A Methodological Construction of an Efficient Sequentially Consistent Distributed Shared Memory

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The paper proposes a simple protocol that ensures sequential consistency. The protocol assumes that the shared memory abstraction is supported by the local memories of nodes that can communicate only by exchanging messages through reliable channels. Unlike other sequential consistency protocols, the one proposed here does not rely on a strong synchronization mechanism, such as an atomic broadcast primitive or a central node managing a copy of every shared object. From a methodological point of view, the protocol is built incrementally starting from the very definition of sequential consistency. It has the noteworthy property that a process that issues a write operation never has to wait for other processes. Depending on the current local state, most read operations issued also have the same property.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The definition of a consistency criterion is crucial for the correctness of a multiprocess program [2, 3]. Basically, a consistency criterion defines which value has to be returned when a read operation on a shared object is invoked by a process [4–6]. The strongest (i.e. most constraining) consistency criterion is atomic consistency [7], also called linearizability [8]. It states that a read returns the value written by the latest preceding write, ‘latest’ referring to real-time occurrence order (concurrent writes being totally ordered). Causal consistency [9, 10] is a weaker criterion, stating that a read does not get an overwritten value. Causal consistency allows concurrent writes; consequently, it is possible that concurrent read operations on the same object get different values. This occurs when those values have been produced by concurrent writes. Other consistency criteria weaker than causal consistency have also been proposed [11, 12].

This paper focuses on sequential consistency [13]. This criterion lies between atomic consistency and causal consistency. Informally, it states that a multiprocess program executes correctly if its results could have been produced by executing that program on a single processor system. This means that an execution is correct if we can totally order its operations in such a way that:

(i) the order of operations in each process is preserved;
(ii) each read operation obtains the latest previously written value, ‘latest’ referring here to the total order.

The difference between atomic consistency and sequential consistency lies in the meaning of the word ‘latest’. This word refers to real-time when we consider atomic consistency, while it refers to a logical time notion when we consider sequential consistency. Namely, the logical time defined by the total order. The main difference between sequential consistency and causal consistency lies in the fact that, like atomic consistency, sequential consistency orders all write operations,

1A preliminary version of this paper was published in [1].
Atomic consistency is relatively easy to implement in a distributed message-passing system. Each process $p_i$ maintains in a local cache the current value $v$ of each shared variable $x$, and such a cached value $v$ is systematically invalidated (or updated) each time a process $p_j$ writes $x$. The conflicts due to multiple accesses to a shared variable $x$ are usually handled by associating a manager $M_x$ with every shared variable $x$. One of the most popular atomic consistency protocols is the invalidation-based protocol due to Li and Hudak [14] that has been designed to provide a distributed shared memory on top of a local area network. An update-based atomic consistency protocol is described in [15].

Due to its very definition, atomic consistency requires that the value of a variable $x$ cached at $p_i$ be invalidated (or updated) each time a process $p_j$ issues a write on $x$. In that sense, the atomic consistency criterion (that is an abstract property of a computation) is intimately related to an eager invalidation (or update) mechanism that concerns the operational side. Said in another way, atomic consistency is a consistency criterion that can be too conservative for some applications.

Put in another way, sequential consistency can be seen as a form of lazy atomic consistency [16]. A cached value does not need to be systematically invalidated each time the corresponding shared variable is updated. Old and new values of a shared variable can coexist at different processes as long as the resulting execution could have been produced by running the multiprocess program on a single multiprogrammed processor system. Of course, a protocol implementing sequential consistency can be more involved than a protocol implementing atomic consistency, as it has to keep track of global information allowing it to know, for each process $p_i$, which old values currently used by $p_i$ have to be invalidated (or updated). This global information tracking, which is at the core of sequential consistency protocols, is the additional price that has to be paid to replace eager invalidation by lazy invalidation, thereby providing the possibility for more efficient runs of multiprocess programs.

This paper presents a methodological construction of a sequential consistency protocol. A variant of this protocol has first been presented in [17] as a dynamically adaptive and parameterized algorithm that implements sequential consistency, cache consistency or causal consistency, according to the setting of some parameter. This parameterized algorithm is presented ‘from scratch’, without exhibiting or relying on basic underlying principles. Here, it is shown that a variant of its sequential consistency instantiation can be obtained from a simple derivation starting from the very definition of sequential consistency.

The algorithm obtained here from this derivation not only is surprisingly simple, but—as it is based on the very essence of sequential consistency—it reveals to be particularly efficient for some classes of applications. The protocol has the nice property to allow the write operations to be always executed locally without involving external synchronization. Alternatively, some read operations can be executed in the same fashion, while others cannot. Whether a read is executed locally depends on the variable that is read and the set of variables that have been previously written by the process issuing the read operation, so it is context-dependent.

