



# Memory Consistency Models

David Mosberger

Department of Computer Science  
University of Arizona  
Tucson, AZ 85721  
davidm@cs.arizona.edu

## Abstract

This paper discusses memory consistency models and their influence on software in the context of parallel machines. In the first part we review previous work on memory consistency models. The second part discusses the issues that arise due to weakening memory consistency. We are especially interested in the influence that weakened consistency models have on language, compiler, and runtime system design. We conclude that tighter interaction between those parts and the memory system might improve performance considerably.

## 1 Introduction

Traditionally, memory consistency models were of interest only to computer architects designing parallel machines. The goal was to present a model as close as possible to the model exhibited by sequential machines. The model of choice was sequential consistency (SC). Sequential consistency guarantees that the result of any execution of  $n$  processors is the same as if the operations of all processors were executed in some sequential order, and the operations of each individual processor appear in this sequence in the order specified by the program. However, this model severely restricts the set of possible optimizations. For example, in an architecture with a high-latency memory, it would be beneficial to pipeline write accesses and to use write buffers. None of these optimizations is possible with the strict SC model. Simulations have shown that weaker models allowing such optimizations could improve performance on the order of 10 to 40 percent over a strictly sequential model [GGH91, ZB92]. However, weakening the memory consistency model goes hand in hand with a change in the programming model. In general, the programming model becomes more restricted (and complicated)

as the consistency model becomes weaker. That is, an architecture can employ a weaker memory model only if the software using it is prepared to deal with the new programming model. Consequently, memory consistency models are now of concern to operating system and language designers too.

We can also turn the coin around. A compiler normally considers memory accesses to be expensive and therefore tries to replace them by accesses to registers. In terms of a memory consistency model, this means that certain accesses suddenly are not observable any more. In effect, compilers implicitly generate weak memory consistency. This is possible because a compiler knows exactly (or estimates conservatively) the points where memory has to be consistent. For example, compilers typically write back register values before a function call, thus ensuring consistency. It is only natural to attempt to make this implicit weakening explicit in order to let the memory system take advantage too. In fact, it is anticipated that software could gain from a weak model to a much higher degree than hardware [GGH91] by enabling optimizations such as code scheduling or delaying updates that are not legal under SC.

In short, weaker memory consistency models can have a positive effect on the performance of parallel shared memory machines. The benefit increases as memory latency increases. In recent years, processor performance has increased significantly faster than memory system performance. In addition to that, memory latency increases as the number of processors in a system increases.

Shared memory can be implemented at the hardware or software level. In the latter case it is usually called Distributed Shared Memory (DSM). At both levels work has been done to reap the benefits of weaker models. We conjecture that in the near future most parallel machines will be based on consistency models significantly weaker

than SC [LLG<sup>+</sup>92, Sit92, BZ91, CBZ91, KCZ92].

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In section 2 we discuss issues characteristic to memory consistency models. In the following section we present several consistency models and their implications on the programming model. We then take a look at implementation options in section 4. Finally, section 5 discusses the influence of weakened memory consistency models on software. In particular, we discuss the interactions between a weakened memory system and the software using it.

## 2 Consistency Model Issues

Choosing an appropriate memory consistency model (MCM) is a tradeoff between minimizing memory access order constraints and the complexity of the programming model as well as of the complexity of the memory model itself. The weakest possible memory is one returning for a read access some previously written value or a value that will be written in the future. This is in effect a random number generator [HA90]. While minimizing ordering constraints perfectly, it is not useful as a programming model. Implementing weaker models is also often more complex as it is necessary to keep track of outstanding accesses and restrict the order of execution of two accesses when necessary. It is therefore not surprising that many different MCMs have been proposed and new models are to be expected in the future. Unfortunately, there is no single hierarchy that could be used to classify the strictness of a consistency model. Below, we define the design space for consistency models. This allows us to classify the various models more easily.

