B4M36ESW: Efficient software

Lecture 5: Scalable synchronization

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Synchronization

- Multi-core CPUs are today's norm, many-core CPUs will come tomorrow
- To take advantage of such a hardware, parallel (multi-threaded) programs must be run on them
- It is not useful when the threads are completely independent, i.e. threads have to communicate (synchronize)
- Basic forms of synchronization:
  - Mutual exclusion (e.g. access to shared data)
  - Producer-consumer (e.g. database waits for requests)
  - ...

Outline

Naive synchronization

Mutual exclusion

Data should be modified at most by one thread at a time:

```
bool locked;

void func() {
  while (locked == true)
    /* busy wait */;
  locked = true;
  data++;
  locked = false;
}
```

Terminology: code in the “locked” region is called *critical section*

Problems:

1. Checking and setting the lock is not atomic
2. Compiler can optimize out all accesses to *locked*
3. Compiler can move access to data out of critical section
4. Hardware can reorder memory accesses even if compiler does not
5. Can easily deadlock
6. Busy waiting wastes energy

Quote

Implementing a correct synchronization primitive is like committing the perfect crime. There are at least 50 things that can go wrong, and if you are a highly experienced genius, you -might- be able to anticipate and handle 25 of them.

— Paul McKenney

`https://lwn.net/ml/linux-kernel/20190608160620.GH28207@linux.ibm.com/`

Outline

Atomic operations

- Example of non-atomic increment:
  - C expression: `data++;`
  - Assembler (x86): `inc ($data)` – atomic (uninterruptible) on a single CPU
  - Hardware (as seen from other CPUs): memory bus read, ALU, memory bus write

CPU0	CPU1	data
bus read		0
ALU	bus read	0
bus write	ALU	1
	bus write	1

- Atomic operations ensure that the operation (typically read-modify-write) is atomic (uninterruptible) even at the hardware (bus) level.
  - compare-and-swap/CAS instruction (x86: cmpxchg)
  - In C: `TYPE __atomic_exchange_n(TYPE *ptr, TYPE val, int memorder)` Atomically set `*ptr` to `val` and return old value of `*ptr`.

```
void lock() {
  while (locked == true)
    /* busy wait */;
    locked = true;
}
```

⇒

```
void lock() {
  while (__atomic_exchange_n(&locked, true,
                             ...) == true)
    /* busy wait */;
}
```

Atomic operations in C and C++

- For long time, atomic operations were not standardized in C/C++
  - Solution: Incompatible compiler extensions, inline assembler
- C11, C++11 introduced thread-aware memory model and defined platform independent atomic operations
- C11: stdatomic.h, atomic_* functions
- C++11
  - `std::atomic` template
  - ```
    std::atomic<int> x;
    x++; // atomic increment
    ```
    ```

Compiler optimizations

```
bool locked;

while (locked)
{}
locked = true;
data++;
locked = false;
```

⇒

```
#define barrier() \
    asm volatile("" : : : "memory"
volatile bool locked;

while (locked)
{}
locked = true;
barrier();
data++;
barrier();
locked = false;
```

- Compiler expects the memory is only modified by the program being compiled
- Locked seems to be useless ⇒ optimize out
- Compiler is free to reorder operations as long as the result of the computation is the same

Compiler optimizations cont.

- Defining the variable volatile makes all accesses “volatile” i.e. slow.
- Sometimes, we need only certain accesses to have volatile semantics and the rest can be optimized:

```
#define ACCESS_ONCE(x) (*(volatile typeof(x) *)&(x))
#define LOAD_SHARED(p) ACCESS_ONCE(p)
#define STORE_SHARED(x, v) ({ ACCESS_ONCE(x) = (v); })

#define barrier() asm volatile("" : : : "memory")
```

- The macro `barrier` is only a **compiler barrier**, not hardware barrier, i.e., the compiler will not reorder generated instructions.

Hardware reordering

- Different CPU architectures implement different memory consistency models
- Some operations can be reordered with respect to other operations

Type	Alpha	ARMv7	PA-RISC	POWER	SPARC RMO	SPARC PSO	SPARC TSO	x86	x86 oostore	AMD64	IA-64	z/Architecture
Loads → loads	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	N
Loads → stores	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	N
Stores → stores	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	N
Stores → loads	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Atomic → loads	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N
Atomic → stores	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	N	Y	N
Dependent loads	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Incoherent inst. cache pipeline	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	

Source: Wikipedia

- x86 can reorder stores after loads, i.e. `data` can be read before other CPUs see `locked` set to true!
- Why? Stores may have to wait for cache-line ownership. Not waiting with subsequent reads improves **performance**.
- **Solution:** Insert memory barrier instructions.
  - e.g. `mfence`, `lfence` instructions (on x86), `dmb` (on ARM).
  - RCU implementations at the end of this lecture use `smb_mb()` function, which is a platform independent wrapper of these instructions.

Specifying memory ordering requirements in C/C++

```
std::atomic<int> x;
x.load(order);
w.store(0, order);
```

- `order` specifies how regular, non-atomic memory accesses are to be ordered around an atomic operation
  - relaxed: no overhead, no order guarantee
  - consume
  - acquire
  - release
  - acq_rel,
  - seq_cst: high overhead, sequential consistency
- Depending on the CPU architecture, different `order`s cause the compiler to generate barrier instructions (e.g., lfence on x86)

Deadlock

- Example:
  - Single-core system
  - Spinning lock
  - Two threads low- and high-priority