The derived algorithm has been implemented and used to run typical parallel programming applications, namely finite differences (FD), matrix multiplication (MM), and fast Fourier transform (FFT), in a cluster of workstations. In this context, the performance of this implementation of the algorithm has been compared with implementations of the sequential consistency algorithms proposed by Attiya and Welch [18]. The results of this comparison show that the implementation of our algorithm runs faster and requires smaller number of messages than the other two. Furthermore, unlike the algorithms from [18], with our algorithm a large majority of the messages carry information about written values.

The paper is made up of six sections. Section 2 presents some related work. Section 3 presents the computation model, and defines sequential consistency. Then, Section 4 derives the protocol from the sequential consistency definition. Section 5 provides a performance evaluation of such a protocol. Finally, Section 6 concludes the paper.

## 2. RELATED WORK

Several protocols providing a sequentially consistent shared memory abstraction on top of an asynchronous message passing distributed system have been proposed. The protocol described in [19] implements a sequentially consistent shared memory abstraction on top of a physically shared memory and local caches. It uses an atomic $n$-queue update primitive. Attiya and Welch [18] present two sequential consistency protocols. Both protocols assume that each local memory contains a copy of the whole shared memory abstraction. They order the write operations using an atomic broadcast facility: all the writes are sent to all processes and are delivered in the same order by each process. Read operations issued by a process are appropriately scheduled to ensure their correctness.

The protocol described in [20] considers a server site that has a copy of the whole shared memory abstraction. The local memory of each process contains a copy of a shared memory abstraction, but the state of some of its objects can be invalid. When a process wants to read an object, it reads its local copy if it is valid. When a process wants to read an object whose state is invalid, or wants to write an object, it sends a request to the server. In this way, the server orders all write operations. An invalidation mechanism ensures that the reading by $p_i$ of an object that is locally valid is correct. A variant of this protocol is described in [21]. The protocol described in [22] uses a token that orders all write operations and piggybacks updated
values. This protocol, like one of the protocols described in [18], provides purely local read operations [23].

Most of the previous protocols rely on a strong synchronization mechanism that has a scope spanning the whole system (atomic broadcast facility, navigating token or central manager). However, the protocol described in [16] is fully distributed in the sense that it does not rely on an underlying global mechanism: each object \( x \) is managed by its own object manager \( M_x \) and there is no synchronization primitive whose scope is the entire system.

3. THE SEQUENTIALLY CONSISTENT SHARED MEMORY ABSTRACTION

A parallel program defines a set of processes interacting through a set of concurrent objects. This set of shared objects defines a shared memory abstraction. Each object is defined by a sequential specification and provides processes with operations to manipulate it. When it is running, the parallel program produces a concurrent system [8]. As in such a system an object can be accessed concurrently by several processes, it is necessary to define consistency criteria for concurrent objects.

3.1. Shared memory abstraction

A shared memory system is composed of a finite set of sequential processes \( p_1, \ldots, p_n \) that interact via a finite set \( X \) of shared objects. Each object \( x \in X \) can be accessed by read and write operations. A write into an object defines a new value for the object; a read allows to obtain a value of the object. A write of value \( v \) into object \( x \) by process \( p_i \) is denoted by \( w_i(x)v \); similarly, a read of \( x \) by process \( p_j \) is denoted by \( r_j(x)v \) where \( v \) is the value returned by the read operation; \( op \) will denote either \( r \) (read) or \( w \) (write). To simplify the analyses, as in [7, 9, 25], we assume that all values written into an object \( x \) are distinct. Moreover, the parameters of an operation are omitted when they are not important. Each object has an initial value (it is assumed that this value has been assigned by an initial fictitious write operation).

3.2. Programs, histories and legality

A program is a set of read and write operations to be issued by the processes that form the program. The local program of process \( p_i \) is the set of operations to be issued by \( p_i \). If \( op1 \) and \( op2 \) are going to be issued by \( p_i \) and \( op1 \) is going to be issued first, then we say that ‘\( op1 \) precedes \( op2 \) in \( p_i \)’s process–order’, which is denoted by \( op1 \rightarrow_i op2 \).

Note that nothing has been said about the read or written values, nor about the order between operations from different processes.

In order to model concrete executions of programs, we introduce the concept of history. The local history (or local computation) \( h_i \) of \( p_i \) is the sequence of operations issued by \( p_i \) in process order such that each operation has an associated (read or written) value. If \( h_i \) denotes the set of operations executed by \( p_i \), then \( h_i \) is the total order (\( h_i \rightarrow_i \)).

