Lecture 18:

Transactional Memory

Parallel Computer Architecture and Programming CMU 15-418/15-618, Spring 2017

Tunes

DNCE Cake by the Ocean (SWAAY)

"Most of the performance of fine grained locks... without all the programming challenges?!?! It's like having your cake and eating it too!

Makes me want to write a song* and dance."

- Joe Jonas

Raising level of abstraction for synchronization

- **■** Previous topic: machine-level atomic operations
 - Fetch-and-op, test-and-set, compare-and-swap, load linked-store conditional
- Then we used these atomic operations to construct higher level synchronization primitives in software:
 - Locks, barriers
 - We've seen how it can be challenging to produce correct programs using these primitives (easy to create bugs that violate atomicity, create deadlock, etc.)
- Today: raising level of abstraction for synchronization even further
 - Idea: transactional memory

What you should know

- What a transaction is
- The difference (in semantics) between an atomic code block and lock/unlock primitives
- The basic design space of transactional memory implementations
 - Data versioning policy
 - Conflict detection policy
 - Granularity of detection
- The basics of a hardware implementation of transactional memory (consider how it relates to the cache coherence protocol implementations we've discussed previously in the course)

Review: ensuring atomicity via locks

```
void deposit(Acct account, int amount)
{
    lock(account.lock);
    int tmp = bank.get(account);
    tmp += amount;
    bank.put(account, tmp);
    unlock(account.lock);
}
```

- Deposit is a read-modify-write operation: want "deposit" to be atomic with respect to other bank operations on this account
- Locks are one mechanism to synchronize threads to ensure atomicity of update (via ensuring mutual exclusion on the account)

Programming with transactions

```
void deposit(Acct account, int amount)
{
    lock(account.lock);
    int tmp = bank.get(account);
    tmp += amount;
    bank.put(account, tmp);
    unlock(account.lock);
}

void deposit(Acct account, int amount)

{
    int tmp = bank.get(account);
    tmp += amount;
    bank.put(account, tmp);
}

}
```

Atomic construct is declarative

- Programmer states <u>what</u> to do (maintain atomicity of this code), not <u>how</u> to do it
- No explicit use or management of locks

System implements synchronization as necessary to ensure atomicity

- System <u>could</u> implement atomic { } using a lock
- Implementation discussed today uses optimistic concurrency: maintain serialization only in situations of true contention (R-W or W-W conflicts)

Declarative vs. imperative abstractions

- Declarative: programmer defines <u>what</u> should be done
 - Execute all these independent 1000 tasks
 - Perform this set of operations atomically

- Imperative: programmer states <u>how</u> it should be done
 - Spawn N worker threads. Assign work to threads by removing work from a shared task queue
 - Acquire a lock, perform operations, release the lock

Recall lock-free stack example from last time

```
struct Node {
   Node* next;
   int value;
};

struct Stack {
   Node* top;
   int pop_count;
};
```

How would you contrast the "lock free" approach with an approach that maintains mutual exclusion using locks.

```
void push(Stack* s, int value) {
  Node* n = new Node;
  n->value = value;
  while (1) {
    Node* old_top = s->top;
    n->next = old_top;
    if (compare_and_swap(&s->top, old_top, n) == old_top)
      return;
int pop(Stack* s) {
 while (1) {
    Stack old;
    old.pop_count = s->pop_count;
    old.top = s->top;
    if (old.top == NULL)
      return NULL;
    Stack new_stack;
    new_stack.top = old.top->next;
    new_stack.pop_count = old.pop_count+1;
    if (doubleword_compare_and_swap(s, old, new_stack))
      int value = old.top->value;
      delete old.top;
      return value;
```

Transactional Memory (TM)

Memory transaction

- An atomic and isolated sequence of memory accesses
- Inspired by database transactions

Atomicity (all or nothing)

- Upon transaction commit, all memory writes in transaction take effect at once
- On transaction abort, none of the writes appear to take effect (as if transaction never happened)

Isolation

- No other processor can observe writes before transaction commits

Serializability

- Transactions appear to commit in a single serial order
- But the exact order of commits is not guaranteed by semantics of transaction

Transactional Memory (TM)

In other words... many of the properties we maintained for a single address in a coherent memory system, we'd like to maintain for sets of reads and writes in a transaction.

Transaction:

Reads: X, Y, Z

Writes: A, X

These memory transactions will either all be observed by other processors, or none of them will. (the effectively all happen at the same time)

Motivating transactional memory

Another example: Java HashMap

Map: Key → Value

- Implemented as a hash table with linked list per bucket

Bad: not thread safe (when synchronization needed) Good: no lock overhead when synchronization not needed

Synchronized HashMap

- Java 1.4 solution: synchronized layer
 - Convert any map to thread-safe variant
 - Uses explicit, coarse-grained mutual locking specified by programmer

Coarse-grain synchronized HashMap

- Good: thread-safe, easy to program
- Bad: limits concurrency, poor scalability

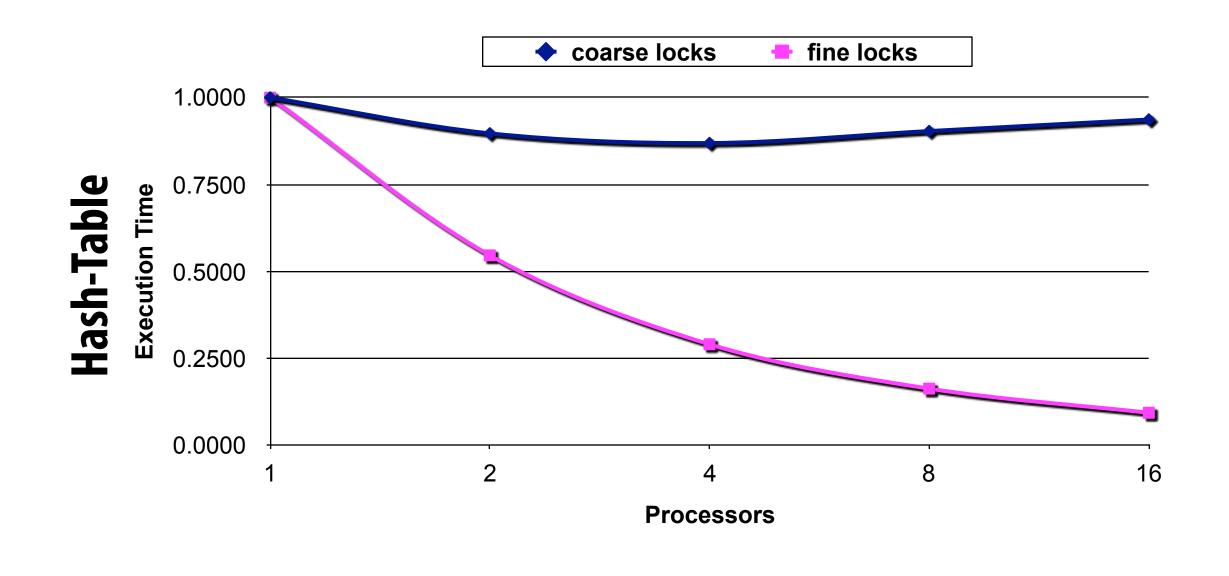
Review from earlier fine-grained sync lecture

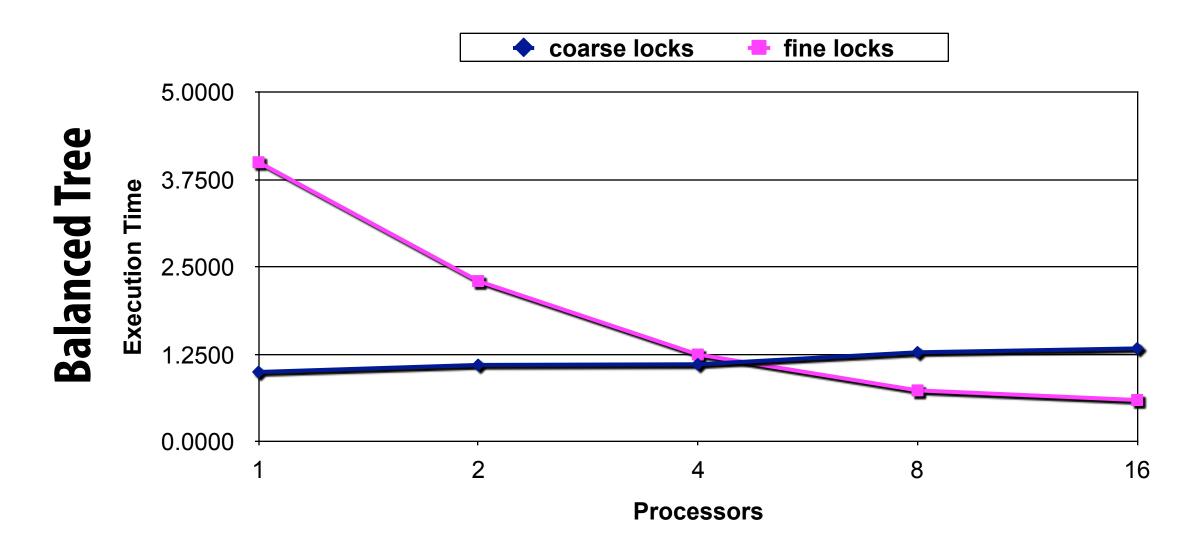
What are solutions for making Java's HashMap thread-safe?

- One solution: use finer-grained synchronization (e.g., lock per bucket)
 - Now thread safe: but incurs lock overhead even if synchronization not needed

Review: performance of fine-grained locking

Reducing contention via fine-grained locking leads to better performance





Transactional HashMap

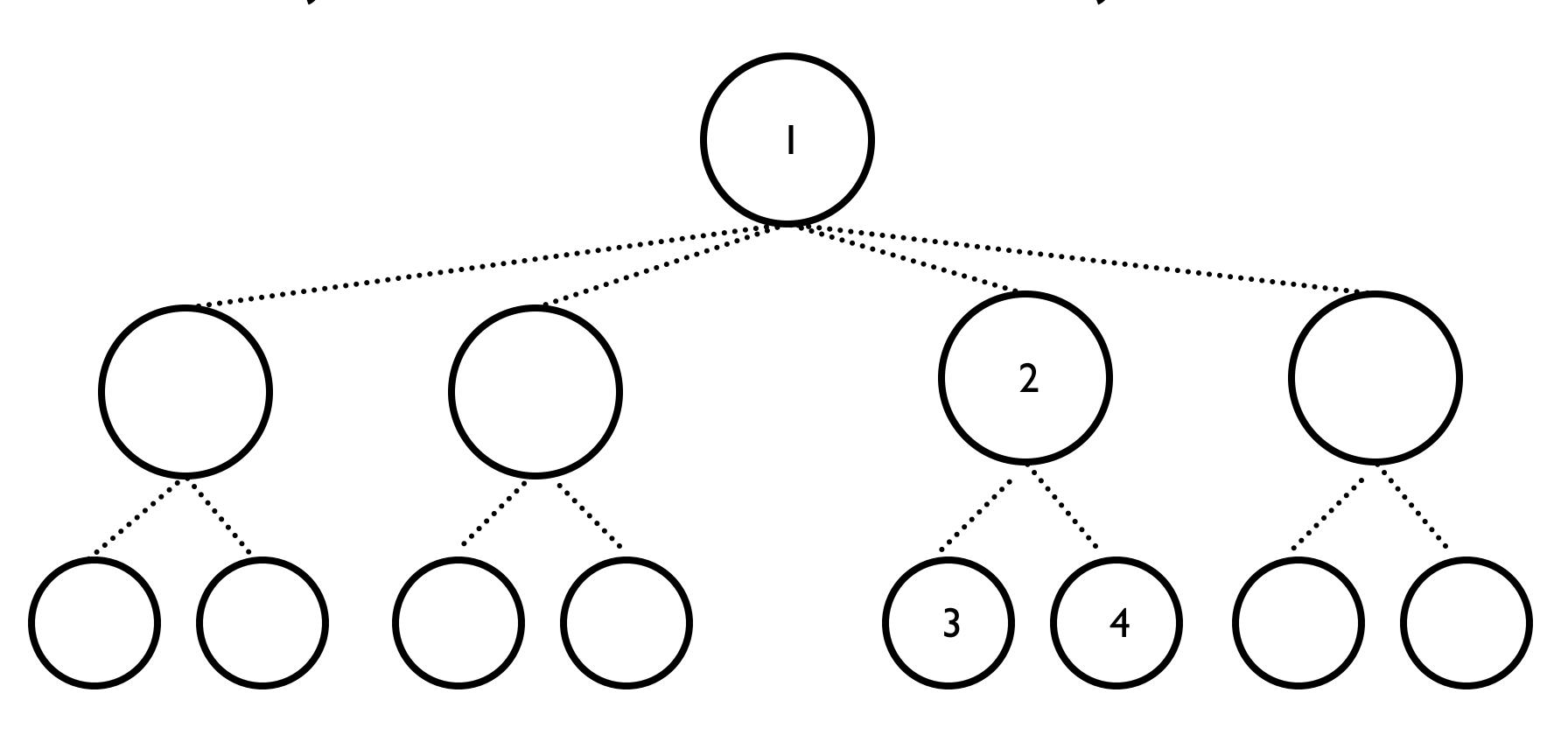
- Simply enclose all operation in atomic block
 - Semantics of atomic block: system ensures atomicity of logic within block

```
public Object get(Object key) {
    atomic { // system guarantees atomicity
    return m.get(key);
    }
}
```

