

Multicore

Advanced Operating Systems (263-3800-00)

Timothy Roscoe
Thursday 25 November 2010

Overview



- Multicore / multiprocessor hardware issues
- General issues for scalable OS design
- Techniques
 - MCS locks
 - Read-Copy-Update
- Research systems exploring different OS structures
 - K42
 - Barrelfish
 - [Disco]

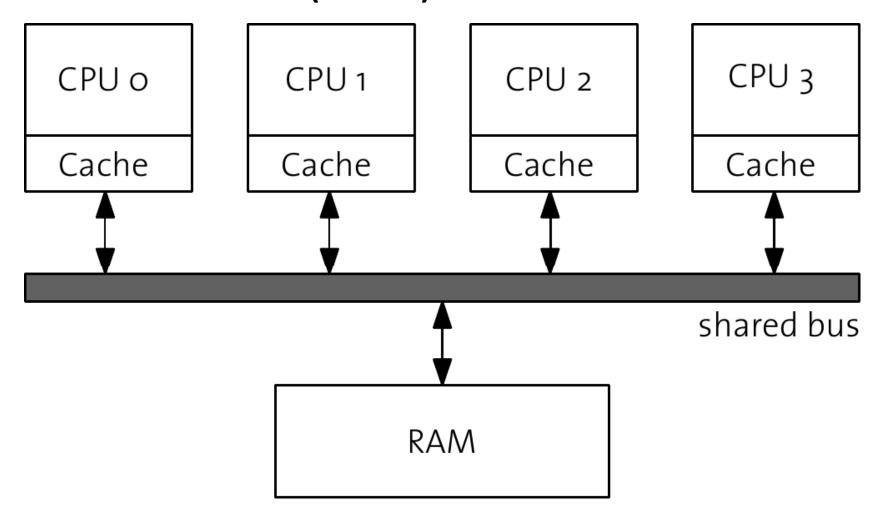




- Processor designers have hit limits scaling up clock frequencies
 - Energy consumption, heat dissipation
 - no more instruction-level parallelism
- Moore's law holds; what do we do with the extra transistors?
 - put multiple processors (cores) on a chip

Symmetric multiprocessing (SMP)





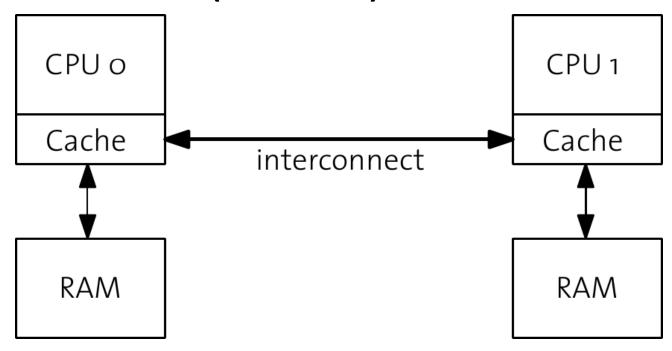
Symmetric multiprocessing (SMP)



- All processors are equidistant from RAM
 - e.g.: pre-Nehalem Intel Xeon, many older systems
- Shared bus limits scale:
 - Propagation delays
 - Speed
 - Contention
- Cache coherence maintained via hardware support
- Subject to a memory consistency model

Non-uniform memory access (NUMA)





- All RAM is accessible, but access to local RAM is faster
- Modern interconnects: HyperTransport, CSI/QuickPath
- Variety of interconnect topologies possible for >2 sockets

Hardware multithreading



- Also: Simultaneous Multithreading (SMT), or HyperThreading
- Core switches between threads to hide effect of stalls.
 - E.g. accesses to memory
- Unlike multiple cores, most execution resources are shared
- Two, four, or eight threads per core
- Performance improvements are heavily workload dependent
 - Relatively modest (in the order of 10%)
 - Can be negative
 - Best case: memory-bound transactional (e.g. web services)
- Threads appear to the OS as extra CPUs

Memory consistency models



If one CPU modifies memory, when do others observe it?

- Strict/Sequential: reads return the most recently written value
- Processor/PRAM: writes from one CPU are seen in order, writes by different CPUs may be reordered
- Weak: separate rules for synchronizing accesses (e.g. locks)
 - Synchronising accesses sequentially consistent
 - Synchronising accesses act as a barrier:
 - previous writes completed
 - future read/writes blocked

Memory consistency models



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Important to know your hardware!

- x86: processor consistency
- PowerPC: weak consistency

Hardware cache coherence



Example: MOESI protocol

Every cache line is in one of five states:

Modified: dirty, present only in this cache

Owned: dirty, present in this cache and possibly others

Exclusive: clean, present only in this cache

Shared: present in this cache and possibly others

Invalid: not present

- May satisfy read from any state
- Fetch to shared or exclusive state
- Write requires modified or exclusive state;
 - if shared, must invalidate other caches
- Owned: line may be transferred without flushing to memory

Hardware cache coherence



Caches must communicate to maintain consistency:

- 1. Snooping on a shared bus
 - Observe memory accesses of other nodes, broadcast invalidations on bus
 - Used by SMP systems
- 2. Bus emulation
 - Similar to snooping, but without a shared bus
 - e.g. coherent HyperTransport:
 - Requests and responses (data) are unicast
 - Invalidations and probes are broadcast
 - Limited scalability
 - Latency limited by broadcast
- 3. Directory-based protocols
 - "Home node" maintains set of nodes that may have line
 - Used by larger multiprocessors, e.g. SCI
 - AMD HTAssist, Intel Beckton QPI





Two ways to synchronize:

1. Atomic operations on shared memory

- e.g.: compare-and-swap, load linked / store conditional, atomic arithmetic
- Implicit messaging (cache-coherence messages, not visible to software)

2. Interprocessor interrupts (IPIs)

- Explicit messaging (invoke interrupt handler on remote CPU)
- Slow (500+ cycles on Intel), often avoided
- Used for different purposes (e.g. locks, vs. asynchronous notification)

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Implications for OS design



Assuming cache-coherent shared memory...

- R/W sharing requires communication, limits scaling
- Cache line is the unit of communication and sharing
 - ⇒ Need to avoid shared data
 - ⇒ Need to be careful about data placement in cache lines
 - False sharing: unrelated data structures share a cache line
 - Cache-line bouncing: when shared R/Won many processors
- Physical memory locality also matters for NUMA systems
 - Kernel (or physical memory allocator) needs to know
- Synchronization implies serialization, limits parallelism and scalability

How do you build a scalable OS?