**Definition 3.1.** An execution history (or simply history, or computation) \( \hat{H} \) of a shared memory system is a partial order \( \hat{H} = (H, \rightarrow_H) \) such that:

1. \( H = \bigcup_i h_i \);
2. \( op1 \rightarrow_H op2 \) if:
   - \( \exists p_i : \ op1 \rightarrow_i op2 \) (in that case, \( \rightarrow_H \) is called process–order relation), or
   - \( op1 = w_i(x)v \) and \( op2 = r_j(x)v \) (in that case \( \rightarrow_H \) is called read-from relation), or
   - \( \exists op3 : \ op1 \rightarrow_H op3 \) and \( op3 \rightarrow_H op2 \).

Two operations \( op1 \) and \( op2 \) are concurrent in \( \hat{H} \) if we have neither \( op1 \rightarrow_H op2 \) nor \( op2 \rightarrow_H op1 \). Table 1 shows some of the nomenclature used.

The legality concept is the key notion on which the definitions of shared memory consistency criteria are based [9, 10, 12, 24]. From an operational point of view, it states that, in a legal history, no read operation can get an overwritten value.

**Definition 3.2.** A read operation \( r(x)v \) of a history \( \hat{H} \) is legal if:

1. \( \exists w(x)v : w(x)v \rightarrow_H r(x)v \);
2. \( \neg \forall \forall op(x)u : (u \neq v) \land (w(x)v \rightarrow_H op(x)u \rightarrow_H r(x)v) \).

A history \( \hat{H} \) is legal if all its read operations are legal.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( p_i )</td>
<td>Sequential process ( i )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( r_j(x)v )</td>
<td>Read of value ( v ) of object ( x ) by process ( p_i )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( w_i(x)v )</td>
<td>Write of value ( v ) into object ( x ) by process ( p_i )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( op \rightarrow_i op' )</td>
<td>Operation ( op ) precedes operation ( op' ) in ( p_i )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( op \rightarrow_H op' )</td>
<td>Operation ( op ) causally precedes operation ( op' )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( h_i )</td>
<td>Set of operation executed by ( p_i )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \hat{H}_i )</td>
<td>Total order (( h_i \rightarrow_i ))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( H_i )</td>
<td>( \bigcup_i h_i )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \hat{H} )</td>
<td>Total order (( H_i \rightarrow_H ))</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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\( ^1 \)As shown in [18], atomic consistency does not allow protocols in which all read operations (or all write operations) can be executed locally without involving global synchronization [8, 24]. Alternatively, causal consistency allows protocols where this happens [9, 10, 25].

\( ^2 \)For example, an atomic broadcast facility allows ordering all the write operations, independently of the processes that issue them.

\( ^3 \)Intuitively, this hypothesis can be seen as an implicit tagging of each value by a pair composed of the identity of the process that issued the write plus a sequence number. Such a tagging is only conceptual and not required for the correctness of the algorithm.
3.3. Sequential consistency

Sequential consistency was proposed by Lamport in 1979 to define a correctness criterion for multiprocessor shared memory systems [13]. A system is sequentially consistent with respect to a multiprocess program if ‘the result of any execution is the same as if (1) the operations of all the processors were executed in some sequential order, and (2) the operations of each individual processor appear in this sequence in the order specified by its program.’

This informal definition states that the execution of a program is sequentially consistent if it could have been produced by executing this program on a single processor system. More formally, we define sequential consistency in the following way. We first recall the definition of linear extension of a partial order. A linear extension \( \hat{S} = (S, \rightarrow_S) \) of a partial order \( \hat{H} = (H, \rightarrow_H) \) is a topological sort of this partial order. This means that it satisfies the following:

(i) \( S = H \);
(ii) \( op_1 \rightarrow_H op_2 \Rightarrow op_1 \rightarrow_S op_2 \) (\( \hat{S} \) maintains the order of all ordered pairs of \( \hat{H} \));
(iii) \( \rightarrow_S \) defines a total order.

**Definition 3.3.** A history \( \hat{H} \) is sequentially consistent if it has a legal linear extension \( \hat{S} \). We also say that \( \hat{S} \) is a base legal sequentially consistent history of \( \hat{H} \).

As an example, we consider the history \( \hat{H} \) depicted in Fig. 1. Each process has issued three operations on the shared objects \( x \) and \( y \). The write operations \( w_1(x)0 \) and \( w_2(y)1 \) are concurrent. It is easy to see that \( \hat{H} \) is sequentially consistent by building a legal linear extension \( \hat{S} \) including first the operations issued by \( p_2 \) and then the ones issued by \( p_1 \).

