CSE 380 Computer Operating Systems

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University of Pennsylvania Fall 2003

Lecture Notes: Multiprocessors (updated version)

Announcement

- Colloq by Dennis Ritchie
 - "UNIX and Beyond: Themes of Operating Systems Research at Bell Labs,"
 - 4:30 pm, Wednesday, November 12
 - Wu-Chen Auditorium
- Written Assignment will be post later today

Systems with Multiple CPUs

- ☐ Collection of independent CPUs (or computers) that appears to the users/applications as a single system
- ☐ Technology trends
 - Powerful, yet cheap, microprocessors
 - Advances in communications
 - Physical limits on computing power of a single CPU
- Examples
 - Network of workstations
 - Servers with multiple processors
 - Network of computers of a company
 - Microcontrollers inside a car

Advantages

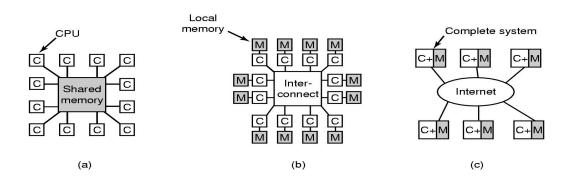
- Data sharing: allows many users to share a common data base
- Resource sharing: expensive devices such as a color printer
- Parallelism and speed-up: multiprocessor system can have more computing power than a mainframe
- Better price/performance ratio than mainframes
- □ Reliability: Fault-tolerance can be provided against crashes of individual machines
- ☐ Flexibility: spread the workload over available machines
- Modular expandability: Computing power can be added in small increments (upgrading CPUs like memory)

Design Issues

- ☐ Transparency: How to achieve a single-system image
 - How to hide distribution of memory from applications?
 - How to maintain consistency of data?
- Performance
 - How to exploit parallelism?
 - How to reduce communication delays?
- Scalability: As more components (say, processors) are added, performance should not degrade
 - Centralized schemes (e.g. broadcast messages) don't work
- Security

Classification

- Multiprocessors
 - Multiple CPUs with shared memory
 - Memory access delays about 10 50 nsec
- Multicomputers
 - Multiple computers, each with own CPU and memory, connected by a highspeed interconnect
 - Tightly coupled with delays in micro-seconds
- Distributed Systems
 - Loosely coupled systems connected over Local Area Network (LAN), or even long-haul networks such as Internet
 - Delays can be seconds, and unpredictable



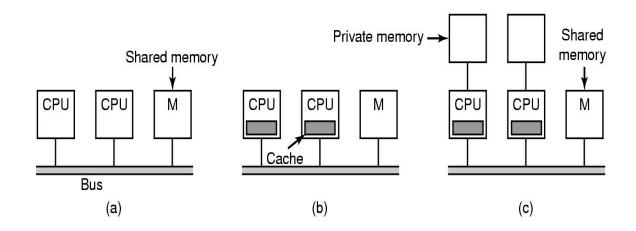
Mutiprocessors

Multiprocessor Systems

- Multiple CPUs with a shared memory
- ☐ From an application's perspective, difference with singleprocessor system need not be visible
 - Virtual memory where pages may reside in memories associated with other CPUs
 - Applications can exploit parallelism for speed-up
- Topics to cover
 - 1. Multiprocessor architectures (Section 8.1.1)
 - 2. Cache coherence
 - 3. OS organization (Section 8.1.2)
 - 4. Synchronization (Section 8.1.3)
 - 5. Scheduling (Section 8.1.4)

Multiprocessor Architecture

- ☐ UMA (Uniform Memory Access)
 - Time to access each memory word is the same
 - Bus-based UMA
 - CPUs connected to memory modules through switches
- NUMA (Non-uniform memory access)
 - Memory distributed (partitioned among processors)
 - Different access times for local and remote accesses



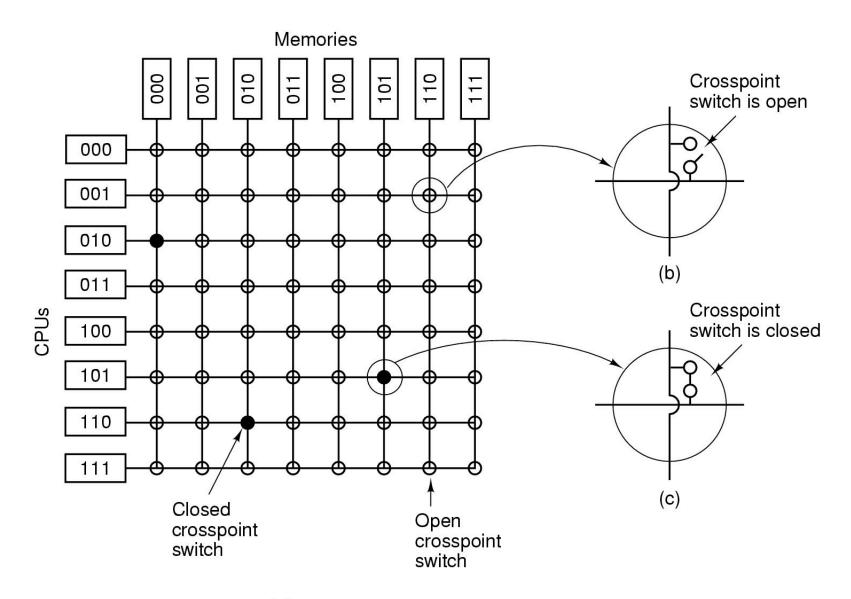
Bus-based UMA

- All CPUs and memory module connected over a shared bus
- ☐ To reduce traffic, each CPU also has a cache
- Key design issue: how to maintain coherency of data that appears in multiple places?
- Each CPU can have a local memory module also that is not shared with others
- Compilers can be designed to exploit the memory structure
- □ Typically, such an architecture can support 16 or 32 CPUs as a common bus is a bottleneck (memory access not parallelized)