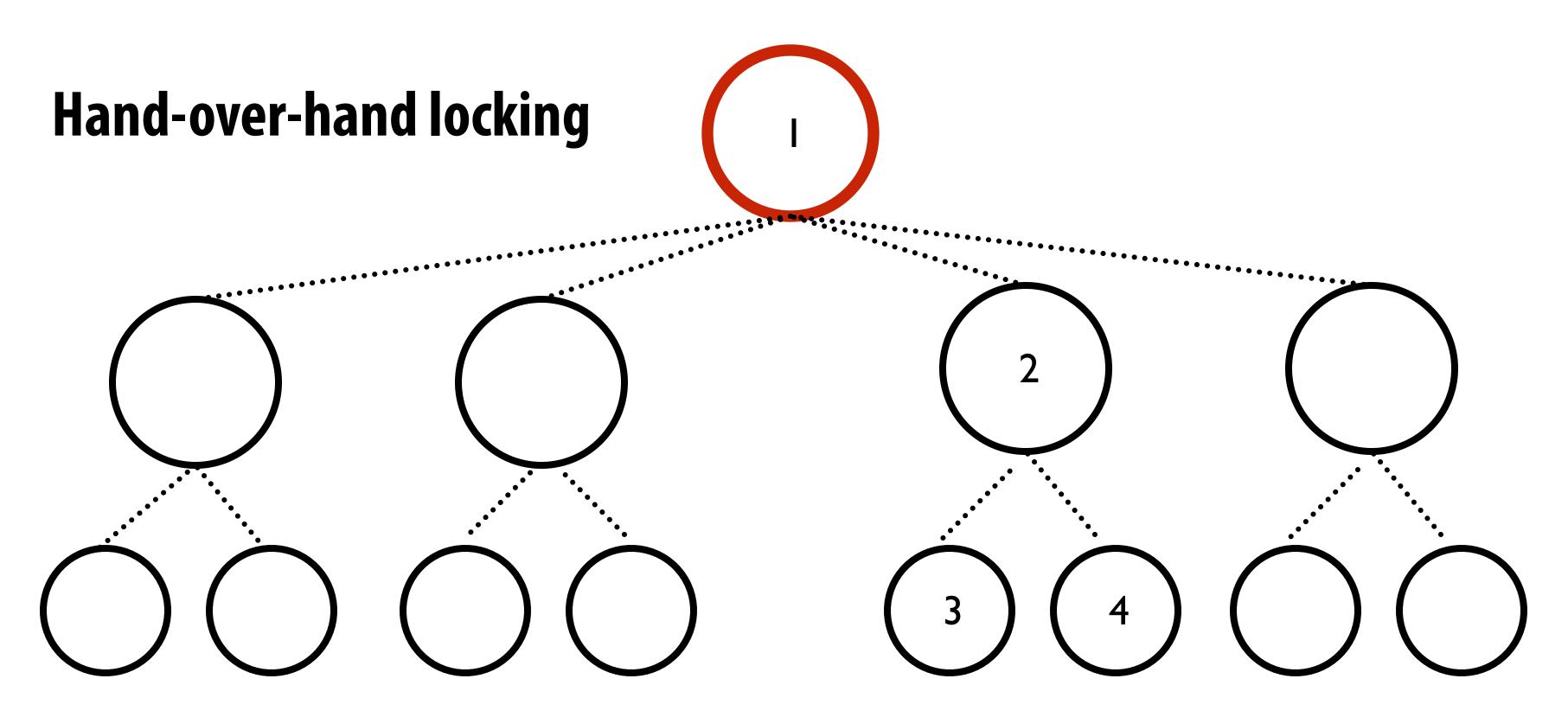
- Good: thread-safe, easy to program
- What about performance and scalability?
 - Depends on the workload and implementation of atomic (to be discussed)

Another example: tree update by two threads

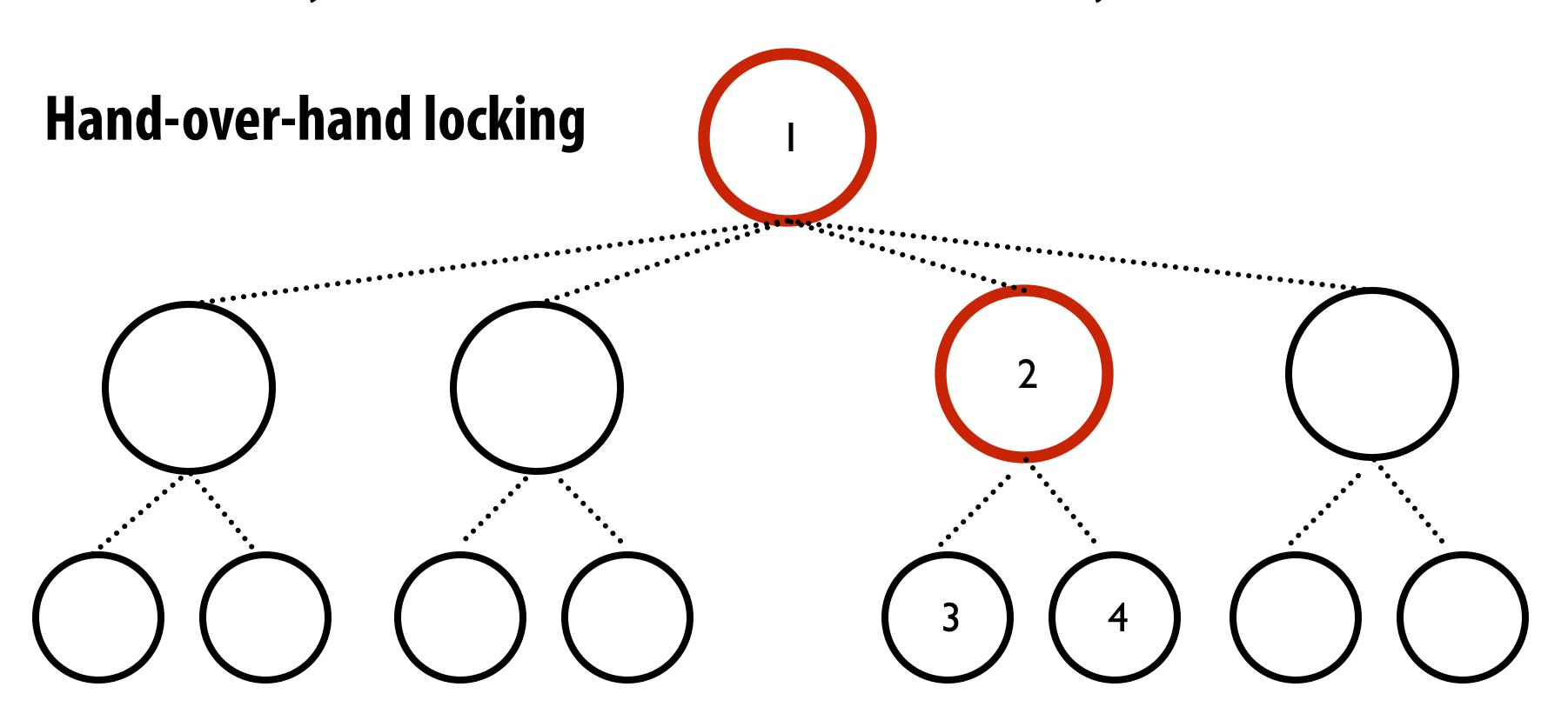
Goal: modify nodes 3 and 4 in a thread-safe way



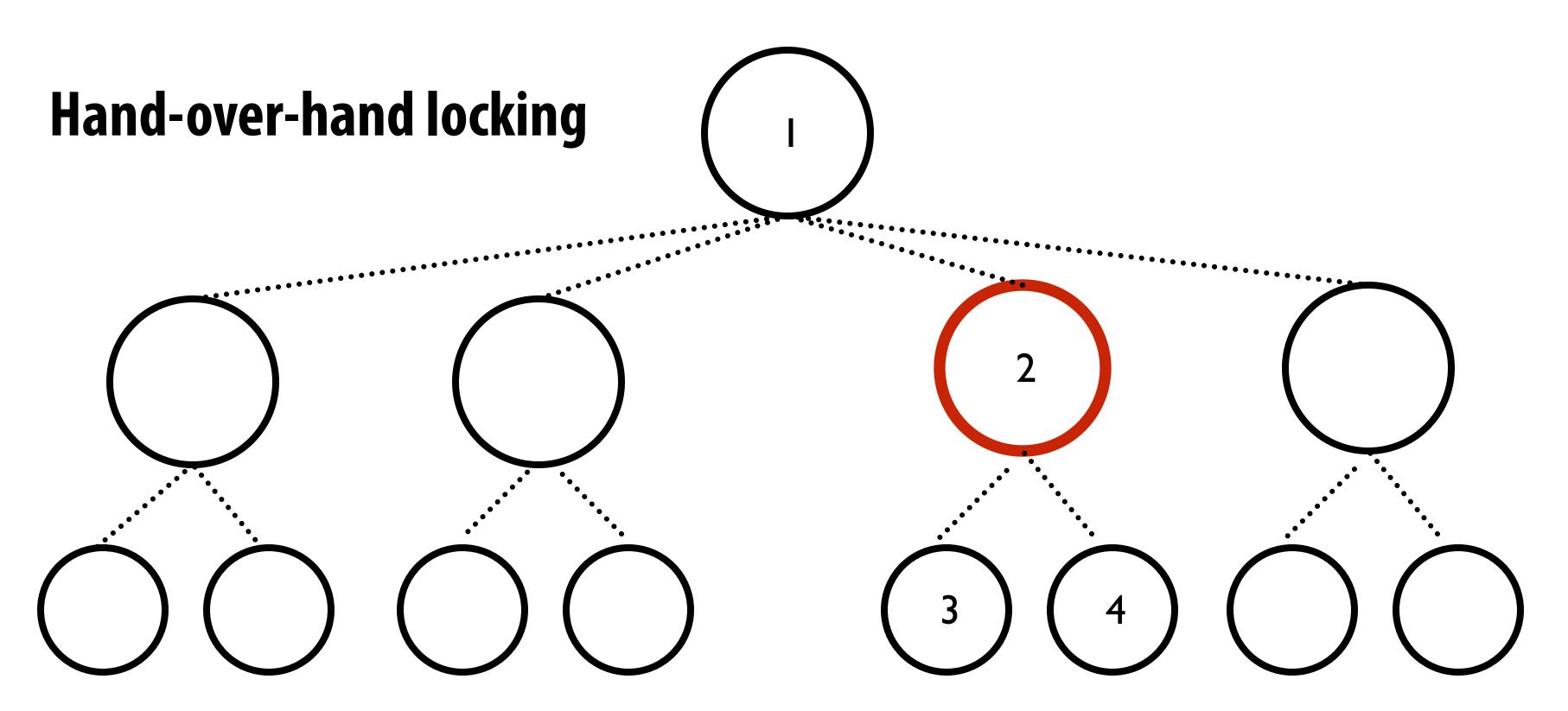
Goal: modify nodes 3 and 4 in a thread-safe way