4. THE METHODOLOGICAL CONSTRUCTION

The aim of this work is to implement a sequentially consistent shared memory abstraction on top of an underlying message-passing distributed system. Such a system is a distributed system made up of \( n \) reliable sites, one per process. Hence, without ambiguity, \( p_i \) denotes both a process and the associated site. Each \( p_i \) has a local memory. The processes communicate through reliable channels by sending and receiving messages. There are no assumptions neither on process speed, nor on message transfer delay. Hence, the underlying distributed system is reliable but asynchronous.

\[ \text{FIGURE 1. A sequentially consistent execution } \hat{H}. \text{ Transitivity edges come from process-order relations (represented by dashed arrows) and read-from (represented by dotted arrows) relations. Only the edges that are not due to transitivity are shown.} \]

4.1. The methodology

The usual approach to design sequential consistency protocols consists on first defining a protocol and then proving it is correct. The approach adopted here is different, in the sense that we start from the very definition of sequential consistency, and derive from it a sequential consistency protocol.

More precisely, to ensure that a distributed execution has a base legal sequentially consistent history, we perform the following steps.

(i) First define a base legal sequentially consistent history \( \hat{S} \).
(ii) Then, design a protocol that controls the execution of the multiprocess program in order to produce an actual distributed execution \( \hat{H} \) that has \( \hat{S} \) as a base legal sequentially consistent history.

The first subsection that follows derives a trivial sequential consistency protocol that works for a very particular type of multiprocess programs; these particular multiprocess programs have the nice property that all operations can be executed locally. Then, by observing that the history of each sequentially consistent process can be decomposed into segments, such as those considered in the previous type of multiprocess programs, a new sequential consistency protocol is derived that works for the general case. Finally, the last subsection shows how to enhance such a general protocol in order to achieve higher performance. The key idea behind the above-mentioned algorithms is disseminating updates only at the end of the different segments into which the distributed execution is decomposed. This solution reduces the necessary number of messages used to guarantee sequential consistency, thus improving the overall system performance.

4.2. Step 1 of the construction: the trivial case

We start with a multiprocess program where the local program of each process \( p_i \) has the following very particular structure. Namely, it is formed by a (possibly empty) sequence containing only read operations (denoted as \( SR_i \)), followed by a (possibly empty) sequence of write and read operations (denoted as \( SWR_i \)) such that the read operations are issued only on variables that have been previously written by \( p_i \). Note that \( SWR_i \) ends when \( p_i \) stops issuing operations.

Consider a concrete execution \( \hat{H} \) of such a program, produced by executing sequentially the \( SR_i \) sequences in any order, and

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\[ ^4 \text{In his definition, Lamport assumes that the process-order relations defined by the program (point 2 of the definition) is maintained in the equivalent sequential execution, but not necessarily in the execution itself. As we do not consider programs, but only executions, we implicitly assume that the process-order relations displayed by the execution histories are the ones specified by the programs which gave rise to these execution histories.} \]
then the $SWR_i$ sequences also in any order, and make each read operation return the closest previously written value, by the same process, in the corresponding variable (or the initial value, if it has not been written any value). Since the $SR_i$ sequences contain only read operations that obtain the initial values of the shared variables and the read operations in the $SWR_i$ sequences read only variables previously written by process $p_i$, from the very definition of sequential consistency, it is immediate to find a base legal sequentially consistent history $\hat{S}$ of $\hat{H}$. Namely,

$$\hat{S} = SR_1 \ldots SR_n \; SWR_1 \ldots SWR_n.$$ (1)

Figure 2 shows an example of a parallel execution of a program made of $n = 3$ processes, as described in the above paragraph. Our goal now is to design a protocol that ensures that any history of the multiprocess programs considered is of the previously defined form (i.e. has $\hat{S}$ as a base legal sequentially consistent history).

4.2.1. Implementation of the trivial case protocol

From the above presented reasoning, it follows that an implementation would simply provide each process $p_i$ with a local cache containing all the shared variables and perform both reads and writes locally. Clearly, all the resulting histories will have the above presented $\hat{S}$ as a base legal sequentially consistent history. Consequently, no additional protocol would be necessary. Figure 3 shows an implementation of the described protocol.

4.3. Step 2 of the construction: the general case (looking for correctness)

We first observe that, in the general case, the local program of $p_i$ (for each process) can always be expressed as follows:

$$SR_i^0 \; SWR_i^1 \; SR_i^1 \; SWR_i^2 \; SR_i^2 \ldots SWR_i^k \; SR_i^k \ldots,$$

where $SR_i^k$ is a (possibly empty) sequence of only read operations and $SWR_i^k$ is a (possibly empty) sequence of write and read operations such that read operations are performed only on variables that have been previously written in $SWR_i^k$. Note that $SWR_i^k$ ends immediately before there is a read operation, by process $p_i$, on a variable not previously written in $SWR_i^k$.

The superscript $k$ is used to associate a $SR_i$ sequence with its immediately preceding $SWR_i$ sequence.