Switched UMA

- Goal: To reduce traffic on bus, provide multiple connections between CPUs and memory units so that many accesses can be concurrent
- Crossbar Switch: Grid with horizontal lines from CPUs and vertical lines from memory modules
- Crossbar at (i,j) can connect i-th CPU with j-th memory module
- As long as different processors are accessing different modules, all requests can be in parallel
- Non-blocking: waiting caused only by contention for memory, but not for bus
- Disadvantage: Too many connections (quadratic)
- Many other networks: omega, counting, ...

Crossbar Switch



(a)

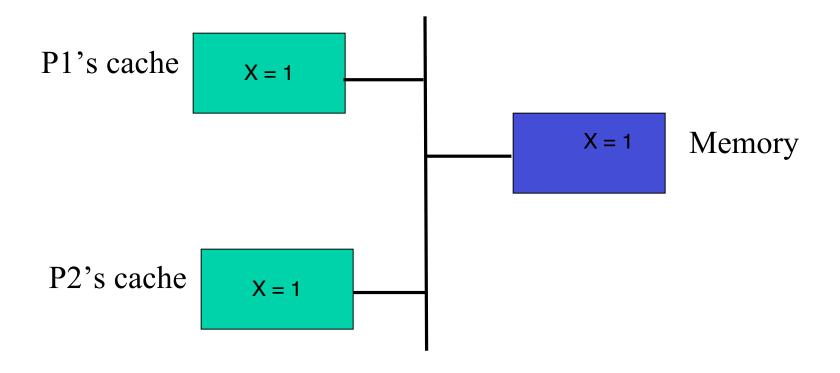
Cache Coherence

- Many processors can have locally cached copies of the same object
 - Level of granularity can be an object or a block of 64 bytes
- We want to maximize concurrency
 - If many processors just want to read, then each one can have a local copy, and reads won't generate any bus traffic
- We want to ensure coherence
 - If a processor writes a value, then all subsequent reads by other processors should return the latest value
- Coherence refers to a logically consistent global ordering of reads and writes of multiple processors
- Modern multiprocessors support intricate schemes

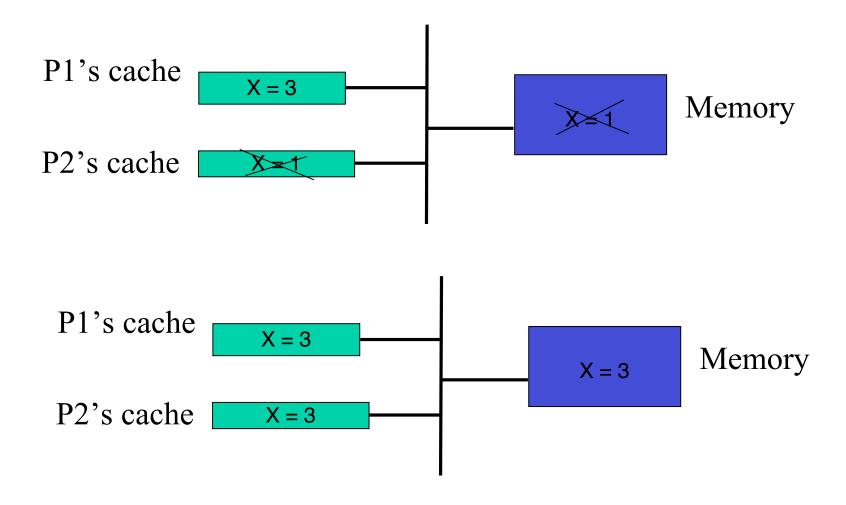
Consistency and replication

- ☐ Need to replicate (cache) to improve performance
 - How updates are propagated between cached replicas
 - How to keep them consistent
- □ How to keep them consistency (much more complicated than sequential processor)
 - When a processor change the vale value of its copy of a variable,
 - the other copies are invalidated (invalidate protocol), or
 - the other copies are updated (update protocol).

