Mutual Exclusion in Shared-memory Systems From Theory to Practice

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Shared-memory model



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2) Shared-memory model

3) From theory to practice

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- The first distributed algorithm (year 1965).
- Shared memory model
 - Atomic read/write register
 - Fix number of processes
- Mutual exclusion (safety): multiple processes share a resource, only one can enter a piece of code called critical section.
- Progress (liveness): if some processes want to enter the critical section, then eventually some process enters the critical section.

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Dijkstra's mutual exclusion algorithm (cont'd)

- $\bullet\,$ n processes labeled with 1, 2, \cdots , n
- Shared (atomic) variables
 - status $[1..n] \in \{$ IDLE, GET_TURN, CHECK $\}$, initially all set to IDLE.
 - turn $\in \{1, 2, \cdots, n\}$, initially arbitrary.
- For process i (with local variable j):

```
L0 status[i] = GET_TURN
L1 repeat
L2 while turn != i do if status[turn] == IDLE then turn = i
L3 status[i] = CHECK
L4 for j != i do if status[j] == CHECK then status[i] = GET_TURN
L5 until status[i] == CHECK
L6 { critical section }
L7 status[i] = IDLE
```

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Correctness: mutual exclusion

Safety

```
L0 status[i] = GET_TURN
L1 repeat
L2 while turn != i do if status[turn] == IDLE then turn = i
L3 status[i] = CHECK
L4 for j != i do if status[j] == CHECK then status[i] = GET_TURN
L5 until status[i] == CHECK
L6 { critical section }
L7 status[i] = IDLE
```

Proof by contradiction: Assume there are two processes labeled a and b both inside L6 at some time t_0 .

- At some time $t_1 < t_0$, a executes L3, after which a enters L6 successfully.
- At some time $t_2 < t_0$, b executes L3, after which b enters L6 successfully.

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Correctness: mutual exclusion (cont'd)

Safety

```
L0 status[i] = GET_TURN
L1 repeat
L2 while turn != i do if status[turn] == IDLE then turn = i
L3 status[i] = CHECK
L4 for j != i do if status[j] == CHECK then status[i] = GET_TURN
L5 until status[i] == CHECK
L6 { critical section }
L7 status[i] = IDLE
```

- Without loss of generality, assume $t_1 < t_2$.
- b would find status[a] == CHECK inside L4 loop, so b would set status[b] to GET_TURN in L4, which makes the condition in L5 not true.
- b would not enter L6. Contradiction!

Correctness: progress

Liveness

```
L0 status[i] = GET_TURN
L1 repeat
L2 while turn != i do if status[turn] == IDLE then turn = i
L3 status[i] = CHECK
L4 for j != i do if status[j] == CHECK then status[i] = GET_TURN
L5 until status[i] == CHECK
L6 { critical section }
L7 status[i] = IDLE
```

Proof by contradiction: Assume there won't be any process successfully entering L6 after t_0 (We set t_0 to the earliest time satisfying the assumption).

- At some time $t_1 > t_0$, status [turn] == IDLE.
- After some time $t_2 > t_1$, all processes who wants to enter L6 will have status of either GET_TURN or CHECK.

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Correctness: progress (cont'd)

Liveness

```
status[i] = GET TURN
I.0
L1
   repeat
        while turn != i do if status[turn] == IDLE then turn = i
L2
L3
   status[i] = CHECK
       for j != i do if status[j] == CHECK then status[i] = GET_TURN
L4
   until status[i] == CHECK
L5
   { critical section }
L.6
   status[i] = IDLE
L7
```

- After t_2 , turn won't change.
- After t_2 , turn points to some process i who wants to enter L6.
- After *t*₂, process i would eventually enters L6, since all other processes who wants to enter L6 are stuck in the L2 loop. Contradiction!

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What is the model of computation?

- What is time point?
- What is after?
- What is shared variables?
- What is local variables?
- What is atomic?

