Data Processing on Modern Hardware

Jens Teubner, TU Dortmund, DBIS Group jens.teubner@cs.tu-dortmund.de

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Part V

Execution on Multiple Cores

Example: Star Joins

Task: run parallel instances of the query (\nearrow introduction)

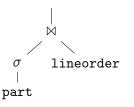
```
dimension

SELEC'1 SUM(lo_revenue) fact table

FROM part, lineorder

WHERE p_partkey = lo_partkey

AND p_category <= 5
```

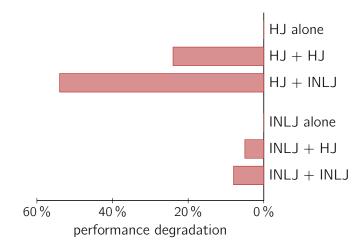


To implement ⋈ use either

- a hash join or
- an index nested loops join.

Execution on "Independent" CPU Cores

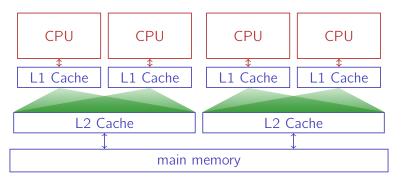
Co-run independent instances on different CPU cores.



Concurrent queries may seriously affect each other's performance.

Shared Caches

In Intel Core 2 Quad systems, two cores share an L2 Cache:

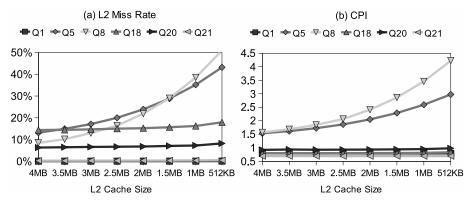


What we saw was cache pollution.

→ How can we avoid this cache pollution?

Cache Sensitivity

Dependence on cache sizes for some TPC-H queries:



Some queries are more sensitive to cache sizes than others.

- **cache sensitive:** hash joins
- **cache insensitive:** index nested loops joins; hash joins with very small or very large hash table

Locality Strength

This behavior is related to the **locality strength** of execution plans:

Strong Locality

small data structure; reused very frequently

■ e.g., small hash table

Moderate Locality

frequently reused data structure; data structure \approx cache size

■ *e.g.*, moderate-sized hash table

Weak Locality

data not reused frequently or data structure ≫ cache size

■ *e.g.*, large hash table; index lookups

Execution Plan Characteristics

Locality effects how caches are used:

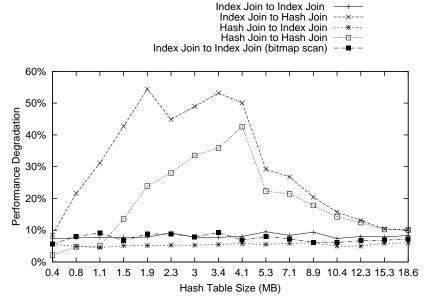
	cache pollution	strong	moderate	weak
amount of cache used		small	large	large
aı	mount of cache needed	small	large	small

Plans with weak locality have most severe impact on co-running queries.

Impact of co-runner on query:

	strong	moderate	weak
strong	low	moderate	high
moderate	moderate	high	high
weak	low	low	low

Experiments: Locality Strength



Locality-Aware Scheduling

An optimizer could use knowledge about localities to **schedule** queries.

- **Estimate** locality during query analysis.
 - Index nested loops join → weak locality
 - Hash join:

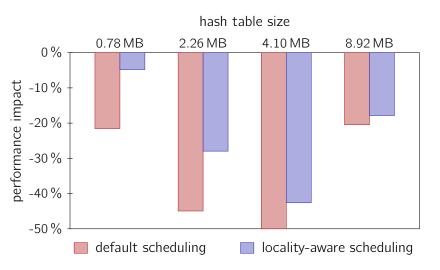
```
hash table \ll cache size \rightarrow strong locality
hash table \approx cache size \rightarrow moderate locality
hash table \gg cache size \rightarrow weak locality
```

■ Co-schedule queries to minimize (the impact of) cache pollution.