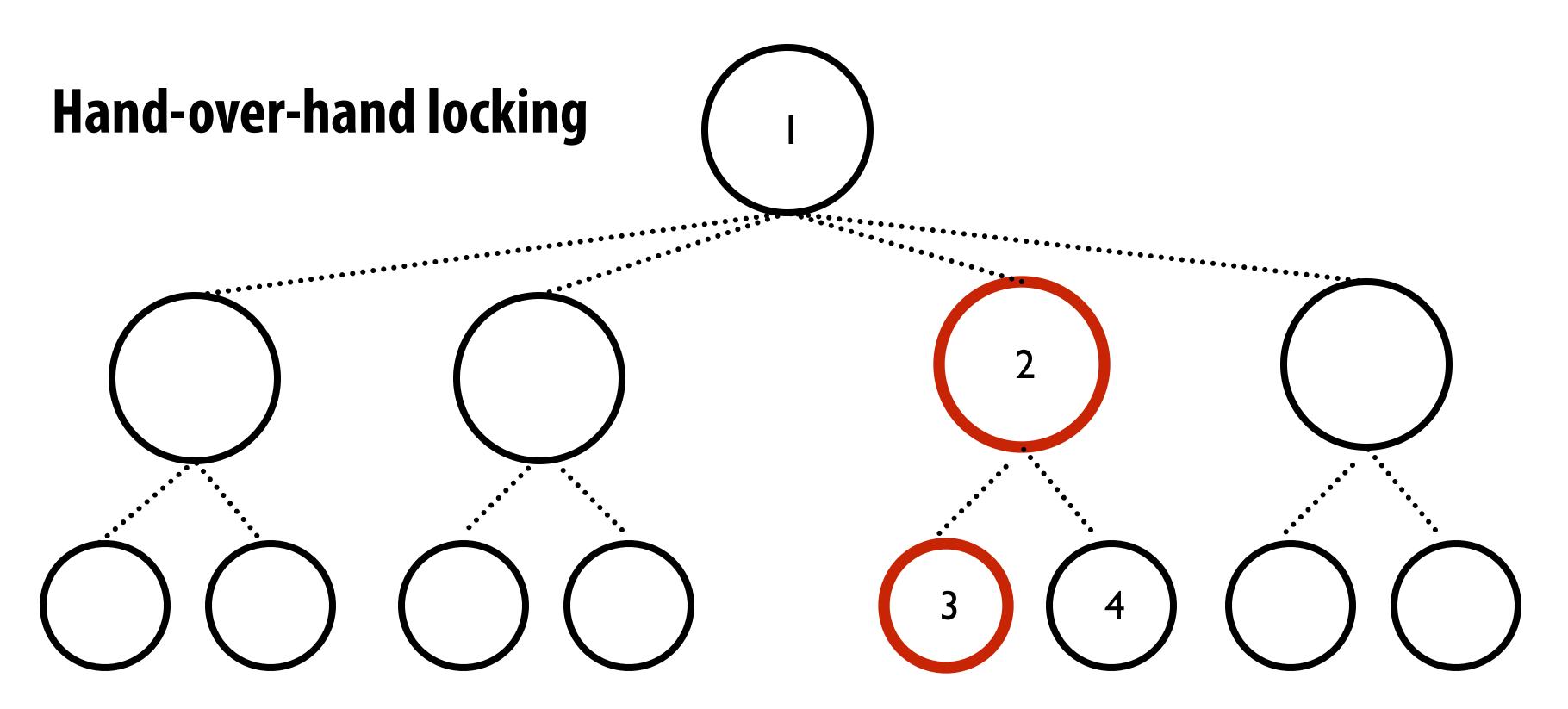
Goal: modify nodes 3 and 4 in a thread-safe way



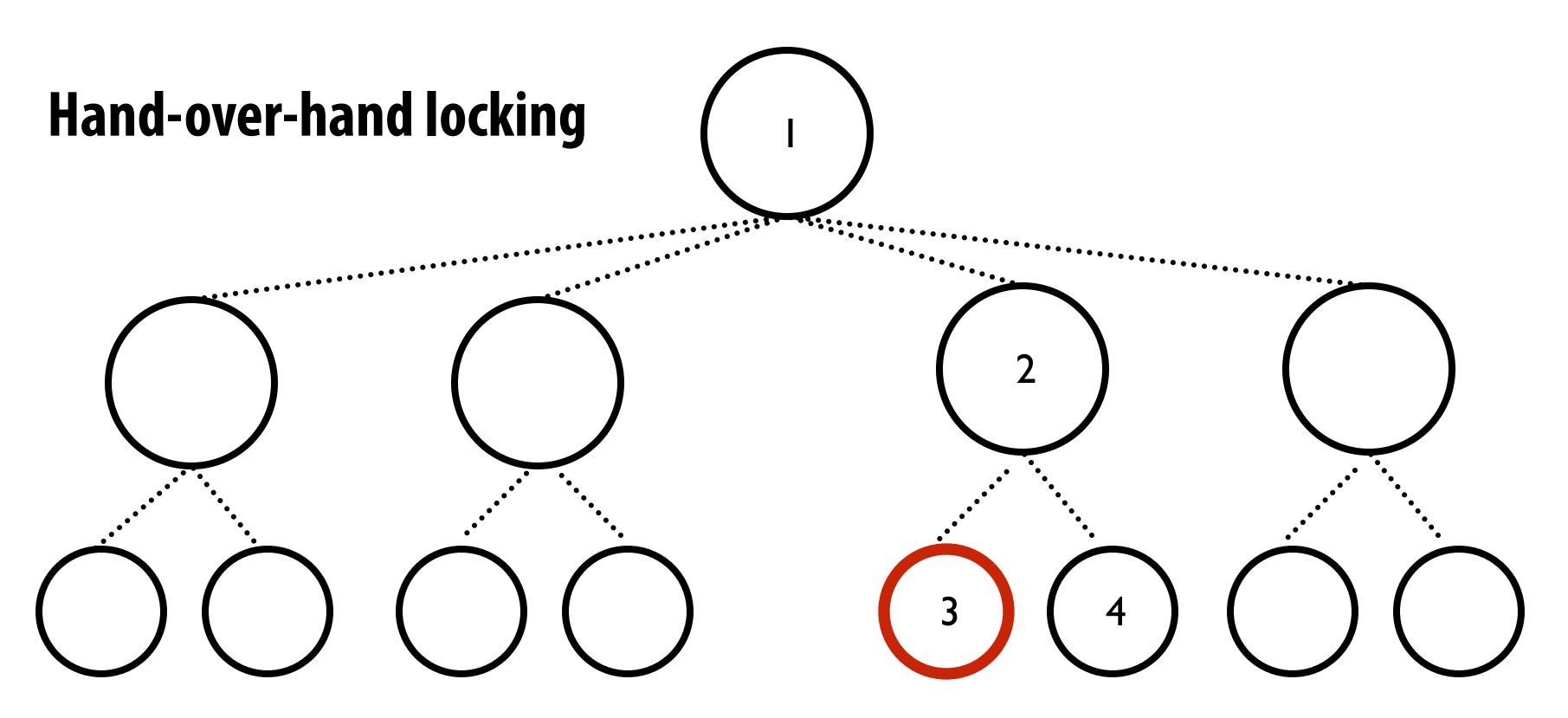
Goal: modify nodes 3 and 4 in a thread-safe way



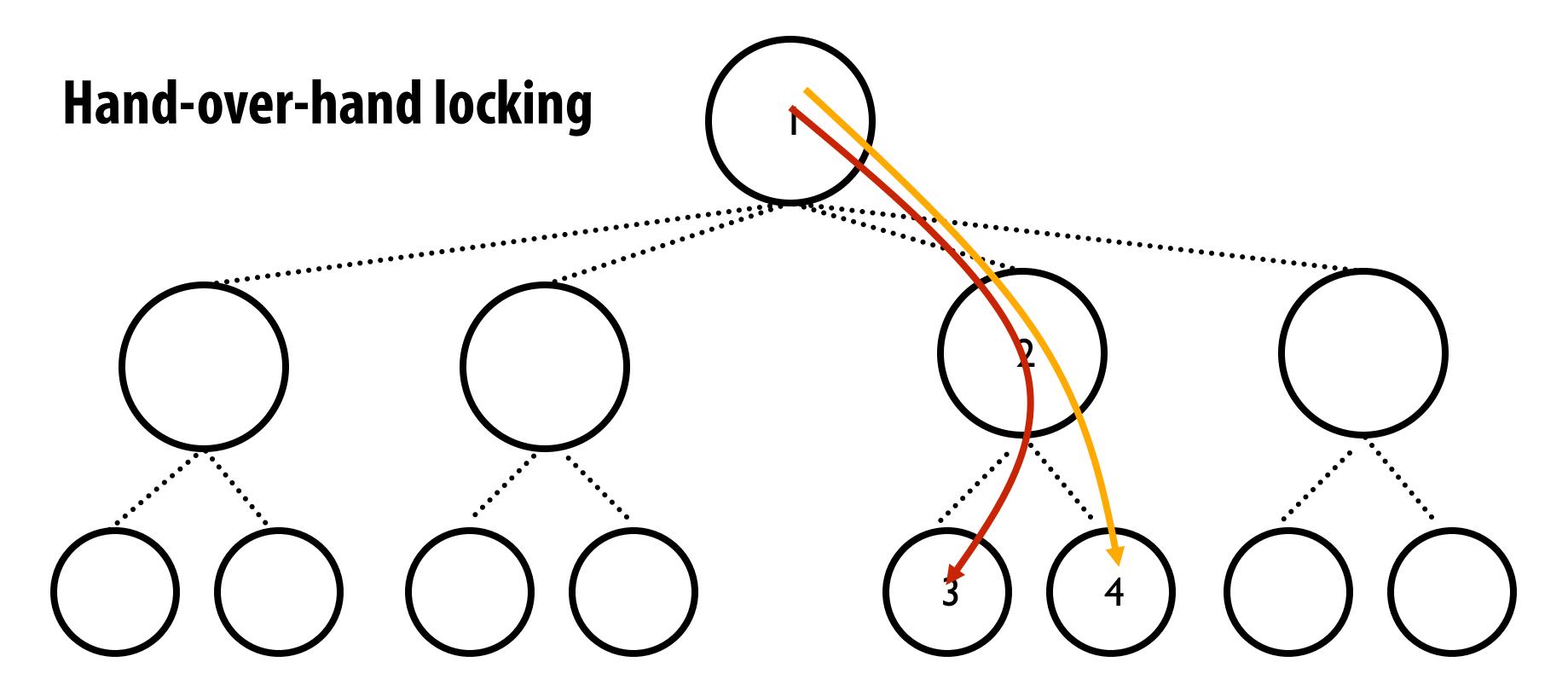
Goal: modify nodes 3 and 4 in a thread-safe way