```
LP_thread      HP_thread
---------      ---------
lock();
data++;
    →   preemption →
                   lock();   // deadlock
```

- **Solution:** When the lock is not available, ask the OS scheduler to put your thread to sleep and wake you up after the lock is available
  - Problem: atomicity of checking the lock and going to sleep
  - Requires implementation in the OS kernel

Spinlocks

- The lock (from our initial example) that does not involve OS scheduler and waits by spinning (looping, busy waiting) is called a **spin lock**.
- Applications almost never need to use spin locks.
  - It wastes energy, CPU time and can lead to deadlocks (see above).
- Spin locks are, however, used in operating system kernels in contexts, where it is not possible to sleep.
  - Only threads (tasks, processes) can sleep.
  - Interrupt handlers cannot sleep.
  - Hence **device drivers** often use spin locks.
  - OS scheduler must also use spin locks, because it cannot put itself to sleep.

Outline

Cost of atomic operations & barriers

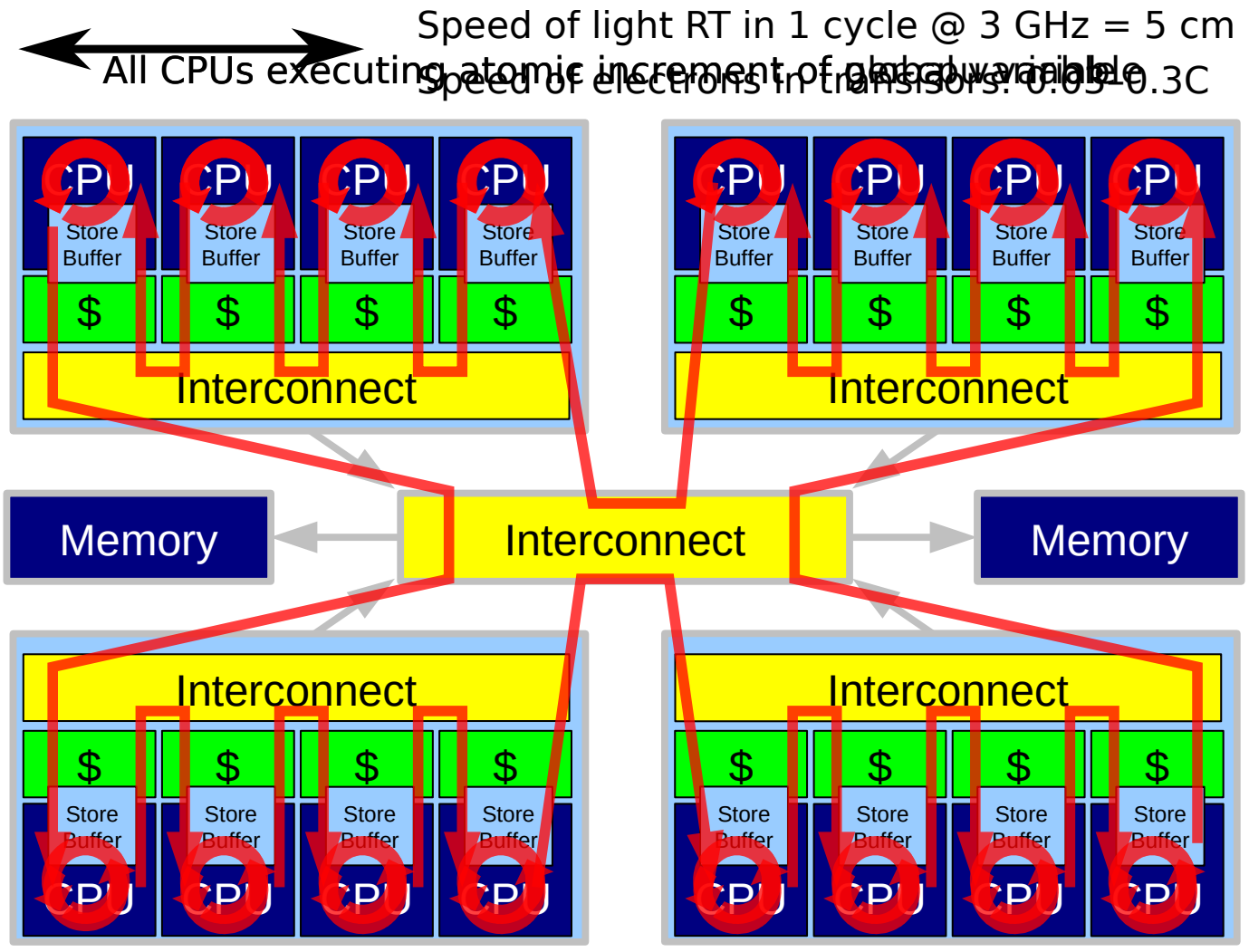
16-CPU 2.8GHz Intel X5550 (Nehalem) System

Operation	Cost (ns)	Ratio
Clock period	0.4	1.0
“Best-case” CAS	12.2	33.8
Best-case lock	25.6	71.2
Single cache miss	12.9	35.8
CAS cache miss	7.0	19.4
Single cache miss (off-core)	31.2	86.6
CAS cache miss (off-core)	31.2	86.5
Single cache miss (off-socket)	92.4	256.7
CAS cache miss (off-socket)	95.9	266.4

Source: Paul E. McKenney, IBM

- Atomic operations are costly (here 19–266 times slower than non-atomic operations)
- Barriers are typically cheaper (weak barriers more that full barriers)

Cost of atomic operations & laws of physics



Every CPU experiences a cache miss, because other CPUs access the variable as well No cache miss $\Rightarrow$ much faster

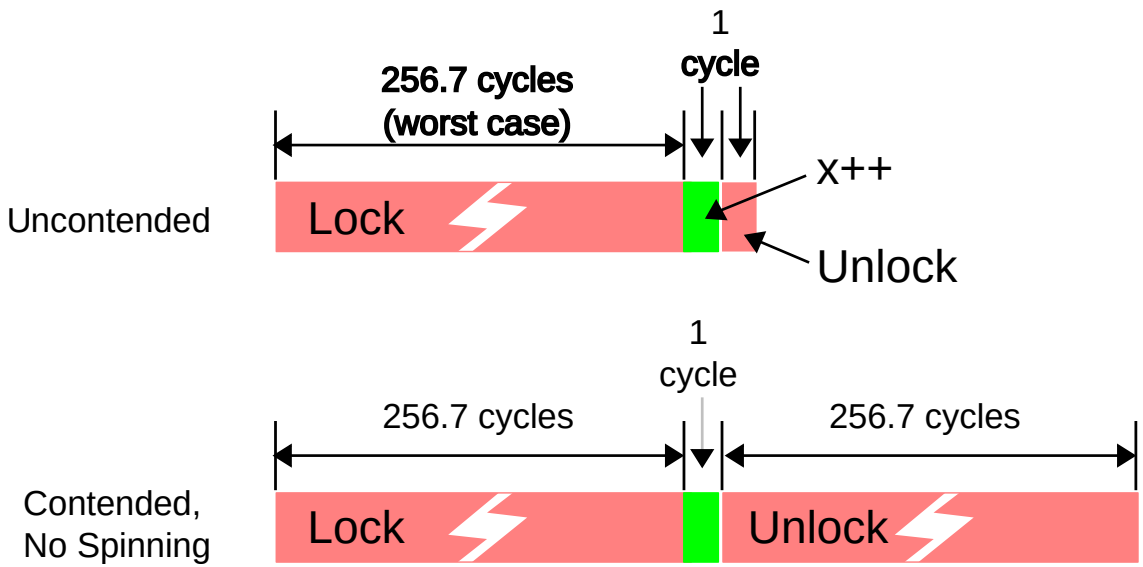
Locking overhead

- Classical locks are typically implemented with atomic instructions and ensure that lock manipulation is not reordered with critical section content.

```
pthread_mutex_lock(mutex);
x++;
pthread_mutex_unlock(mutex);
```

- Uncontended case: during lock(), mutex is not in the cache, during unlock() it is
- Contended case: mutex is not in the cache even during unlock, because there is (probably) another CPU trying to lock the mutex and thus “stealing” the lock from mutex-owner’s cache

Single-instruction critical sections protected by a lock



Outline

Kernel semaphores

- Each system call adds overhead ($\approx$ 100 cycles on modern HW)
- It is preferable to use “fine-grain” locking, i.e. locks protect as little data as possible to prevent lock contention.
- If fine-grain locking is effective the lock is not contended and threads rarely have to sleep, but always pay the syscall overhead!
- That’s not efficient – the solution in Linux is called **futex**.

Outline

Futex

Fast Userspace Mutex

- Uncontended mutex never goes to kernel
- It uses atomic instruction `cmpxchg(val, expct, new) → prev`
- `futex_wait()` and `futex_wake()` are system calls that are called only in case of contention