Which queries should be co-scheduled, which ones not?

- Only run weak-locality queries next to weak-locality queries.
 - ightarrow They cause high pollution, but are not affected by pollution.
- Try to co-schedule queries with small hash tables.

PostgreSQL; 4 queries (different $p_{categorys}$); for each query: $2 \times$ hash join plan, $2 \times$ INLJ plan; impact reported for hash joins:

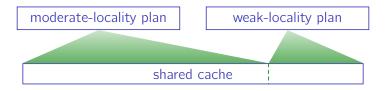


ource: Lee et al. VLDB 200

Cache Pollution

Weak-locality plans cause cache pollution, because they **use** much cache space even though they do not strictly **need** it.

By **partitioning** the cache we could reduce pollution with little impact on the weak-locality plan.



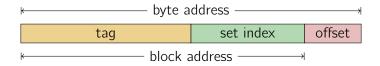
But:

Cache allocation controlled by hardware.

Cache Organization

Remember how caches are organized:

■ The **physical address** of a memory block determines the **cache set** into which it could be loaded.



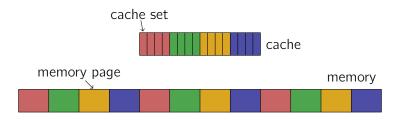
Thus,

We can influence hardware behavior by the choice of physical memory allocation.

Page Coloring

The address \leftrightarrow cache set relationship inspired the idea of **page colors**.

- Each memory page is assigned a **color**.⁵
- Pages that map to the same cache sets get the same color.



How many colors are there in a typical system?

⁵Memory is organized in **pages**. A typical **page size** is **4 kB**.

Page Coloring

By using memory only of certain colors, we can effectively restrict the cache region that a query plan uses.

Note that

- Applications (usually) have no control over physical memory.
- Memory allocation and virtual → physical mapping are handled by the operating system.
- We need OS support to achieve our desired cache partitioning.

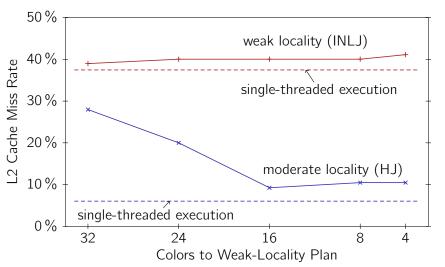
MCC-DB: Kernel-Assisted Cache Sharing

MCC-DB ("Minimizing Cache Conflicts"):

- Modified Linux 2.6.20 kernel
 - Support for **32 page colors** (4 MB L2 Cache: 128 kB per color)
 - Color specification file for each process (may be modified by application at any time)
- Modified instance of PostgreSQL
 - Four colors for regular buffer pool
 - Implications on buffer pool size (16 GB main memory)?
 - For **strong- and moderate-locality** queries, allocate colors as needed (*i.e.*, as estimated by query optimizer)

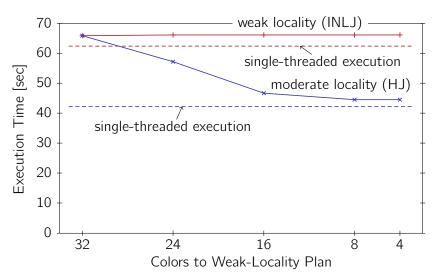
Experiments

Moderate-locality hash join and weak-locality co-runner (INLJ):



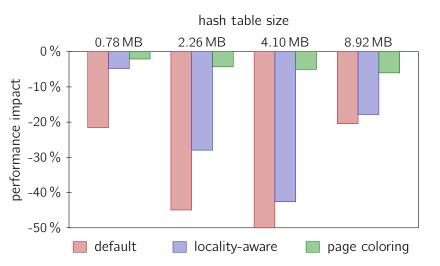
Experiments

Moderate-locality hash join and weak-locality co-runner (INLJ):



Experiments: MCC-DB

PostgreSQL; 4 queries (different $p_{categorys}$); for each query: $2 \times hash$ join plan, $2 \times INLJ$ plan; impact reported for hash joins:



Building a Shared-Memory Multiprocessor

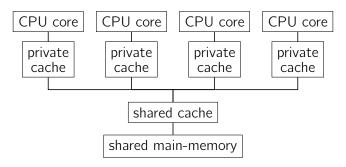
What the programmer likes to think of. . .

```
CPU core CPU core CPU core shared main-memory
```

Scalability? Moore's Law?