The decomposition of each process history into sequences and the particular case of a single sequence examined in the previous step of the construction, provides us with some hint on how to proceed. Indeed, we define a history $\hat{S}$ formed first by the sequences $SR_1^0 \; SR_2^0 \ldots SR_n^0$, in this order, and then by the sequences $SWR_1^1 \; SR_1^1 \; SWR_2^2 \; SR_2^2 \ldots SWR_n^k \; SR_n^k$, in this order. We find that $\hat{S}$ will contain additional subsequent phases, similar to the second one, until completing the execution. Also, make read operations to return the closest previously written value, by any process, in the corresponding variable (or the initial value, if it has not been written yet).

Clearly, for the definition of sequential consistency, $\hat{S}$ will be a base legal sequentially consistent history of ‘some’ of the histories of the general program. Figure 4a shows an example,
in the case where there are \( n = 3 \) processes, of the parallel execution of a program \( \hat{H} \) that has the above defined history \( \hat{S} \) as a base legal sequential history.

Now, the goal is to design a sequential consistency protocol that ensures that ‘any’ possible program execution has \( \hat{S} \) as a base legal sequentially consistent history.

### 4.3.1. Implementation of the general case protocol

For the design of the protocol, we observe that, in \( \hat{S} \), when \( p_{i+1} \) executes \( SR_{i+1}^0 \), it can read the value of a variable \( x \) that has been written by \( p_i \) when it executed \( SWR_i^0 \). Hence, \( p_{i+1} \) must be informed of these writes before it executes \( SR_{i+1}^0 \). A simple way to attain this goal consists of using a token traveling along a logical ring, so that no process misses updates (e.g. \( p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n, p_1 \)) and carrying the latest known value of each shared variable. Therefore, we have to manage the token exactly as if it was received by \( p_{i+1} \) just after \( p_{i+1} \) executed \( SR_{i+1}^0 \) and was sent by \( p_{i+1} \) to \( p_{i+2} \) just after \( p_{i+1} \) terminated \( SR_{i+1}^0 \). Logically, the token follows the dashed arrow in Fig. 4a, so that \( \hat{H} \) will have \( \hat{S} \) as a base legal sequentially consistent history. Then, in the algorithm to carry the new values written in \( SWR_i^0 \), the token has to be sent after \( SWR_i^0 \) finishes. Moreover, as \( SR_{i}^0 \) modifies no shared variables, the token can be sent by \( p_i \) before \( SR_{i}^0 \). So, when a process \( p_i \) receives the token, it ends a segment \( SWR_i^0 \), sends the token and starts a segment \( SR_{i}^0 \).

The resulting protocol is described in Fig. 5. As already indicated, \( X \) denotes the set of shared variables, and \( C_i(x) \) is \( p_i \)'s local cache containing the value of the shared variable \( x \). Each process \( p_i \) maintains a boolean array \( updated_i(x) \), such that \( updated_i(x) \) is true if and only if \( p_i \) has updated \( x \) since the last visit of the token. The boolean \( no\_change_i \) is a synonym for \( \forall x \in X (\neg updated_i(x)) \) (no_change_i is true if and only if no shared variable has been updated since the last visit of the token at \( p_i \)). The write operation and the statements associated with the token execution are executed atomically. We observe that the arrival of the token at a process always corresponds to the beginning of a new segment \( SR_{i}^0 \) for that process. Figure 4b shows the actual travel of the token with this algorithm in the example used in this step. Observe that, in this protocol the token could be replaced by a list containing only the modifications. This ‘improvement’, together with one dealing with the dissemination of updates, is incorporated in the algorithm presented in the next step.

### 4.4. Step 3 of the construction: the general case (looking for efficiency)

When we look at the form of the sequences \( SR^0_i \), as defined in Step 2, we also observe that they can always be decomposed as follows:

\[
SR^0_i = \begin{cases} 
SR^0_{i,1} \cdots SR^0_{i,i} & \text{when } j = 0, \\
SR^0_{i,i} (\mod n)+1 \cdots SR^0_{i,(i+n−1)} (\mod n)+1 & \text{when } j > 0.
\end{cases}
\]

Note that \( SR^0_{i,j} \) is decomposed into \( i \) sequences, whereas \( SR^0_{i,j−0} \) is always decomposed into \( n \) sequences.

The rationale behind the form we have decomposed \( SR^0_i \) into \( n \) subsequences (except for the start-up phase, where it is split into \( i \) subsequences) can be explained as follows. By using such a decomposition, the goal is to allow a process \( p_i \), during its sequence of reads in \( SR^0_i \), to obtain the updated values as quickly as possible. Namely, those updates will take place at the beginning of each one of the \( SR^0_{i,k} \) subsequences. With this in mind, in the new base legal sequentially consistent history \( \hat{S} \), the updated values within \( SWR^1_i \) will have to be ‘disseminated’ to all processes at the same time, contrary to what is done at Step 2, where the updated values were disseminated sequentially. Clearly, this type of ‘eager’ dissemination allows processes to be informed of new values earlier. Furthermore, this also allows processes to disseminate only their own updates (in the protocol in Step 2, the token accumulates all the updates), thus reducing the transfer of data between processes.