Memory consistency models impose ordering restrictions on accesses depending on a number of attributes. In general, the more attributes a model distinguishes, the weaker the model is. Some attributes a model could distinguish are listed below:

- location of access
- direction of access (read, write, or both)
- value transmitted in access
- causality of access
- category of access

The *causality* attribute is a relation that tells if two accesses  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  are (potentially) causally related

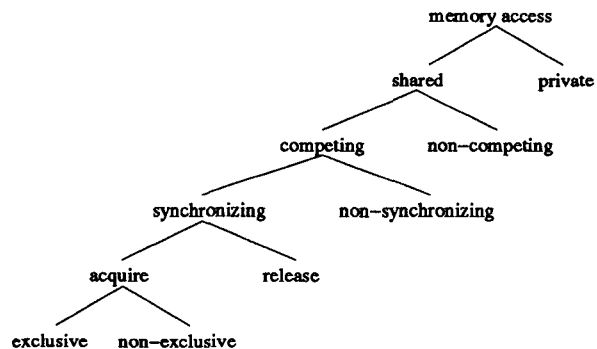


Figure 1: Access Categories

[Lam78] and if so, whether  $a_1$  occurred before  $a_2$  or vice versa.

The access *category* is a static property of accesses. A useful (but by no means the only possible) categorization is shown in Figure 1. It is an extension of the categorization used in [GLL<sup>+</sup>90]. A memory access is either *shared* or *private*. Private accesses are easy to deal with, so we don't discuss them further. Shared accesses can be divided into *competing* and *non-competing* accesses. A pair of accesses is competing if they access the same location, at least one of them is a write access, and they are not ordered. For example, accesses to shared variables within a critical section are non-competing because mutual exclusion guarantees ordering<sup>1</sup>. A competing access can be either *synchronizing* or *non-synchronizing*. Synchronizing accesses are used to enforce order, for example by delaying an access until all previous accesses are performed. However, not all competing access are synchronizing accesses. Chaotic relaxation algorithms, for example, use competing accesses without imposing ordering constraints. Such algorithms work even if some read accesses do not return the most recent value.

Synchronizing accesses can be divided further into *acquire* or *release* accesses. An acquire is always associated with a read synchronizing access while a release is always a write synchronizing access. Atomic fetch-and- $\Phi$  operations can usually be treated as an acquiring read access followed by a non-synchronizing write access. Finally, an acquire operation can be either *exclusive* or *non-exclusive*. Multiple non-exclusive acquire accesses can be granted, but an exclusive acquire access is de-

<sup>1</sup> Assuming accesses by a single processor appear sequentially consistent

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layed until all previous acquisitions have been released. For example, if a critical region has only read accesses to shared variables, then acquiring the lock can be done non-exclusively.

Consistency models that distinguish access categories employ different ordering constraints depending on the access category. We therefore call such models *hybrid*. In contrast, models that do not distinguish access categories are called *uniform*. The motivation for hybrid models is engendered in Adve and Hill's definition for weak ordering [AH90]:

*Hardware is weakly ordered with respect to a synchronization model if and only if it appears sequentially consistent to all software that obey the synchronization model.*

That is, as long as the synchronization model is respected, the memory system appears to be sequentially consistent. This allows the definition of almost arbitrarily weak consistency models while still presenting a reasonable programming model. All that changes is the number or severity of constraints imposed by the synchronization model.

### 3 Proposed Models

We now proceed to define the consistency models that have previously been proposed. We do not give formal definitions for the presented models as they do not help to understand a model's implications on the programming model. More formal descriptions can be found for example in Hutto and Ahamad [HA90] and Gharachorloo et al. [GLL<sup>+</sup>90]. We first discuss uniform models and then hybrid models. Within each class, the models are described in decreasing order of strictness.

We use triplets of the form  $a(l)v$  to denote a memory access, where  $a$  is either  $R$  for read access or  $W$  for write access,  $l$  denotes the accessed location, and  $v$  the transmitted value. In our examples, a triplet identifies an access uniquely. Memory locations are assumed to have an initial value of zero.

Execution histories are presented as diagrams with one line per processor. Time corresponds to the horizontal axis and increases to the right. For write accesses, a triplet in a diagram marks the time when it was issued, while for read accesses it denotes the time of completion. This asymmetry exists because a program can only "know" about these events. It does not know at which point in time a write performed or at which point in time a read was issued (there may be prefetching hardware,

for example). The following diagram is an example execution history:

$$\begin{array}{l} P_1 : \frac{W(x)1}{P_2 : \frac{R(x)1}{1}} \end{array}$$

Processor  $P_1$  writes 1 to location  $x$  and processor  $P_2$  subsequently observes this write by reading 1 from  $x$ . This implies that the write access completed (performed) some time between being issued by  $P_1$  and being observed by  $P_2$ .

In the following discussion we use the word *processor* to refer to the entities performing memory accesses. In most cases it could be replaced by the word *process* as processes are simply a software abstraction of physical processors.