Goal: modify nodes 3 and 4 in a thread-safe way



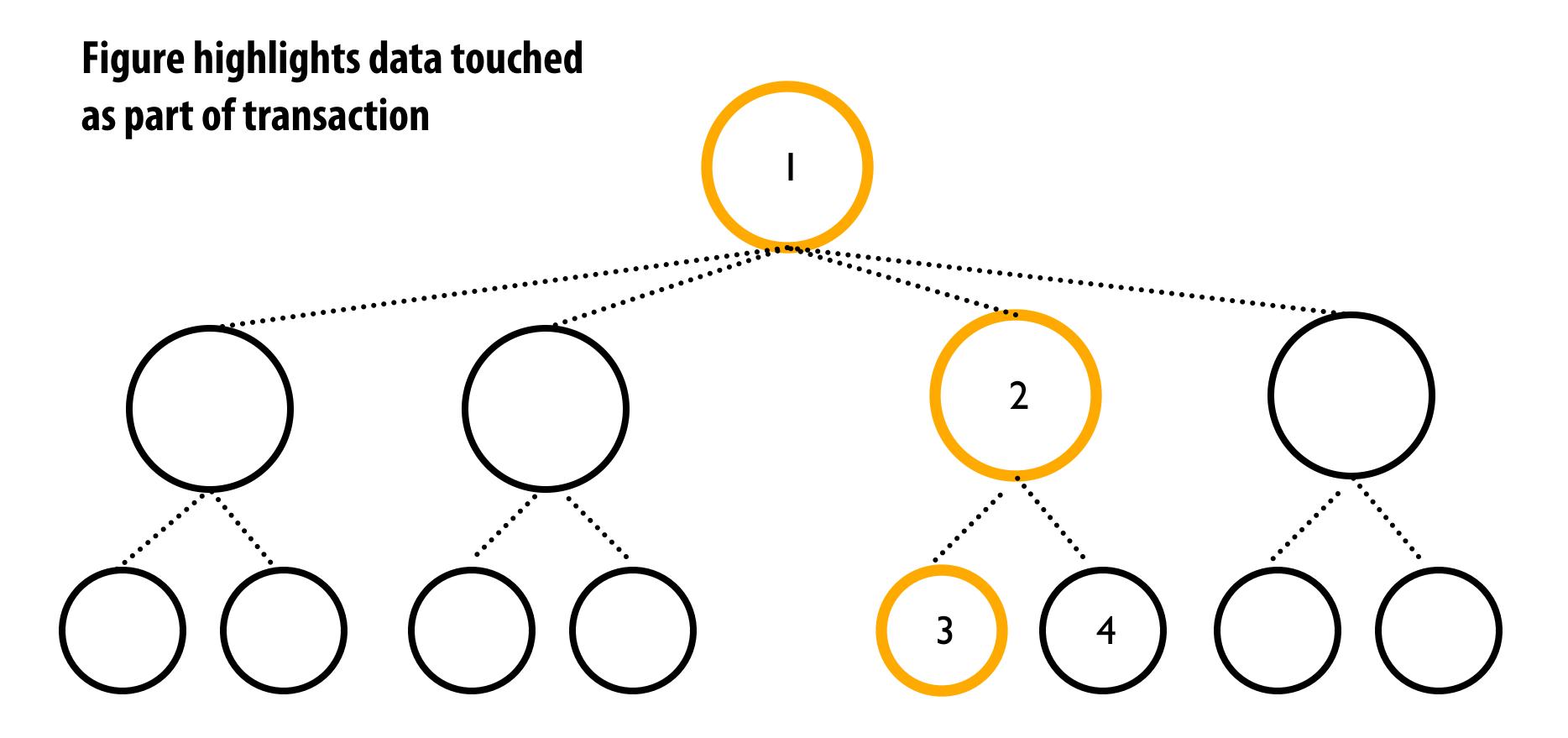
Goal: modify nodes 3 and 4 in a thread-safe way



Locking can prevent concurrency

(here: locks on node 1 and 2 during update to node 3 could delay update to 4)

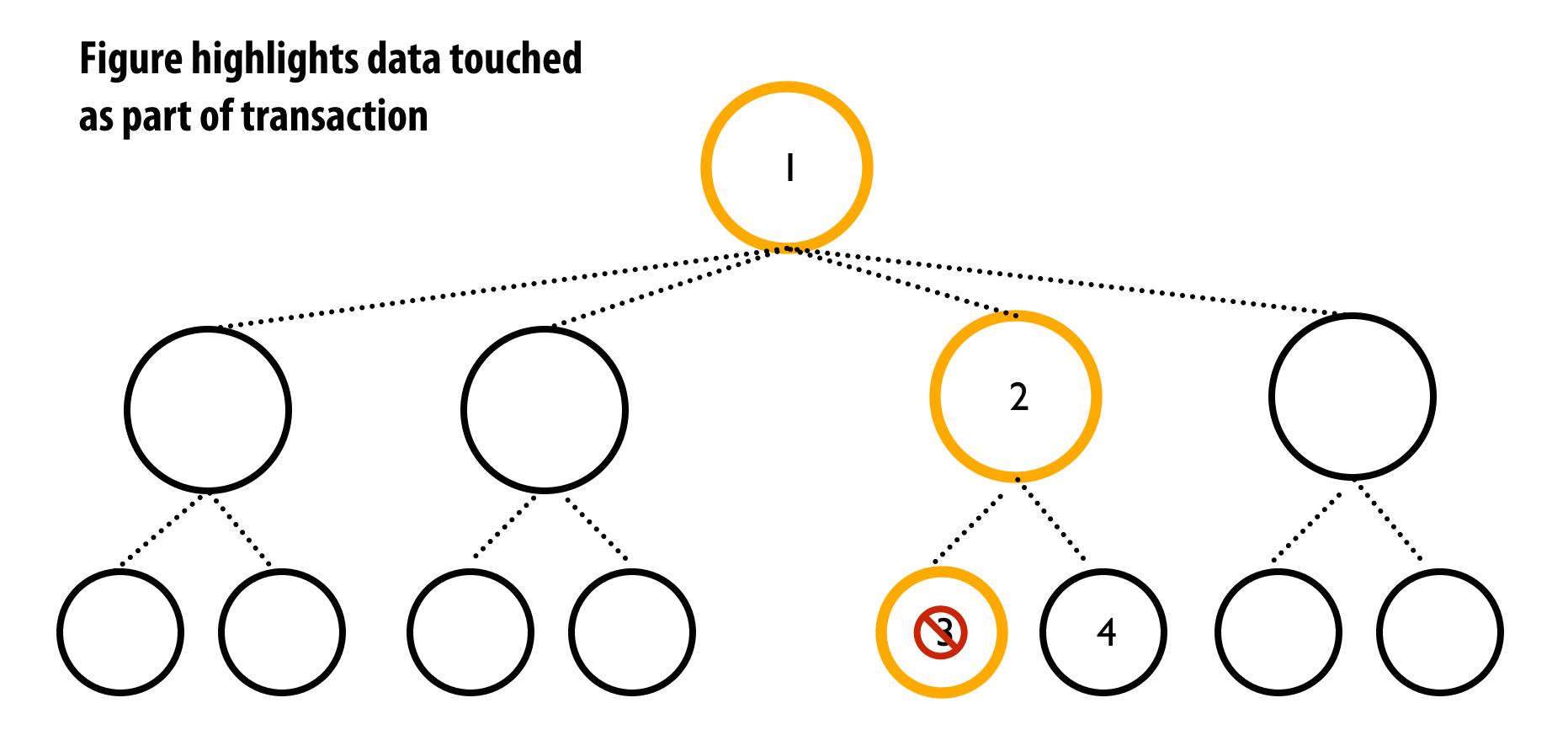
Transactions example



Transaction A

READ: 1, 2, 3

Transactions example

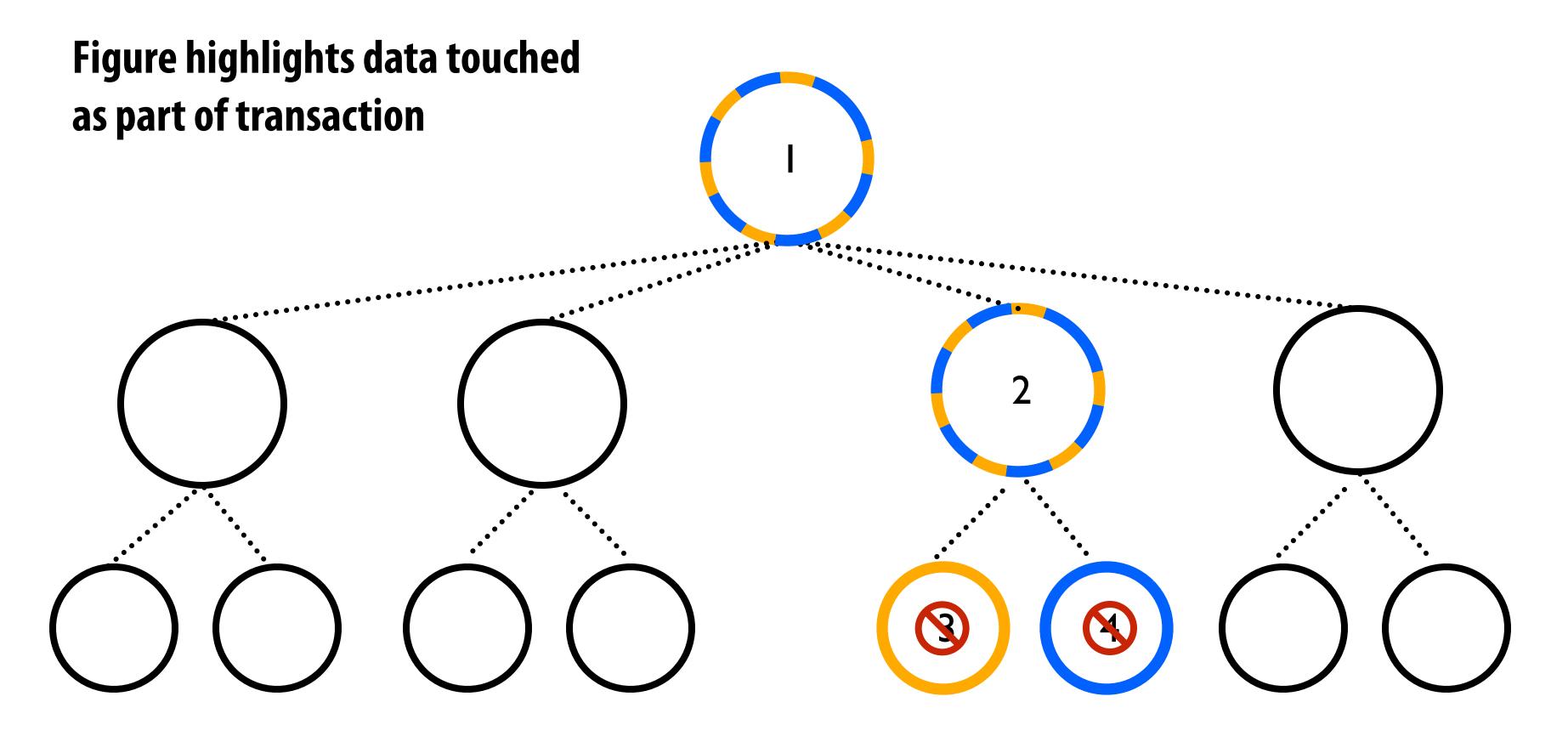


Transaction A

READ: 1, 2, 3

WRITE: 3

Transactions example



Transaction A

READ: 1, 2, 3

WRITE: 3

Transaction B

READ: 1, 2, 4

WRITE: 4

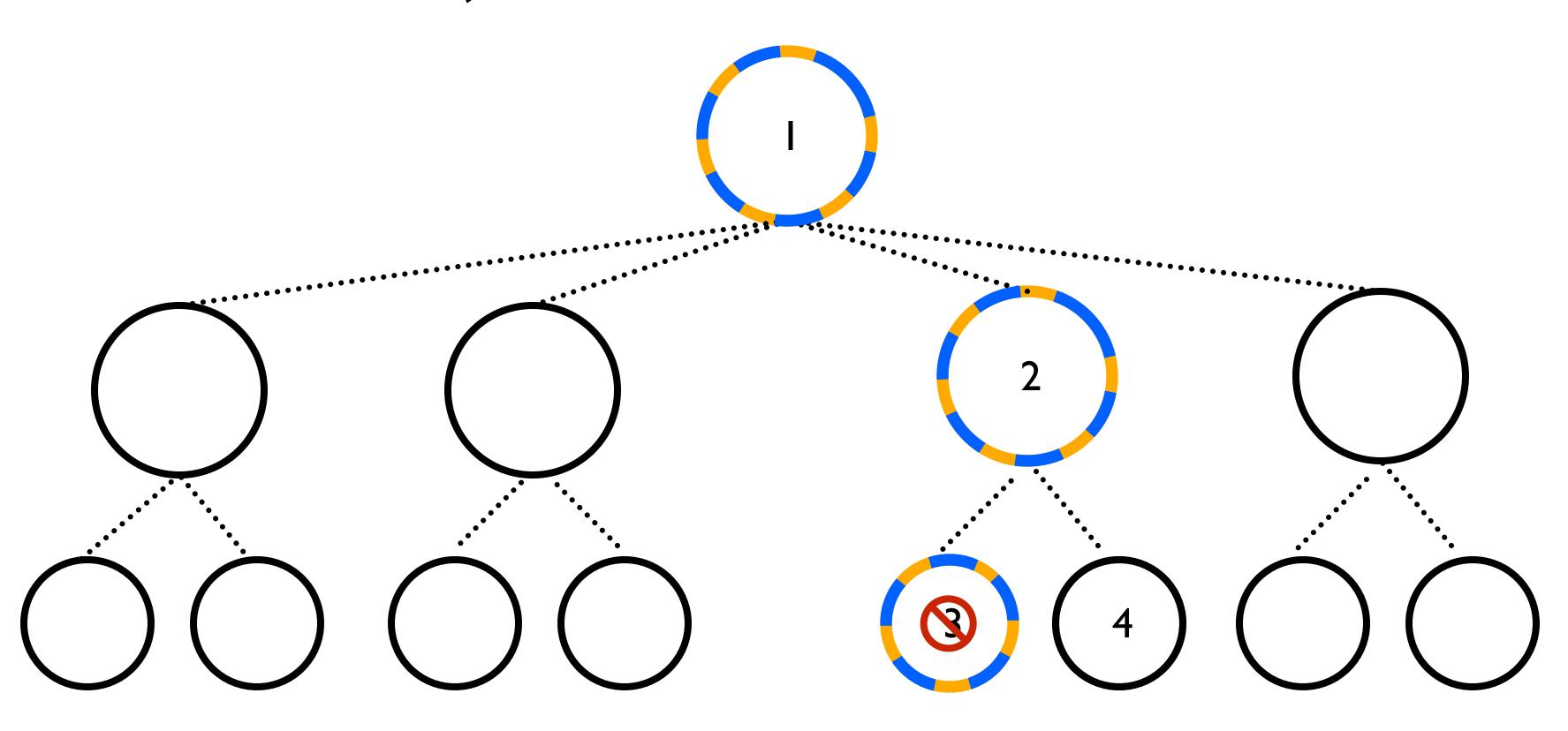
NO READ-WRITE or WRITE-WRITE conflicts!