```
class mutex {
public:
  mutex() : val (0) { }

  void lock() {
    int c;
    if ((c = cmpxchg (val, 0, 1)) != 0) {
      if (c != 2)
        c = xchg (val, 2);
      while (c != 0) {
        futex_wait (&val, 2);
        c = xchg (val, 2);
      }
    }
  }
  void unlock() {
    if (atomic_dec (val) != 1) {
      val = 0;
      futex_wake (&val, 1);
    }
  }
private:
  int val;
};
```

U. Drepper, *Futexes Are Tricky*, 2011,
Online: `https://www.akkadia.org/drepper/futex.pdf`

Futex uses

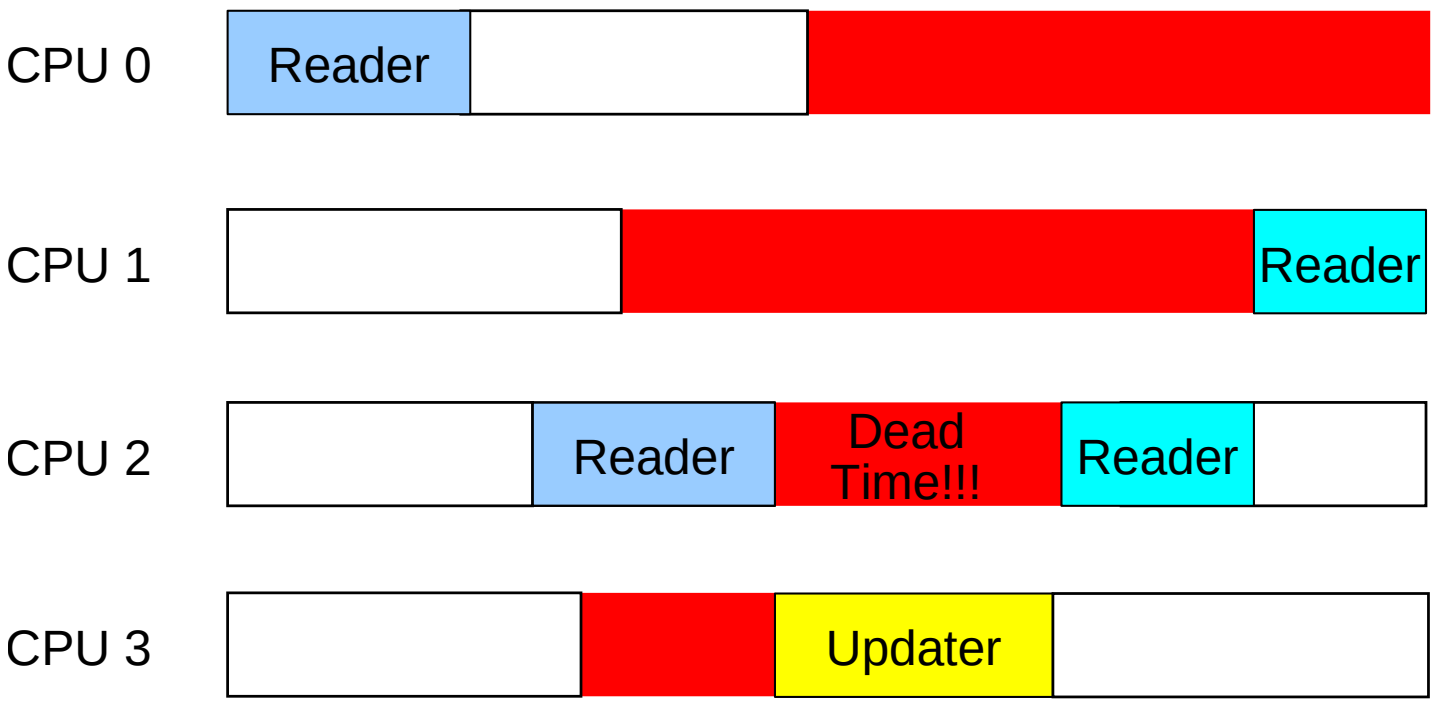
- Futex primitive can be used to implement the following higher-level synchronization mechanisms:
  - Mutexes
  - Semaphores
  - Conditional variables
  - Thread barriers
  - Read-write locks
- Today, `pthread_mutex_t` in Linux is implemented via futex.
- JVM's synchronization via Mark word and thin/fat locking is conceptually the same as futex (see next lecture)