Example



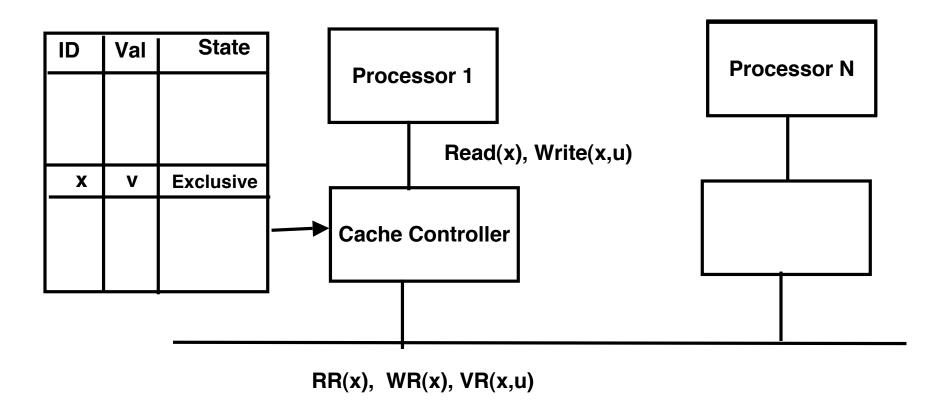
Invalidate vs. update protocols



Snoopy Protocol

- Each processor, for every cached object, keeps a state that can be **Invalid**, **Exclusive** or **Read-only**
- Goal: If one has **Exclusive** copy then all others must be **Invalid**
- Each processor issues three types of messages on bus
 - Read-request (**RR**), Write-request (**WR**), and Value-response (**VR**)
 - Each message identifies object, and VR has a tagged value
- Assumption:
 - If there is contention for bus then only one succeeds
 - No split transactions (RR will have a response by VR)
- Protocol is called Snoopy, because everyone is listening to the bus all the time, and updates state in response to messages **RR** and **WR**
- ☐ Each cache controller responds to 4 types of events
 - Read or write operation issued by its processor
 - Messages (RR, WR, or VR) observed on the bus
- ☐ Caution: This is a simplified version

Snoopy Cache Coherence



Snoopy Protocol

- ☐ If state is **Read-only**
 - Read operation: return local value
 - Write operation: Broadcast **WR** message on bus, update state to **Exclusive**, and update local value
 - WR message on bus: update state to Invalid
 - RR message on bus: broadcast VR(v) on bus
- If state is Exclusive
 - Read operation: return local value
 - Write operation: update local value
 - RR message on bus: Broadcast VR(v), and change state to Read-only
 - WR message on bus: update state to Invalid
- ☐ If state is Invalid
 - Read operation: Broadcast RR, Receive VR(v), update state to Read-only, and local value to v
 - Write operation: As in first case
 - VR(v) message on bus: Update state to Read-only, and local copy to v
 - WR message on the bus: do nothing

Sample Scenario for Snoopy

☐ Assume 3 processors P1, P2, P3. One object *x* : int Initially, P1's entry for x is invalid, P2's entry is Exclusive with value 3, and P3's entry is invalid ■ A process running on P3 issues Read(x) P3 sends the message RR(x) on the bus P2 updates its entry to Read-only, and sends the message VR(x,3) on the bus P3 updates its entry to Read-only, records the value 3 in the cache, and returns the value 3 to Read(x) ☐ P1 also updates the x-entry to (Read-Only, 3) Now, if Read(x) is issued on any of the processors, no messages will be exchanged, and the corresponding processor will just return value 3 by a local look-up □ P1: x=(inv,-) ... x=(ro,3)X=(ro,3); VR(x,3);□ P2: x=(exc,3) ...

x=(ro,3),return(x,3)

P3: x=(inv,-) ... Read(x); RR(x); ...

Snoopy Scenario (Continued)

- ☐ Suppose a process running on P1 issues Write(x,0)
- At the same time, a process running on P2 issues Write(x,2)
- P1 will try to send WR on the bus, as well as P2 will try to send WR on the bus
- ☐ Only one of them succeeds, say, P1 succeeds
- □ P1 will update cache-entry to (Exclusive,0)
- P3 will update cache-entry to Invalid
- P2 will update cache-entry to Invalid
- Now, Read / Write operations by processes on P1 will use local copy, and won't generate any messages
- P1: Write(x,0); WR(x); x=(ex,0)
- \square P2: Write(x,2); WR(x); x=(inv,-)
- □ P3: ... x=(inv,-)

Notions of consistency

☐ Strict consistency: any read on a data item x returns a value corresponding to the result of the most recent write on x (need absolute global time)

```
• P1: w(x)a P1: w(x)a
```

• P2: r(x)a P2: r(x)NIL r(x)a

Sequential consistency: the result of any execution is the same as if the R/W operations by all processes were executed in some sequential order and the operations of each process appear in this sequence in the order specified by its program

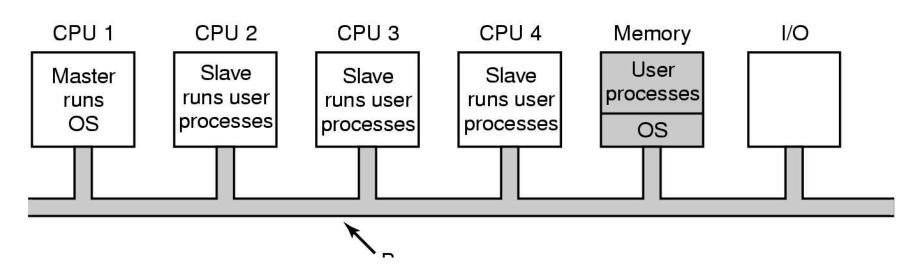
```
    P1: w(x)a
    P2: w(x)b
    P3: r(x)b r(x)a
    P4: r(x,b) r(x,a)
    P4: r(x)a
```