Centralized Shared-Memory Multiprocessor

Caches help mitigate the bandwidth bottleneck(s).



- A shared bus connects CPU cores and memory.
 - \rightarrow the shared bus may or may not be shared physically.
- The Intel Core architecture, *e.g.*, implemented this design.

Centralized Shared-Memory Multiprocessor

The shared bus design with caches makes sense:

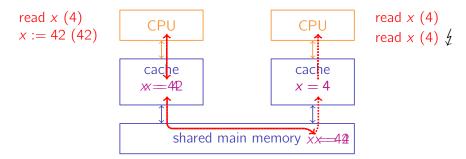
- + **symmetric design**; uniform access time for every memory item from every processor
- + private data gets cached locally
 - → behavior identical to that of a uniprocessor
 - ? shared data will be replicated to private caches
 - → Okay for parallel reads.
 - → But what about writes to the replicated data?
 - → In fact, we'll want to use memory as a mechanism to communicate between processors.

The approach does have **limitations**, too:

 For large core counts, shared bus may still be a (bandwidth) bottleneck.

Caches and Shared Memory

Caching/replicating shared data can cause problems:



Challenges:

- Need well-defined semantics for such scenarios.
- Must **efficiently implement** that semantics.

Cache Coherence

The desired property (semantics) is **cache coherence**.

Most importantly:⁶

Writes to the **same location** are **serialized**; two writes to the same location (by any two processors) are seen in the same order by all processors.

Note:

- We did not specify **which** order will be seen by the processors.
 - \rightarrow \otimes Why?

 $^{^6}$ We also demand that a read by processor P will return P's most recent write, provided that no other processor has written to the same location meanwhile. Also, every write must be visible by other processors after some time.

Cache Coherence Protocol

Multiprocessor (or multicore) systems maintain coherence through a cache coherence protocol.

Idea:

- Know which cache/memory holds the current value of the item.
- Other replicas might be stale.

Two alternatives:

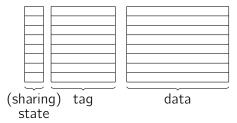
- Snooping-Based Coherence
 - → All processors communicate to agree on item states.
- Directory-Based Coherence
 - → A centralized **directory** holds information about state/whereabouts of data items.

Snooping-Based Cache Coherence

Rationale:

- All processors have access to a shared bus.
- Can snoop on the bus to track other processors' activities.

Use to track the **sharing state** of each cached item:



Meta data for each cache block:

- (sharing) state
- block identification (tag)

Ignoring Multiprocessors for a moment, which state information might make sense to keep?

Strategy 1: Write Update Protocol

Idea:

- On every write, propagate the write to every copy.
 - → Use bus to **broadcast writes**.⁷
- Pros/Cons of this strategy?

⁷The protocol is thus also called *write broadcast* protocol.

Strategy 2: Write Invalidate Protocol

Idea:

■ Before writing an item, invalidate all other copies.

Activity	Bus	Cache A	Cache B	Memory
				x = 4
A reads x	cache miss for x	x = 4		x = 4
B reads x	cache miss for x	x = 4	x = 4	x = 4
A reads x	(cache hit)	x = 4	x = 4	x = 4
B writes x	invalidate x	$\not\Join \not\models \not\mid \not A$	x = 42	$x = 4^{8}$
A reads x	cache miss for x	x = 42	x = 42	x = 42

- → Caches will re-fetch invalidated items automatically.
 - Since the bus is shared, other caches may answer "cache miss" messages (~> necessary for write-back caches).

⁸With write-through caches, memory will be updated immediately.

