

Design of Parallel and High-Performance Computing

Fall 2015

Lecture: Languages and Locks

Motivational video: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1o4YViBAGU0>

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ETH

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Administrivia

- You should have a project partner by now
 - And a topic!
- Progress presentations: Monday 11/2 (two weeks from today!)
 - ... may continue the following Thursday in recitation (order will be randomized)
 - Send slides (ppt or pdf) by Sunday 11/1 11:59pm to Timo!
 - 10 minutes per team (hard limit)
 - **Prepare!** This is your first impression, gather feedback from us!
 - Rough guidelines:
 - Present your plan*
 - Related work (what exists, careful literature review!)*
 - Preliminary results (what are your detailed plans, milestones)*
 - Main goal is to gather feedback, so present some details*
 - Ideally one presenter (make sure to switch for other presentations!)*
- Final project presentation: Monday 12/14 during last lecture

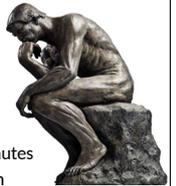
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Review of last lecture

- Locked Queue
 - Correctness
 - Lock-free two-thread queue
- Linearizability
 - Combine object pre- and postconditions with serializability
 - Additional (semantic) constraints!
- Histories
 - Analyze given histories
Projections, Sequential/Concurrent, Completeness, Equivalence, Well formed, Linearizability (formal)

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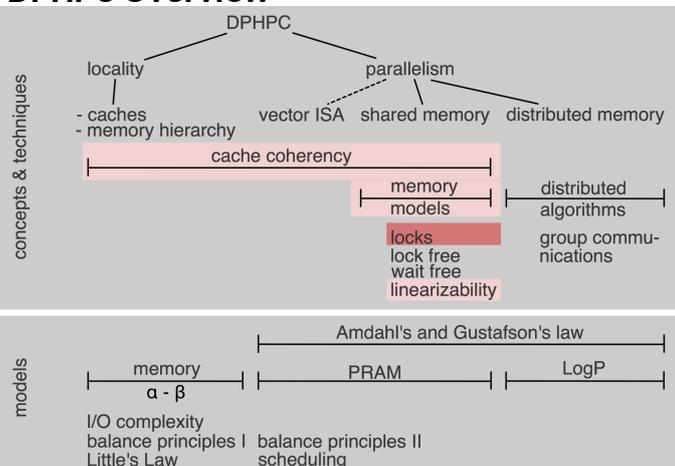
Peer Quiz



- Instructions:
 - Pick some partners (locally) and discuss each question for 2 minutes
 - We then select a random student (team) to answer the question
- How can histories be used to proof a parallel code correct?
 - How do histories relate to the source code?
 - Can proofing be automated?
- What are the practical limits of linearizability?
 - Can it always be applied?
 - Is there a performance tradeoff? Always? Sometimes? Never?

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DPHPC Overview



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Goals of this lecture

- Languages and Memory Models
 - Java/C++ definition
- Recap serial consistency
 - Races (now in practice)
- Mutual exclusion
- Locks
 - Two-thread
 - Peterson
 - N-thread
 - Many different locks, strengths and weaknesses
 - Lock options and parameters
- Problems and outline to next class

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Everybody wants to optimize

- Language constructs for synchronization
 - Java: volatile, synchronized, ...
 - C++: atomic, (**NOT volatile!**), mutex, ...
- Without synchronization (defined language-specific)
 - Compiler, (VM), architecture
 - Reorder and appear to reorder memory operations
 - Maintain **sequential semantics** per thread
 - Other threads may observe any order (have seen examples before)

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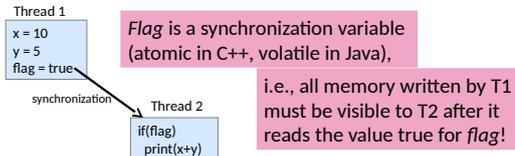
Java and C++ High-level overview

- Relaxed memory model
 - No global visibility ordering of operations
 - Allows for standard compiler optimizations
- But
 - Program order for each thread (sequential semantics)
 - Partial order on memory operations (with respect to synchronizations)
 - Visibility function defined
- Correctly synchronized programs
 - Guarantee sequential consistency
- Incorrectly synchronized programs
 - Java: maintain safety and security guarantees
Type safety etc. (require behavior bounded by causality)
 - C++: undefined behavior
No safety (anything can happen/change)

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Communication between Threads: Intuition

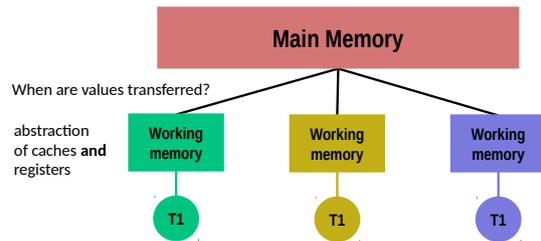
- Not guaranteed unless by:
 - Synchronization
 - Volatile/atomic variables
 - Specialized functions/classes (e.g., java.util.concurrent, ...)