Multiprocessor OS

- How should OS software be organized?
- OS should handle allocation of processes to processors.
 Challenge due to shared data structures such as process tables and ready queues
- OS should handle disk I/O for the system as a whole
- Two standard architectures
 - Master-slave
 - Symmetric multiprocessors (SMP)

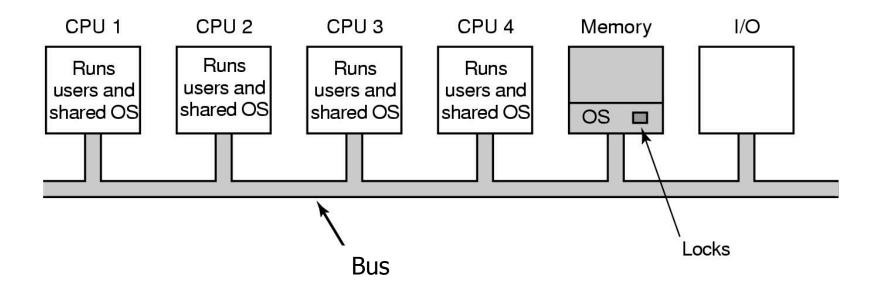
Master-Slave Organization

- Master CPU runs kernel, all others run user processes
- Only one copy of all OS data structures
- All system calls handled by master CPU
- Problem: Master CPU can be a bottleneck



Symmetric Multiprocessing (SMP)

- Only one kernel space, but OS can run on any CPU
- Whenever a user process makes a system call, the same CPU runs OS to process it
- ☐ Key issue: Multiple system calls can run in parallel on different CPUs
 - Need locks on all OS data structures to ensure mutual exclusion for critical updates
- Design issue: OS routines should have independence so that level of granularity for locking gives good performance



Synchronization

- □ Recall: Mutual exclusion solutions to protect critical regions involving updates to shared data structures
- Classical single-processor solutions
 - Disable interrupts
 - Powerful instructions such as Test&Set (TSL)
 - Software solution such as Peterson's algorithm
- In multiprocessor setting, competing processes can all be OS routines (e.g., to update process table)
- Disabling interrupts is not relevant as there are multiple CPUs
- ☐ TSL can be used, but requires modification

Original Solution using TSL

```
Shared variable: lock : {0,1}
lock==1 means some process is in CS
Initially lock is 0
Code for process P0 as well as P1:
while (TRUE) {
  try: TSL X, lock /* test-and-set lock */
  if (X!=0) goto try; /*retry if lock set*/
  CS();
  lock = 0; /* reset the lock */
 Non CS();
```

TSL solution for multi-processors

- ☐ TSL involves testing and setting memory, this can require 2 memory accesses
 - Not a problem to implement this in single-processor system
- Now, bus must be locked to avoid split transaction
 - Bus provides a special line for locking
- A process that fails to acquire lock checks repeatedly issuing more TSL instructions
 - Requires Exclusive access to memory block
 - Cache coherence protocol would generate lots of traffic
- ☐ Goal: To reduce number of checks
 - 1. Exponential back-off: instead of constant polling, check only after delaying (1, 2, 4, 8 instructions)
 - 2. Maintain a list of processes waiting to acquire lock.

Busy-Waiting vs Process switch

- □ In single-processors, if a process is waiting to acquire lock,
 OS schedules another ready process
- ☐ This may not be optimal for multiprocessor systems
 - If OS itself is waiting to acquire ready list, then switching impossible
 - Switching may be possible, but involves acquiring locks, and thus, is expensive
- □ OS must decide whether to switch (choice between spinning and switching)
 - spinning wastes CPU cycles
 - switching uses up CPU cycles also
 - possible to make separate decision each time locked mutex encountered

Multiprocessors: Summary

- Set of processors connected over a bus with shared memory modules
- Architecture of bus and switches important for efficient memory access
- Caching essential; to manage multiple caches, cache coherence protocol necessary (e.g. Snoopy)
- Symmetric Multiprocessing (SMP) allows OS to run on different CPUs concurrently
- Synchronization issues: OS components work on shared data structures
 - TSL based solution to ensure mutual exclusion
 - Spin locks (i.e. busy waiting) with exponential backoff to reduce bus traffic

Scheduling

- Recall: Standard scheme for single-processor scheduling
 - Make a scheduling decision when a process blocks/exits or when a clock interrupt happens indicating end of time quantum
 - Scheduling policy needed to pick among ready processes, e.g.
 multi-level priority (queues for each priority level)
- In multiprocessor system, scheduler must pick among ready processes and also a CPU
- □ Natural scheme: when a process executing on CPU k finishes or blocks or exceeds its time quantum, then pick a ready process according to scheduling policy and assign it to CPU k. But this ignores many issues...