- Fine-grained locking of shared data structures
 - Tradeoff increased parallelism against higher overhead for synchronization
 - Many instances of structures won't need fine-grained locking; can you have both?
- Avoid sharing and increase locality:
 - Use processor-local data structures
 - Pad data to cache-lines
 - ⇒ higher memory consumption, worse (uniprocessor) cache utilization
- Schedule tasks to maintain locality
 - Can lead to more complex, slower scheduler

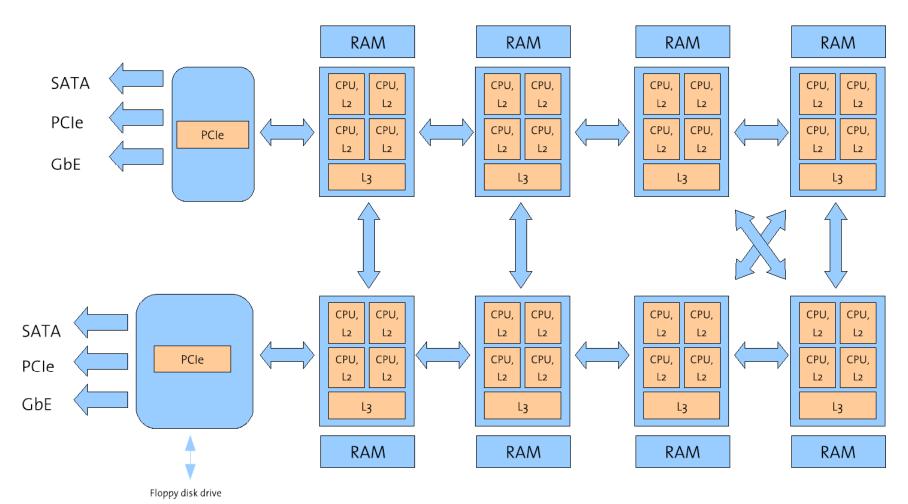
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 - Can lead to more complex, slower scheduler
- Tradeoff between uniprocessor performance and scalability

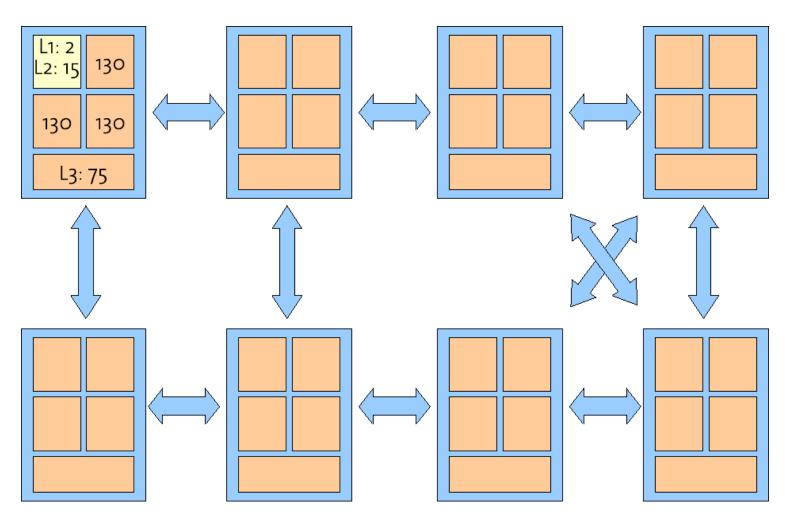
Concrete example: 8-socket 32-core AMD Barcelona





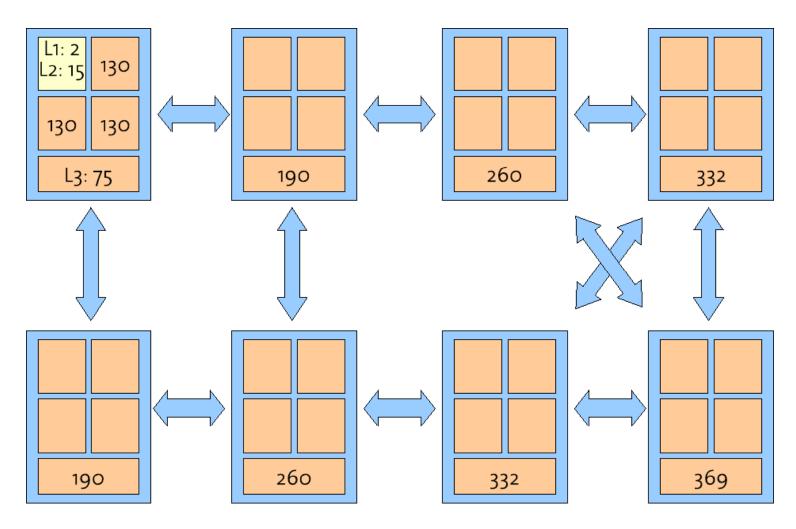












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MCS locks

Systems@ETH zürich

[Mellor-Crummey and Scott, 1991]

- Cross-CPU locks are typically implemented as a spinlock
 - Processors repeatedly try to atomically update shared value
- Problem: cache line containing lock becomes a hot spot
 - Continuously invalidated as every processor tries to acquire it
 - Dominates interconnect traffic
- Solution: When acquiring, a processor enqueues itself on a list of waiting processors, and spins on its own entry in the list
- When releasing, only the next processor is awakened



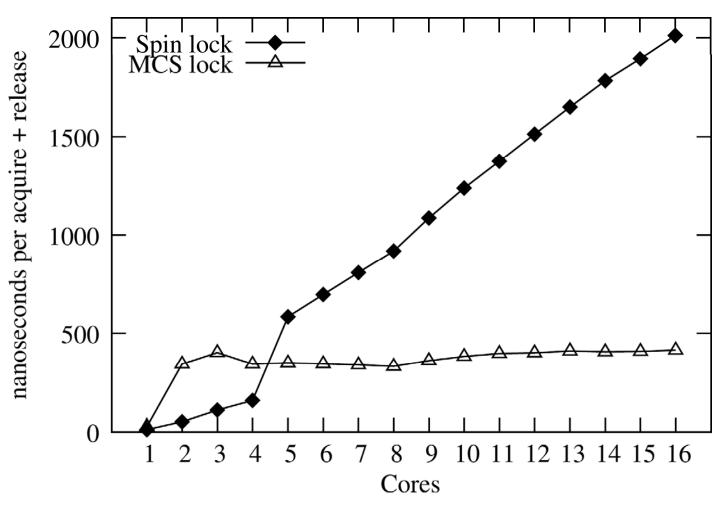


```
type qnode = record
         next : ^qnode
         locked : Boolean
type lock = ^anode
// parameter I, below, points to a quode record allocated in
// shared memory locally-accessible to the invoking processor
procedure acquire lock (L : ^lock, I: ^qnode)
         I->next := nil
         predecessor : ^qnode := fetch_and_store (L, I)
         if predecessor != nil // queue was non-empty
                  I->locked := true
                  predecessor->next := I
                  repeat while I->locked // spin
procedure release lock (L : ^lock, I : ^qnode)
         if I->next = nil // no known successor
                  if compare_and_swap (L, I, nil)
                            return // CAS returns true iff it swapped
                  repeat while I->next = nil // spin
         I->next->locked := false
```