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Memory Model: Intuition

- Abstract relation between threads and memory
 - Local thread view!



- Does not talk about classes, objects, methods, ...
 - Linearizability is a higher-level concept!

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Lock Synchronization

- Java


```
synchronized (lock) {
    // critical region
}
```

 - Synchronized methods as syntactic sugar
- C++

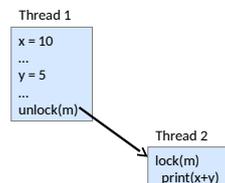

```
{
    unique_lock<mutex> l(lock);
    // critical region
}
```

 - Many flexible variants
- Semantics:
 - mutual exclusion
 - at most one thread may own a lock
 - a thread B trying to acquire a lock held by thread A blocks until thread A releases lock
 - note: threads may wait forever (no progress guarantee!)

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Memory semantics

- Similar to synchronization variables



- All memory accesses **before** an unlock ...
- are ordered before and are visible to ...
- any memory access **after** a matching lock!

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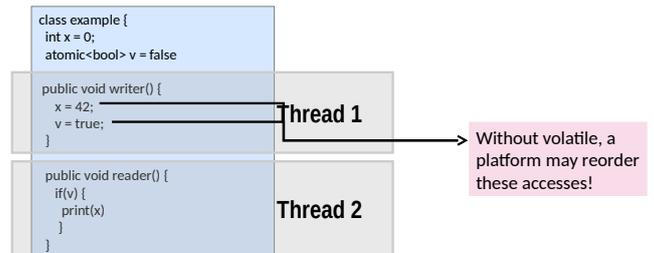
Synchronization Variables

- Variables can be declared `volatile` (Java) or `atomic` (C++)
- Reads and writes to synchronization variables
 - Are totally ordered with respect to all threads
 - Must not be reordered with normal reads and writes
- Compiler
 - Must not allocate synchronization variables in registers
 - Must not swap variables with synchronization variables
 - May need to issue memory fences/barriers
 - ...

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Synchronization Variables

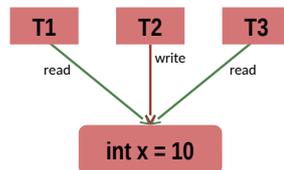
- Write to a synchronization variable
 - Similar memory semantics as `unlock` (no process synchronization!)
- Read from a synchronization variable
 - Similar memory semantics as `lock` (no process synchronization!)



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Memory Model Rules

- Java/C++: Correctly synchronized programs will execute sequentially consistent
- Correctly synchronized = data-race free
 - iff all sequentially consistent executions are free of data races
- Two accesses to a shared memory location form a data race in the execution of a program if
 - The two accesses are from different threads
 - At least one access is a write and
 - The accesses are not synchronized



Manson, Pugh, Adve: "The Java Memory Model", POPL'05

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Case Study: Locks - Lecture Goals

- Among the simplest concurrency constructs
 - Yet, complex enough to illustrate many optimization principles
- Goal 1: You understand locks in detail
 - Requirements / guarantees
 - Correctness / validation
 - Performance / scalability
- Goal 2: Acquire the ability to design your own locks
 - Understand techniques and weaknesses/traps
 - Extend to other concurrent algorithms
 - Issues are very much the same*
- Goal 3: Feel the complexity of shared memory!

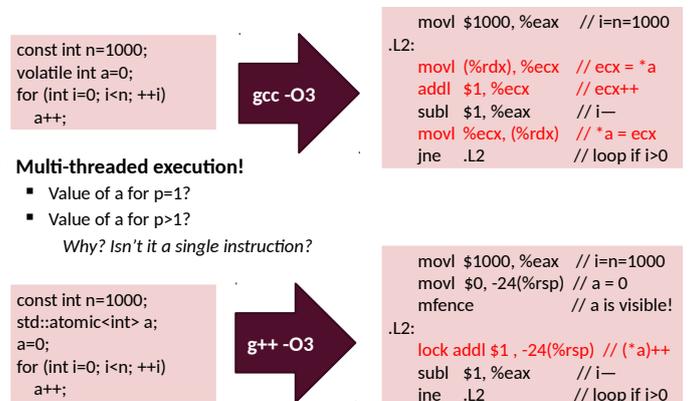
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Preliminary Comments

- All code examples are in C/C++ style
 - Neither C nor C++ <11 have a clear memory model
 - C++ is one of the languages of choice in HPC
 - Consider source as exemplary (and pay attention to the memory model)!
 - In fact, many/most of the examples are incorrect in anything but sequential consistency!*
 - In fact, you'll most likely not need those algorithms, but the principles will be useful!*
- x86 is really only used because it's common
 - This does not mean that we consider the ISA or memory model elegant!
 - We assume atomic memory (or registers)!
 - Usually given on x86 (easy to enforce)*
- Number of threads/processes is `p`, `tid` is the thread id

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Recap Concurrent Updates



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One instruction less! Performance!?