Write Invalidate—Realization

Realization:

- To invalidate, broadcast address on bus.
- All processors continuously snoop on bus:
 - invalidate message for address held in own cache
 - \rightarrow Invalidate own copy
 - miss message for address held in own cache
 - → Reply with own copy (for write-back caches)
 - ightarrow Memory will see this and abort its own read
- What if two processors try to write at the same time?

Write Invalidate—Tracking Sharing States

Through snooping, can monitor all bus activities by all processors.

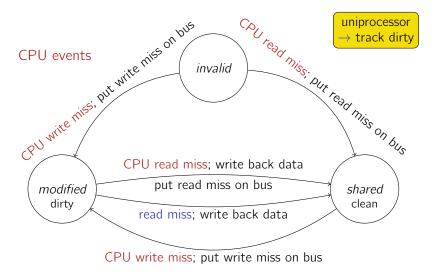
 \rightarrow Track sharing state.

Idea:

- Sending an invalidate will make local copy the only one valid.
 - \rightarrow Mark local cache line as *modified* (\approx *exclusive*).
- If a local cache line is already modified, writes need not be announced on the bus (no invalidate message).
- Upon read request by other processor:
 - → If local cache line has state modified, answer the request by sending local version.
 - → Change local cache state to shared.

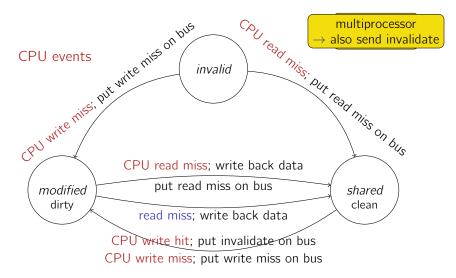
Write Invalidate—State Machine

Local caches track sharing states using a **state machine**.



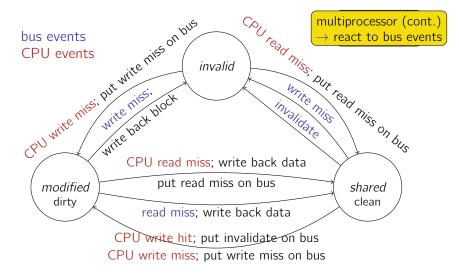
Write Invalidate—State Machine

Local caches track sharing states using a **state machine**.



Write Invalidate—State Machine

Local caches track sharing states using a **state machine**.



Write Invalidate—Notes

Notes:

- Because of the three states *modified*, *shared*, and *invalid*, the protocol on the previous slide is also called **MSI protocol**.
- The Write Invalidate protocol ensures that any valid cache block is either
 - in the shared state in one or more caches or
 - in the modified state in exactly one cache.
 (Any transition to the modified state invalidates all other copies of the block; whenever another cache fetches a copy of the block, the modified state is left.)
- The *MSI* protocol also ensures that every *shared* item has also been written back to memory.

MSI Protocol—Extensions

Actual systems often use **extensions** to the MSI protocol, e.g.,

MESI (*E* for *exclusive*)

- Distinguish between *exclusive* (but clean) and *modified* (which implies that the copy is exclusive).
- Optimizes the (common) case when an item is first read (~ exclusive) then modified (~ modified).

MESIF (*F* for *forward*)

- In M(E)SI, if shared items are served by caches (not only by memory), **all** caches might answer miss requests.
- *MESIF* extends the protocol, so at most one *shared* copy of an item is marked as *forward*. Only this cache will respond to misses on the bus.
- Intel i7 employs the *MESIF* protocol.

MSI Protocol—Extensions

MOESI (O for owned)

- owned marks an item that might be outdated in memory; the owner cache is responsible for the item.
- The owner **must** respond to data requests (since main memory might be outdated).
- *MOESI* allows moving around dirty data between caches.
- The AMD Opteron uses the *MOESI* protocol.
- MOESI avoids the need to write every shared cache block back to memory ($\rightsquigarrow \lhd$).

Limitations of a Shared Bus

Limitations of a shared bus:

- Large core counts → high bandwidth.
- Shared buses cannot satisfy bandwidth demands of modern multiprocessor systems.