Issues for Multiprocessor Scheduling

- If a process is holding a lock, it is unwise to switch it even if time quantum expires
- Locality issues
 - If a process p is assigned to CPU k, then CPU k may hold memory blocks relevant to p in its cache, so p should be assigned to CPU k whenever possible
 - If a set of threads/processes communicate with one another then it is advantageous to schedule them together

Solutions

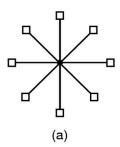
- Space sharing by allocating CPUs in partitions
- Gang scheduling: scheduling related threads in same time slots

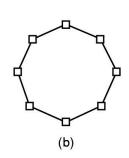
Multicomputers

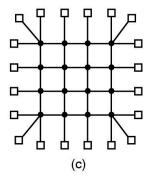
Multicomputers

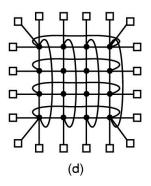
- Definition:
 - Tightly-coupled CPUs that do not share memory
- □ Communication by high-speed interconnect via messages
- Also known as
 - cluster computers
 - clusters of workstations (COWs)

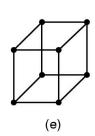
Clusters

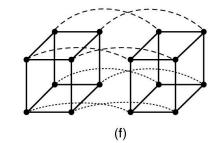












☐ Interconnection topologies

- (a) single switch
- (d) double torus

(b) ring

(e) cube

(c) grid

(f) Hypercube (2**d, d is dimeter)

Switching Schemes

- Messages are transferred in chunks called packets
- Store and forward packet switching
 - Each switch collects bits on input line, assembles the packet, and forwards it towards destination
 - Each switch has a buffer to store packets
 - Delays can be long
- Hot-potato routing: No buffering
 - Necessary for optical communication links
- Circuit switching
 - First establish a path from source to destination
 - Pump bits on the reserved path at a high rate
- Wormhole routing
 - Split packet into subpackets to optimize circuit switching

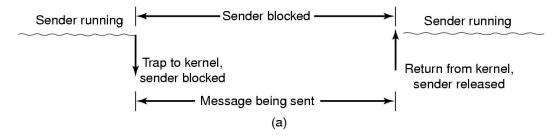
Interprocess Communication

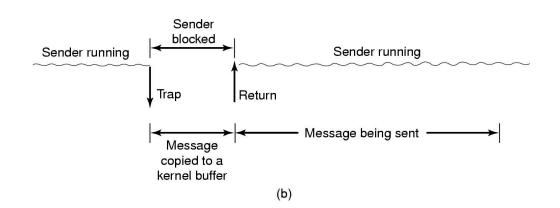
- ☐ How can processes talk to each other on multi-computers?
 - User-level considerations: ease of use etc
 - OS level consideration: efficient implementation
- Message passing
- ☐ Remote procedure calls (RPC)
- ☐ Distributed shared memory (DSM)

Message-based Communication

- Minimum services provided
 - send and receive commands
- These are blocking (synchronous) calls

(a) Blocking send call





(b) Nonblocking send call

User-level Communication Primitives

□ Library Routines

- Send (destination address, buffer containing message)
- Receive (optional source address, buffer to store message)

Design issues

- Blocking vs non-blocking calls
- Should buffers be copied into kernel space?

Blocking vs Non-blocking

- □ Blocking send: Sender process waits until the message is sent
 - Disadvantage: Process has to wait
- ☐ Non-blocking send: Call returns control to sender immediately
 - Buffer must be protected
- □ Possible ways of handling non-blocking send
 - Copy into kernel buffer
 - Interrupt sender upon completion of transmission`
 - Mark the buffer as read-only (at least a page long), copy on write
- ☐ Similar issues for handling receive calls

Buffers and Copying

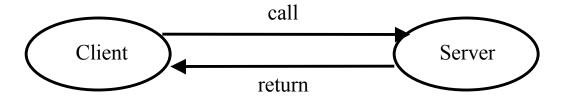
- Network interface card has its own buffers
 - Copy from RAM to sender's card
 - Store-and-forward switches may involve copying
 - Copy from receiver's card to RAM
- □ Copying slows down end-to-end communication
 - Copying not an issue in disk I/O due to slow speed
- □ Additional problem: should message be copied from sender process buffer to kernel space?
 - User pages can be swapped out
- Typical solutions
 - Programmed I/O for small packets
 - DMA for large messages with disabling of page replacement

The Problem with Messages

- Messages are flexible, but
- ☐ They are not a natural programming model
 - Programmers have to worry about message formats
 - messages must be packed and unpacked
 - messages have to be decoded by server to figure out what is requested
 - messages are often asynchronous
 - they may require special error handling functions

Remote Procedure Call

- ☐ Procedure call is a more natural way to communicate
 - every language supports it
 - semantics are well defined and understood
 - natural for programmers to use
- ☐ Basic idea of RPC (Remote Procedure Call)
 - define a server as a module that *exports* a set of procedures that can be called by client programs.



A brief history of RPC

- ☐ Birrell and Nelson in 1980, based on work done at Xerox PARC.
- ☐ Similar idea used in RMI, CORBA or COM standards
- ☐ Core of many client-server systems
- ☐ Transparency is to goal!