Outline

The problem of mutex

Mutual exclusion in massively parallel **read-mostly workload**

1. Lock/unlock overhead
2. Dead time during updates

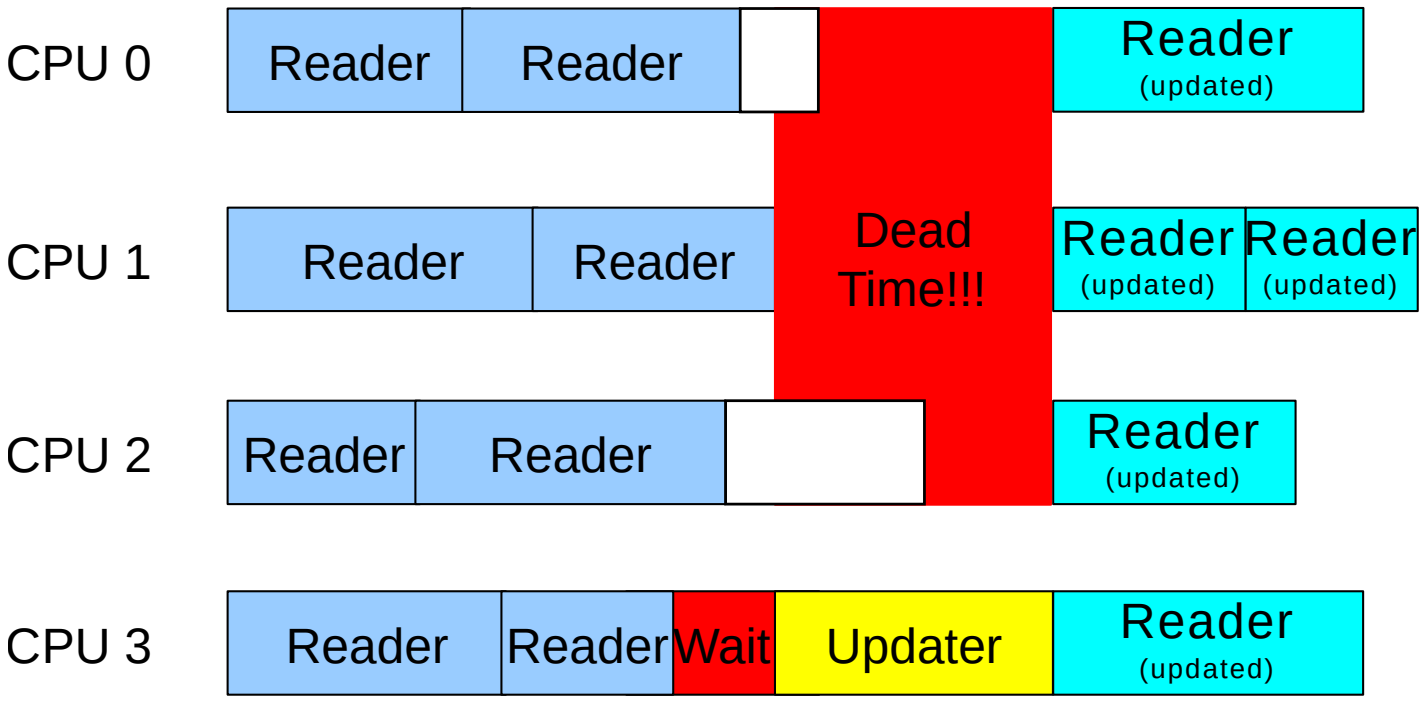


Read-mostly workload

- Many real-world workloads are “read-mostly”
- Caching – Most users only read the data. The cache is updated only from time to time (new article is published, etc.)
  - Web site cache (template rendering)
  - Content delivery network (CDN)
  - File system access
  - Domain Name System (DNS)
  - ...
- Maintaining consistency while updating – synchronization between readers and updaters (writers)

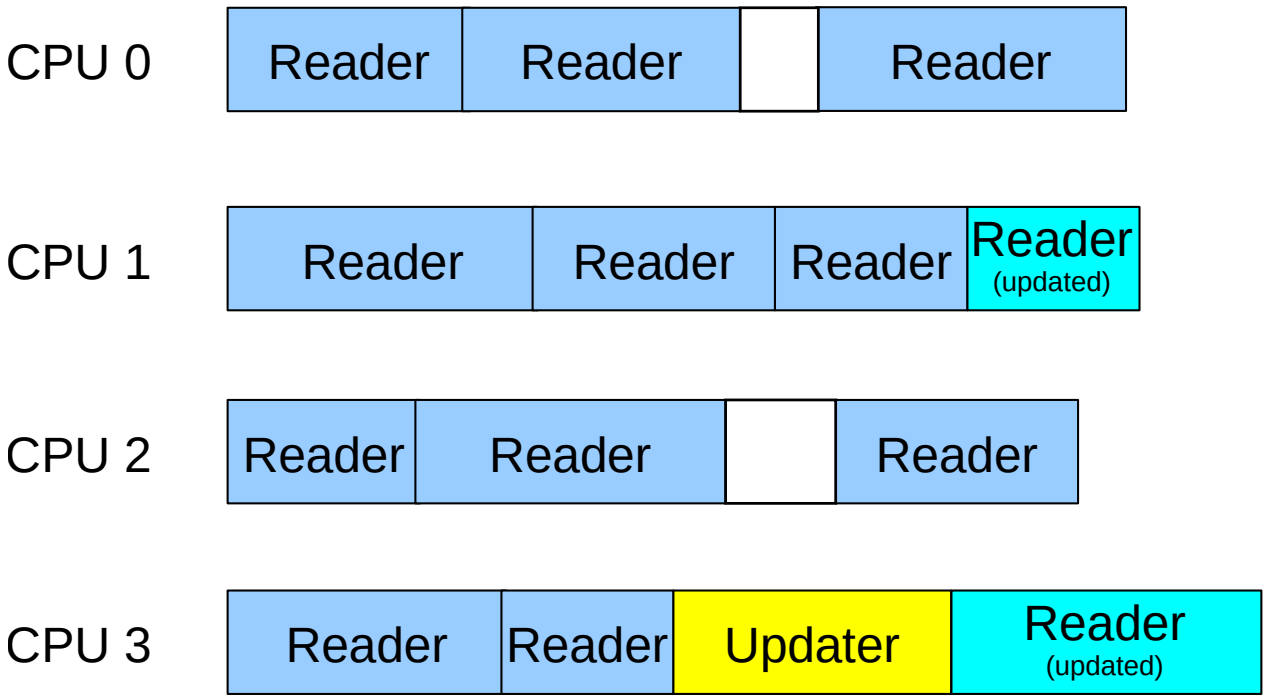
Read-Write lock

- Classical solution – read-write lock
- Multiple readers can read simultaneously
- Update blocks all readers



- Can be implemented on top of mutex(es)
- Scales badly

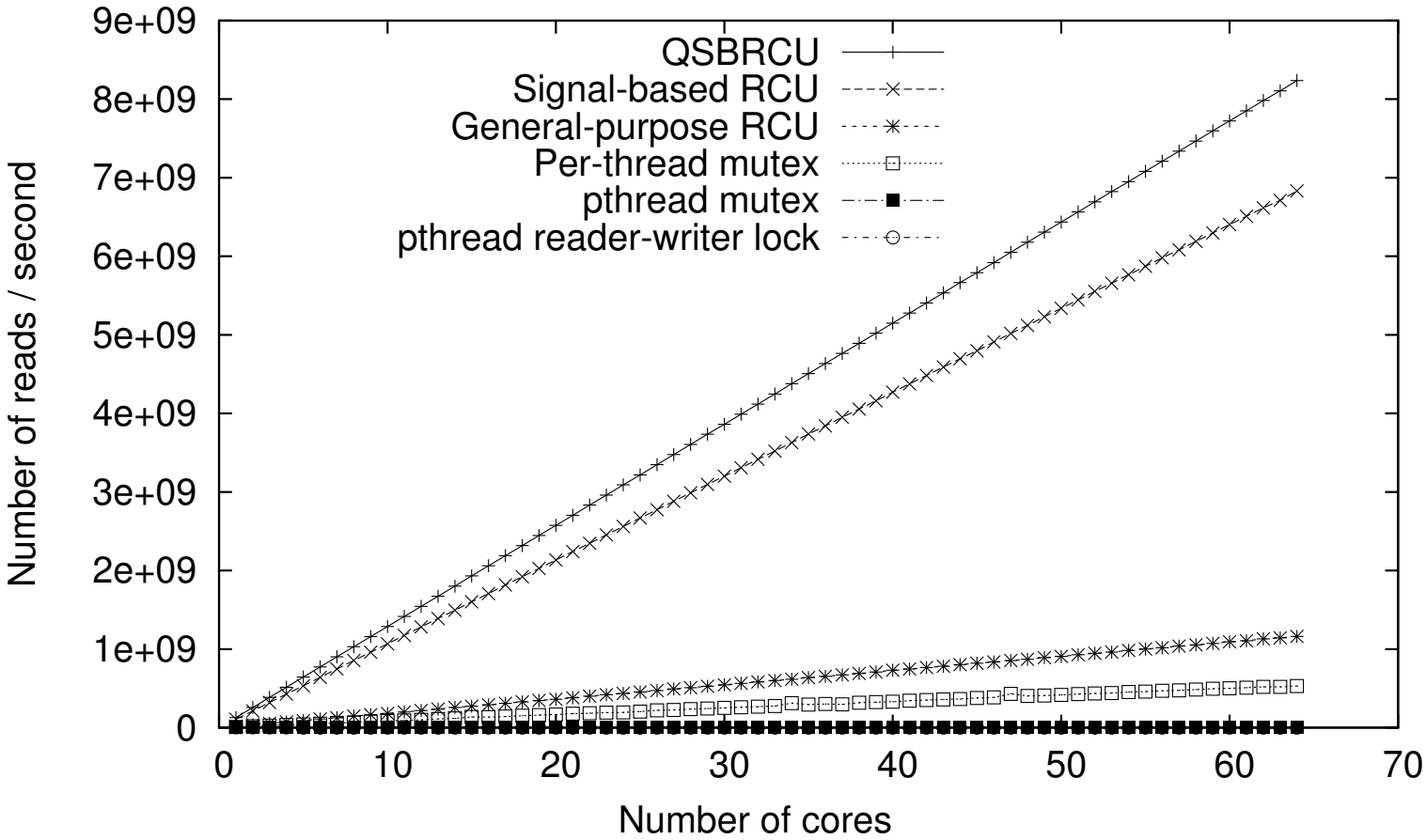
We want this