(no transaction writes to data that is accessed by other transactions)

Slide credit: Austen McDonald

Transactions example #2

(Both transactions modify node 3)



Transaction A

READ: 1, 2, 3

WRITE: 3

Transaction B

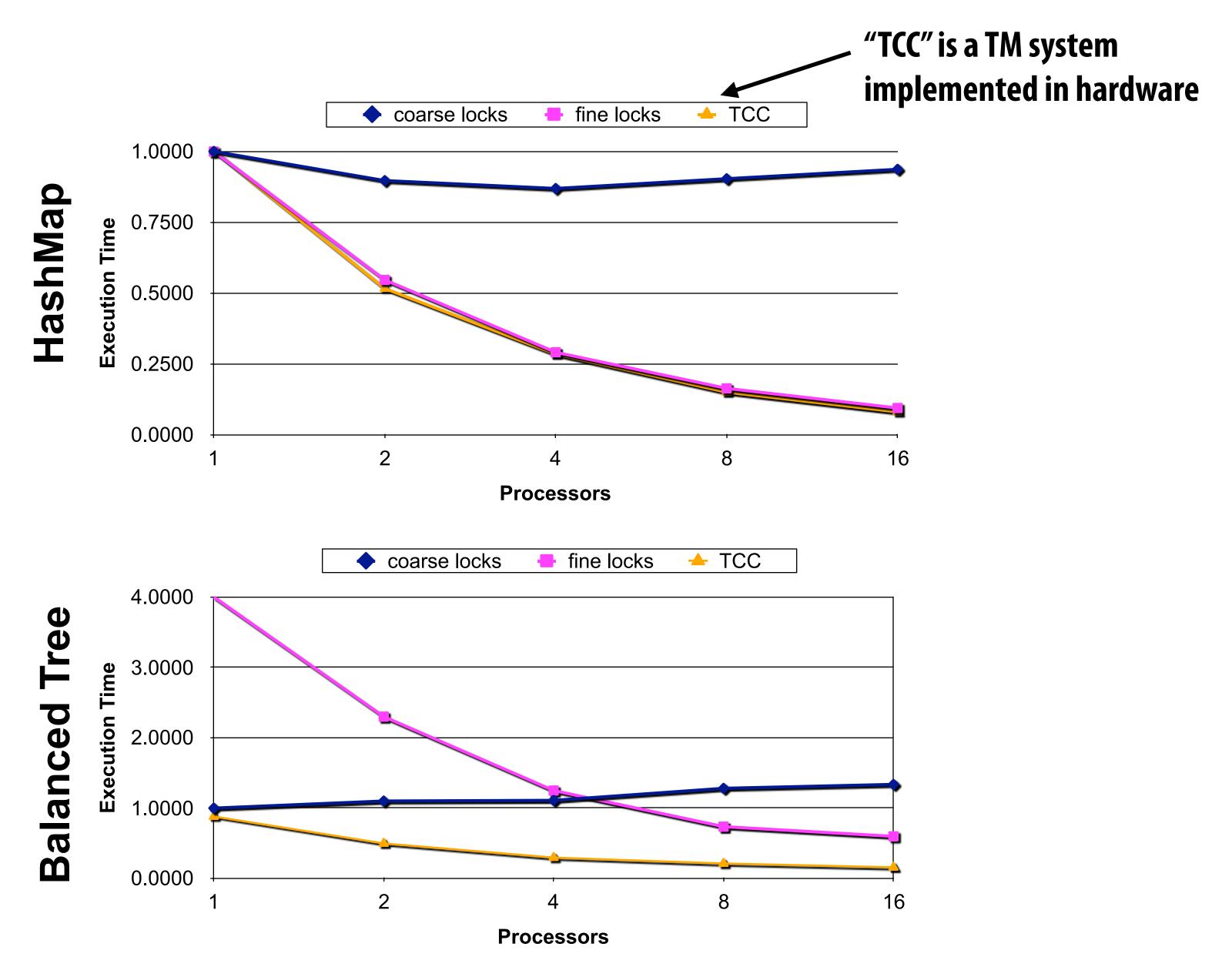
READ: 1, 2, 3

WRITE: 3

Conflicts exist: transactions must be serialized

(both transactions write to node 3)

Performance: locks vs. transactions



Another motivation: failure atomicity

```
void transfer(A, B, amount) {
    synchronized(bank)
    {
        try {
            withdraw(A, amount);
            deposit(B, amount);
        }
        catch(exception1) { /* undo code 1*/ }
        catch(exception2) { /* undo code 2*/ }
    ...
    }
}
```

Complexity of manually catching exceptions

- Programmer provides "undo" code on a case-by-case basis
- Complexity: must track what to undo and how...
- Some side-effects may become visible to other threads
 - E.g., an uncaught case can deadlock the system...

Failure atomicity: transactions

```
void transfer(A, B, amount)
{
   atomic {
     withdraw(A, amount);
     deposit(B, amount);
   }
}
```

System now responsible for processing exceptions

- All exceptions (except those explicitly managed by the programmer)
- Transaction is aborted and memory updates are undone
- Recall: a transaction either commits or it doesn't: no partial updates are visible to other threads
 - E.g., no locks held by a failing threads...

Another motivation: composability

```
void transfer(A, B, amount)
{
    synchronized(A) {
        synchronized(B) {
            withdraw(A, amount);
            deposit(B, amount);
        }
    }
}
Thread 0:
transfer(x, y, 100);

Thread 1:
transfer(y, x, 100);

transfer(y, x, 100);
```

- Composing lock-based code can be tricky
 - Requires system-wide policies to get correct
 - System-wide policies can break software modularity
- Programmer caught between an extra lock and a hard (to implement) place *
 - Coarse-grain locks: low performance
 - Fine-grain locking: good for performance, but mistakes can lead to deadlock

Composability: locks

```
void transfer(A, B, amount) {
    synchronized(A) {
        synchronized(B) {
            withdraw(A, amount);
            deposit(B, amount);
        }
    }
}
void transfer2(A, B, amount) {
    synchronized(B) {
            withdraw(A, 2*amount);
            deposit(B, 2*amount);
        }
    }
}
```

- Composing lock-based code can be tricky
 - Requires system-wide policies to get correct
 - System-wide policies can break software modularity
- Programmer caught between an extra lock and a hard (to implement) place
 - Coarse-grain locks: low performance
 - Fine-grain locking: good for performance, but mistakes can lead to deadlock

Composability: transactions

```
void transfer(A, B, amount) {
   atomic {
      withdraw(A, amount);
      deposit(B, amount);
   }
   transfer(y, x, 100);
}
```

Transactions compose gracefully (in theory)

- Programmer declares global intent (atomic execution of transfer)
 - No need to know about global implementation strategy
- Transaction in transfer subsumes any defined in withdraw and deposit
 - Outermost transaction defines atomicity boundary

System manages concurrency as well as possible serialization

- Serialization for transfer(A, B, 100) and transfer(B, A, 200)
- Concurrency for transfer(A, B, 100) and transfer(C, D, 200)

Advantages (promise) of transactional memory

Easy to use synchronization construct

- It is difficult for programmers to get synchronization right
- Programmer declares need for atomicity, system implements it well
- Claim: transactions are as easy to use as coarse-grain locks

Often performs as well as fine-grained locks

- Provides automatic read-read concurrency and fine-grained concurrency
- Performance portability: locking scheme for four CPUs may not be the best scheme for 64 CPUs
- Productivity argument for transactional memory: system support for transactions can achieve 90% of the benefit of expert programming with fined-grained locks, with 10% of the development time

Failure atomicity and recovery

- No lost locks when a thread fails
- Failure recovery = transaction abort + restart

Composability

- Safe and scalable composition of software modules

Example integration with OpenMP

Example: OpenTM = OpenMP + TM

OpenTM features

- Transactions, transactional loops and transactional sections
- Data directives for TM (e.g., thread private data)
- Runtime system hints for TM

Code example:

```
#pragma omp transfor schedule (static, chunk=50)
for (int i=0; i<N; i++) {
    bin[A[i]]++;
}</pre>
```

Self-check: atomic { } ≠ lock() + unlock()

The difference

- Atomic: high-level declaration of atomicity
 - Does not specify implementation of atomicity
- Lock: low-level blocking primitive
 - Does not provide atomicity or isolation on its own

Make sure you understand this difference in semantics!

Keep in mind

- Locks can be used to implement an atomic block but...
- Locks can be used for purposes beyond atomicity
 - Cannot replace all uses of locks with atomic regions
- Atomic eliminates many data races, but programming with atomic blocks can still suffer from atomicity violations: e.g., programmer erroneous splits sequence that should be atomic into two atomic blocks

What about replacing synchronized with atomic in this example?

```
// Thread 1
synchronized(lock1)
{
    ...
    flagA = true;
    while (flagB == 0);
    ...
}
```

```
// Thread 2
synchronized(lock2)
{
    ...
    flagB = true;
    while (flagA == 0);
    ...
}
```

Atomicity violation due to programmer error

```
// Thread 1
atomic
{
    ...
    ptr = A;
    ...
}
atomic
{
    B = ptr->field;
}
```

```
// Thread 2
atomic
{
    ...
    ptr = NULL;
}
```

 Programmer mistake: logically atomic code sequence (in thread 1) is erroneously separated into two atomic blocks (allowing another thread to set pointer to NULL in between)

Implementing transactional memory

Recall transactional semantics

Atomicity (all or nothing)

- At commit, all memory writes take effect at once
- In event of abort, none of the writes appear to take effect

Isolation

- No other code can observe writes before commit

Serializability

- Transactions seem to commit in a single serial order
- The exact order is not guaranteed though

TM implementation basics

- TM systems must provide atomicity and isolation
 - While maintaining concurrency as much as possible
- Two key implementation questions
 - Data versioning policy: How does the system manage uncommitted (new) and previously committed (old) versions of data for concurrent transactions?
 - Conflict detection policy: how/when does the system determine that two concurrent transactions conflict?