- run with larger n (10⁸)
- Compiler: gcc version 4.9.2 (enabled experimental c++11 support, -O3)
- Single-threaded execution only!

```
const int n= 108;
volatile int a=0;
for (int i=0; i<n; ++i)
    a++;
```

0.23s

```
const int n= 108;
std::atomic<int> a;
a=0;
for (int i=0; i<n; ++i)
    a++;
```

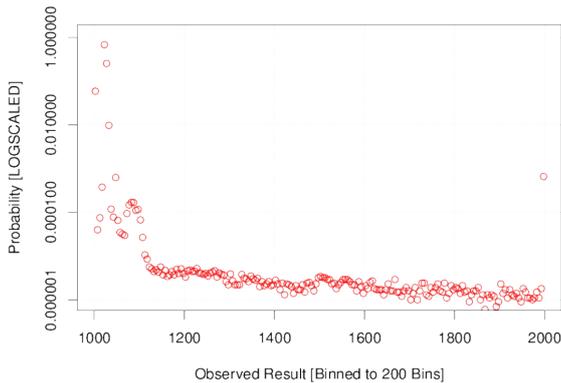
Guess! 0.78s

Some Statistics

- Nondeterministic execution
 - Result depends on timing (probably not desired)
- What do you think are the most significant results?
 - Running two threads on Core i5 dual core
 - a=1000? 2000? 1500? 1223? 1999?

```
const int n=1000;
volatile int a=0;
for (int i=0; i<n; ++i)
    a++;
```

Some Statistics



Conflicting Accesses

- (recap) two memory accesses conflict if they can happen at the same time (in happens-before) and one of them is a write (store)
- Such a code is said to have a "race condition"
 - Also data-race
 - Trivia around races:
 - The Therac-25 killed three people due to a race
 - A data-race lead to a large blackout in 2003, leaving 55 million people without power causing \$1bn damage
- Can be avoided by critical regions
 - Mutually exclusive access to a set of operations



Mutual Exclusion

- Control access to a critical region
 - Memory accesses of all processes happen in program order (a partial order, many interleavings)
 - An execution history defines a total order of memory accesses
 - Some subsets of memory accesses (issued by the same process) need to happen atomically (thread a's memory accesses may not be interleaved with other thread's accesses)
 - To achieve linearizability!
 - We need to restrict the valid executions
- Requires synchronization of some sort
 - Many possible techniques (e.g., TM, CAS, TSS, ...)
 - We first discuss locks which have wait semantics

```
movl $1000,%eax // i=1000
.L2:
    movl (%rdx),%ecx // ecx = *a
    addl $1,%ecx // ecx++
    subl $1,%eax // i--
    movl %ecx,(%rdx) // *a = ecx
    jne .L2 // loop if i>0
```

Fixing it with locks

```
const int n=1000;
volatile int a=0;
omp_lock_t lck;
for (int i=0; i<n; ++i) {
    omp_set_lock(&lck);
    a++;
    omp_unset_lock(&lck);
}
```



```
movl $1000,%ebx // i=1000
.L2:
    movq 0(%rbp),%rdi // (SystemV CC)
    call omp_set_lock // get lock
    movq 0(%rbp),%rdi // (SystemV CC)
    movl (%rax),%edx // edx = *a
    addl $1,%edx // edx++
    movl %edx,(%rax) // *a = edx
    call omp_unset_lock // release lock
    subl $1,%ebx // i--
    jne .L2 // repeat if i>0
```

- What must the functions lock and unlock guarantee?
 - #1: prevent two threads from simultaneously entering CR
 - i.e., accesses to CR must be mutually exclusive!
 - #2: ensure consistent memory
 - i.e., stores must be globally visible before new lock is granted!
- Any performance guesses (remember, 0.23s = 0.78s for atomics)
 - 2.26s

Lock Overview

- **Lock/unlock or acquire/release**
 - Lock/acquire: **before** entering CR
 - Unlock/release: **after** leaving CR
- **Semantics:**
 - Lock/unlock pairs have to match
 - Between lock/unlock, a thread **holds** the lock