Therefore:

- Distribute memory
- Communicate through interconnection network

Consequence:

■ Non-uniform memory access (NUMA) characteristics

Bandwidth Demand

E.g., Intel Xeon E7-8880 v3:

- 2.3 GHz clock rate
- 18 cores per chip (36 threads)
- Up to 8 processors per system

Back-of-the-envelope calculation:

- 1 byte per cycle per core → 331 GB/s
- Data-intensive applications might demand much more!

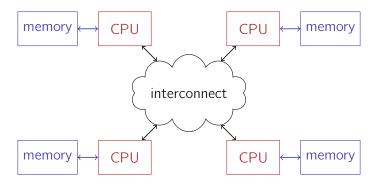
Shared memory bus?

- Modern bus standards can deliver at most a few ten GB/s.
- Switching very high bandwidths is a challenge.

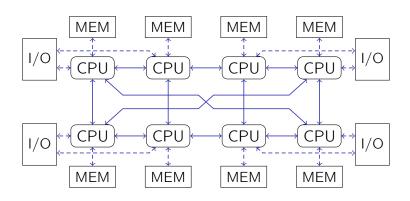
Distributed Shared Memory

Idea: Distribute memory

→ Attach to individual compute nodes



Example: 8-Way Intel Nehalem-EX



- Interconnect: Intel Quick Path Interconnect (QPI)⁹
- Memory may be local, one hop away, or two hops away.
 - → Non-uniform memory access (NUMA)

⁹The AMD counterpart is HyperTransport.

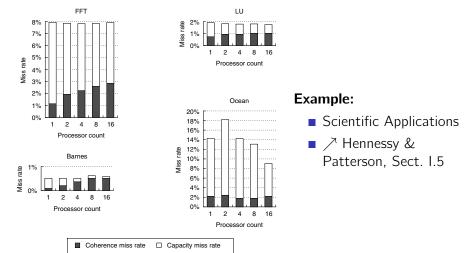
Distributed Memory and Snooping

Idea:

- Extend snooping to distributed memory.
- Broadcast coherence traffic, send data point-to-point.

Problem solved?

Snooping-Based Cache Coherency: Scalability



 \rightarrow AMD Opteron is a system that still uses the approach.

Directory-Based Cache Coherence

To avoid all-broadcast coherence protocol:

- Use a **directory** to keep track of which item is replicated where.
- Direct coherence messages only to those nodes that actually need them.

Directory:

- Either keep a **global directory** (\sim scalability?).
- Or define a home node for each memory address.
 - \rightarrow Home node holds directory for that item.
 - ightarrow Typically: distribute directory along with memory.

Protocol now involves

- directory/-ies (at item home node(s)),
- individual caches (local to processors).

Parties communicate **point-to-point** (no broadcasts).

Directory-Based Cache Coherence

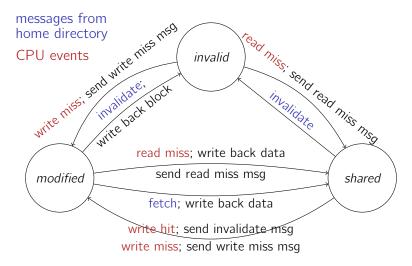
Messages sent by individual nodes:

Message type	Source	Destination	Message contents	Function of this message	
Read miss	Local cache	Home directory	P, A	Node P has a read miss at address A; request data and make P a read sharer.	
Write miss	Local cache	Home directory	P, A	Node P has a write miss at address A; request data and make P the exclusive owner.	
Invalidate	Local cache	Home directory	A	Request to send invalidates to all remote caches that are caching the block at address A.	
Invalidate	Home directory	Remote cache	A	Invalidate a shared copy of data at address A.	
Fetch	Home directory	Remote cache	A	Fetch the block at address A and send it to its home directory; change the state of A in the remote cache to shared.	
Fetch/invalidate	Home directory	Remote cache	A	Fetch the block at address A and send it to its home directory; invalidate the block in the cache.	
Data value reply	Home directory	Local cache	D	Return a data value from the home memory.	
Data write-back	Remote cache	Home directory	A, D	Write-back a data value for address A.	