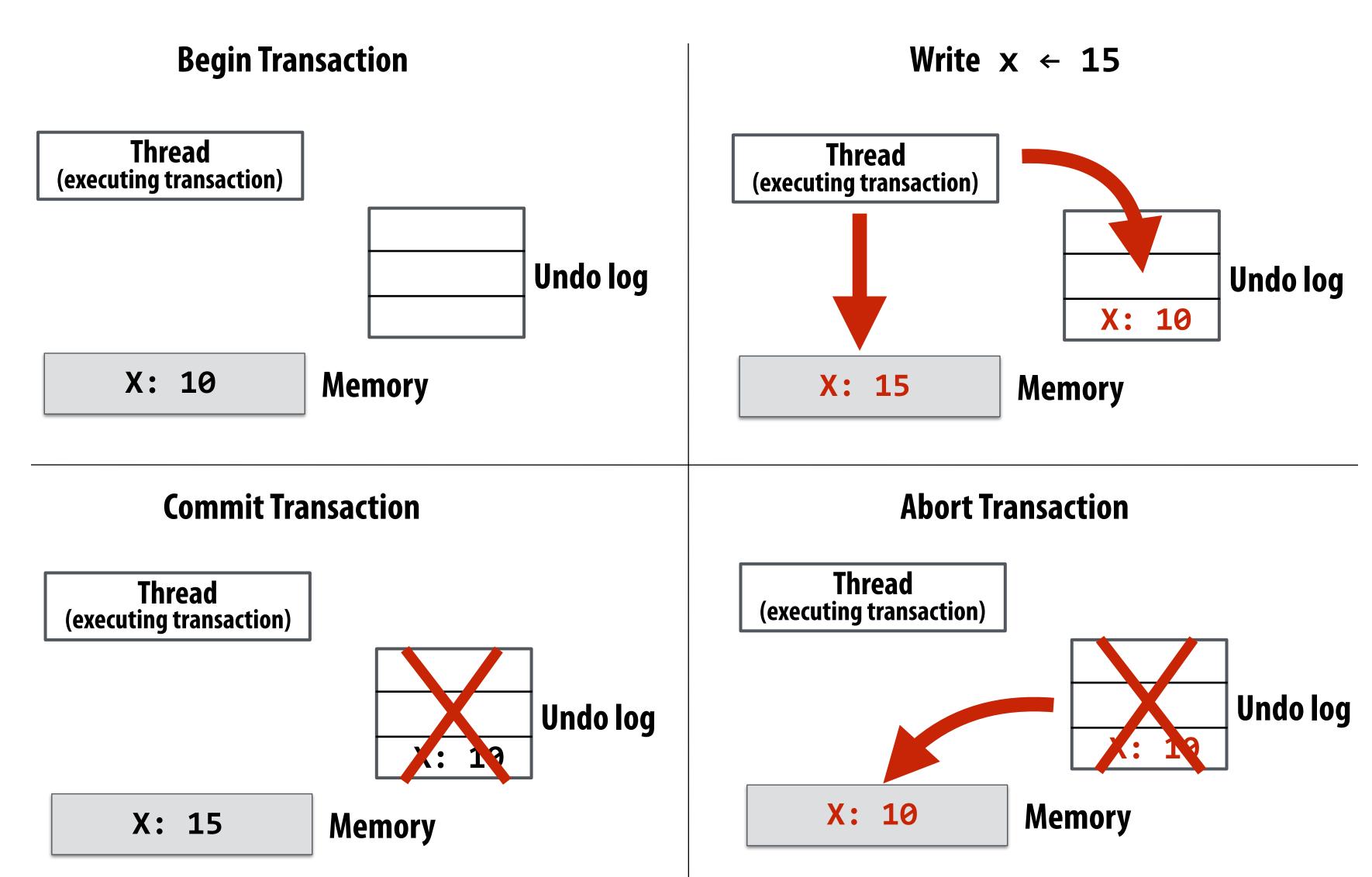
Data versioning policy

Manage uncommitted (new) and previously committed (old) versions of data for concurrent transactions

- 1. Eager versioning (undo-log based)
- 2. Lazy versioning (write-buffer based)

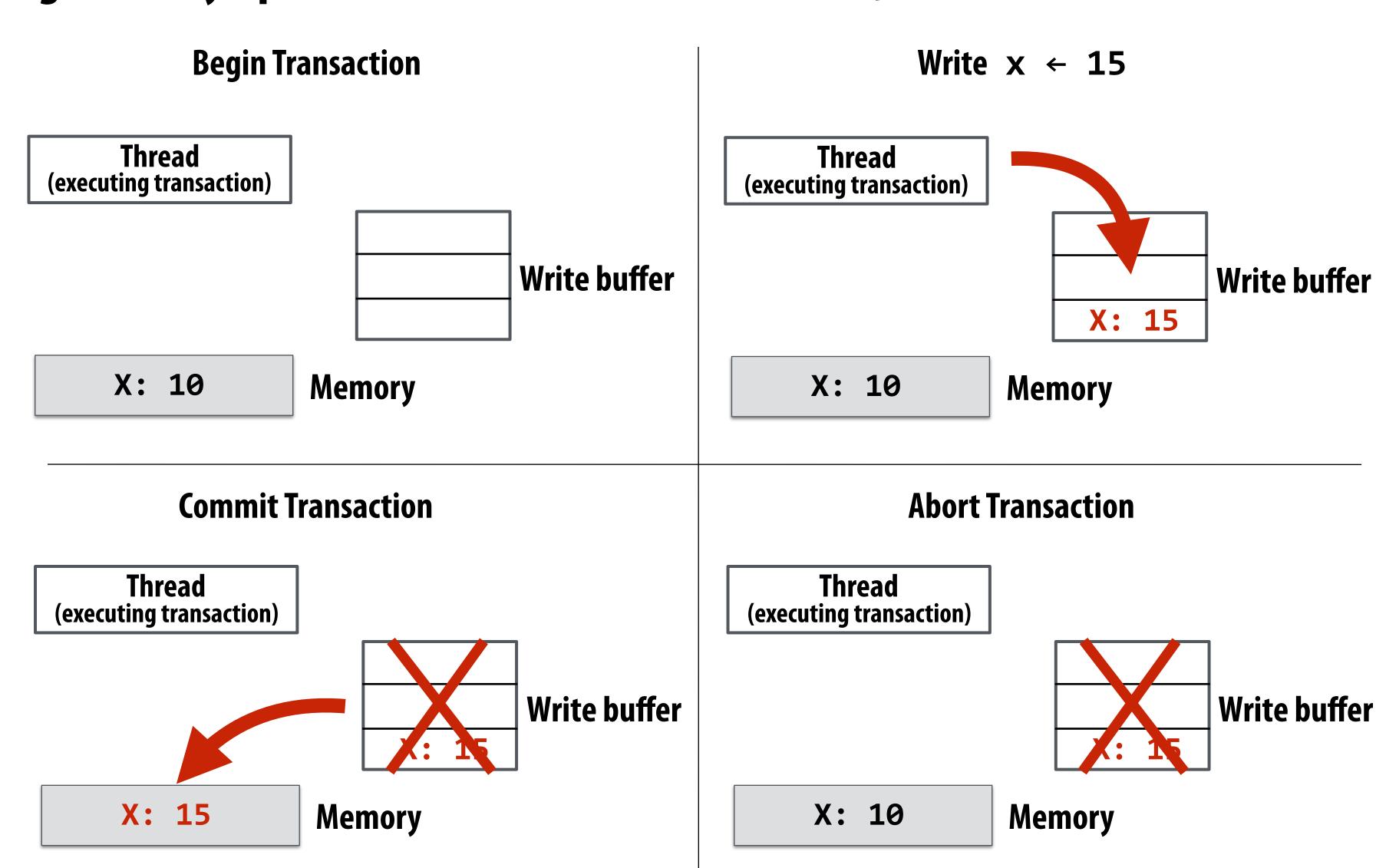
Eager versioning

Update memory immediately, maintain "undo log" in case of abort



Lazy versioning

Log memory updates in transaction write buffer, flush buffer on commit



Data versioning

 Goal: manage uncommitted (new) and committed (old) versions of data for concurrent transactions

Eager versioning (undo-log based)

- Update memory location directly on write
- Eager versioning philosophy: write to memory immediately, hoping transaction won't abort (but deal with aborts when you have to)
- Maintain undo information in a log (incurs per-store overhead)
- Good: faster commit (data is already in memory)
- Bad: slower aborts, fault tolerance issues (consider crash in middle of transaction)

Lazy versioning (write-buffer based)

Lazy versioning philosophy: only write to memory when you have to

- Buffer data in a write buffer until commit
- Update actual memory location on commit
- Good: faster abort (just clear log), no fault tolerance issues
- Bad: slower commits

Conflict detection

Must detect and handle conflicts between transactions

- Read-write conflict: transaction A reads address X, which was written to by pending (but not yet committed) transaction B
- Write-write conflict: transactions A and B are both pending, and both write to address X

System must track a transaction's read set and write set

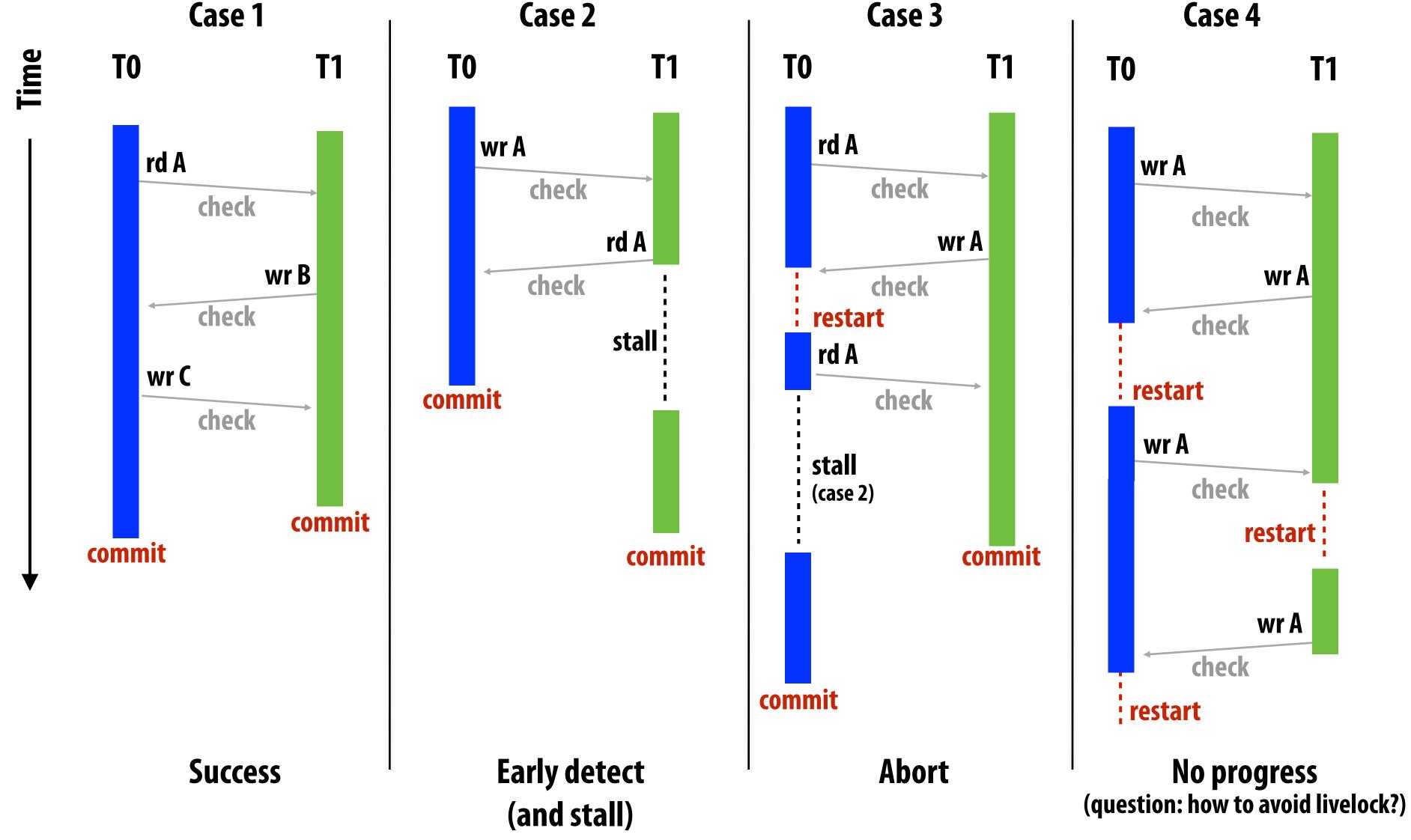
- Read-set: addresses read during the transaction
- Write-set: addresses written during the transaction

Pessimistic detection

- Check for conflicts (immediately) during loads or stores
 - Philosophy: "I suspect conflicts might happen, so let's always check to see if one has occurred after each memory operation... if I'm going to have to roll back, might as well do it now to avoid wasted work."
- "Contention manager" decides to stall or abort transaction when a conflict is detected
 - Various policies to handle common case fast