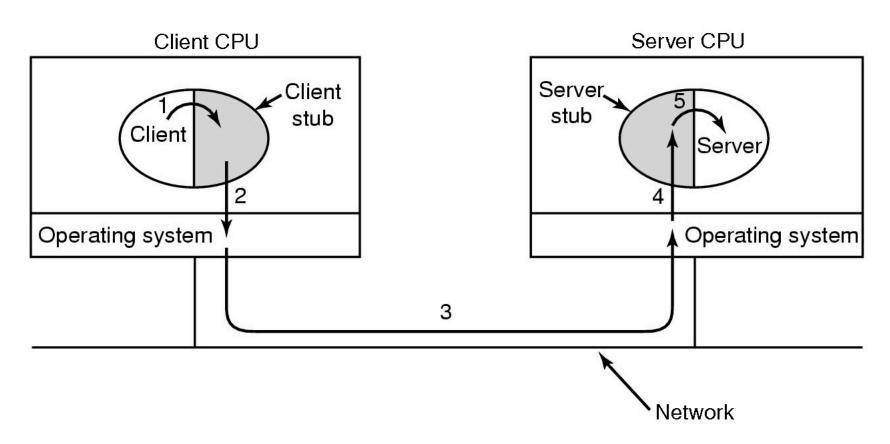
Remote Procedure Call

- ☐ Use procedure call as a model for distributed communication
- ☐ RPCs can offer a good programming abstraction to hide low-level communication details
- ☐ Goal make RPC look as much like local PC as possible
- Many issues:
 - how do we make this invisible to the programmer?
 - what are the semantics of parameter passing?
 - how is binding done (locating the server)?
 - how do we support heterogeneity (OS, arch., language)?
 - how to deal with failures?
 - etc.

Steps in Remote Procedure Calls

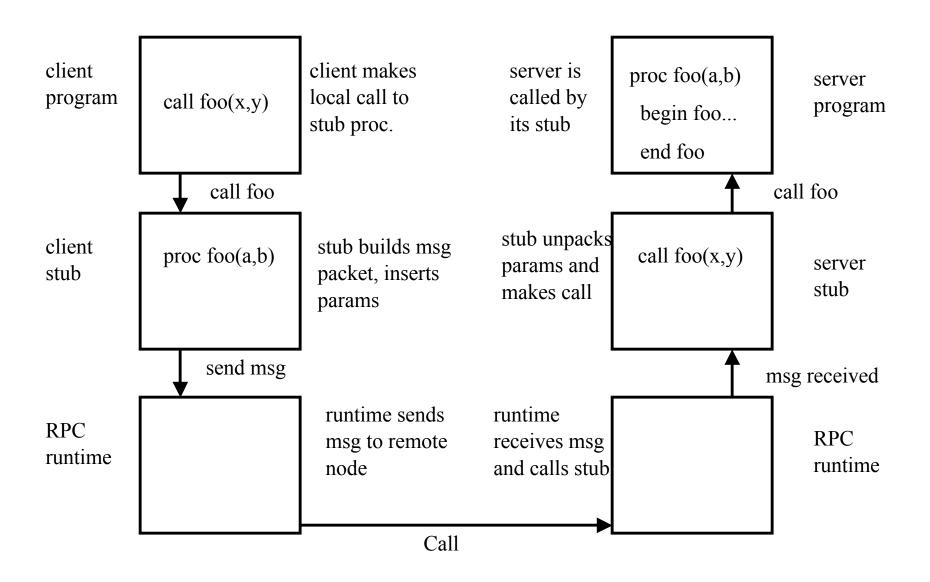
- ☐ There are 3 components on each side:
 - a user program (client or server)
 - a set of *stub* procedures
 - RPC runtime support
- ☐ Steps in RPC
 - Client invokes a library routine called client stub, possibly with parameters
 - Client stub generates a message to be sent: parameter marshaling
 - Kernels on client and server handle communication
 - Receiver kernel calls server stub
 - Server stub unpacks parameters and invokes server routine