#### 3.1 Atomic Consistency (AC)

This is the strictest of all consistency models. With atomic consistency, operations take effect at some point in an *operation interval*. It is easiest to think of operation intervals as dividing time into non-overlapping, consecutive slots. For example, the clock cycle of a memory bus could serve as an operation interval. Multiple accesses during the same operation interval are allowed, which causes a problem if reads and writes to the same location occur in the same operation interval. One solution is to define read operations to take effect at read-begin time and write operations to take effect at write-end time. This is called *static* atomic consistency [HA90]. With *dynamic* AC, operations can take effect at any point in the operation interval, as long as the resulting history is equivalent to some serial execution.

Atomic consistency is often used as a base model when evaluating the performance of an MCM.

#### 3.2 Sequential Consistency (SC)

Sequential consistency was first defined by Lamport in 1979 [Lam79]. He defined a memory system to be sequentially consistent if

*... the result of any execution is the same as if the operations of all the processors were executed in some sequential order, and the operations of each individual processor appear in this sequence in the order specified by its program.*

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This is equivalent to the *one-copy serializability* concept found in work on concurrency control for database systems [BHG87]. In a sequentially consistent system, all processors must agree on the order of observed effects. The following is a legal execution history for SC but not for AC:

$P_1$ :	$W(x)1$			
$P_2$ :		$W(y)2$		
$P_3$ :		$R(y)2$	$R(x)0$	$R(x)1$

Note that  $R(y)2$  by processor  $P_3$  reads a value that has not been written yet! Of course, this is not possible in any real physical system. However, it shows a surprising flexibility of the SC model. Another reason why this is not a legal history for atomic consistency is that the write operations  $W(x)1$  and  $W(y)2$  appear commuted at processor  $P_3$ .

Sequential consistency has been the canonical memory consistency model for a long time. However, many machines actually implement a slightly weaker model called processor consistency (see below).

### 3.3 Causal Consistency

Hutto and Ahamad [HA90] introduced causal consistency. Lamport [Lam78] defined the notion of *potential causality* to capture the flow of information in a distributed system. This notion can be applied to a memory system by interpreting a write as a message-send event and a read as a message-read event. A memory is causally consistent if all processors agree on the order of causally related events. Causally unrelated events (concurrent events) can be observed in different orders. For example, the following is a legal execution history under CC but not under SC:

$P_1$ :	$W(x)1$		$W(x)3$	
$P_2$ :	$R(x)1$	$W(x)2$		
$P_3$ :	$R(x)1$		$R(x)3$	$R(x)2$
$P_4$ :	$R(x)1$		$R(x)2$	$R(x)3$

Note that  $W(x)1$  and  $W(x)2$  are causally related as  $P_2$  observed the first write by  $P_1$ . Furthermore,  $P_3$  and  $P_4$  observe the accesses  $W(x)2$  and  $W(x)3$  in different orders, which would not be legal under SC.

CC is mostly of theoretical interest as it is stricter and harder to implement than processor consistency.

### 3.4 Processor Consistency (PC) and Pipelined RAM (PRAM)

Lipton and Sandberg [LS88] defined the Pipelined RAM (PRAM) consistency model which is equivalent to the Processor Consistency (PC) model proposed by Goodman in [Goo89]. The acronym PRAM is often used as a shorthand for Parallel Random Access Machine which has nothing in common with the Pipelined RAM memory consistency model. We will therefore use the term processor consistency in the remainder of this paper.

The motivation for this model is to allow pipelining of write accesses. Pipelining results in potentially delaying the effect of a write. It therefore relaxes some of the ordering constraints for writes. Writes by a single processor are still performed in order (i.e., FIFO order). While writes issued from a single processor still have to be observed in the issued order by all processors, processors may disagree on the order in which write accesses issued by two different processors occurred. The following execution history is legal under PC but not under CC:

$P_1$ :	$W(x)1$			
$P_2$ :		$R(x)1$	$W(x)2$	
$P_3$ :			$R(x)1$	$R(x)2$
$P_4$ :			$R(x)2$	$R(x)1$

$P_3$  and  $P_4$  observe the writes by  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  in different orders, although  $W(x)1$  and  $W(x)2$  are potentially causally related. Thus, this would not be a legal history for CC.

Another interesting effect that is allowed under PC is that a read access can “overtake” a write access by the same processor if the accesses are to different locations.

The differences between PC and SC are subtle enough that Goodman claims most applications give the same results under these two models. As CC lies between SC and PC, this also applies to causal consistency. Many existing multiprocessors (e.g., VAX 8800) satisfy PC, but not sequential consistency [Goo89]. Bershad and Zekauskas [BZ91] also mention that processor consistent machines are easier to build than sequentially consistent systems.