Pessimistic detection examples

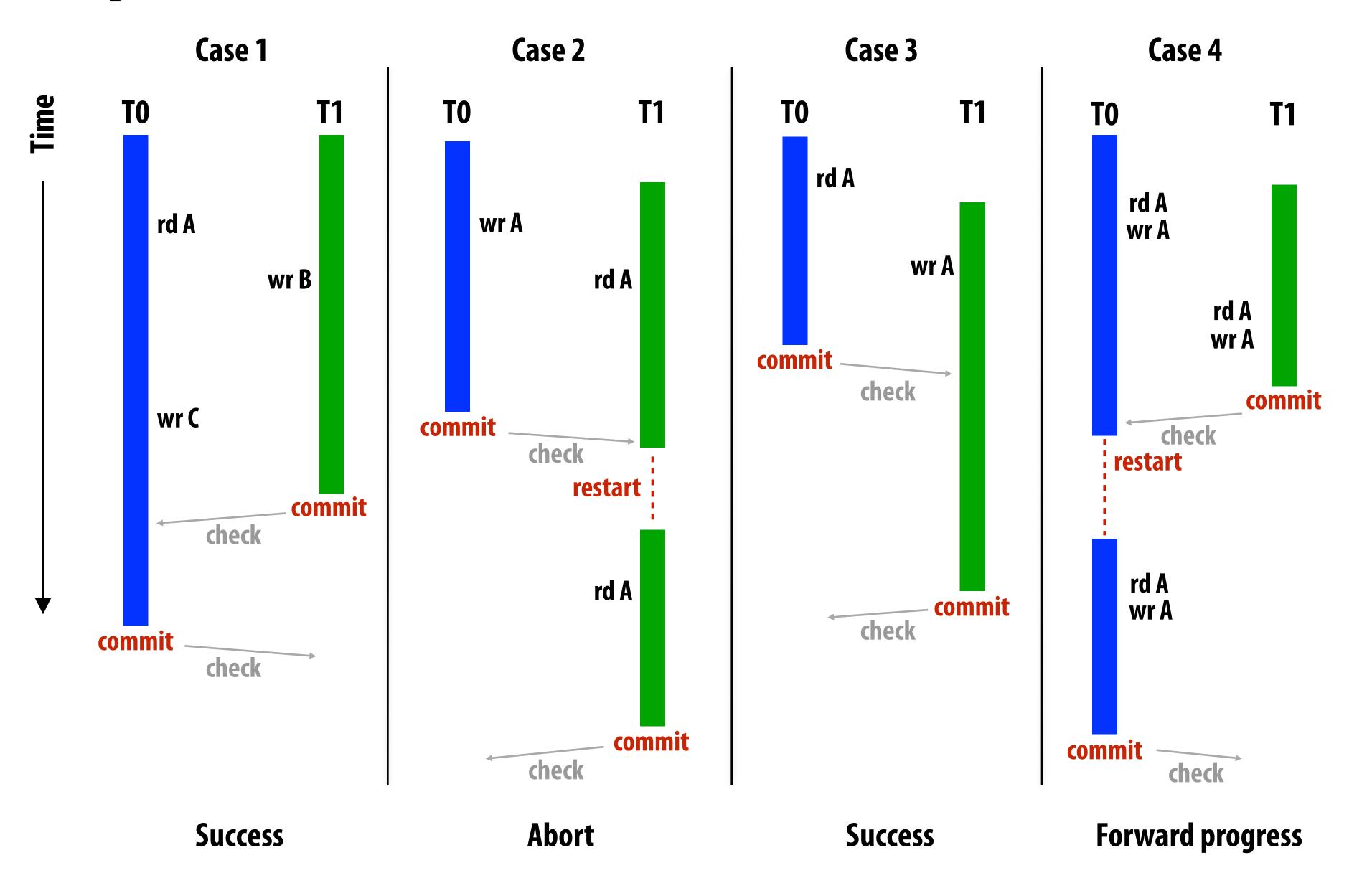
Note: diagrams assume "aggressive" contention manager on writes: writer wins, so other transammunication and



Optimistic detection

- Detect conflicts when a transaction attempts to commit
 - Intuition: "Let's hope for the best and sort out all the conflicts only when the transaction tries to commit"
- On a conflict, give priority to committing transaction
 - Other transactions may abort later on

Optimistic detection



Conflict detection trade-offs

- Pessimistic conflict detection (a.k.a. "eager")
 - Good: detect conflicts early (undo less work, turn some aborts to stalls)
 - Bad: no forward progress guarantees, more aborts in some cases
 - Bad: fine-grained communication (check on each load/store)
 - Bad: detection on critical path
- Optimistic conflict detection (a.k.a. "lazy" or "commit")
 - Good: forward progress guarantees
 - Good: bulk communication and conflict detection
 - Bad: detects conflicts late, can still have fairness problems

Further details: conflict detection granularity

- Object granularity (SW-based techniques)
 - Good: reduced overhead (time/space)
 - Good: close to programmer's reasoning
 - Bad: false sharing on large objects (e.g. arrays)
- Machine word granularity
 - Good: minimize false sharing
 - Bad: increased overhead (time/space)
- Cache-line granularity
 - Good: compromise between object and word
- Can mix and match to get best of both worlds
 - Word-level for arrays, object-level for other data, ...

TM implementation space (examples)

Hardware TM systems

- Lazy + optimistic: Stanford TCC
- Lazy + pessimistic: MIT LTM, Intel VTM
- Eager + pessimistic: Wisconsin LogTM
- Eager + optimistic: not practical

Software TM systems

- Lazy + optimistic (rd/wr): Sun TL2
- Lazy + optimistic (rd)/pessimistic (wr): MS OSTM
- Eager + optimistic (rd)/pessimistic (wr): Intel STM
- Eager + pessimistic (rd/wr): Intel STM

Optimal design remains an open question

- May be different for HW, SW, and hybrid

Hardware transactional memory (HTM)

- Data versioning is implemented in caches
 - Cache the write buffer or the undo log
 - Add new cache line metadata to track transaction read set and write set
- Conflict detection through cache coherence protocol
 - Coherence lookups detect conflicts between transactions
 - Works with snooping and directory coherence

■ Note:

Register checkpoint must also be taken at transaction begin (to restore execution context state on abort)

HTM design

Cache lines annotated to track read set and write set

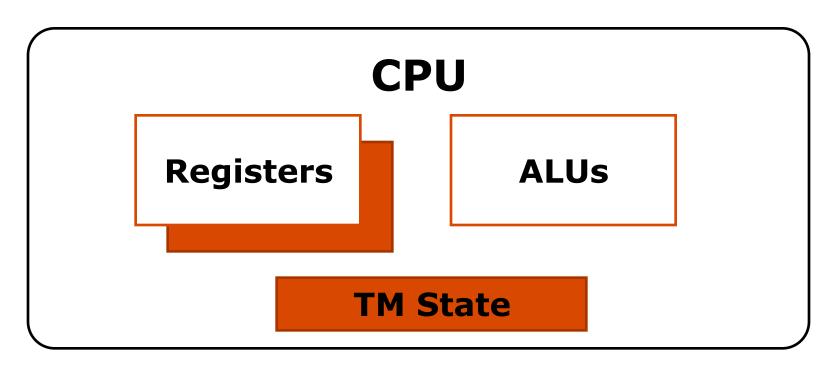
- R bit: indicates data read by transaction (set on loads)
- W bit: indicates data written by transaction (set on stores)
 - R/W bits can be at word or cache-line granularity
- R/W bits gang-cleared on transaction commit or abort
- For eager versioning, need a 2nd cache write for undo log



Coherence requests check R/W bits to detect conflicts

- Observing shared request to W-word is a read-write conflict
- Observing exclusive (intent to write) request to R-word is a write-read conflict
- Observing exclusive (intent to write) request to W-word is a write-write conflict

Example HTM implementation: lazy-optimistic

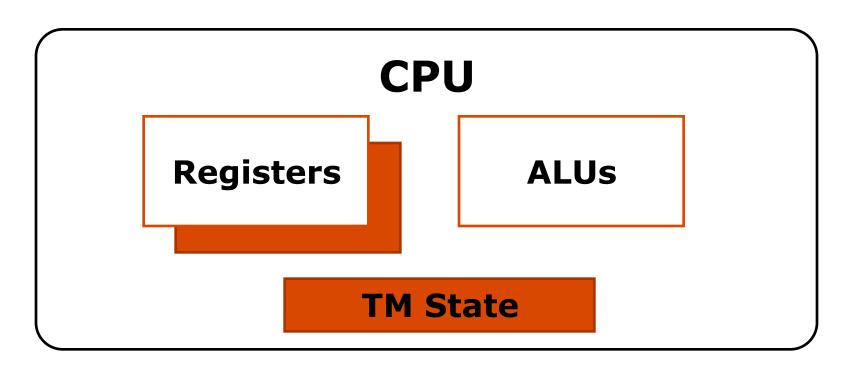


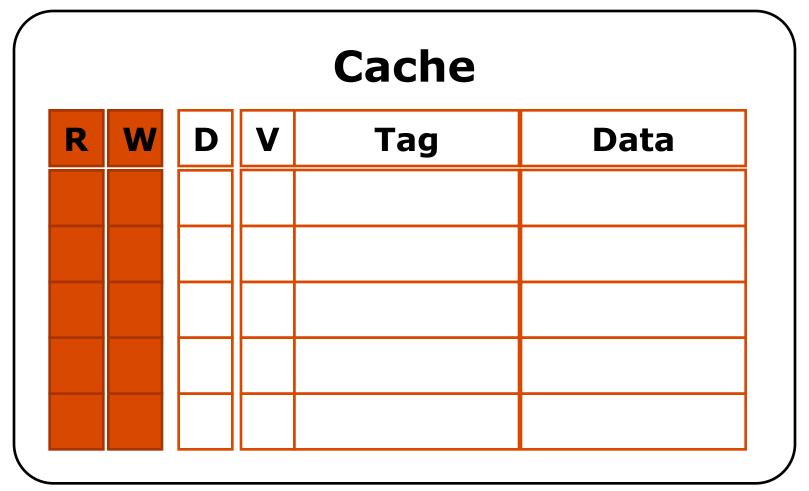
	Cache	
V	Tag	Data

CPU changes

- Ability to checkpoint register state (available in many CPUs)
- TM state registers (status, pointers to abort handlers, ...)

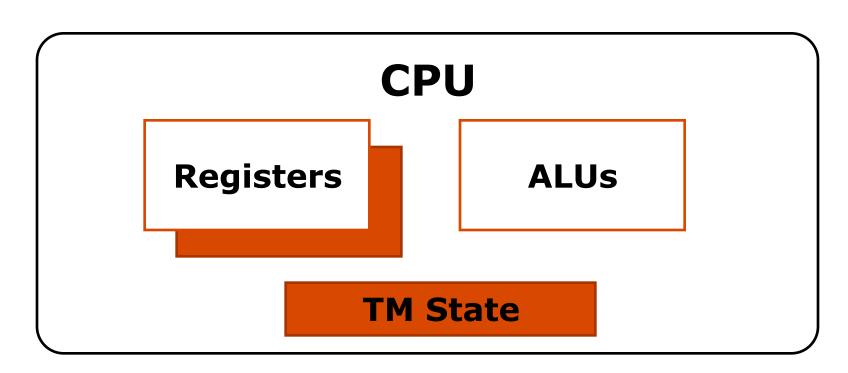
Example HTM implementation: lazy-optimistic





Cache changes

- R bit indicates membership to read set
- W bit indicates membership to write set



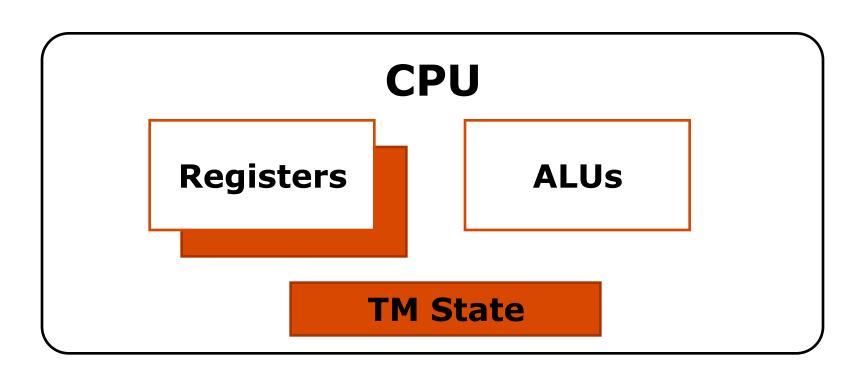
Cache							
W	D	V	Tag	Data			
0							
0							
0							
	0	0	0	W D V Tag O O O O O			