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Desired Lock Properties

- **Mutual exclusion**
 - Only one thread is on the critical region
- **Consistency**
 - Memory operations are visible when critical region is left
- **Progress**
 - If any thread a is not in the critical region, it cannot prevent another thread b from entering
- **Starvation-freedom (implies deadlock-freedom)**
 - If a thread is requesting access to a critical region, then it will eventually be granted access
- **Fairness**
 - A thread a requested access to a critical region before thread b. Did a also be granted access to this region before b?
- **Performance**
 - Scaling to large numbers of contending threads

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Simplified Notation (cf. Histories)

- **Time defined by precedence (a total order on events)**
 - Events are instantaneous (linearizable)
 - Threads produce sequences of events a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots
 - Program statements may be repeated, denote i-th instance of a as a^i
 - Event a occurs before event b: $a \rightarrow b$
 - An interval (a, b) is the duration between events $a \rightarrow b$
 - Interval $I_1=(a, b)$ precedes interval $I_2=(c, d)$ iff $b \rightarrow c$
- **Critical regions**
 - A critical region CR is an interval (a, b) , where a is the first operation in the CR and b the last
- **Mutual exclusion**
 - Critical regions CR_A and CR_B are mutually exclusive if:
Either $CR_A \rightarrow CR_B$ or $CR_B \rightarrow CR_A$ for all valid executions!
- **Assume atomic registers (for now)**

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Simple Two-Thread Locks

- **A first simple spinlock**

```
volatile int flag=0;

void lock() {
  while(flag);
  flag = 1;
}

void unlock() {
  flag = 0;
}
```

Busy-wait to acquire lock (spinning)

Is this lock correct?

Why does this not guarantee mutual exclusion?

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Proof Intuition

- **Construct a sequentially consistent history that permits both processes to enter the CR**

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Simple Two-Thread Locks

- **Another two-thread spin-lock: LockOne**

```
volatile int flag[2];

void lock() {
  int j = 1 - tid;
  flag[tid] = true;
  while (flag[j]) {} // wait
}

void unlock() {
  flag[tid] = false;
}
```

When and why does this guarantee mutual exclusion?

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Correctness Proof

- In sequential consistency!
 - Intuitions:
 - Situation: both threads are ready to enter
 - Show that situation that allows both to enter leads to a schedule violating sequential consistency
- Using transitivity of program and synchronization orders*

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Simple Two-Thread Locks

- Another two-thread spin-lock: LockOne

```
volatile int flag[2];

void lock() {
  int j = 1 - tid;
  flag[tid] = true;
  while (flag[j]) {} // wait
}

void unlock() {
  flag[tid] = false;
}
```

When and why does this guarantee mutual exclusion?

Does it work in practice?

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Simple Two-Thread Locks

- A third attempt at two-thread locking: LockTwo

```
volatile int victim;

void lock() {
  victim = tid; // grant access
  while (victim == tid) {} // wait
}

void unlock() {}
```

Does this guarantee mutual exclusion?

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Correctness Proof

- Intuition:
 - Victim is only written once per lock()
 - A can only enter after B wrote
 - B cannot enter in any sequentially consistent schedule

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Simple Two-Thread Locks

- A third attempt at two-thread locking: LockTwo

```
volatile int victim;

void lock() {
  victim = tid; // grant access
  while (victim == tid) {} // wait
}

void unlock() {}
```

Does this guarantee mutual exclusion?

Does it work in practice?

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Simple Two-Thread Locks

- The last two locks provide mutual exclusion
 - LockOne succeeds iff lock attempts do not overlap
 - LockTwo succeeds iff lock attempts do overlap
- Combine both into one locking strategy!
 - Peterson's lock (1981)

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Peterson's Two-Thread Lock (1981)

- Combines the first lock (request access) with the second lock (grant access)

```
volatile int flag[2];
volatile int victim;

void lock() {
    int j = 1 - tid;
    flag[tid] = 1; // I'm interested
    victim = tid; // other goes first
    while (flag[j] && victim == tid) {}; // wait
}

void unlock() {
    flag[tid] = 0; // I'm not interested
}
```

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Proof Correctness

- Intuition:**
 - Victim is written once
 - Pick thread that wrote victim last
 - Show thread must have read flag==0
 - Show that no sequentially consistent schedule permits that

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Starvation Freedom

- (recap) definition: Every thread that calls lock() eventually gets the lock.
 - Implies deadlock-freedom!
- Is Peterson's lock starvation-free?

```
volatile int flag[2];
volatile int victim;

void lock() {
    int j = 1 - tid;
    flag[tid] = 1; // I'm interested
    victim = tid; // other goes first
    while (flag[j] && victim == tid) {}; // wait
}

void unlock() {
    flag[tid] = 0; // I'm not interested
}
```

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Proof Starvation Freedom

- Intuition:**
 - Threads can only wait/starve in while()
 - Until flag==0 or victim==other
 - Other thread enters lock() \Rightarrow sets victim to other
 - Will definitely "unstuck" first thread
 - So other thread can only be stuck in lock()
 - Will wait for victim==other, victim cannot block both threads \Rightarrow one must leave!