### 3.5 Slow Memory

Slow memory is a *location relative* weakening of PC [HA90]. It requires that all processors agree on the order of observed writes to *each location* by a single processor. Furthermore, local writes must be visible immediately

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(as in the PRAM model). The name for this model was chosen because writes propagate slowly through the system. Slow memory is probably one of the weakest uniform consistency models that can still be used for interprocess communication. Hutto and Ahamad present a mutual exclusion algorithm in [HA90]. However, this algorithm guarantees physical exclusion only. There is no guarantee of logical exclusion. For example, after two processes  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  were subsequently granted access to a critical section and both wrote two variables  $a$  and  $b$ , then a third process  $P_3$  may enter the critical region and read the value of  $a$  as written by  $P_1$  and the value of  $b$  as written by  $P_2$ . Thus, for  $P_3$  it looks like  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  had had simultaneous access to the critical section. This problem is inherent to slow memory because the knowledge that an access to one location has performed cannot be used to infer that accesses to other locations have also performed. Slow memory does not appear to be of any practical significance.

#### 3.6 Weak Consistency (WC)

Weak consistency is the first and most strict hybrid model we discuss. The model was originally proposed by Dubois et al. [DSB86]. A memory system is weakly consistent if it enforces the following restrictions:

1. accesses to synchronization variables are sequentially consistent and
2. no access to a synchronization variable is issued in a processor before all previous data accesses have been performed and
3. no access is issued by a processor before a previous access to a synchronization variable has been performed

That is, synchronizing accesses work as *fences*. At the time a synchronizing access performs, all previous accesses are guaranteed to have performed and all future access are guaranteed not to have performed. The synchronization model corresponding to these access order constraints is relatively simple. A program executing on a weakly consistent system appears sequentially consistent if the following two constraints hold [AH90, ZB92]:

1. there are no data races (i.e., no competing accesses)
2. synchronization is visible to the memory system

Note that WC does not allow for chaotic accesses as found in chaotic relaxation algorithms. Such algorithms would either have to be changed to avoid data races or it

would be necessary to mask chaotic accesses as synchronizing accesses. The latter would be overly restrictive.

#### 3.7 Release Consistency (RC)

Release consistency as defined by Gharachorloo et al. [GLL<sup>+</sup>90] is a refinement of WC in the sense that competing accesses are divided into acquire, release, and non-synchronizing accesses. Competing accesses are also called *special* to distinguish them from non-competing, ordinary accesses. Non-synchronizing accesses are competing accesses that do not serve a synchronization purpose. This type of access was introduced to be able to handle chaotic relaxation algorithms. An acquire access works like a synchronizing access under WC, except that the fence delays future accesses only. Similarly, a release works like a synchronizing access under WC, except that the fence delays until all previous accesses have been performed. This, for example, allows (limited) overlap in executing critical sections, which is not possible under WC. Another, more subtle, change is that special accesses are required to be processor consistent only (not sequentially consistent as under WC).

To make the model more concrete, we give an example of how a critical section and a coordinator barrier could be programmed under RC (see [And91], for example). Below we show how a critical section could be implemented under this model:

```
do test_and_set(locked) → [rd:acquire;wr:nsync]
  skip
od
...critical section...
locked := false [release]
```

Note the labeling of the read-modify-write operation *test\_and\_set()*. The read is labeled *acquire*, while the write is labeled *nsync*, which stands for non-synchronizing access. The *acquire* label ensures that no future access is performed before the read has completed and the *nsync* label ensures that the write occurs under PC. Note that it would be legal but unnecessarily restrictive to mark the write access *release*. The *release* label for the write access resetting the *locked* flag ensures that all accesses in the critical sections are performed by the time the flag is actually reset.

The coordinator barrier is considerably more complicated. The important thing however is that the heart of the barrier is realized by a *release* followed by an *acquire*, while the critical section does just the opposite.

```

worker[p : 1..N] :
  arrived[p] := true           [release]
  do not go[p] → skip od      [acquire]
  go[p] := false              [ordinary]

coordinator :
  fa i := 1 to N →
    do not arrived[i] →       [nsync]
    skip
  od
  arrived[i] := false         [nsync]
af
  fa i := 1 to N →
    go[i] := true             [nsync]
  af

```

From these examples it should be clear that it is not at all straight forward to write synchronization primitives under RC. However, it is important to realize that such primitives are often written “once-and-forever.” That is, the typical programmer doesn’t need to worry about labeling accesses correctly as high-level synchronization primitives would be provided by a language or operating system. Also, it is always safe to label a program conservatively. For example, if a compiler has incomplete information available, it could always revert to label reads with *acquire* and writes with *release*.