Remote Procedure Call

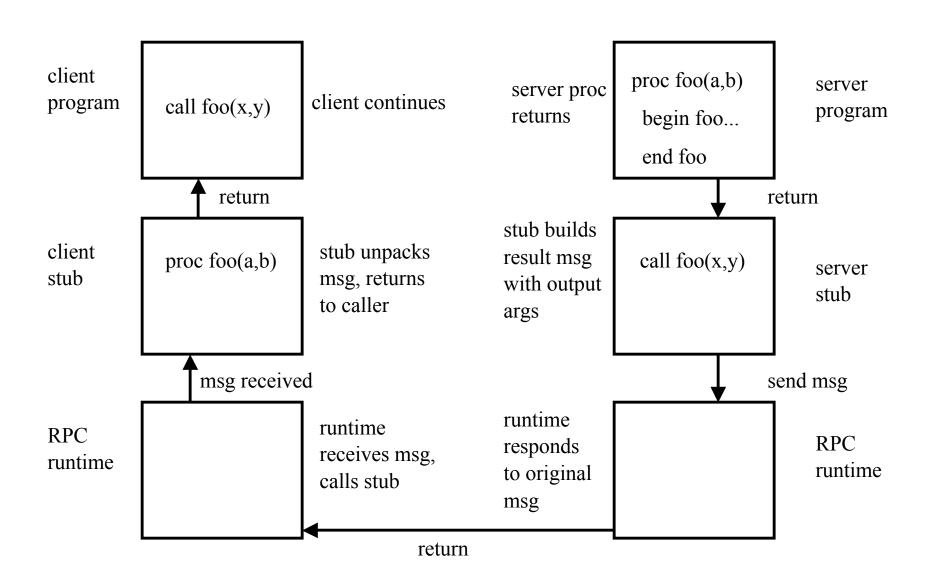


- ☐ Steps in making a remote procedure call
 - the stubs are shaded gray

RPC Call Structure



RPC Return Structure



RPC Stubs

- ☐ A client-side stub is a procedure that looks to the client as if it were a callable server procedure.
- ☐ A server-side stub looks to the server as if it's a calling client.
- The stubs send messages to each other to make the RPC happen.
- □ Server program defines the server's interface using an interface definition language (IDL)
 - Define names, parameters, and types
- ☐ A *stub compiler* reads the IDL and produces <u>two</u> stub procedures for each server procedure
- ☐ The server program links it with the server-side stubs; the client program links with the client-side stubs.

RPC Parameter Marshalling

- ☐ The packing of procedure parameters into a message packet.
- ☐ The RPC stubs call type-specific procedures to marshall (or unmarshall) all of the parameters to the call.
- ☐ Representation needs to deal with byte ordering issues
 - Different data representatin (ASCII, UNICODE, EBCDIC)
 - big-endian (bytes from left to rigth, Intel) versus little-endian (bytes from right to left, SPARC)
 - strings (some CPUs require padding)
 - alignment, etc.
- Parameter passing
 - By value
 - By reference
 - Size limit?

RPC failure semantics

- ☐ A remote procedure call makes a call to a remote service look like a local call
 - RPC makes transparent whether server is local or remote
 - RPC allows applications to become distributed transparently
 - RPC makes architecture of remote machine transparent
- What if there is a failure?
- ☐ Goal: Make RPC behave like local procedure call

Types of failure

- ☐ Cannot locate the server
 - server down
 - version mismatch
 - raise an exception
- ☐ Request message is lost
- ☐ Reply message is lost
- ☐ Server crashes after receiving a request
- ☐ Client crashes after sending a request

Handling message failure

- ☐ request msg is lost
 - use timer and resend request msg
- □ reply msg is lost
 - use timer and resend another request
 - server need to tell whether the request is duplicate unless the request is idempotent
 - make all request idempotent
 - redefine read (fd, buf, n) to read (fd, buf, pos, n)
 - deposit (money) -- not possible to make it idempotent
 - assign request numbers and keep track

Possible semantics to deal with crashes

- Do nothing and leave it up to the user
- ☐ At least once
 - Successful return
 - Executed at lease once.
 - Only for idempotent functions
- At most once
 - Suppress duplicated requests
 - Client
 - Each request has an unique id
 - Server
 - Saves request results
- Exactly once (not possible to implement)

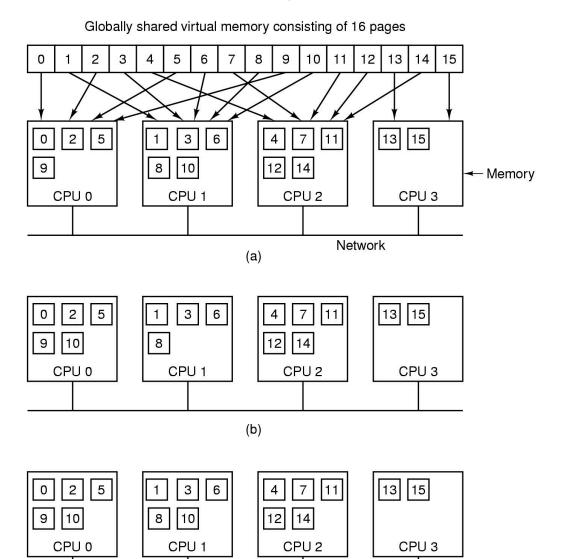
Shared memory vs. message passing

- Message passing
 - better performance
 - know when and what msgs sent: control, knowledge
- Shared memory
 - familiar
 - hides details of communication
 - no need to name receivers or senders, just write to specific memory address and read later
 - caching for "free"
 - porting from centralized system (the original "write once run anywhere")
 - no need to rewrite when adding processs, scales because adds memory for each node
 - Initial implementation correct (agreement is reached at the memory system level), all changes are just optimizations

Distributed Shared Memory (DSM)

Replication

- (a) Pages distributed on 4 machines
- (b) CPU 0 reads page 10
- (c) CPU 1 reads page 10