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Peterson in Practice ... on x86

- Implement and run our little counter on x86
- 100000 iterations
 - 1.6 \approx 10% errors
 - What is the problem?

```
volatile int flag[2];
volatile int victim;

void lock() {
    int j = 1 - tid;
    flag[tid] = 1; // I'm interested
    victim = tid; // other goes first
    while (flag[j] && victim == tid) {}; // wait
}

void unlock() {
    flag[tid] = 0; // I'm not interested
}
```

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Peterson in Practice ... on x86

- Implement and run our little counter on x86
- 100000 iterations
 - 1.6 \approx 10% errors
 - What is the problem?

No sequential consistency for W(v) and R(flag[j])

```
volatile int flag[2];
volatile int victim;

void lock() {
    int j = 1 - tid;
    flag[tid] = 1; // I'm interested
    victim = tid; // other goes first
    asm ("mfence");
    while (flag[j] && victim == tid) {}; // wait
}

void unlock() {
    flag[tid] = 0; // I'm not interested
}
```

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Peterson in Practice ... on x86

- Implement and run our little counter on x86

- 100000 iterations

- 1.6 \approx 10% errors
- What is the problem?
No sequential consistency for W(v) and R(flag[j])
- Still 1.3 \approx 10% Why?

```
volatile int flag[2];
volatile int victim;

void lock() {
    int j = 1 - tid;
    flag[tid] = 1; // I'm interested
    victim = tid; // other goes first
    asm ("mfence");
    while (flag[j] && victim == tid) {}; // wait
}

void unlock() {
    flag[tid] = 0; // I'm not interested
}
```

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Peterson in Practice ... on x86

- Implement and run our little counter on x86

- 100000 iterations

- 1.6 \approx 10% errors
- What is the problem?
No sequential consistency for W(v) and R(flag[j])
- Still 1.3 \approx 10% Why?
Reads may slip into CR!

```
volatile int flag[2];
volatile int victim;

void lock() {
    int j = 1 - tid;
    flag[tid] = 1; // I'm interested
    victim = tid; // other goes first
    asm ("mfence");
    while (flag[j] && victim == tid) {}; // wait
}

void unlock() {
    asm ("mfence");
    flag[tid] = 0; // I'm not interested
}
```

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Correct Peterson Lock on x86

- Unoptimized (naïve sprinkling of mfences)

- Performance:

- No mfence
375ns
- mfence in lock
379ns
- mfence in unlock
404ns
- Two mfence
427ns (+14%)

```
volatile int flag[2];
volatile int victim;

void lock() {
    int j = 1 - tid;
    flag[tid] = 1; // I'm interested
    victim = tid; // other goes first
    asm ("mfence");
    while (flag[j] && victim == tid) {}; // wait
}

void unlock() {
    asm ("mfence");
    flag[tid] = 0; // I'm not interested
}
```

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Locking for N threads

- Simple generalization of Peterson's lock, assume n levels $l = 0 \dots n-1$

- Is it correct?

```
volatile int level[n] = {0,0,...,0}; // indicates highest level a thread tries to enter
volatile int victim[n]; // the victim thread, excluded from next level
void lock() {
    for (int i = 1; i < n; i++) { //attempt level i
        level[tid] = i;
        victim[i] = tid;
        // spin while conflicts exist
        while (( $\exists k \neq tid$ ) (level[k] >= i && victim[i] == tid)) {};
    }
}

void unlock() {
    level[tid] = 0;
}
```

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Filter Lock - Correctness

- Lemma: For $0 < j < n-1$, there are at most n-j threads at level j!

- Intuition:

- Recursive proof (induction on j)
- By contradiction, assume n-j+1 threads at level j-1 and j
- Assume last thread to write victim
- Any other thread writes level before victim
- Last thread will stop at spin due to other thread's write

- j=n-1 is critical region

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Locking for N threads

- Simple generalization of Peterson's lock, assume n levels $l = 0 \dots n-1$

- Is it starvation-free?

```
volatile int level[n] = {0,0,...,0}; // indicates highest level a thread tries to enter
volatile int victim[n]; // the victim thread, excluded from next level
void lock() {
    for (int i = 1; i < n; i++) { //attempt level i
        level[tid] = i;
        victim[i] = tid;
        // spin while conflicts exist
        while (( $\exists k \neq tid$ ) (level[k] >= i && victim[i] == tid)) {};
    }
}

void unlock() {
    level[tid] = 0;
}
```

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Filter Lock Starvation Freedom

- **Intuition:**
 - Inductive argument over j (levels)
 - Base-case: level $n-1$ has one thread (not stuck)
 - Level j : assume thread is stuck
 - Eventually, higher levels will drain (induction)
 - Last entering thread is victim, it will wait
 - Thus, only one thread can be stuck at each level
 - Victim can only have one value \Rightarrow older threads will advance!