Therefore, by substituting the new decomposed sequences into the local history of \( p_i \), we obtain the following:

\[
\begin{align*}
SR^0_{i,1} \cdots SR^0_{i,i} \\
SWR^1_i & SR^1_{i,i} (\mod n)+1 \cdots SR^1_{i,(i+n−1)} (\mod n)+1 \\
SWR^2_i & SR^2_{i,i} (\mod n)+1 \cdots SR^2_{i,(i+n−1)} (\mod n)+1 \\
& \vdots \\
SWR^j_i & SR^j_{i,i} (\mod n)+1 \cdots SR^j_{i,(i+n−1)} (\mod n)+1 \\
& \vdots
\end{align*}
\]

Now, we define the form of the base legal sequentially consistent history \( \hat{S} \). To do that, first we order the different sequences of the local programs as in Fig. 6.

Then, we make read operations to return the closest previously written value, by any process, in the corresponding variable (or the initial value, if it has not been written yet). Clearly, for the definition of sequential consistency, \( \hat{S} \) will be a base legal sequentially consistent history of ‘some’ of the histories of the general program. Figure 7a shows an example, in the case where there are \( n = 3 \) processes, of the parallel execution of a program \( \hat{H} \) that has the above defined history \( \hat{S} \) as a base legal sequential history. Figure 7b also illustrates how the dissemination of writes is performed. Now, as in the
previous cases, the goal is to design a sequential consistency protocol that ensures that ‘any’ possible program execution has \( \hat{S} \) as a base legal sequentially consistent history.

### 4.5. Implementation of the efficient general case protocol

The design of the protocol is based on the protocol in Step 2. However, in order to dissociate the two different roles of the token (namely, dissemination and gathering of updates), the token itself is replaced by the local variables \( token_i \). By \( token_i = j \) we mean that, from \( p_i \)'s point of view, \( p_j \) is the process that is currently allowed to disseminate updates. So, circulating the token around the logical ring, \( p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n, p_1, \ldots \), is realized by having each \( token_i \) variable taking successively the values 1, 2, \ldots, \( n \), 1, \ldots. Note that \( token_i = i \) means that \( p_i \) (knows that it) has the token and is consequently allowed to disseminate updates.

The task associated with the management of the token is presented in Fig. 8. This task defines two distinct behaviors for a process \( p_i \) according to the token position. More precisely, when \( p_i \) has the token (case \( token \_i = i \)), it is allowed to send to the rest of processes information about all the write operations (updates) it has executed since the previous visit of the token (Lines 3 and 4). This set of updates \( upd \) is carried in the message \( UPDATE \_i(upd) \). After broadcasting its updates, \( p_i \) resets its local control variables (Lines 5 and 6).

When \( p_i \) does not have the token (case \( token \_i \neq i \)), it waits for an \( UPDATE \_i() \) message from the next process allowed to broadcast its updates (\( p \_token \_i \)). When it receives that message (Line 8), \( p_i \) updates accordingly its local cache (as in the previous protocol, Lines 9 and 10). This constitutes an early refreshing of its local cache with the new values provided by \( p \_token \_i \).

Note that, for a process \( p_i \), the token moves from \( p_j \) to \( p_{j+1} \) when, being \( token \_i \) equal to \( j \), \( p_i \) executes \( token \_i \leftarrow p_{j+1} \).
init:
  for each $x \in X$ do
    $C_i[x] \leftarrow$ initial value of $x$;
    updated, $[x] \leftarrow$ false;
  end do:
  no_change, $i \leftarrow$ true;
  The token (with initial values) is initially at $p_1$ that simulates its arrival at the end of $SWR_i^1$

operation $u_i(x)v$: % $u_i(x)v$ always belongs to some segment $SWR_i^e$
  $C_i[x] \leftarrow v$;
  updated, $[x] \leftarrow$ true;
  no_change, $i \leftarrow$ false;
  return()

operation $r_i(x)$:
  wait until $(no\_change, i \lor updated, [x])$;
  % no_change, $i \Rightarrow r_i(x) \in SWR_i^e \land updated, [x] \Rightarrow r_i(x) \in SWR_i^e$
  return $(C_i[x])$

Task $T_i$: (activated upon reception of token$[X]$)
  for each $x \in X$ such that $-updated, [x]$ do
    $C_i[x] \leftarrow token[x]$;
  end do:
  for each $x \in X$ such that $updated, [x]$ do
    $token[x] \leftarrow C_i[x]$;
    updated, $[x] \leftarrow$ false;
  end do:
  send $token[X]$ to the next process on the logical ring;
  no_change, $i \leftarrow$ true;
  % we have here: $\forall x \in X$: updated, $[x] = false$