MCS lock performance



4x4-core AMD Opteron



[Boyd-Wickizer et al., 2008]

Read-copy update (RCU)



[McKenney and Slingwine, 1998]

- Mechanism to avoid existence locks on R/W shared data
- In Linux from 2.6 (originated in DYNIX/ptx, K42, ...)
- Readers access a data structure without obtaining a lock
- To write (update) the structure:
 - 1. Copy data
 - 2. Modify copy
 - 3. Update reference to point to modified version
 - 4. Wait for all previous readers to complete
 - Relies on OS-specific mechanism to detect quiescence (e.g. context switch in Linux, generation count in K42)
 - 5. Destroy/reclaim previous version

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K42



- OS for cache-coherent NUMA systems
- IBM Research, 1997–2006ish
- Successor of Tornado and Hurricane systems (University of Toronto)
- Supports Linux API/ABI
- Aims: high locality, scalability



K42



- OS for cache-coherent NUMA systems
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- Successor of Tornado and Hurricane systems (University of Toronto)
- Supports Linux API/ABI
- Aims: high locality, scalability
- Heavily object-oriented
 - Resources managed by set of object instances

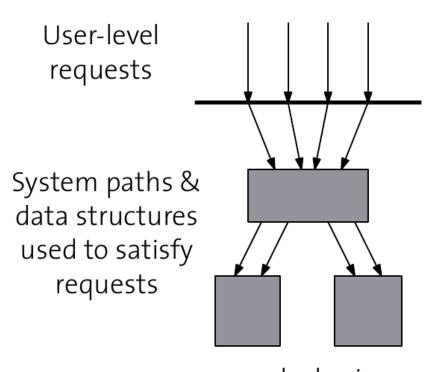


Why use OO in an OS?

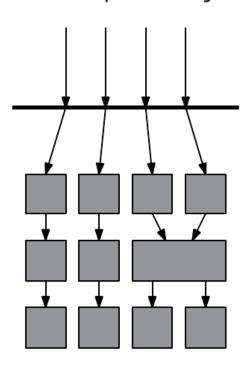


Traditional System

OO Decomposed System



much sharing

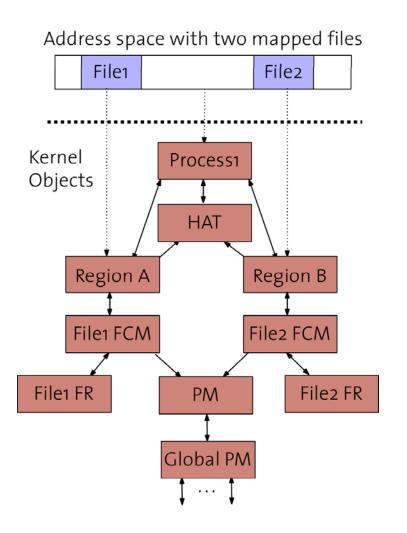


- much less sharing
- better performance

[Appavoo, 2005]





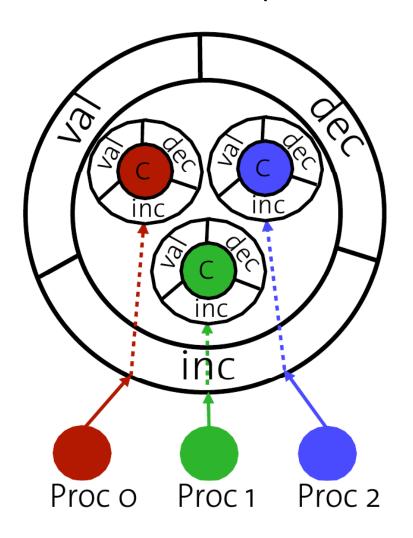


- OO decomposition minimizes sharing for unrelated data structures
 - No global locks⇒ reducedsynchronisation
- Clustered objects
 system limits sharing
 within an object

Clustered Objects

Example: shared counter



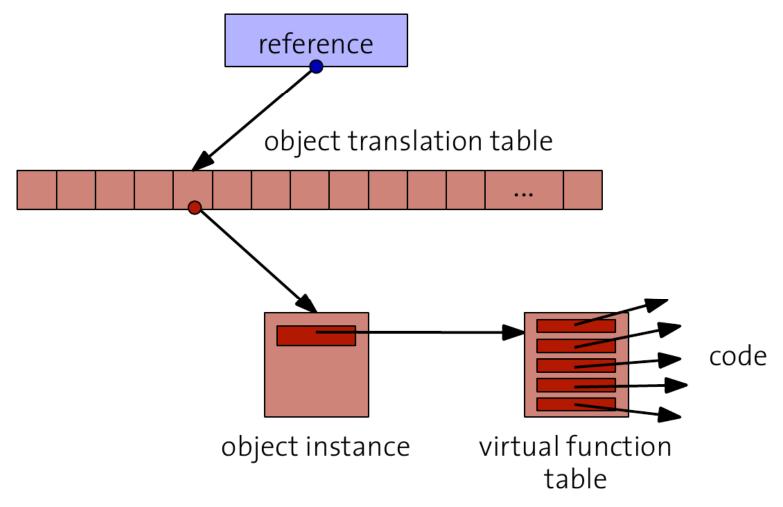


- Object internally decomposed into processor-local representatives
- Same reference on any processor
 - Object system routes invocation to local representative
- ⇒ Choice of sharing and locking strategy local to each object
- In example, inc and dec are local; only val needs to communicate





Implementation using processor-local **object translation table**:



Applying clustered objects

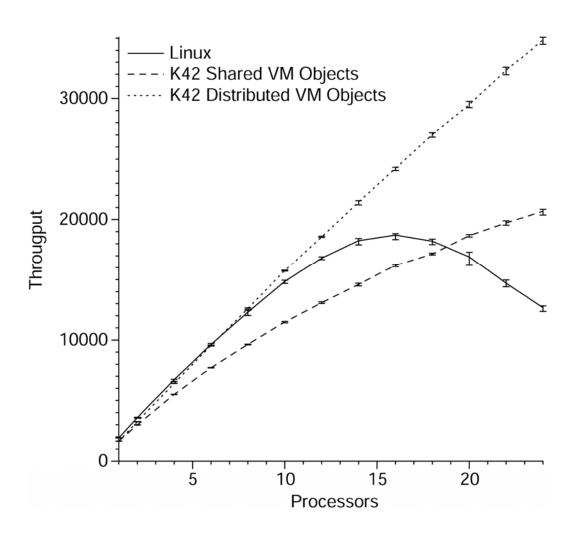


- Distributed versions of core memory-management objects
 - Separate data into local ("rep") and global ("root") structures
 - Fast-paths access only per-processor or read-mostly data
 - Fine-grained locking for global data where necessary
 - Cache-line padding of shared data structures
- Other K42 features that help scalability:
 - Deferred deletion (RCU)
 - NUMA-aware memory allocator

Results for SDET benchmark

NB: Linux is version 2.4.19





K42 Principles/Lessons



- Focus on locality, not concurrency, to achieve scalability
- Adopt distributed component model to enable consistent construction of locality-tuned components
- Support distribution within an OO encapsulation boundary:
 - eases complexity
 - permits controlled/manageable introduction of localized data structures

Barrelfish



- Joint project of ETH Systems Group and Microsoft Research
- We're exploring how to structure an OS to:
 - scale to many processors
 - manage and exploit heterogeneous hardware
 - run a dynamic set of generalpurpose applications
 - reduce code complexity to do this
- Barrelfish is:
 - written from scratch
 - open source



The multikernel model



- Rethinking the default structure of an OS:
 - Shared-memory kernel on every core
 - Data structures protected by locks
 - Anything else is a device
- Our approach: structure the OS as a distributed system
- Design principles:
 - 1. Make inter-core communication explicit
 - 2. Make OS structure hardware-neutral
 - 3. View state as replicated

1. Make inter-core communication explicit



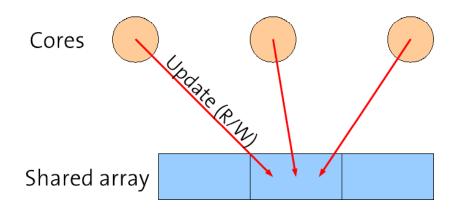
- All communication with messages (no shared state)
- Decouples system structure from inter-core communication mechanism
 - Communication patterns explicitly expressed
- Naturally supports heterogeneous cores, non-coherent interconnects (PCIe)
- Better match for future hardware
 - ...with cheap explicit message passing (e.g. Tile64)
 - ...without cache-coherence (e.g. Intel 80-core)
- Allows split-phase operations
 - Decouple requests and responses for concurrency
- We can reason about it

Message passing vs. shared memory: experiment

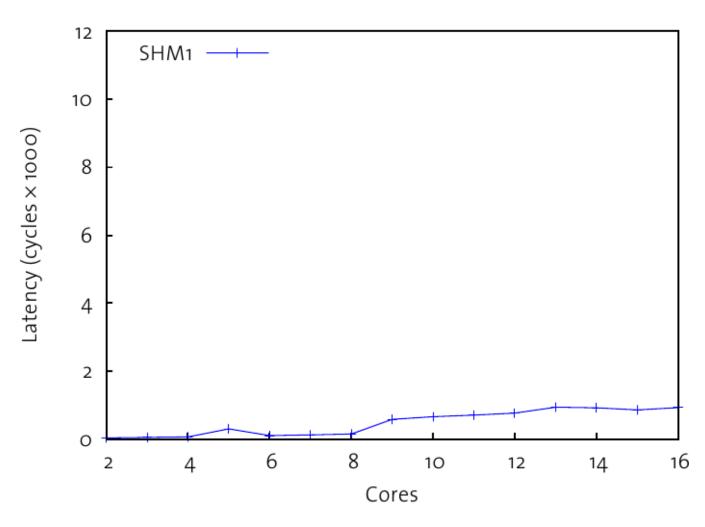


Shared memory (move the data to the operation):

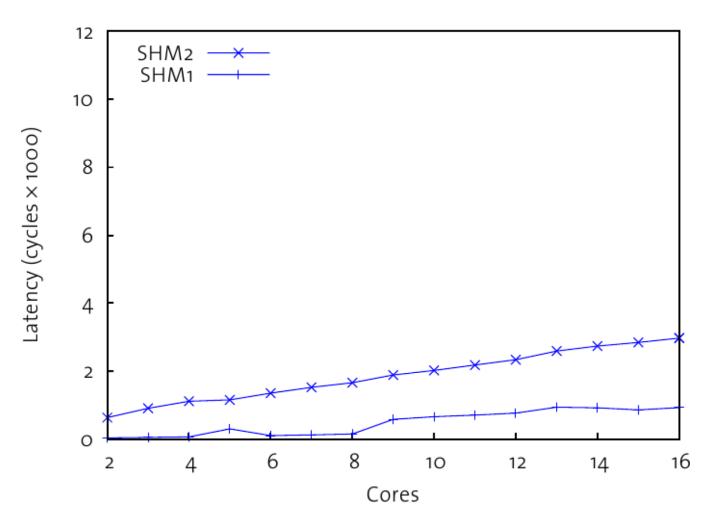
- Each core updates the same memory locations (no locking)
- Cache-coherence protocol migrates modified cache lines
 - Processor stalled while line is fetched or invalidated
 - Limited by latency of interconnect round-trips
 - Performance depends on data size (cache lines) and contention (number of cores)