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Filter Lock

- What are the disadvantages of this lock?

```
volatile int level[n] = {0,0,...,0}; // indicates highest level a thread tries to enter
volatile int victim[n]; // the victim thread, excluded from next level
void lock() {
    for (int i = 1; i < n; i++) { // attempt level i
        level[tid] = i;
        victim[i] = tid;
        // spin while conflicts exist
        while (( $\exists k \neq tid$ ) (level[k] >= i && victim[i] == tid) {});
    }
}

void unlock() {
    level[tid] = 0;
}
```

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Lock Fairness

- Starvation freedom provides no guarantee on how long a thread waits or if it is "passed"!
- To reason about fairness, we define two sections of each lock algorithm:
 - Doorway D (bounded # of steps)
 - Waiting W (unbounded # of steps)
- FIFO locks:
 - If T_A finishes its doorway before T_B the $CR_A \Rightarrow CR_B$
 - Implies fairness

```
void lock() {
    int j = 1 - tid;
    flag[tid] = true; // I'm interested
    victim = tid; // other goes first
    while (flag[j] && victim == tid) {};
}
```

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Lamport's Bakery Algorithm (1974)

- Is a FIFO lock (and thus fair)
- Each thread takes number in doorway and threads enter in the order of their number!

```
volatile int flag[n] = {0,0,...,0};
volatile int label[n] = {0,0,...,0};

void lock() {
    flag[tid] = 1; // request
    label[tid] = max(label[0], ..., label[n-1]) + 1; // take ticket
    while (( $\exists k \neq tid$ ) (flag[k] && (label[k, k] < * (label[tid, tid]))) {});
}

public void unlock() {
    flag[tid] = 0;
}
```

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Lamport's Bakery Algorithm (1974)

- **Advantages:**
 - Elegant and correct solution
 - Starvation free, even FIFO fairness
- **Not used in practice!**
 - Why?
 - Needs to read/write N memory locations for synchronizing N threads
 - Can we do better?
 - Using only atomic registers/memory

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A Lower Bound to Memory Complexity

- Theorem 5.1 in [1]: "If S is a [atomic] read/write system with at least two processes and S solves mutual exclusion with global progress [deadlock-freedom], then S must have at least as many variables as processes"
- So we're doomed! Optimal locks are available and they're fundamentally non-scalable. Or not?

[1] J. E. Burns and N. A. Lynch. Bounds on shared memory for mutual exclusion. Information and Computation, 107(2):171-184, December 1993

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Hardware Support?

- **Hardware atomic operations:**
 - Test&Set
Write const to memory while returning the old value
 - Atomic swap
Atomically exchange memory and register
 - Fetch&Op
Get value and apply operation to memory location
 - Compare&Swap
Compare two values and swap memory with register if equal
 - Load-linked/Store-Conditional LL/SC
Loads value from memory, allows operations, commits only if no other updates committed ⇐ mini-TM
 - Intel TSX (transactional synchronization extensions)
Hardware-TM (roll your own atomic operations)

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Relative Power of Synchronization

- **Design-Problem I: Multi-core Processor**
 - Which atomic operations are useful?
- **Design-Problem II: Complex Application**
 - What atomic should I use?
- **Concept of “consensus number” C if a primitive can be used to solve the “consensus problem” in a finite number of steps (even if threads stop)**
 - atomic registers have C=1 (thus locks have C=1!)
 - TAS, Swap, Fetch&Op have C=2
 - CAS, LL/SC, TM have C=∞

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Test-and-Set Locks

- **Test-and-Set semantics**
 - Memoize old value
 - Set fixed value TASval (true)
 - Return old value
- **After execution:**
 - Post-condition is a fixed (constant) value!

```
bool test_and_set (bool *flag) {
    bool old = *flag;
    *flag = true;
    return old;
} // all atomic!
```

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Test-and-Set Locks

- Assume TASval indicates “locked”
- Write something else to indicate “unlocked”
- TAS until return value is != TASval

- **When will the lock be granted?**
- **Does this work well in practice?**

```
volatile int lck = 0;

void lock() {
    while (TestAndSet(&lck) == 1);
}

void unlock() {
    lck = 0;
}
```