- Updater does not block readers
- Is that possible? Yes
- For what cost? See next slides

Outline

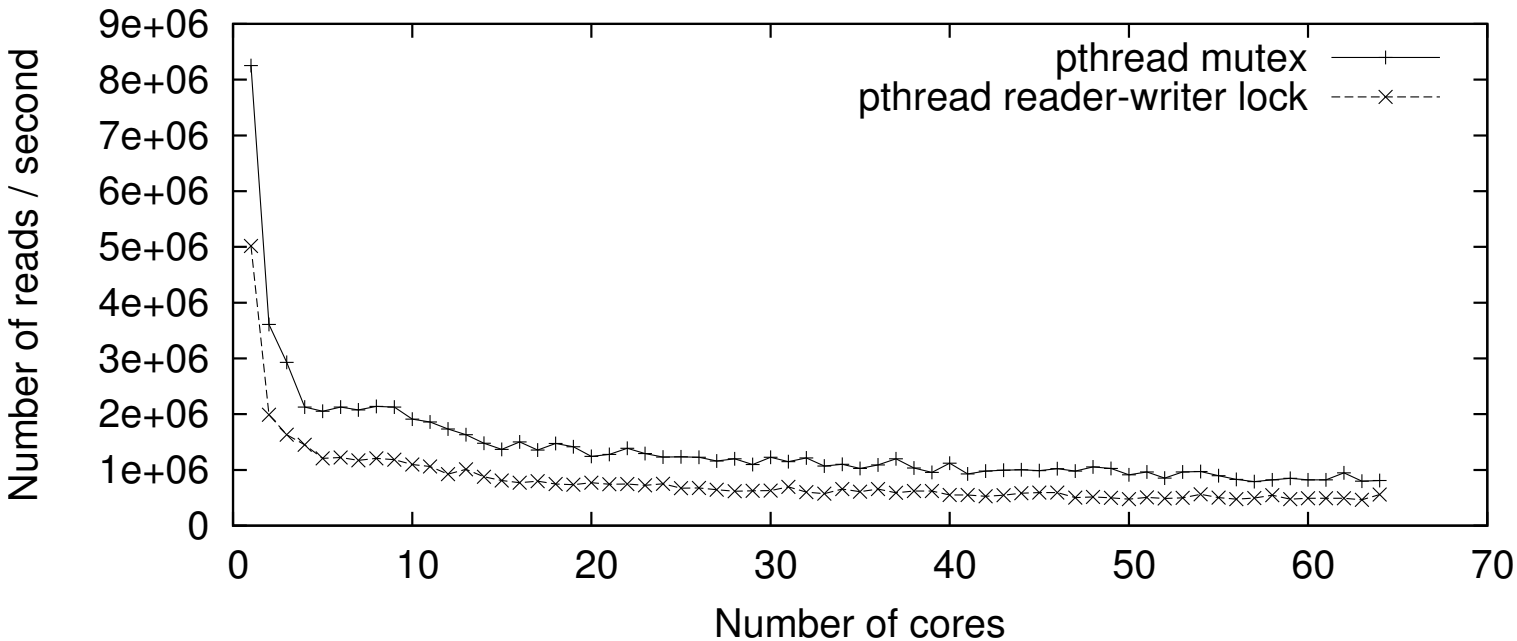
Read-side scalability of synchronization primitives



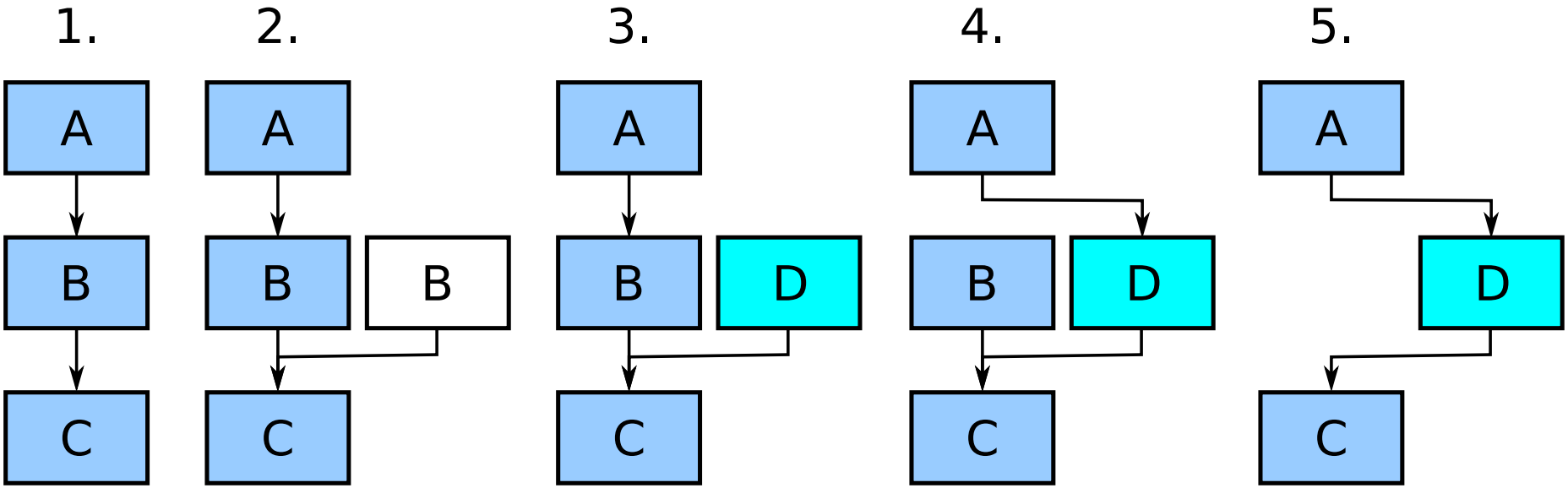
- RCU is scalable – typically it scales almost linearly up to hundreds or thousands of CPUs
- Locking does not scale (see next slide)

Locking scalability

- Zoomed in version of the previous graph



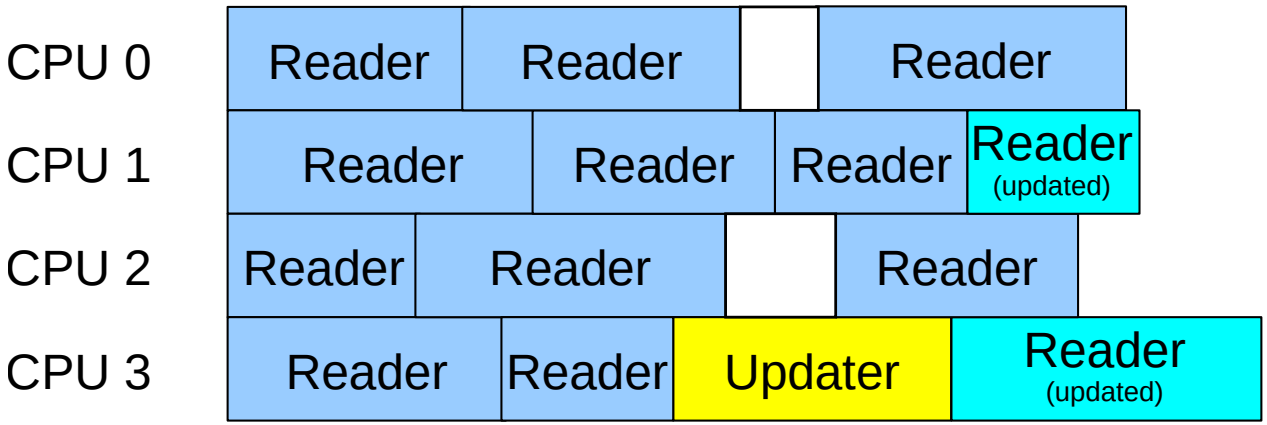
Updating an RCU-protected list



1. Original list
2. Copy B
3. Update B to D
4. Make the updated element visible to readers
5. Wait after all readers stop accessing B and free it

Steps 1–4 are trivial, making step 5 efficient is why RCU is needed!

How does RCU know when no reader access old data?



- **No explicit (and expensive) tracking** of each reader (e.g. no reference counting, no locking in readers)