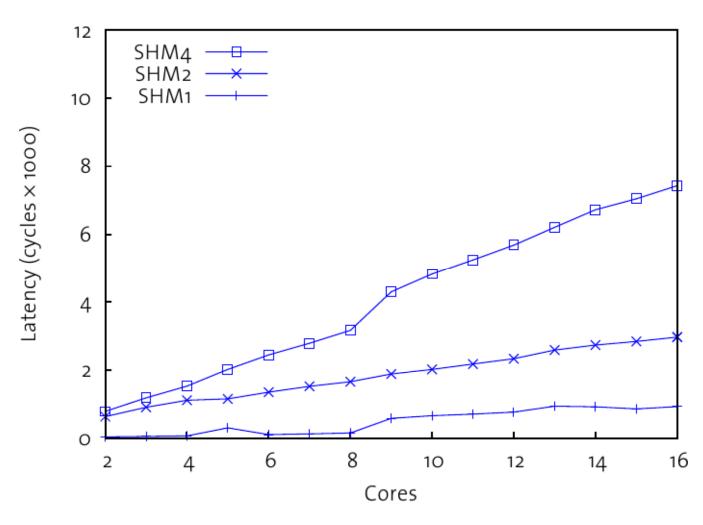




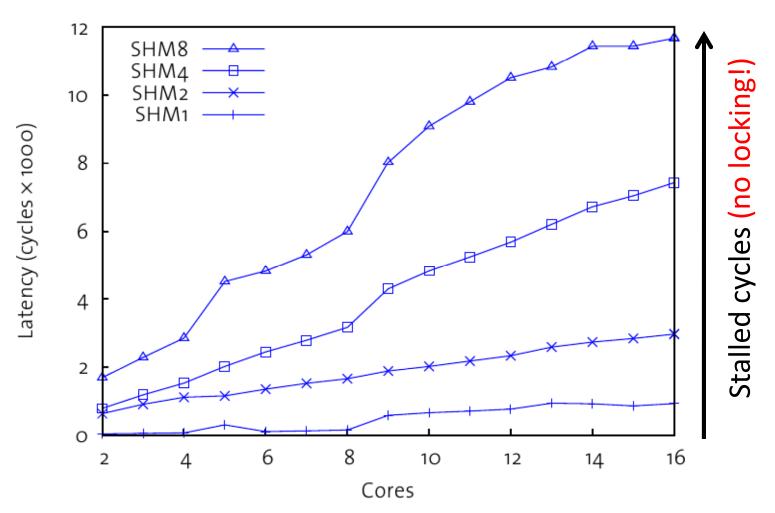










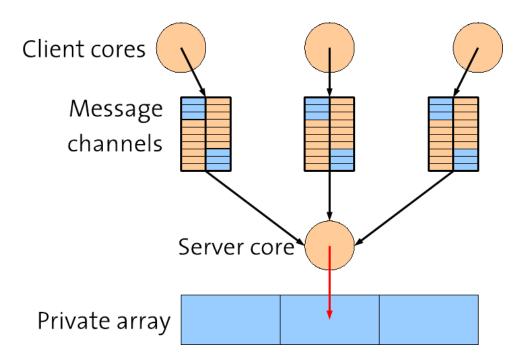


Message passing vs. shared memory: experiment

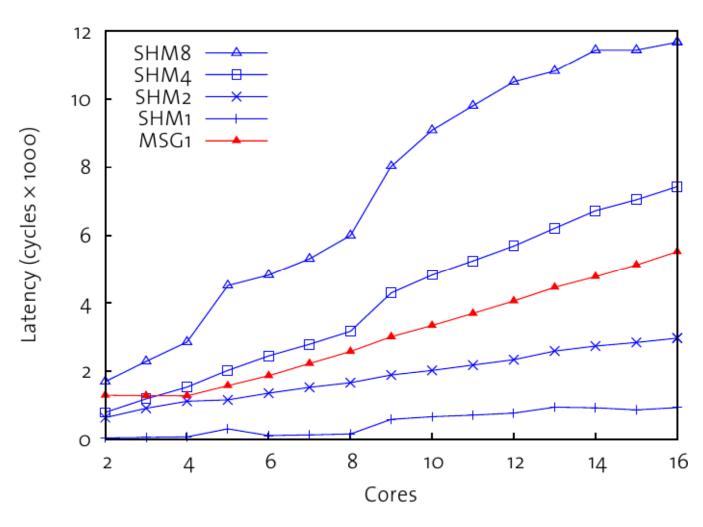


Message passing (move the operation to the data):

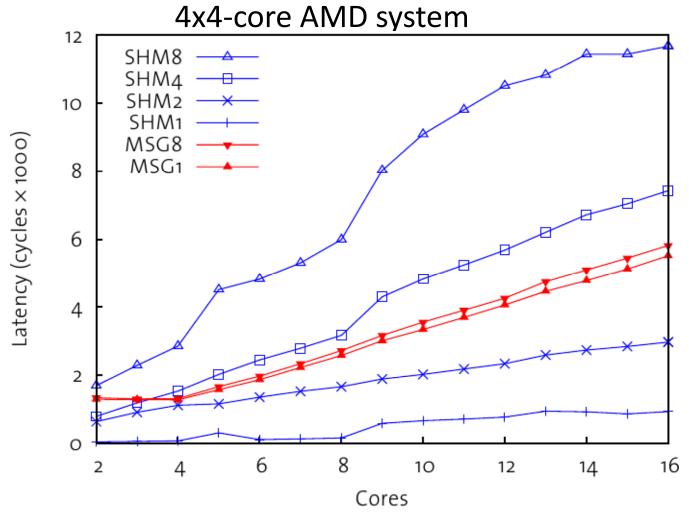
- A single server core updates the memory locations
- Each client core sends RPCs to the server
 - Operation and results described in a single cache line
 - Block while waiting for a response (in this experiment)