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Contention

- **On x86, the XCHG instruction is used to implement TAS**
 - For experts: x86 LOCK is superfluous!
- **Cacheline is read and written**
 - Ends up in exclusive state, invalidates other copies
 - Cacheline is “thrown” around uselessly
 - High load on memory subsystem
x86 bus lock is essentially a full memory barrier →

```
movl  $1, %eax
xchgl %eax, (%ebx)
```

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Test-and-Test-and-Set (TATAS) Locks

- **Spinning in TAS is not a good idea**
- **Spin on cache line in shared state**
 - All threads at the same time, no cache coherency/memory traffic

- **Danger!**
 - Efficient but use with great care!
 - Generalizations are dangerous

```
volatile int lck = 0;

void lock() {
    do {
        while (lck == 1);
    } while (TestAndSet(&lck) == 1);
}

void unlock() {
    lck = 0;
}
```

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Warning: Even Experts get it wrong!

Example: Double-Checked Locking

1997

Double-Checked Locking An Optimization Pattern for Efficiently Initializing and Accessing Thread-safe Objects

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This paper appeared in a chapter in the book "Pattern Languages of Program Design 1" (PLD1), edited by Robert Martin, Frank Buschmann, and Dirk Riebe, published by Addison-Wesley, 1997.

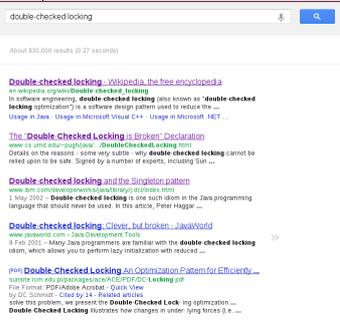
Abstract

This paper shows how the canonical implementation [1] of the Singleton pattern does not work correctly in the presence of processor multiprogramming or time parallelism. To solve this problem, we present the Double-Checked Locking optimization pattern. This pattern is useful for reducing contention and synchronization overhead whenever "critical sections" of code should be executed just once. In addition, Double-Checked Locking illustrates how changes in ordering forms (i.e., adding multi-threading and parallelism to the common Singleton scenario) can impact the form and content of patterns used to develop concurrent software.

context of concurrency. To illustrate this, consider canonical implementation [1] of the Singleton pattern in multi-threaded environments. The Singleton pattern ensures a class has only one instance and provides a global point of access to that instance. It normally allocates Singleton's C++ program code since the order of initialization of global static objects programs is not well defined and is therefore unspecified. Moreover, dynamic allocation avoids the cost of initializing a Singleton if it never used.

Defining a Singleton is straightforward:

```
class Singleton
{
public:
    static Singleton* Instance(void)
    {
        if (instance == 0)
            // critical section
            instance = new Singleton();
        return instance;
    }
};
```



Problem: Memory ordering leads to race-conditions!

Contention?

- Do TATAS locks still have contention?
- When lock is released, k threads fight for cache line ownership
 - One gets the lock, all get the CL exclusively (serially!)
 - What would be a good solution? (think "collision avoidance")

```
volatile int lck = 0;

void lock() {
    do {
        while (lck == 1);
    } while (TestAndSet(&lck) == 1);
}

void unlock() {
    lck = 0;
}
```

TAS Lock with Exponential Backoff

Exponential backoff eliminates contention statistically

- Locks granted in unpredictable order
- Starvation possible but unlikely
 - How can we make it even less likely?

```
volatile int lck = 0;

void lock() {
    while (TestAndSet(&lck) == 1) {
        wait(time);
        time *= 2; // double waiting time
    }
}

void unlock() {
    lck = 0;
}
```

Similar to: T. Anderson: "The performance of spin lock alternatives for shared-memory multiprocessors", TPDS, Vol. 1 Issue 1, Jan 1990

TAS Lock with Exponential Backoff

Exponential backoff eliminates contention statistically

- Locks granted in unpredictable order
- Starvation possible but unlikely
 - Maximum waiting time makes it less likely

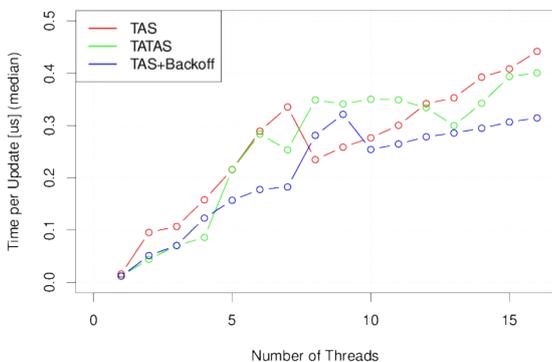
```
volatile int lck = 0;
const int maxtime=1000;

void lock() {
    while (TestAndSet(&lck) == 1) {
        wait(time);
        time = min(time * 2, maxtime);
    }
}

void unlock() {
    lck = 0;
}
```

Similar to: T. Anderson: "The performance of spin lock alternatives for shared-memory multiprocessors", TPDS, Vol. 1 Issue 1, Jan 1990

Comparison of TAS Locks



Improvements?