- RCU uses **indirect** way of determining the end of all read-side sections
- In certain implementations (QSBR) read-side has zero overhead

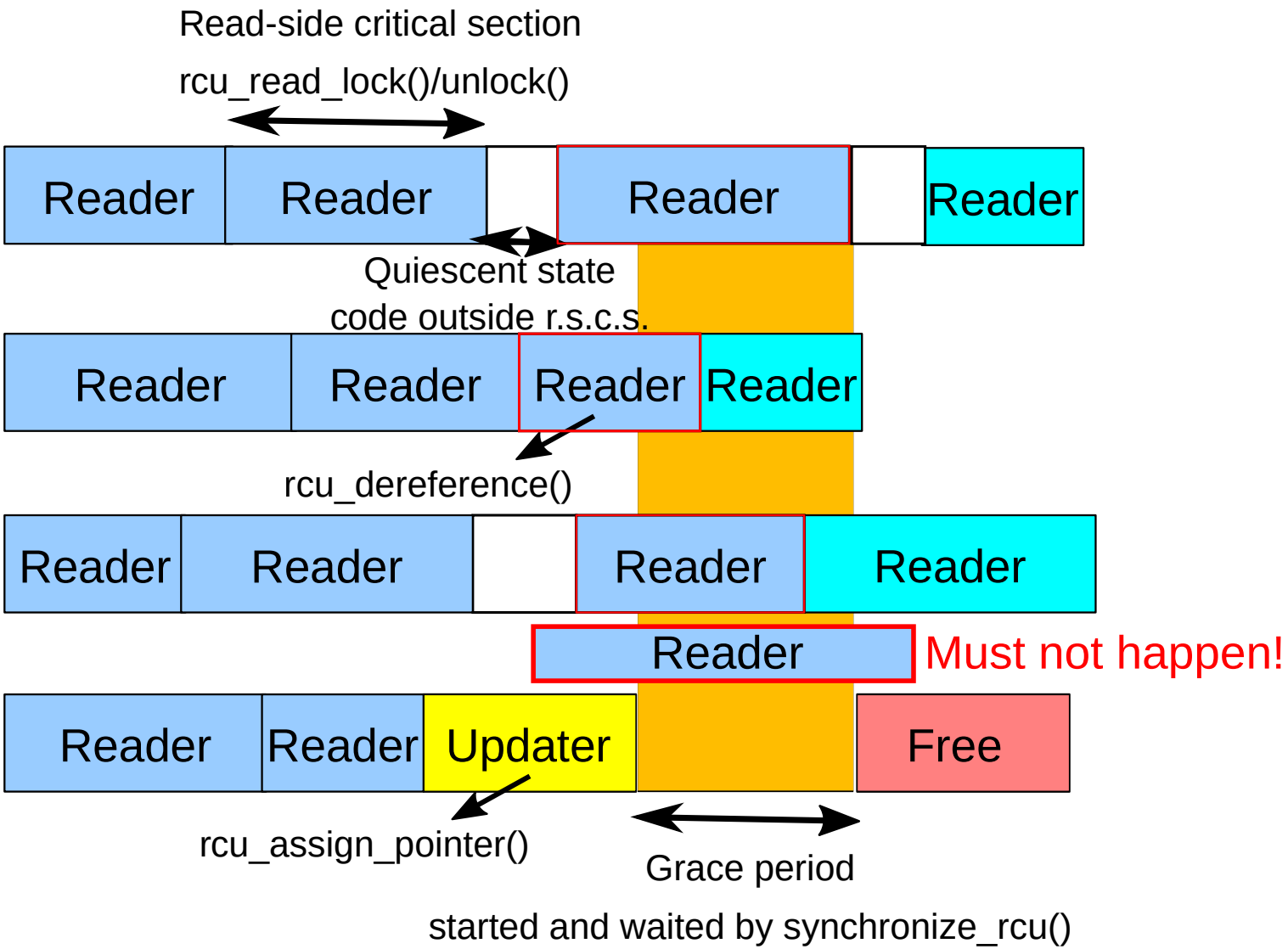
Main mechanisms of RCU

1. Publishing of updates (3→4)
   - Ensure that updated data reach memory before the updated pointer
   - Compiler and memory barrier ⇒ `rcu_assign_pointer()`
2. Accessing new versions of data (how readers traverse the list)
   - Ensure that we see all the updates made before publishing
   - Compiler and memory barrier ⇒ `rcu_dereference()`
3. Waiting for all readers to finish
   - The tricky part! ⇒ `synchronize_rcu()`

Note: RCU and Java

- Does it makes sense to use RCU in Java?
- No, because JVM decides when to free objects by using a tracing garbage collector. Garbage collectors have much higher overhead than RCU (stop-the-world, marking overhead, ...).

RCU concepts and API



RCU read-side critical section