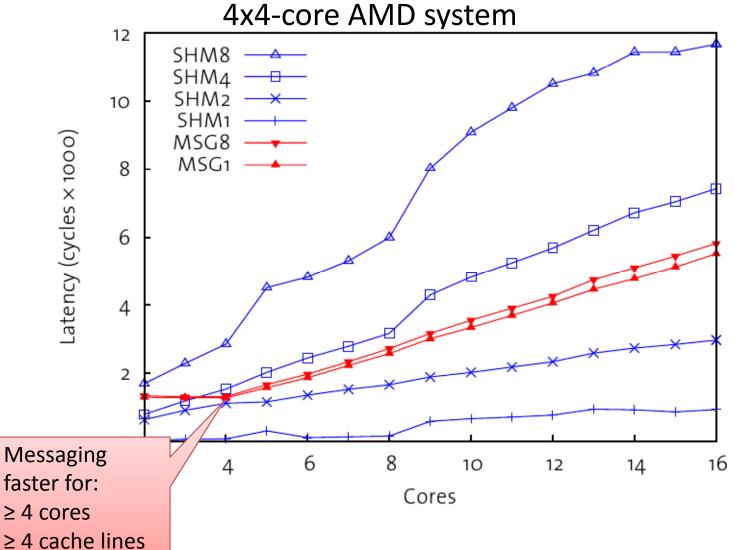






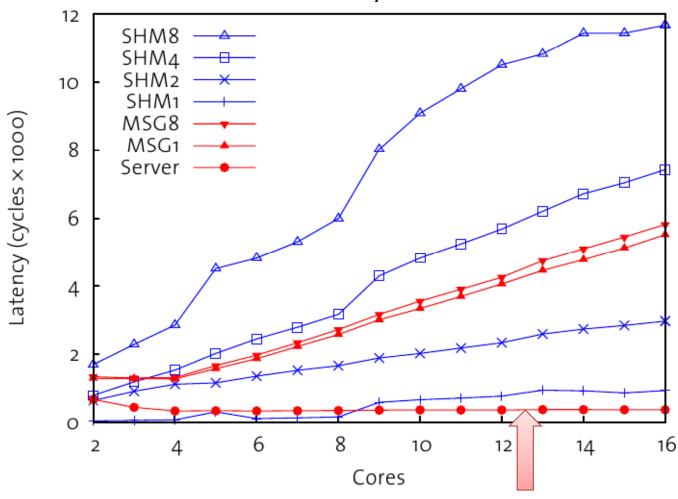








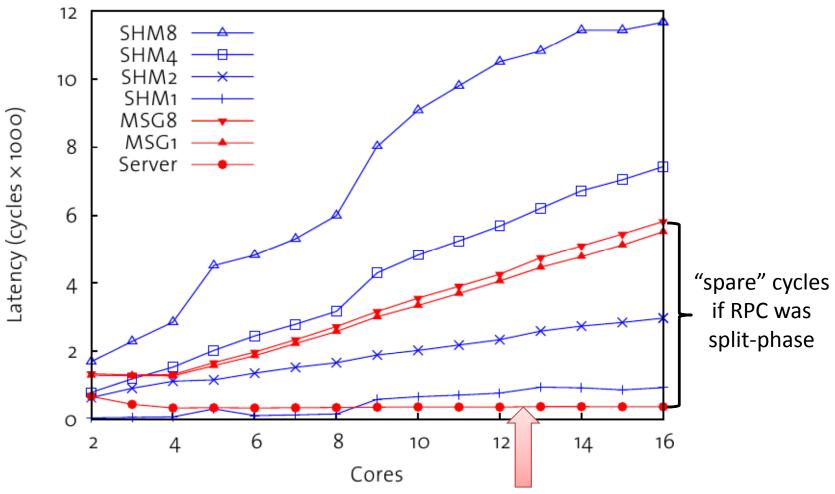
4x4-core AMD system



Actual cost of update at server







Actual cost of update at server

2. Make OS structure hardwareneutral



- Separate OS structure from hardware
- Only hardware-specific parts:
 - Message transports (highly optimised / specialised)
 - CPU / device drivers

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- Separate OS structure from hardware
- Only hardware-specific parts:
 - Message transports (highly optimised / specialised)
 - CPU / device drivers
- Adaptability to changing performance characteristics
- Late-bind protocol and message transport implementations

3. View state as replicated



- Potentially-shared state accessed as if it were a local replica
 - Scheduler queues, process control blocks, etc.

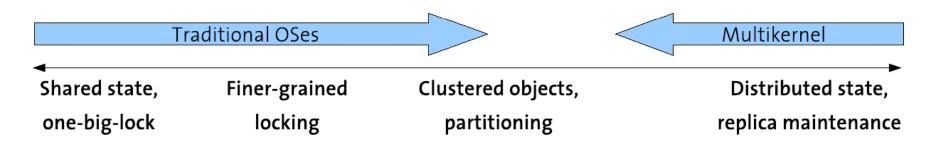




- Potentially-shared state accessed as if it were a local replica
 - Scheduler queues, process control blocks, etc.
- Required by message-passing model
- Naturally supports domains that do not share memory
- Naturally supports changes to the set of running cores
 - Hotplug, power management

Replication vs. sharing as default

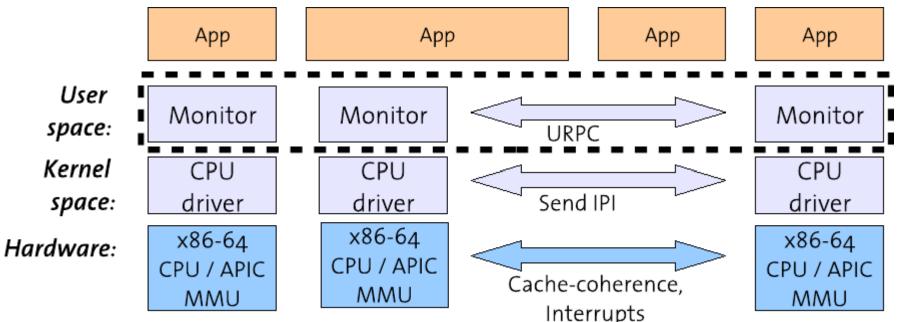




- In a multikernel, sharing is a local optimisation of replication
- Shared (locked) replica for threads or closely-coupled cores
 - Hidden, local
 - Only when faster, as decided at runtime
 - Basic model remains split-phase

Barrelfish structure





- Monitors and CPU drivers
 - CPU driver serially handles traps and exceptions
 - Monitor mediates local operations on global state
- URPC inter-core (shared memory) message transport
 - on current (cache-coherent) x86 HW

Case study: Unmap (TLB shootdown)



- (Most) HW maintains coherence only of memory caches
- TLBs are left to the OS
- What do you do on unmap or reduced permissions?
- Common operation: process creation (fork), copy-on-write
- Naive approach: global TLB shoot-down
 - IPI to all processors
 - TLB invalidate on all processors
 - Very expensive
- Possible improvements:
 - Track where pages are accessed to avoid global shoot-down
 - Coalesce shoot-downs