Xbegin ←
Load A
Load B
Store C ← 5

Xcommit

Transaction begin

- Initialize CPU and cache state
- Take register checkpoint



Cache							
R	W	D	V	Tag	Data		
0	0						
1	0		1	A			
0	0						

Xbegin

Load A

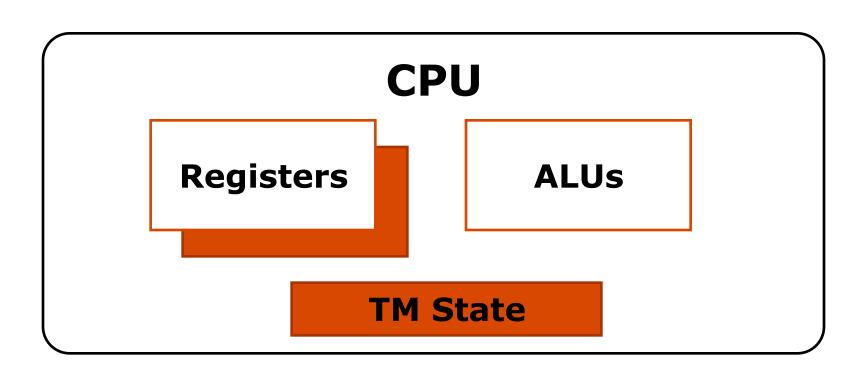
Load B

Store C ← 5

Xcommit

Load operation

- Serve cache miss if needed
- Mark data as part of read set



Cache						
R	W	D	V	Tag	Data	
1	0		1	В		
1	0		1	Α		
0	0					

Xbegin

Load A

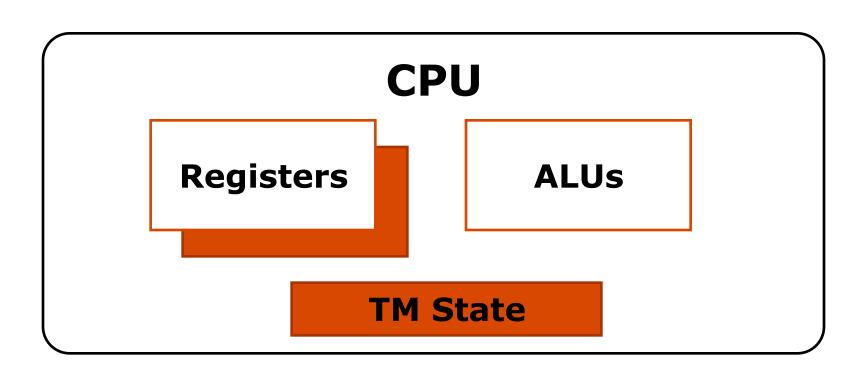
Load B

Store C ← 5

Xcommit

Load operation

- Serve cache miss if needed
- Mark data as part of read set



Cache						
R	W	D	V	Tag	Data	
			П			
1	0		1	В		
1	0		1	Α		
0	1		1	C		

Xbegin

Load A

Load B

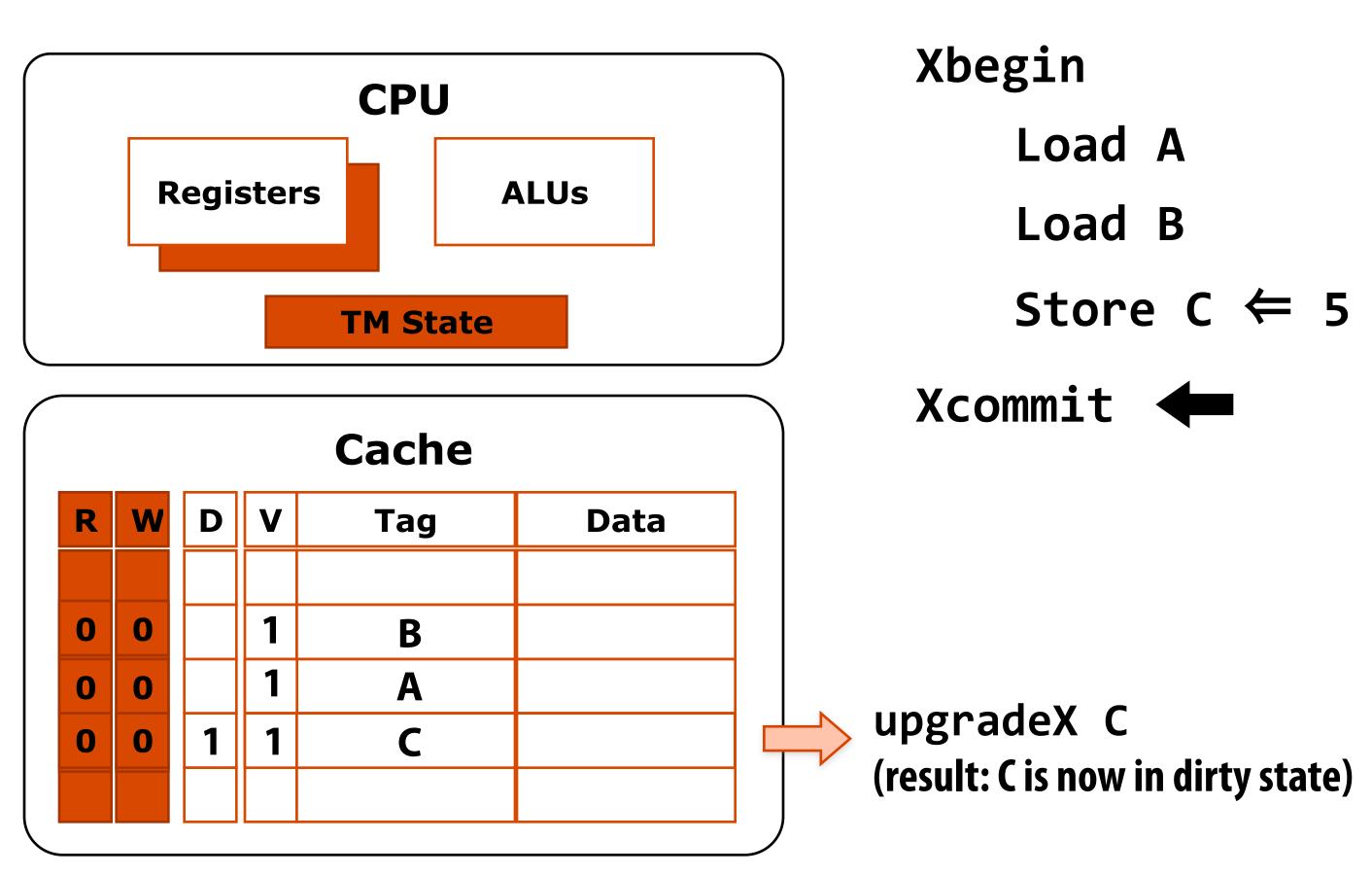
Store C ← 5 ←

Xcommit

Store operation

- Service cache miss if needed
- Mark data as part of write set (note: this is not a load into exclusive state. Why?)

HTM transaction execution: commit

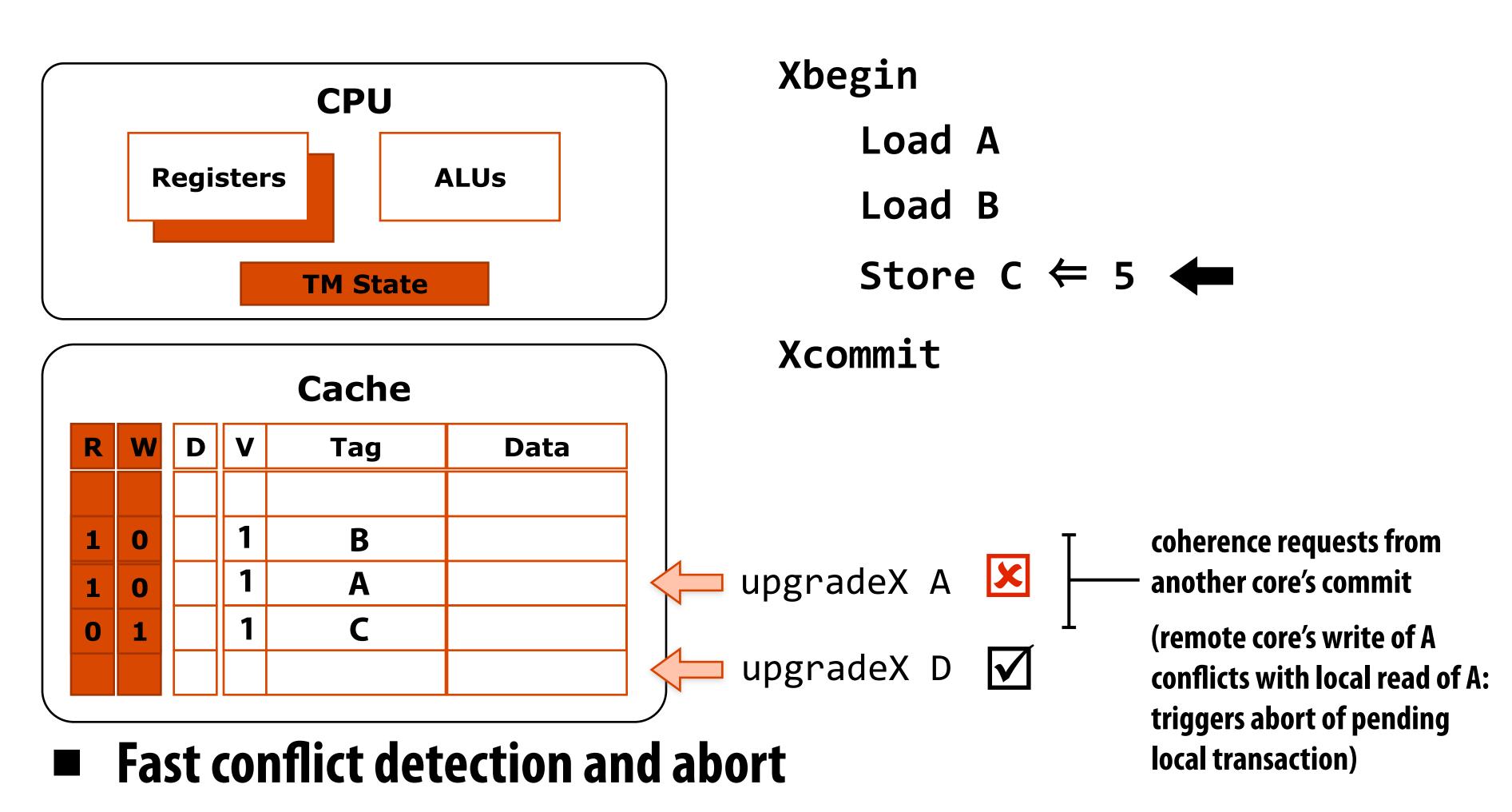


Fast two-phase commit

- Validate: request RdX access to write set lines (if needed)
- Commit: gang-reset R and W bits, turns write set data to valid (dirty) data

HTM transaction execution: detect/abort

Assume remote processor commits transaction with writes to A and D



- Check: lookup exclusive requests in the read set and write set
- Abort: invalidate write set, gang-reset R and W bits, restore to register checkpoint

Hardware transactional memory support in Intel Haswell architecture

- New instructions for "restricted transactional memory" (RTM)
 - xbegin: takes pointer to "fallback address" in case of abort
 - e.g., fallback to code-path with a spin-lock
 - xend
 - xabort
 - Implementation: tracks read and write set in L1 cache

Processor makes sure all memory operations commit atomically

- But processor may automatically abort transaction for many reasons (e.g., eviction of line in read or write set will cause a transaction abort)
 - Implementation does not guarantee progress (see fallback address)
- Intel optimization guide (ch 12) gives guidelines for increasing probability that transactions will not abort

Summary: transactional memory

- Atomic construct: declaration that atomic behavior must be preserved by the system
 - Motivating idea: increase simplicity of synchronization without (significantly) sacrificing performance

Transactional memory implementation

- Many variants have been proposed: SW, HW, SW+HW
- Implementations differ in:
 - Versioning policy (eager vs. lazy)
 - Conflict detection policy (pessimistic vs. optimistic)
 - Detection granularity

Hardware transactional memory

- Versioned data is kept in caches
- Conflict detection mechanisms built upon coherence protocol