac
    long d = b;  // frbd
    long u = c + d;  // fadd
    return (void*) u;
}

void * g (void * p) {
    b = 1;      // gwb1
    long e = b;  // grbe
    long f = a;  // graf
    long v = e + f;  // gadd
    return (void*) v;
}
Linearizability

- Consistency can be extended to method calls
  - Method calls take time during a time interval: invocation to response
  - Example above with read / write on memory
  - Below with enqueue / dequeue on queue

- Execution linearizable iff
  - There is a linearization point between invocation and response
  - Where the method appears to take effect instantaneously

- At the linearization point the effect of a method becomes visible to other threads
locally sequentially consistent but globally not (nor linearizable)

thread A

```
p.enq (13)
qu.enq (13)
p.deq () = 42
```

queue semantics

program order

queue semantics

thread B

```
q.enq (42)
p.enq (42)
q.deq () = 13
```

queue semantics

program order
Progress Conditions: Wait-Free, Lock-Free

- a total method is defined in any state, otherwise partial
  - like "dequeue" is partial and "enqueue" (in an unbounded queue) is total
  - same for "read" and "write"
- method is blocking iff response can not be computed immediately
  - common scenario in multi-processor systems
- linearizable computations can always be extended with pending responses of total messages
  - so in principle pending total method responses never have to be blocking
  - but it might be difficult to compute the actual response
- method \( m \) wait-free iff every invocation eventually leads to a response
  - in the strong liveness sense, e.g., within a finite number of steps
  - or in LTL \( \forall m [G (m.\text{invocation} \rightarrow F m.\text{response})] \)
- method \( m \) lock-free iff infinitely often some method call finishes
  - so some threads might "starve", but the overall system makes progress
  - or in LTL \( \exists m [GF m.\text{invocation}] \rightarrow GF \exists m' [m'.\text{response}] \)
- every wait-free method is also lock-free
  - wait-free provides stronger correctness guarantee
  - usually minimizes "latency" and leads to less efficiency in terms of throughput
  - and is harder to implement
Compare-And-Swap (CAS)

// GCC’s builtin function for CAS

bool __sync_bool_compare_and_swap (type *ptr, type oldval, type newval);

// it atomically executes the following function

bool CAS (type * address, type expected, type update) {
    if (*address != expected) return false;
    *address = update;
    return true;
}

- considered the “mother” of all atomic operations
  - many modern architectures support CAS
  - alternatives: load-linked / store-conditional (LL/SC)
    - see discussion of memory model for RISC-V too
- compiler uses CAS or LL/SC to implement other atomic operations
  - if processors does not support corresponding operations
  - like atomic increment
  - C++11 atomics
Treiber Stack

Treiber, R.K..
Systems programming: Coping with parallelism.
IBM, Thomas J. Watson Research Center, 1986.

- probably first lock-free data-structure
- implements a parallel stack
- suffers from ABA problem
- see demo
Others

hazard pointers

false sharing

queues (Michael & Scott Queue)

relaxed data structures ($k$-stack)

http://scal.cs.uni-salzburg.at

Paul E. McKenney
Is Parallel Programming Hard, And, If So, What Can You Do About It?
https://mirrors.edge.kernel.org/pub/linux/kernel/people/paulmck/perfbook/perfbook.html