Unmap implementation on Barrelfish

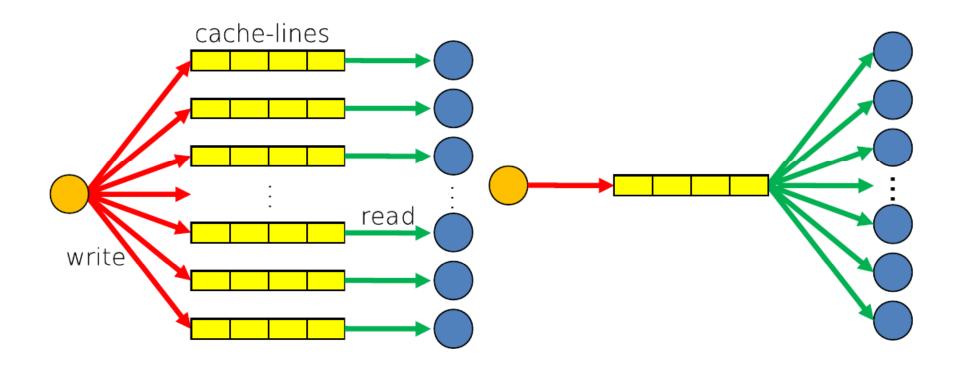


- Send a message to every core with a mapping, wait for all to be acknowledged
- 1. User request to local monitor domain
- 2. Single-phase commit to remote cores
- How to implement communication?