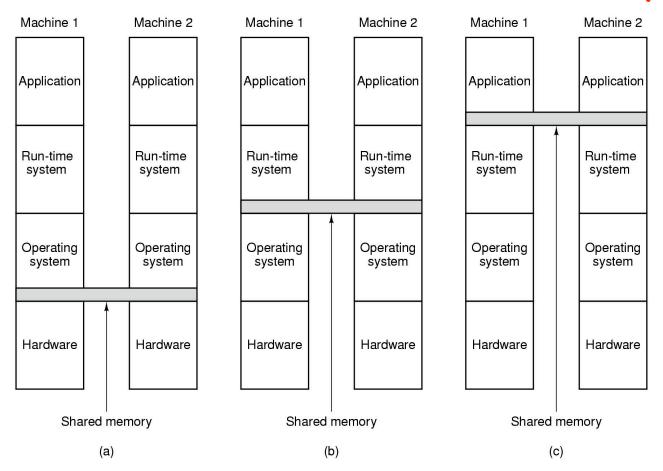
Distributed Shared Memory (DSM)

- ☐ data in shared address space accessed as in traditional VM.
- mapping manager -- maps the shared address space to the physical address space.
- Advantage of DSM
 - no explicit comm. primitives, send and receive, needed in program.
 It is believed to be easier to design and write parallel alg's using DSM
 - complex data structure can be passed by reference.
 - moving page containing the data take advantage of locality and reduce comm. overhead.
 - cheaper to build DSM system than tightly coupled multiprocessor system.
 - scalable -- improved portability of programs written for multiprocessors.

DSM Implementation Issues

- □ Recall: In virtual memory, OS hides the fact that pages may reside in main memory or on disk
- □ Recall: In multiprocessors, there is a single shared memory (possibly virtual) accessed by multiple CPUs. There may be multiple caches, but cache coherency protocols hide this from applications
 - how to make shared data concurrently accessible
- □ DSM: Each machine has its own physical memory, but virtual memory is shared, so pages can reside in any memory or on disk
 - how to keep track of the location of shared data
- ☐ On page fault, OS can fetch the page from remote memory
 - how to overcome comm. delays and protocol overhead when accessing remote data

Distributed Shared Memory



- Note layers where it can be implemented
 - hardware
 - operating system
 - user-level software

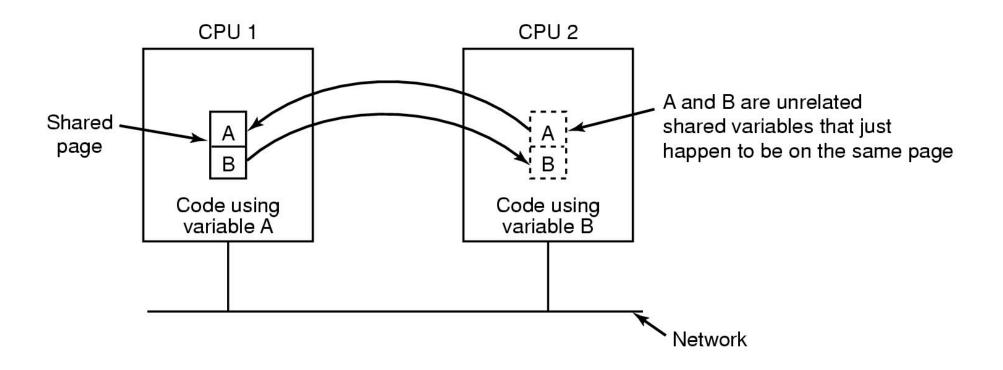
Some Implementation Details

- Every computer has its own page-table
- If accessed page is not in memory, then message sent to lookup where it resides, and the page is fetched
 - The client-server algorithm
 - The migration algorithm
- Replication used to reduce the traffic
 - The read-replication algorithm
 - The full-replication algorithm
- □ As in cache coherence for multiple caches in a multiprocessor system, a page can reside on multiple computers with read-only flag set
- ☐ To write a page other copies must be invalidated
- □ False sharing: No variables actually shared, but they may reside on the same page
 - Compiler should make an effort to avoid this

Cache/Memory Coherence and Consistency

- □ Coherence: every cache/CPU must have a coherent view of memory
 - If P writes X to A, then reads A, if no other proc writes A, then P reads X
 - If P1 writes X to A, and no other processor writes to A, then P2 will eventually read X from A.
 - If P1 writes X to A, and P2 writes Y to A, then *every* processor will either read X then Y, or Y then X, but all will see the writes in the same order.
- □ Consistency: memory consistency model tells us when writes to *different* locations will be seen by readers.

False sharing in DSM



- ☐ False Sharing
- ☐ Must also achieve sequential consistency

Load Balancing

- ☐ In a multicomputer setting, system must determine assignment of processes to machines
- ☐ Formulation as an optimization problem:
 - Each process has estimated CPU and memory requirements
 - For every pair of processes, there is an estimated traffic
- ☐ Goal: Given k machines, cluster the processes into k clusters such that
 - Traffic between clusters is minimized
 - Aggregate memory/CPU requirements of processes within each cluster are evenly balanced (or are below specified limits)

Algorithms for Load Balancing

- ☐ Finding optimal allocation is computationally expensive
 - NP-hard (must try all possible combinations in the worst case)
 - Must settle for greedy heuristics that perform well
- Dynamic adaptation schemes
 - Sender Initiated Schemes
 - Assign processes by default choices
 - If one machine senses overload, probe others for help
 - If load is low, respond to probes, and accept process migration
 - Receiver Initiated Schemes
 - When load is low, probe other machines if they are loaded with processes
 - Probe traffic does not degrade performance during overload