→ Hennessy & Patterson, Computer Architecture, 5th edition, page 381.

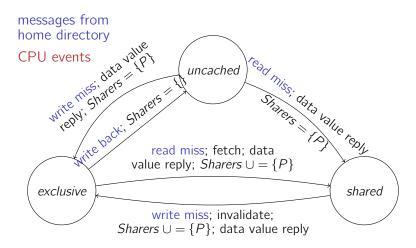
Directory-Based Coherence—State Machine

Individual caches use a state machine similar to the one on slide 208.



Directory-Based Coherence—State Machine

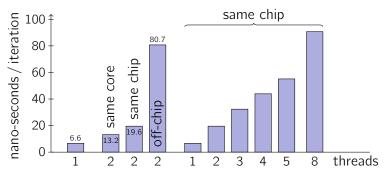
The **directory** has its own state machine.



Cache Coherence Cost

Experiment:

■ Several threads randomly increment elements of an integer array; Zipfian probability distribution, no synchronization¹⁰.



Intel Nehalem EX; 1.87 GHz; 2 CPUs, 8 cores/CPU.

¹⁰In general, this will yield incorrect counter values.

Cache Coherence Cost

Two types of **coherence misses**:

true sharing miss

- → Data shared among processors.
- → Often-used mechanism to **communicate** between threads.
- → These misses are **unavoidable**.

false sharing miss

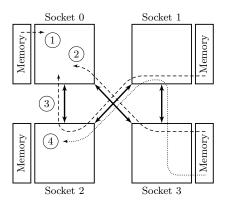
- → Processors use different data items, but the items reside in the same cache line.
- → Items get invalidated/migrated, even though no data is actually shared.
- How can false sharing misses be avoided?

NUMA—Non-Uniform Memory Access



Distribution makes memory access **locality-sensitive**.

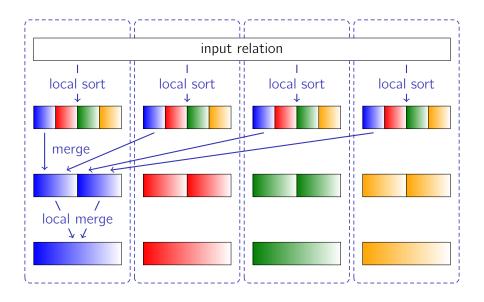
\rightarrow Non-Uniform Memory Access (NUMA)



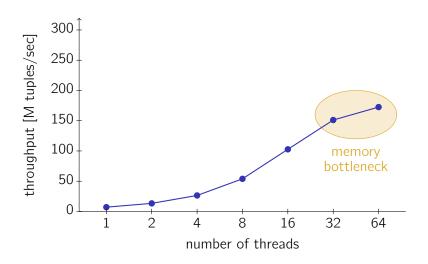
	bandwidth	latency
1	24.7 GB/s	150 ns
2	10.9 GB/s	185 ns
3	10.9 GB/s	230 ns
$3/4^{11}$	5.3 GB/s	235 ns

¹¹(3) with cross traffic along (4).

Sorting and NUMA



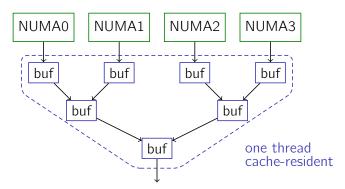
Resulting Throughput



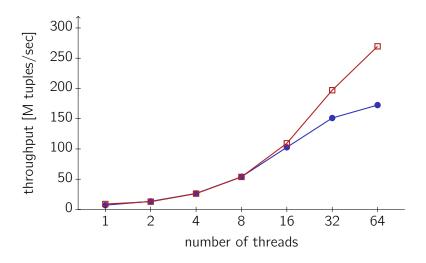
NUMA and Bandwidth

Problem: Merging is **bandwidth-bound**.

- → Merge multiple runs (from NUMA regions) at once (Two-way merging would be more CPU-efficient because of SIMD.)
- → Might need more instructions, but brings bandwidth and compute into balance.