- Are TAS locks perfect?
 - What are the two biggest issues?
 - Cache coherency traffic (contending on same location with expensive atomics)
 - Critical section underutilization (waiting for backoff times will delay entry to CR)
 - What would be a fix for that?
 - How is this solved at airports and shops (often at least)?
- Queue locks -- Threads enqueue
 - Learn from predecessor if it's their turn
 - Each threads spins at a different location
 - FIFO fairness

Array Queue Lock

■ Array to implement queue

- Tail-pointer shows next free queue position
- Each thread spins on own location
CL padding!
- `index[]` array can be put in TLS

■ So are we done now?

- What's wrong?
- Synchronizing M objects requires $\Theta(NM)$ storage
- What do we do now?

```
volatile int array[n] = {1,0,...,0};
volatile int index[n] = {0,0,...,0};
volatile int tail = 0;

void lock() {
    index[tid] = GetAndInc(tail) % n;
    while (!array[index[tid]]); // wait to receive lock
}

void unlock() {
    array[index[tid]] = 0; // I release my lock
    array[(index[tid] + 1) % n] = 1; // next one
}
```

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CLH Lock (1993)

■ List-based (same queue principle)

■ Discovered twice by Craig Landin, Hagersten 1993/94

■ 2N+3M words

- N threads, M locks

■ Requires thread-local qnode pointer

- Can be hidden!

```
typedef struct qnode {
    struct qnode *prev;
    int succ_blocked;
} qnode;

qnode *lck = new qnode; // node owned by lock

void lock(qnode *lck, qnode *qn) {
    qn->succ_blocked = 1;
    qn->prev = FetchAndSet(lck, qn);
    while (qn->prev->succ_blocked);
}

void unlock(qnode **qn) {
    qnode *pred = (*qn)->prev;
    (*qn)->succ_blocked = 0;
    *qn = pred;
}
```

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CLH Lock (1993)

■ Qnode objects represent thread state!

- `succ_blocked == 1` if waiting or acquired lock
- `succ_blocked == 0` if released lock

■ List is implicit!

- One node per thread
- Spin location changes
NUMA issues (cacheless)

■ Can we do better?

```
typedef struct qnode {
    struct qnode *prev;
    int succ_blocked;
} qnode;

qnode *lck = new qnode; // node owned by lock

void lock(qnode *lck, qnode *qn) {
    qn->succ_blocked = 1;
    qn->prev = FetchAndSet(lck, qn);
    while (qn->prev->succ_blocked);
}

void unlock(qnode **qn) {
    qnode *pred = (*qn)->prev;
    (*qn)->succ_blocked = 0;
    *qn = pred;
}
```

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MCS Lock (1991)

■ Make queue explicit

- Acquire lock by appending to queue
- Spin on own node until locked is reset

■ Similar advantages as CLH but

- Only $2N + M$ words
- Spinning position is fixed!
Benefits cache-less NUMA

■ What are the issues?

- Releasing lock spins
- More atomics!

```
typedef struct qnode {
    struct qnode *next;
    int succ_blocked;
} qnode;

qnode *lck = NULL;

void lock(qnode *lck, qnode *qn) {
    qn->next = NULL;
    qnode *pred = FetchAndSet(lck, qn);
    if (pred != NULL) {
        qn->locked = 1;
        pred->next = qn;
        while (qn->locked);
    }
}

void unlock(qnode *lck, qnode *qn) {
    if (qn->next == NULL) { // if we're the last waiter
        if (CAS(lck, qn, NULL)) return;
        while (qn->next == NULL); // wait for pred arrival
    }
    qn->next->locked = 0; // free next waiter
    qn->next = NULL;
}
```

Lessons Learned!

■ Key Lesson:

- Reducing memory (coherency) traffic is most important!
- Not always straight-forward (need to reason about CL states)

■ MCS: 2006 Dijkstra Prize in distributed computing

- "an outstanding paper on the principles of distributed computing, whose significance and impact on the theory and/or practice of distributed computing has been evident for at least a decade"
- "probably the most influential practical mutual exclusion algorithm ever"
- "vastly superior to all previous mutual exclusion algorithms"
- fast, fair, scalable $\hat{=}$ widely used, always compared against!

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Time to Declare Victory?

■ Down to memory complexity of $2N+M$

- Probably close to optimal

■ Only local spinning

- Several variants with low expected contention

■ But: we assumed sequential consistency $\hat{=}$

- Reality causes trouble sometimes
- Sprinkling memory fences may harm performance
- Open research on minimally-synching algorithms!
Come and talk to me if you're interested

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