```
rcu_read_lock(); /* Start critical section. */
p = rcu_dereference(cptr);
/* *p guaranteed to exist. */
do_something_with(p);
rcu_read_unlock(); /* End critical section. */
/* *p might be freed!!! */
```

- `rcu_read_lock()`/`unlock()` and `rcu_dereference()` are cheap, sometimes *nop*.
- Updaters are more heavy-weight.

Pitfalls in read-side access (without RCU)

See [PerfBook, 15.3.2]

Instead of:

```
p = rcu_dereference(cptr):
```

Example

```
1  data_t *p = cptr;
2  use(p->field1);
3  use(p->field2);
4  ...
5  data_t *p = cptr;
6  use(p->field1);
7  use(p->field2);
```

1. On DEC Alpha, line 1 can be executed after line 2.
2. Compiler can omit the load at line 5 and use the value from line 1.
3. Compiler can load `cptr` multiple times – e.g. `cptr` can be reloaded between lines 2 and 3. If `*cptr` changes its value, lines 2 and 3 will use different value of `p`.

RCU updater

```
pthread_mutex_lock(&updater_lock);
old_p = cptr;
*new_p = *old_p;                    // copy if needed
new_p->... = ...;
rcu_assign_pointer(cptr, new_p); // update
pthread_mutex_unlock(&updater_lock);
synchronize_rcu();                  // wait for grace period end
free(old_p);
```

- Updater can use locks, because we deal with read-mostly workload, where updates are infrequent.
- Locks are not needed if there is just one updater

Outline

How does it work?

- Many implementations possible
- Trade-off between read-side overhead and constraints of application structure
- We will look at the following implementations:
  - Quiescent-state based reclamation (QSBR)
  - General-purpose
- See `https://www.efficios.com/pub/rcu/urcu-supp.pdf`, Appendix D for more implementations and details.

Quiescent-state based reclamation (QSBR)

```
// Protects registry from concurrent accesses
pthread_mutex_t rcu_gp_lock =
    PTHREAD_MUTEX_INITIALIZER;

LIST_HEAD(registry);

struct rcu_reader {
  // bit 0 = online, bits 1-63 = counter
  unsigned long ctr;
  struct list_head node;
  pthread_t tid;
};

// per-thread variable
struct rcu_reader __thread rcu_reader;

void rcu_register_thread(void) {
  rcu_reader.tid = pthread_self();
  mutex_lock(&rcu_gp_lock);
  list_add(&rcu_reader.node, &registry);
  mutex_unlock(&rcu_gp_lock);
  rcu_thread_online();
}
void rcu_unregister_thread(void) {
  rcu_thread_offline();
  mutex_lock(&rcu_gp_lock);
  list_del(&rcu_reader.node);
  mutex_unlock(&rcu_gp_lock);
}
```

```
#define RCU_GP_ONLINE 0x1
#define RCU_GP_CTR    0x2

// global counter - note: not accessed with atomic instr.
unsigned long rcu_gp_ctr = RCU_GP_ONLINE;

static inline void rcu_read_lock(void) {}
static inline void rcu_read_unlock(void) {}

// Every thread must call this function periodically
// outside of read-side critical section.
// Note 1: There is no atomic instruction and barriers are
//         cheaper than atomic instructions.
// Note 2: This is not called per read-side critical section
//         only "from time to time" e.g. in the main program
//         loop.
static inline void rcu_quiescent_state(void) {
  smp_mb();
  STORE_SHARED(rcu_reader.ctr, LOAD_SHARED(rcu_gp_ctr));
  smp_mb();
}
// call before a blocking system call
static inline void rcu_thread_offline(void) {
  smp_mb();
  STORE_SHARED(rcu_reader.ctr, 0);
}
// call after return from a blocking system call
static inline void rcu_thread_online(void) {
  STORE_SHARED(rcu_reader.ctr, LOAD_SHARED(rcu_gp_ctr));
  smp_mb();
}
```

Quiescent-state based reclamation (QSBR), cont.

```
// Updater will call these
void synchronize_rcu(void) {
  unsigned long was_online;
  was_online = rcu_reader.ctr;
  smp_mb();
  if (was_online)
    STORE_SHARED(rcu_reader.ctr, 0);
  mutex_lock(&rcu_gp_lock);
  update_counter_and_wait();
  mutex_unlock(&rcu_gp_lock);
  if (was_online)
    STORE_SHARED(rcu_reader.ctr, LOAD_SHARED(rcu_gp_ctr));
  smp_mb();
}
static void update_counter_and_wait(void) {
  struct rcu_reader *index;
  STORE_SHARED(rcu_gp_ctr, rcu_gp_ctr + RCU_GP_CTR);
  barrier();
  list_for_each_entry(index, &registry, node) {
    while (rcu_gp_ongoing(&index->ctr))
      msleep(10);
  }
}
static inline int rcu_gp_ongoing(unsigned long *ctr)
{
  unsigned long v;
  v = LOAD_SHARED(*ctr);
  return v && (v != rcu_gp_ctr);
}
```

Properties:

- Threads must call `rcu_quiescent_state()` from time to time (e.g. in the main event loop).
- Threads must call `rcu_threads_off/online` around blocking calls (e.g. `epoll_wait()`).
  - Otherwise, grace period can never end.
- Grace periods are not shared
- Long waiting $\Rightarrow$ higher memory consumption
- Works only on 64-bit architectures – the counter must not overflow

QSBR example

Time →

	Startup	rcu_register_thread	rcu_quiescent_state @CPU0	rcu_quiescent_state @CPU1	synchronize_rcu start @CPU3	rcu_quiescent_state @CPU0	rcu_quiescent_state @CPU2	rcu_quiescent_state @CPU1	synchronize_rcu end @CPU3		synchronize_rcu start @CPU1	rcu_quiescent_state @CPU3	rcu_quiescent_state @CPU0	rcu_quiescent_state @CPU2	synchronize_rcu end @CPU1
rcp_gp_ctr	1				3						5				
CPU0 rcu_reader.ctr		1				3							5		
CPU1 rcu_reader.ctr		1						3			0				5
CPU2 rcu_reader.ctr		1					3							5	
CPU3 rcu_reader.ctr		1			0				3			5			

General-purpose RCU

```
// bit 16 = 1-bit counter (parity)
#define RCU_GP_CTR_PHASE 0x10000
// bits 0-15 = 16-bit nesting counter
#define RCU_NEST_MASK 0x0ffff
#define RCU_NEST_COUNT 0x1

unsigned long rcu_gp_ctr = RCU_NEST_COUNT;


static inline void rcu_read_lock(void)
{
  unsigned long tmp;
  tmp = rcu_reader.ctr;
  if (!(tmp & RCU_NEST_MASK)) {
    STORE_SHARED(rcu_reader.ctr, LOAD_SHARED(rcu_gp_ctr));
    smp_mb();
  } else {
    // Nested critical section does not need a barrier
    STORE_SHARED(rcu_reader.ctr, tmp + RCU_NEST_COUNT);
  }
}

static inline void rcu_read_unlock(void)
{
  smp_mb();
  STORE_SHARED(rcu_reader.ctr, rcu_reader.ctr - RCU_NEST_COUNT);
}
```

Properties:

- Does not restrict application structure
  - No need to call `rcu_quiescent_state`
  - No need to call `rcu_thread_(on|off)line` around blocking syscalls
- No counter-overflow problem (different mechanism with only 1-bit counters)
- Higher read-side overhead: memory barrier (still less than typical locks).
- Supports nesting of read-side critical sections

General-purpose RCU, cont.