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Dijkstra's mutual exclusion algorithm



3) From theory to practice

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Mutual Exclusion in Shared-memory Systems

Tunight at November 9, 2019 11 / 45

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A shared memory unit is called a shared object, which has:

- Values
- Operations (could have return values, and could change the object's value)

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Examples of shared object

- Read/write register R
 - Values: integers (bounded?)
 - Operations: read(R), write(R, v)
 - * read(R) returns the current value of R, write(R, v) has no return value.
 - * read(R) does not change the value, write(R, v) change the value of R to v.
- Single-writer/multi-reader register
 - Only one process can write, others can read.
- Multi-writer/multi-reader register
 - ► All processes can read/write to the register.

 $n \text{ processes } p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$

- Each process has a (possibly infinite) state machine.
- Each process has a set of states, one of which is the initial state.

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- A set of state variables var1, var2, ... are used to represent states (local variables).
- Each state q corresponds to a particular set of values of the state variables, q.var1, q.var2, ... (function evaluation).
- Each state q has a special field q.wait \in {TRUE, FALSE}, initially FALSE:
 - ▶ TRUE: q is waiting for an operation on a shared object to complete.
- Each state q of process p has three special fields:
 - q.obj: the object to be accessed next (could be null).
 - q.op: the operation on q.obj to be executed.
 - q.in: the input parameter (if any) of the q.op.

- \bullet Configuration C of the system: states of all processes and values of all shared objects
 - $\bullet (q_1,\ldots,q_n,v_1,\ldots,v_m).$
 - q_i is the state of process p_i .
 - v_j is the value of object o_j .
- Initial Configuration: All processes are in their initial states and all objects contain their initial values.

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Shared memory model: Computation steps

- When p takes a step in a normal state (a.k.a p's state q satisfy q.wait is FALSE):
 - Communication step: If q.obj is not null.
 - * Process p invoke operation q.op on q.obj with the input value q.in (if any)
 - \star p transitions to a new state q', where q'.wait is TRUE.
 - ► Local computation step: If *q.obj* is null.
 - $\star~p$ transitions to a new state q', where q'.wait is FALSE.
- When p takes a step in a waiting state (a.k.a p's state q satisfy q.wait is TRUE):
 - ▶ Return from the invocation step: p takes the response v from the operation q.op on q.obj with parameter q.in, and p transitions to a new state q', where q'.wait is FALSE.

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Shared memory model: Executions

- Execution: $C_0, s_1, C_1, s_2, C_2, s_3, C_3, \ldots$
 - Step s_j is on configuration C_{j-1} .
 - Application of s_j to C_{j-1} results in C_j .
 - C_0 is the initial configuration.
 - Could be finite or infinite.
 - Asynchronous: the number of steps between the two steps of the same process is not bounded.

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- Shared object access takes time.
- Each step is one of:
 - Communication step.
 - Local computation step.
 - Return from the invocation step.
- Computation is a sequence of steps that changes configurations.
- Processes are asynchronous.

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- Time point \Leftrightarrow Configuration
- $\bullet\,$ After some time point \Leftrightarrow Configurations following some configuration
- Local variables
- Shared variables
 - Atomic?

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Atomic single-writer/multi-reader register

- Values: integers (bounded?)
- Operations: Read() -> v and Write(v)
- All Read()s and Write(v)s can be made in a sequential order.
- If operation o1 completes before operation o2 starts, then o1 is ordered before o2 in the sequential order.
- In the sequential order, the semantics of reads and writes are preserved, i.e. a read returns the latest written value before the read.

Atomic single-writer/multi-reader register (cont'd)



Figure: The first one is atomic, while the second one is not atomic.

Mutual Exclusion in Shared-memory Systems

The algorithm needs to satisfy the following properties:

- Mutual exclusion: In every configuration of every execution, at most one process is in the critical section.
- Progress (no deadlock): In every execution, if some process is in the trying section in a configuration, then there is a later configuration in which some process is in the critical section.