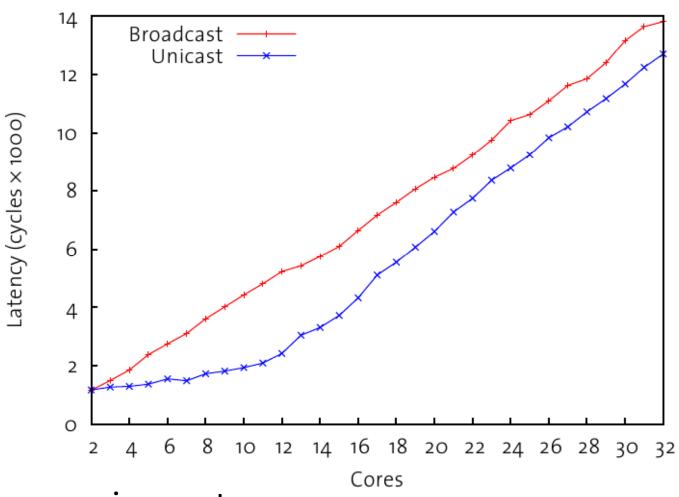


Unicast Broadcast



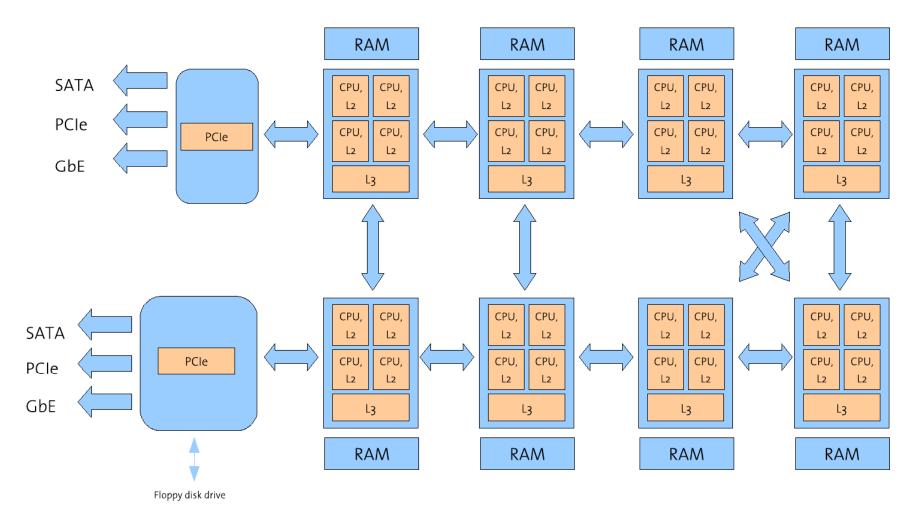
Unmap communication protocols



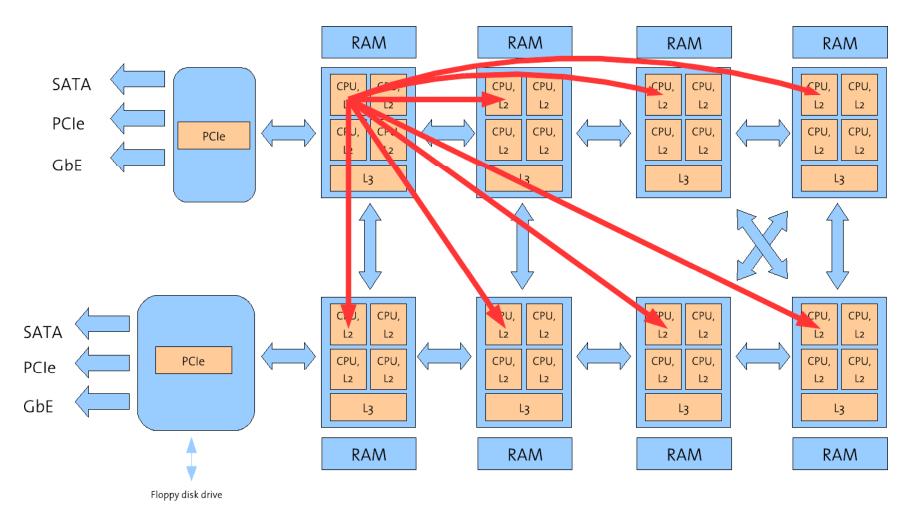


Raw messaging cost

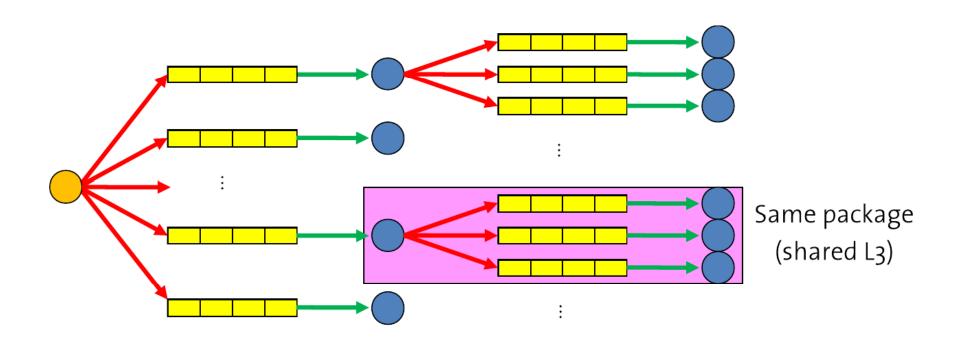




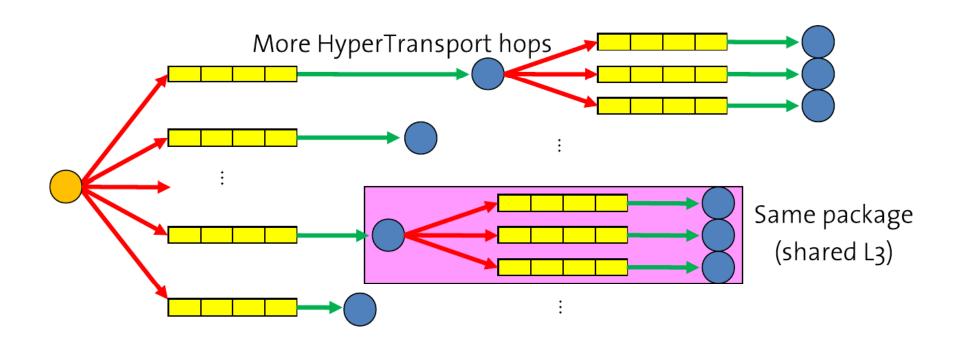






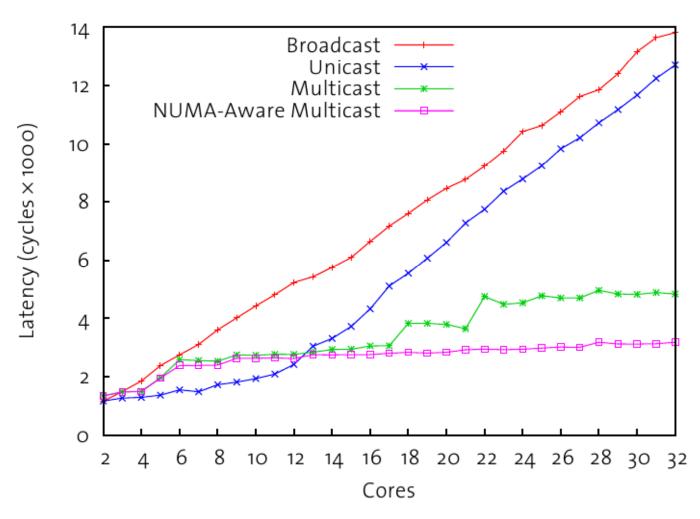






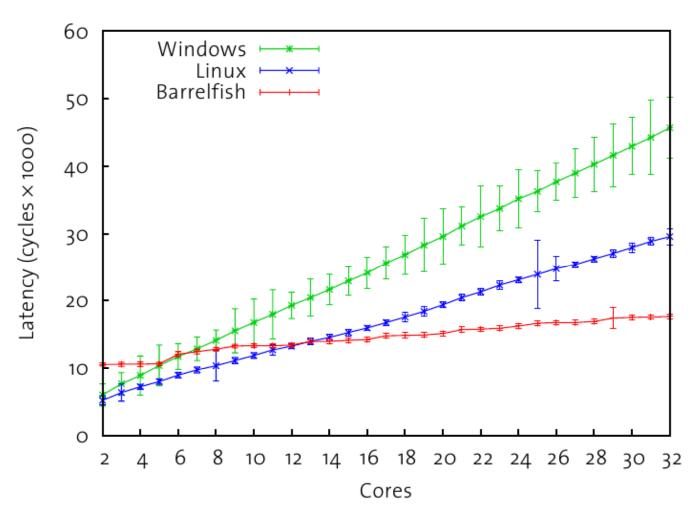












Summary



- Different approaches:
 - K42: an OS where it is easy to introduce local data structures
 - Barrelfish: the OS as a message-passing distributed system
- Compare:
 - K42: replicas as optimization of sharing
 - Barrelfish: local sharing as optimization of replicas
- Common ground:
 - Minimizing shared data
 - Increasing locality

References



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Additional material: Disco

Disco

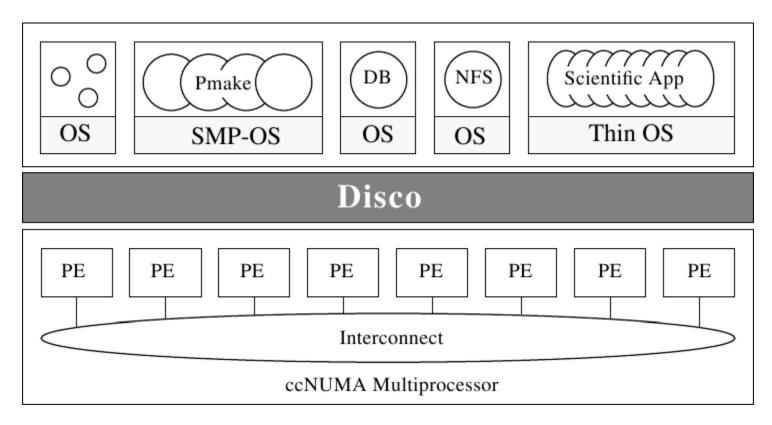


Running commodity OSes on scalable multiprocessors [Bugnion et al., 1997]

- Context: ca. 1995, large ccNUMA multiprocessors appearing
- Problem: scaling OSes to run efficiently on these was hard
 - Extensive modification of OS required
 - Complexity of OS makes this expensive
 - Availability of software and OSes trailing hardware
- Idea: implement a scalable VMM, run multiple OS instances
- VMM has most of the features of a scalable OS, e.g.:
 - NUMA-aware allocator
 - Page replication, remapping, etc.
- VMM substantially simpler/cheaper to implement
- Run multiple (smaller) OS images, for different applications







[Bugnion et al., 1997]

Disco Contributions



- First project to revive an old idea: virtualization
 - New way to work around shortcomings of commodity Oses
 - Much of the paper focuses on efficient VM implementation
 - Authors went on to found VMware
- Another interesting (but largely unexplored) idea:
 programming a single machine as a distributed system
 - Example: parallel make, two configurations:
 - Run an 8-CPU IRIX instance
 - 2. Run 8 IRIX VMs on Disco, one with an NFS server
 - Speedup for case 2, despite VM and vNIC overheads