**FIGURE 5.** General case protocol for process $pi$.

\[
SR_{1,1}^0 \quad SR_{2,1}^0 \quad \ldots \quad SR_{n,1}^0
\]
\[
SWR_1^1 \quad SR_{1,2}^1 \quad SR_{2,2}^0 \quad \ldots \quad SR_{n,2}^0
\]
\[
SWR_2^1 \quad SR_{1,3}^1 \quad SR_{2,3}^1 \quad SR_{3,3}^0 \quad \ldots \quad SR_{n,3}^0
\]
\[
\vdots
\]
\[
SWR_i^1 \quad SR_{1,i \mod n+1}^1 \quad \ldots \quad SR_{i,i \mod n+1}^1 \quad SR_{i+1,i \mod n+1}^0 \quad \ldots \quad SR_{n,1 \mod n+1}^0
\]
\[
\vdots
\]
\[
SWR_1^{n-1} \quad SR_{1,n \mod n+1}^1 \quad SR_{2,n \mod n+1}^1 \quad \ldots \quad SR_{n,n \mod n+1}^1
\]
\[
SWR_2^{n-1} \quad SR_{1,1 \mod n+1}^1 \quad SR_{2,1 \mod n+1}^1 \quad \ldots \quad SR_{n,1 \mod n+1}^1
\]
\[
SWR_2^{n-2} \quad SR_{1,2 \mod n+1}^1 \quad SR_{2,2 \mod n+1}^1 \quad SR_{3,2 \mod n+1}^1 \quad \ldots \quad SR_{n,2 \mod n+1}^1
\]
\[
\vdots
\]
\[
SWR_i^{n-2} \quad SR_{1,i \mod n+1}^1 \quad \ldots \quad SR_{i,i \mod n+1}^1 \quad SR_{i+1,i \mod n+1}^1 \quad \ldots \quad SR_{n,i \mod n+1}^1
\]
\[
\vdots
\]
\[
SWR_n^{n-2} \quad SR_{1,n \mod n+1}^2 \quad SR_{2,n \mod n+1}^2 \quad \ldots \quad SR_{n,n \mod n+1}^2
\]
\[
\vdots
\]

**FIGURE 6.** Efficient ordering of the sequences for the general case.

(token, $mod\ n + 1$ (Line 13). All the processes have the same view of the order in which the token visits the processes. Consequently, after it has received and processed an $UPDATE()$ message from $p_j$, the process $p_{j+1}$ knows that it has the token: no explicit message is necessary to represent the token.
Construction of an Efficient Sequentially Consistent Distributed Shared Memory

It is important to note that all the processes update their local caches (with the new values coming from the other processes) in the same order. This is an immediate consequence of the fact that each process $p_i$ delivers the $\text{UPDATES}()$ messages in the order defined by the successive values of $\text{token}_i$. As in the base token-based protocol, $p_i$’s own updates are done at the time $p_i$ issues the corresponding write operations and tracked with the boolean array $\text{updated}_i$. These boolean flags are used to maintain the consistency of $p_i$’s local cache each time it receives and processes an $\text{UPDATES}()$ message.

Furthermore, the performance of $\text{CFJR}$ is also compared with two sequential consistency protocols proposed by Attiya and Welch [18]. Such protocols are two of the most widely known sequential consistency protocols. In the first protocol proposed by Attiya and Welch (denoted as $\text{AW-fast}_r$), all read operations are fast while write operations are not fast. In the second one (denoted as $\text{AW-fast}_w$), all write operations are fast while read operations are not fast.

An exact analytic evaluation of how many read operations the protocol allows to be fast is not possible, as it depends on the read/write patterns of the upper layer distributed application. Hence, we have used real benchmark implementations to estimate the number of fast reads and, more generally, to evaluate the protocol performance. So, we have implemented three typical parallel processing applications:

(i) FD with $16,384 \times 1024$ elements,
(ii) MM with $1600 \times 1600$ matrices,
(iii) FFT with $262,144$ coefficients

FD and MM have been implemented as in [27], while FFT as been implemented as in [28]. The code, written in C, uses the sockets interface with UDP/IP for computer intercommunication. The executions have been done in an experimental environment formed by a cluster of 2, 4 and

5. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

This section presents experiments that show the efficiency of the proposed protocol. The protocol described in Fig. 8 is denoted by $\text{CFJR}$ in the following. First, we show that in our efficient general case protocol most of the operations are performed in a fast manner. An operation (either read or write) is said to be fast if it can be executed locally at the process where it is issued without involving global synchronizations. This is a nice property since a process has never to wait when it writes or reads a new value in a shared object. This implies that such operations can be served almost immediately.