Addition useful properties:

• No lockout (no starvation): In every execution, if some process is in the trying section in a configuration, then there is a later configuration in which the same process is in the critical section.

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Dijkstra's mutual exclusion algorithm (revisited)

- Multi-reader multi-writer atomic register (bounded).
- Mutual exclusion.
- Progress.
- Starvation.
- Use one n-valued atomic register, and n 3-valued atomic registers.
- The paper Bounds on Shared Memory for Mutual Exclusion in 1993 shows that:
 - ► Algorithms that solves the mutual exclusion problem with atomic registers should use at least as many shared atomic registers as processes number *n*.
 - ► There exists some algorithm with *n* shared atomic registers that solves the problem and these registers are 1-bit.
 - So that n 1-bit atomic registers is the tight lower bound for this problem.



Dijkstra's mutual exclusion algorithm

2 Shared-memory model



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#include <atomic>
// For C11: #include <stdatomic.h>
// For Rust: use std::sync::atomic;

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Let's code in C++: The Header

dijkstra.hpp

```
#ifndef DIJKSTRA HPP
#define DIJKSTRA HPP
#include <atomic>
struct Dijkstra {
  static const int N = 4, IDLE = 0, GET TURN = 1, CHECK = 2;
  struct alignas(64) Status { std::atomic int v {IDLE}; };
 alignas(64) std::atomic int turn {0}:
  alignas(64) Status status_[N];
 void lock(int p);
 void unlock(int p);
}:
```

```
#endif //DIJKSTRA_HPP
```

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Let's code in C++: The Header (cont'd)

• The magic number explained (false sharing)

```
> getconf LEVEL1_DCACHE_LINESIZE
64
```

● C++!

// since C++17
#include <new>
std::hardware_destructive_interference_size;
std::hardware_constructive_interference_size;

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```
test_dijkstra.cpp
```

```
#include <cstdio>
#include <thread>
#include "dijkstra.hpp"
```

```
int main() {
   std::thread ts[Dijkstra::N];
   Dijkstra lock;
   std::atomic_flag flag = ATOMIC_FLAG_INIT;
   for (int i = 0; i < Dijkstra::N; i++) {
      ts[i] = std::thread([i, &lock, &flag] {
        for (int k = 0; k < 10000000; k++) {
            lock.lock(i);
      }
   }
}</pre>
```

```
if (flag.test and set(
          std::memory order acquire)) {
        printf("ERROR\n");
        std::exit(-1);
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      flag.clear(std::memory_order_release);
      lock.unlock(i);
    }
  });
r
for (auto &t: ts) t.join();
printf("PASS\n"):
return 0;
```

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Dijkstra's algorithm made wrong

dijkstra_wrong.cpp

```
#include "dijkstra.hpp"
void Dijkstra::lock(int p) {
 status [p].v .store(
     GET_TURN, std::memory_order_release);
 for (::) {
   for (::) {
     auto turn = turn_.load(
          std::memory order acquire);
     if (turn == p) break;
     auto status = status [turn].v .load(
          std::memory_order_acquire);
     if (status == IDLE) turn_.store(p,
          std::memory_order_release);
    ን
   status_[p].v_.store(
       CHECK, std::memorv order release);
```

```
bool success = true:
    for (int i = 0; i < N; i++) {
      if (i == p) continue;
      auto status = status [i].v .load(
          std::memory_order_acquire);
      if (status == CHECK) {
        status_[p].v_.store(
            GET_TURN, std::memory_order_release);
        success = false; break;
      }
    if (success) return:
  }
void Dijkstra::unlock(int p) {
  status_[p].v_.store(
      IDLE, std::memory_order_release);
```

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Dijkstra's algorithm made correct

dijkstra.cpp