### 3.8 Entry Consistency (EC)

The entry consistency model is even weaker than RC [BZ91]. However, it imposes more restrictions on the programming model. EC is like RC except that every shared variable needs to be associated with a synchronization variable. A synchronizing variable is either a lock or a barrier. The association between a variable and its synchronization variable can change dynamically under program control. Note that this, like slow memory, is a location relative weakening of a consistency model. This has the effect that accesses to different critical sections can proceed concurrently, which would not be possible under RC. Another feature of EC is that it refines acquire accesses into exclusive and non-exclusive acquisitions. This, again, increases potential concurrency as non-exclusive acquisitions to the same synchronization variable can be granted concurrently. However, unlike RC, entry consistency is not prepared to handle chaotic accesses. This model is the first that was specifically designed to be implemented as a software shared memory system.

## 4 Implementations of Memory Consistency Models

An implementation of a memory consistency model is often stricter than the model would allow. For example, release consistency allows the possibility of a read returning a value that hasn’t been written yet (see example discussed under 3.2 Sequential Consistency). Clearly, no implementation will ever exhibit an execution with such a history. In general, it is often simpler to implement a slightly stricter model than its definition would require. This is especially true for hardware realizations of shared memories [AHJ91, GLL<sup>+</sup>90].

For each consistency model there are a number of implementation issues. Some of the more general questions are:

- What is the consistency unit?
- Enforce eager or lazy consistency?
- Use update or invalidation protocol to maintain consistency?

In hardware implementations the consistency unit is typically a word or a cache line. In software shared memories, the overhead per consistency unit is much higher in absolute terms, so that a memory page or a shared object (structured variable, segment) is often chosen as the consistency unit.

The notion of eager versus lazy maintenance of memory consistency was first discussed in the context of Midway [BZ91]. This notion is based on the observation that the consistency protocol can either be invoked each time an inconsistency *arises* or only when an inconsistency could be *detected*. Eager implementations do the former, lazy the latter. The expected benefit of lazy implementations is that if a process has a cached copy of a shared variable but doesn’t access it anymore, then this process does not have to participate in maintaining consistency for this variable. Lazy release consistency [KCZ92] and Midway [BZ91] are two examples of lazy implementations. No performance data is yet available.

## 5 Influence of Consistency Model on Software

As mentioned earlier, choosing a memory consistency model is a tradeoff between increasing concurrency by decreasing ordering constraints and implementation and programming model complexity. With hybrid models,

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the memory system is sequentially consistent as long as its synchronization model is respected. That is, the software executing on such a memory system has to provide information about synchronization events to the memory system and its synchronization model must match the memory system's model. Synchronization information is provided by either a programmer in an explicitly concurrent language<sup>2</sup> or by a compiler or its runtime system in a high-level language. Thus, software running on a hybrid memory system has to provide information to execute correctly. However, it is possible and beneficial to go beyond that point. If the software can provide information on the expected *access pattern* to a shared variable, optimizations for each particular access pattern could be enabled resulting in substantially improved performance. Munin [CBZ91] does this by providing a fixed set of sharing annotations. Each annotation corresponds to a consistency protocol optimized for a particular access pattern. A similar approach was taken by Chiba et al. [CKM92] where they annotate Linda programs in order to select an optimized protocol for *in* operations if they are used with certain restrictions. For example, the weakest and most efficient protocol can be used only if, for a tuple with tag *t*, there is at most one process performing *in* operations and no process performing *read* operations. Unfortunately, so far no performance study of the advantage of such "guided" memory systems has been reported. Carter [CBZ91] indicates that Munin performs well for matrix multiplication and SOR when compared to a hand-coded message passing algorithm, but no comparison with a single-protocol DSM or a strict DSM was reported.

Also note that a change in the consistency model of a memory system can lead to quite subtle changes. For example, Zucker and Baer note that

*the analysis of Relax [a benchmark program] made us realize that how the program is written or compiled for peak performance depends upon the memory model to be used.*

In their example, under SC it was more efficient to schedule a read access causing a cache-miss at the end of a sequence of eight read accesses hitting the cache, while under WC and RC the same access had to be scheduled at the beginning of the read-sequence.