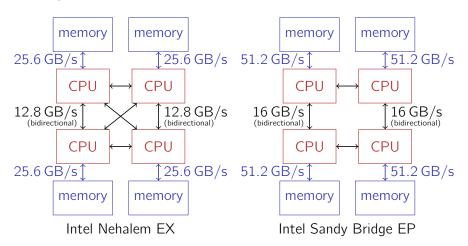
Throughput With Multi-Way Merging



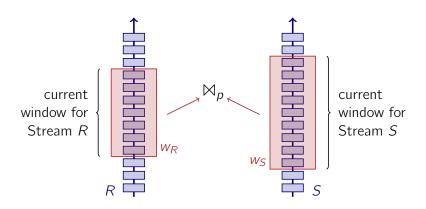
NUMA Effects in Detail

Bandwidth:

Single links have lower bandwidth than memory controllers.

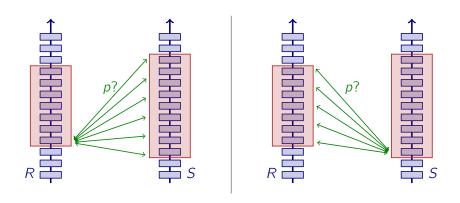


Joins Over Data Streams:



Task: Find all $\langle r, s \rangle$ in w_R , w_S that satisfy p(r, s).

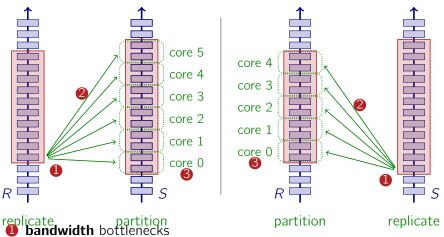
Implementation [Kang et al., ICDE 2003]



1. scan window, 2. insert new tuple, 3. invalidate old

NUMA-Aware Execution?

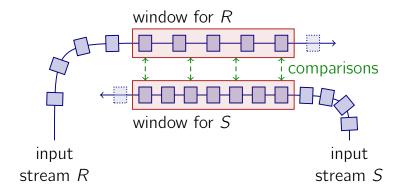
CellJoin [Gedik et al., VLDBJ 2009]



- long-distance communication
- centralized coordination and memory
- Parallel, but not NUMA-aware.

Handshake Join Idea

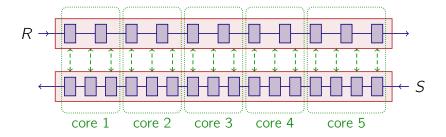
Handshake Join:



Streams flow by in **opposite directions**Compare tuples when they **meet**

Handshake Join on Many Cores

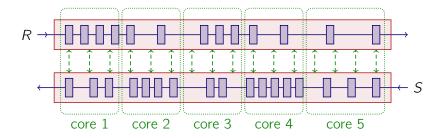
Data flow representation → **parallelization**:



- No bandwidth bottleneck ① √
- Communication/synchronization stays **local** ② ✓

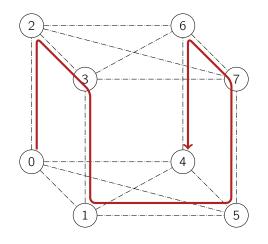
Synchronization

Coordination can now be done autonomously

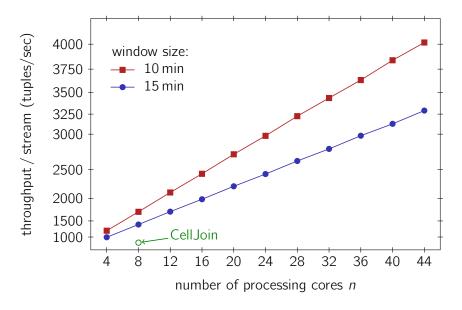


- no more centralized coordination
- Autonomous load balancing
- Lock-free message queues between neighbors

Example: AMD "Magny Cours" (48 cores)



Experiments (AMD Magny Cours, 2.2 GHz)



Beyond 48 Cores...(FPGA-based simulation)