```
#include "dijkstra.hpp"
void Dijkstra::lock(int p) {
 status [p].v .store(
     GET_TURN, std::memory_order_release);
 for (::) {
   for (::) {
     auto turn = turn_.load(
          std::memory order acquire);
     if (turn == p) break;
     auto status = status [turn].v .load(
          std::memory_order_acquire);
     if (status == IDLE) turn_.store(p,
          std::memory_order_release);
    ን
   status_[p].v_.store(
       CHECK, std::memory order sea cst):
```

```
bool success = true:
    for (int i = 0; i < N; i++) {
      if (i == p) continue;
      auto status = status [i].v .load(
          std::memory_order_seq_cst);
      if (status == CHECK) {
        status_[p].v_.store(
            GET_TURN, std::memory_order_release);
        success = false; break;
    if (success) return:
  }
void Dijkstra::unlock(int p) {
  status_[p].v_.store(
      IDLE, std::memory_order_release);
```

From theory to practice: Memory order in C++

#include <atomic>

std::memory_order_acquire; std::memory_order_release; std::memory_order_seq_cst;

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Initially X == 0 and Y == 0

Thread 1	Thread 2
	==========
X.store(1)	Y.load()
Y.store(1)	X.load()

- If Y.load() returns 1, then X.load() returns 1.
- Y.load() -> 1, X.load() -> 0 not possible.

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std::memory order acquire: A load operation with this memory order performs the acquire operation on the affected memory location: no reads or writes in the current thread can be reordered before this load. All writes in other threads that release the same atomic variable are visible in the current thread. std::memory order release: A store operation with this memory order performs the release operation: no reads or writes in the current thread can be reordered after this store. All writes in the current thread are visible in other threads that acquire the same atomic variable and writes that carry a dependency into the atomic variable become visible in other threads that consume the same atomic.

- https://en.cppreference.com/w/cpp/atomic/memory_order

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Is load(std::memory_order_acquire) and store(std::memory_order_release)
atomic? No
Initially X == 0:

Thread 1	Thread 2
X.store(1)	
	X.load() -> 0

- No violation of acquire/release memory order.
- Not atomic.
- Acquire/release is not enough for Dijkstra's algorithm's safety property.

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From theory to practice: Memory order in C++ (cont'd) Sequentially-consistent

std::memory_order_seq_cst: Atomic operations tagged memory_order_seq_cst not only order memory the same way as release/acquire ordering, but also establish a single total modification order of all atomic operations that are so tagged.

- https://en.cppreference.com/w/cpp/atomic/memory_order

 load(std::memory_order_seq_cst) and store(std::memory_order_seq_cst) is atomic.

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Correctness: mutual exclusion (revisited) Safety

status[i] = GET TURN I.0 L1 repeat while turn != i do if status[turn] == IDLE then turn = i L2L3 status[i] = CHECK for j != i do if status[j] == CHECK then status[i] = GET_TURN L4 until status[i] == CHECK L5 { critical section } L.6 status[i] = IDLE L7

- In the correct implementation dijkstra.cpp, the store(status[i], CHECK) in L3 is atomic, the load(status[j]) in L4 is also atomic.
- The proof of safety property only relies on these two atomic operations.

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Correctness: progress (revisited)

Liveness