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<sup>2</sup>By "explicitly concurrent language" we mean a language in which it is possible to program synchronization operations.

### 5.1 Chaotic Accesses

Another issue raised by the introduction of weaker consistency models is chaotic accesses (i.e., non-synchronizing competing accesses). Current DSM systems do not handle them well. Neither Munin nor Midway have special provisions for chaotic accesses. Note that algorithms using such accesses often depend on having a "fairly recent" value available. That is, if accesses to variable *x* are unsynchronized, then reading *x* must not return *any* previously written value but a "recent" one. For example, the *LocusRoute* application of the SPLASH benchmark does not perform well if non-synchronizing competing accesses return very old values [Rin92, SWG91]. RC maintains such accesses under processor consistency (which is safe but conservative in many cases). Another type of algorithm using non-synchronizing competing accesses is of the kind where a process needs some of the neighbor's data, but instead of synchronizing with its neighbor, the process computes the value itself and stores it in the neighbor's data field. In effect, this type of algorithm trades synchronization with (re-)computation. We would expect having specialized consistency protocols for chaotic accesses could improve the performance of such algorithms.

### 5.2 Annotating Compilers

Only very little work has been done on annotating parallel programs automatically. In the general case, determining the access patterns to a shared variable is undecidable. It is also unclear exactly what access patterns are useful to distinguish (some work in this direction was done for Munin). However, a language could be designed such that it becomes easier to infer certain aspects of an access pattern. A simple example is a constant object. As there are no write accesses, such objects can be replicated among processes without needing any consistency protocol. Another example is determining whether a critical region contains no write accesses to shared variables. Under EC, this information determines whether a lock can be acquired in exclusive or non-exclusive mode. As critical regions are typically short and do not contain any function calls or unbounded loops, this problem could be decided in most cases.

### 5.3 Explicitly Parallel Languages

As mentioned above, in an explicitly parallel language the MCM defines the allowable memory-access optimizations. Such a language depends very directly on

the memory consistency model as it allows the implementation of synchronization operations. For AC, SC, and PC no special constructs must be available. For WC a *memory-barrier* (or *full fence*) operation would be sufficient. A memory-barrier would have to be inserted in a program wherever consistency of the memory has to be enforced. For RC things become even more complex. Every access would have to be labeled according to its category. With EC, synchronization operations can be implemented based on the locks and barriers provided by the system only. This shows clearly that it is not a good idea to allow a programmer to implement his or her own synchronization primitives based on individual memory accesses. Instead, a language should provide efficient and primitive operations which can then be used to implement higher-level synchronization operations. Maybe locks and barriers as provided under EC would be sufficient. However, for barriers it is not clear whether a single implementation would be sufficient for all possible applications. For example, sometimes it is useful to do some work at the time all processes have joined at a barrier but before releasing them. Under EC, such a construct would have to be implemented with two barriers or in terms of locks; both methods would likely be more inefficient than a direct implementation.

#### 5.4 Implicitly Parallel Languages

Implicitly parallel languages do not have any notion of concurrent execution at the language level. Concurrency control is typically implemented by compiler-generated calls to a the runtime system. Therefore all that needs to be done to adapt to a new MCM is to change the runtime system. As mentioned above, it is still advantageous to integrate the consistency model with the compiler and runtime system more tightly. As the compiler already has information on synchronization and the concurrency structure of the program, it might as well make this information available to the memory system. Jade [RSL92] is a step in this direction. Its runtime system has for each process precise information on the accessed locations and whether a location is only read or also modified. The language also allows one to express that some data will not be accessed anymore in the future.

It is unclear at this point exactly which information can and should be provided to the memory system. It is equally open what information the memory system could provide to the runtime system. The latter, for example, could be useful to guide a runtime system's scheduler based on what data is cheaply available (cached) in the memory system.

## 6 Conclusions

The central theme of this work is that being memory-model conscious is a good thing. This applies to distributed shared memories, runtime systems, and compilers, as well as languages. We have argued that consistency models are important and that weaker models are beneficial to performance. While there are weakened models that are uniform, they seem to be of no practical significance. All current work seems to concentrate on hybrid models. While quite some work has been done in this area, the lack of meaningful performance data is surprising. Also, it appears that in the language, compiler, and runtime-system realms there are still a lot of open questions that could warrant further research. We expect that a tighter coupling between the memory system and the software using it could result in considerable performance improvements.

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