```
void synchronize_rcu(void)
{
  smp_mb();
  mutex_lock(&rcu_gp_lock);
  update_counter_and_wait();
  barrier();
  update_counter_and_wait();
  mutex_unlock(&rcu_gp_lock);
  smp_mb();
}
static void update_counter_and_wait(void)
{
  struct rcu_reader *index;
  STORE_SHARED(rcu_gp_ctr, rcu_gp_ctr ^ RCU_GP_CTR_PHASE);
  barrier();
  list_for_each_entry(index, &registry, node) {
    while (rcu_gp_ongoing(&index->ctr))
      msleep(10);
  }
}
static inline int rcu_gp_ongoing(unsigned long *ctr)
{
  unsigned long v;
  v = LOAD_SHARED(*ctr);
  // ongoing = nesting counter > 0 and global (1-bit) counter != local counter
  return (v & RCU_NEST_MASK) && ((v ^ rcu_gp_ctr) & RCU_GP_CTR_PHASE);
}
```

Update benchmarks

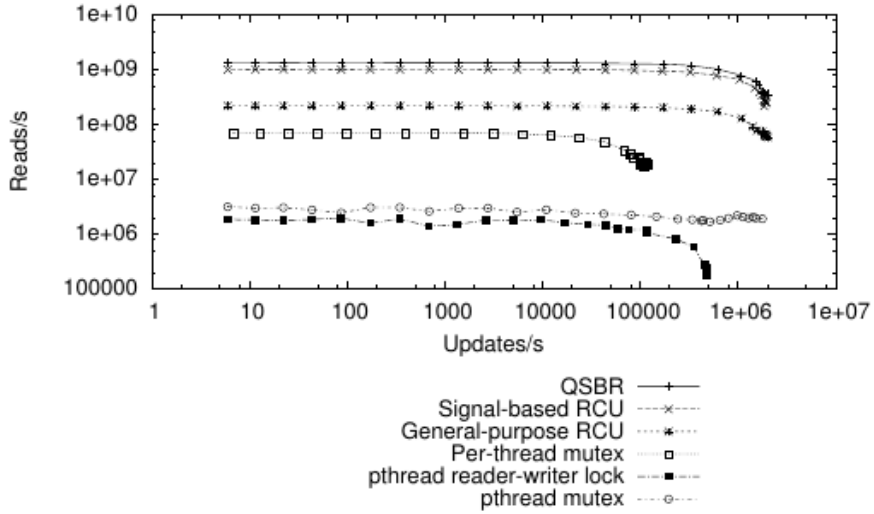


Fig. 9. Update Overhead, 8-core Intel Xeon, Logarithmic Scale

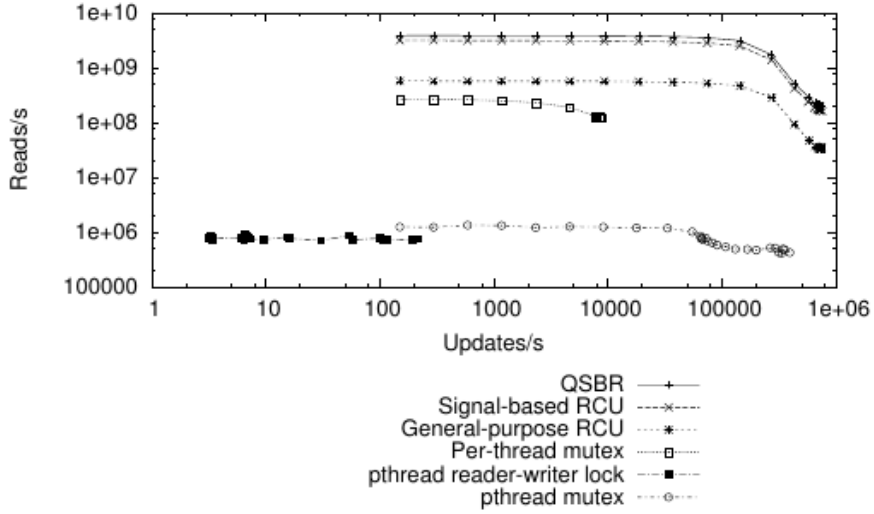


Fig. 10. Update Overhead, 64-core POWER5+, Logarithmic Scale

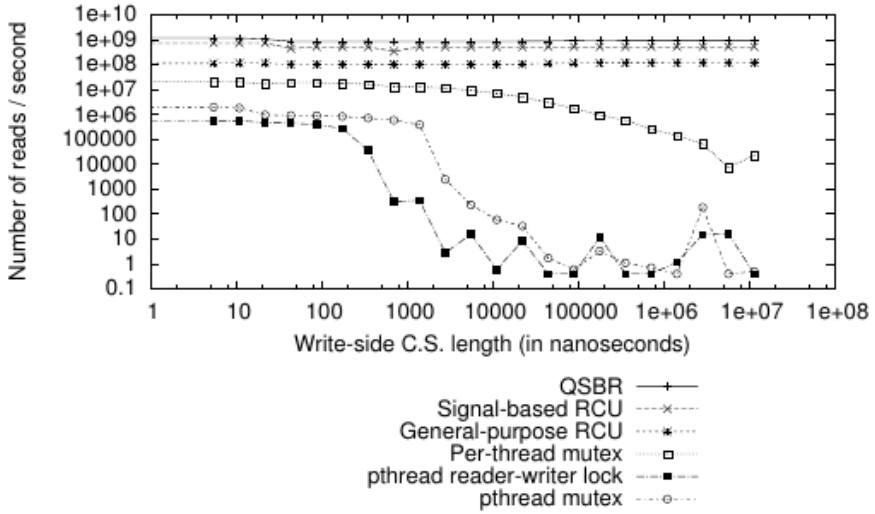


Fig. 11. Impact of Update-Side Critical Section Length on Read-Side, 8-core Intel Xeon, Logarithmic Scale

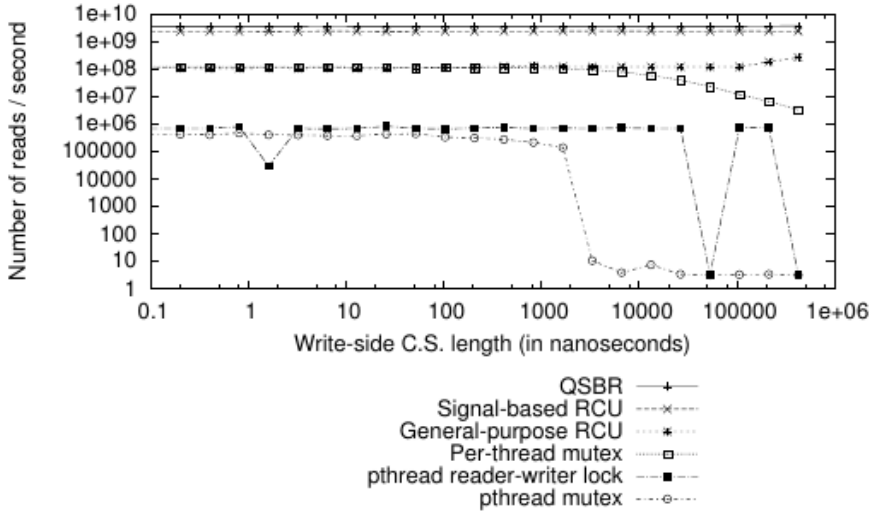


Fig. 12. Impact of Update-Side Critical Section Length on Read-Side, 64-core POWER5+, Logarithmic Scale

Conclusion

- RCU is a scalable synchronization mechanism for hundreds/thousands of CPUs and read-mostly workload
- We have seen an RCU-based implementation of single-linked list, but many other common data structures can be implemented in an RCU-compatible way

References

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Appendix

- RCU is being proposed for inclusion into C++ standard:

  `http://www.open-std.org/jtc1/sc22/wg21/docs/papers/2018/p1122r2.pdf`

- RCU is patented by IBM, which freely licenses the patent to copy-left software. Userspace RCU library (copyleft – LGPL) can be used in proprietary code. The patents should expire soon.

  `https://lwn.net/Articles/777519/`