```
I.O
    status[i] = GET TURN
L1
    repeat
        while turn != i do if status[turn] == IDLE then turn = i
L2
L3
        status[i] = CHECK
        for j != i do if status[j] == CHECK then status[i] = GET_TURN
L4
    until status[i] == CHECK
L5
    { critical section }
L.6
    status[i] = IDLE
L7
```

- Note that all requirements are state in 'at some time', 'after some time'.
- Acquire/release operations guarantee local writes would be visible globally eventually.

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Let's read the assembly!

<dijkstra::lock(int)>:</dijkstra::lock(int)>				
0:	movslq	%esi,%rcx		
3:	lea	0x40(%rdi),%r9		
7:	add	\$0x1,%rcx		
b:	shl	\$0x6,%rcx		
f:	add	%rdi,%rcx		
12:	movl	\$0x1,(%rcx)		
18:	movslq	(%rdi),%rax		
1b:	cmp	%eax,%esi		
1d:	je	40 <dijkstra::lock(int)+0x40></dijkstra::lock(int)+0x40>		
1f:	add	\$0x1,%rax		
23:	shl	\$0x6,%rax		
27:	add	%rdi,%rax		
2a:	mov	(%rax),%eax		
2c:	test	%eax,%eax		
2e:	jne	18 <dijkstra::lock(int)+0x18></dijkstra::lock(int)+0x18>		
30:	mov	%esi,(%rdi)		
32:	movslq	(%rdi),%rax		
35:	cmp	%eax,%esi		
37:	jne	1f <dijkstra::lock(int)+0x1f></dijkstra::lock(int)+0x1f>		
39:	nopl	0x0(%rax)		
40:	mov	%r9,%rdx		
43:	xor	%eax,%eax		
45:	movl	\$0x2,(%rcx)		
4b:	mfence			

e:	cmp	%eax,%esi
0:	je	5b <dijkstra::lock(int)+0x5b></dijkstra::lock(int)+0x5b>
2:	mov	(%rdx),%r8d
5:	cmp	\$0x2,%r8d
9:	je	70 <dijkstra::lock(int)+0x70></dijkstra::lock(int)+0x70>
b:	add	\$0x1,%eax
e:	add	\$0x40,%rdx
2:	cmp	\$0x4,%eax
5:	jne	4e <dijkstra::lock(int)+0x4e></dijkstra::lock(int)+0x4e>
7:	retq	
8:	nopl	0x0(%rax,%rax,1)
f:		
0:	movl	\$0x1,(%rcx)
6:	jmp	<pre>18 <dijkstra::lock(int)+0x18></dijkstra::lock(int)+0x18></pre>
8:	nopl	0x0(%rax,%rax,1)
f:		
jkstra::ur	lock(in	nt)>:
0:	movslq	%esi,%rsi

50:	movard	%esi,%rsi
33:	add	\$0x1,%rsi
37:	shl	\$0x6,%rsi
3b:	add	%rsi,%rdi
Be:	movl	\$0x0,(%rdi)
94:	retq	

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From theory to practice: Memory order on x86_64

In a multiple-processor system, the following ordering principles apply:

- Individual processors use the same ordering principles as in a single-processor system.
- Writes by a single processor are observed in the same order by all processors.
- Writes from an individual processor are NOT ordered with respect to the writes from other processors.
- *Memory ordering obeys causality (memory ordering respects transitive visibility).*
- Any two stores are seen in a consistent order by processors other than those performing the stores.
- Locked instructions have a total order.
- Intel 64 and IA-32 Architectures Software Developer's Manual

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mutex in libc (Linux kernel): use CAS and futex.

- Fast path: CAS in user space
- Under contention:
 - Exponential back off
 - ★ pause instruction
 - * https://code.woboq.org/userspace/glibc/sysdeps/generic/adaptive_ spin_count.h.html
 - * https://www.gnu.org/software/libc/manual/html_node/Tunables.html
 - https://aloiskraus.wordpress.com/2018/06/16/ why-skylakex-cpus-are-sometimes-50-slower-how-intel-has-broken-existing why-skylakex-cpus-are-sometimes-50-slower-how-intel-has-broken-existing

futex wait

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- Intel 64 and IA-32 Architectures Software Developer's Manual (Vol. 3A 8.2 Memory Ordering)
- https://www.kernel.org/doc/Documentation/memory-barriers.txt
- https://en.cppreference.com/w/cpp/atomic/memory_order
- The Art of Multiprocessor Programming

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James E Burns and Nancy A Lynch. Bounds on shared memory for mutual exclusion. Information and Computation, 107(2):171–184, 1993.

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