FIGURE 7. Example of an efficient general case program execution that is sequentially consistent.
8 computers connected with a switched full-duplex 1Gbps Ethernet network. Each computer is a PC running Linux RedHat with a 1.5 GHz AMD CPU and 512 Mbytes of RAM memory. We have mapped one process to each computer and have restricted our implementation to a maximum of 100 memory operations carried in one single message.

5.1. Percentage of fast operations in CFJR

In Table 2, the percentages of observed fast read and fast write operations per process in CFJR are shown. As it can be readily seen, all write operations are fast, while in all cases, almost 100% of the read operations are fast. This makes evident that the main goal of our protocol (i.e. to maximize the local operations) is certainly achieved.

5.2. Comparing CFJR with other protocols

In this section, we compare CFJR with AW-fast, and AW-fast\textsubscript{w}. First, we compare the execution time measured with the three protocols for each one of the considered applications. As it can be readily seen in Table 3, whatever the case, the execution time provided by the CFJR protocol is much smaller than the execution time provided by both AW-fast, and AW-fast\textsubscript{w}. In the case of FD, the execution time is up to 14.5 times lower; in the case of MM the execution time is up to 3.12 times lower and in the case of FFT the execution time is up to 27.5 times lower.

Table 4 presents the total number of messages and acknowledgments sent by each process when executing FD, MM, and FFT. By acknowledgments we mean all the messages sent to preserve the correct behavior of the protocol but without containing write operations. We can see that CFJR reduces
TABLE 2. Percentage of fast read and write operations per process in CFJR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nodes (%)</th>
<th>Operations</th>
<th>2 nodes</th>
<th>4 nodes</th>
<th>8 nodes</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>FD</td>
<td>FFT</td>
<td>MM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reads</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 nodes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writes</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 nodes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 3. Execution time of FD, MM and FFT (in seconds)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Operations</th>
<th>2 nodes</th>
<th>4 nodes</th>
<th>8 nodes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FD</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>FFT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFJR</td>
<td>2228.3</td>
<td>3760.0</td>
<td>1450.8</td>
<td>3307.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2360.0</td>
<td>10346.7</td>
<td>8718.3</td>
<td>1371.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AW-fast_r</td>
<td>14133.3</td>
<td>4816.7</td>
<td>22591.7</td>
<td>10744.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19100.0</td>
<td>10346.7</td>
<td>3307.5</td>
<td>1371.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AW-fast_w</td>
<td>12141.7</td>
<td>4348.3</td>
<td>21008.3</td>
<td>10744.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16400.0</td>
<td>9720.8</td>
<td>3307.5</td>
<td>1371.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 4. Total number (in thousands) of messages + acknowledgments sent by each process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Operations</th>
<th>2 nodes</th>
<th>4 nodes</th>
<th>8 nodes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FD</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>FFT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFJR</td>
<td>2667/50</td>
<td>3760.0</td>
<td>1450.8</td>
<td>3307.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>960/29</td>
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<td>1450.8</td>
<td>3307.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1450.8</td>
<td>3307.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>AW-fast_r</td>
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<td>22591.7</td>
<td>10744.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>22591.7</td>
<td>10744.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1371.7</td>
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<td>1371.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MM</td>
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<td>396/0.4</td>
<td>208/1.5</td>
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<td>109847/89367</td>
<td>109847/89367</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>109847/89367</td>
<td>109847/89367</td>
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<td>100800/5200</td>
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<tr>
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<td>109847/89367</td>
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<td>108239/87590</td>
<td>109847/89367</td>
<td>109847/89367</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFT</td>
<td>CFJR</td>
<td>5206/3357</td>
<td>376/87</td>
<td>194/15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19922/4980</td>
<td>20970/8388</td>
<td>21068/9731</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19546/4604</td>
<td>19766/7184</td>
<td>19559/8426</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

up to two orders of magnitude the total number of messages sent by each process. This is due to the fact that while CFJR allows several write operations to be disseminated in a single message (in our implementation, up to 100), both the AW-fast_r and the AW-fast_w protocols issue one message per write operation. Table 4 also show that in CFJR, almost each message contains write operations, unlike the AW-fast_r and the AW-fast_w protocols, where up to 50% of the messages are acknowledgments.

6. CONCLUSION

This paper has presented a new sequential consistency protocol. Unlike the previous protocols we are aware of, this one has been derived from the very definition of the sequential consistency criterion. Due to its design principles, the protocol we have obtained is particularly simple. Additionally, it provides write operations that can be executed locally (i.e. without requiring any form of global synchronization). Read operations can also be executed locally when they read a variable that has just been previously updated by the same process. The proposed protocol is very efficient in terms of achieving a high rate of memory operations that can be executed locally. Finally, we note that it is possible, from an engineering point of view, to adapt the globally efficient protocol to particular environments. A simple adaptation would consist in allowing some processes p_i to keep the token for some time when they have it. The benefit of such a possibility depends on the read/write access pattern of the upper layer application program.

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