

Linux kernel synchronization

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Logical Diagram

Binary Memory Threads User Today's Lecture **Synchronization** Kernel in the kernel Sync working **CPU** Memory Device Scheduler Management Drivers Hardware Disk Net Consistency Interrupts

Warm-up

- ♦ What is synchronization?
 - ♦ Code on multiple CPUs coordinate their operations
- ♦ Examples:
 - Locking provides mutual exclusion while changing a pointer-based data structure
 - ♦ Threads might wait at a barrier for completion of a phase of computation
 - ♦ Coordinating which CPU handles an interrupt

Why Linux synchronization?

- ♦ A modern OS kernel is one of the most complicated parallel programs you can study
 - ♦ Other than perhaps a database
- ♦ Includes most common synchronization patterns
 - * And a few interesting, uncommon ones

Historical perspective

Why did OSes have to worry so much about synchronization back when most computers have only one CPU?

The old days: They didn't worry!

- → Early/simple OSes (like JOS, pre-lab4): No need for synchronization
 - ♦ All kernel requests wait until completion even disk requests
 - Heavily restrict when interrupts can be delivered (all traps use an interrupt gate)
 - * No possibility for two CPUs to touch same data

Slightly more recently

- ♦ Optimize kernel performance by blocking inside the kernel
- ★ Example: Rather than wait on expensive disk I/O, block and schedule another process until it completes
 - ♦ Cost: A bit of implementation complexity
 - ♦ Need a lock to protect against concurrent update to pages/inodes/etc. involved in the I/O
 - ♦ Could be accomplished with relatively coarse locks
 - ♦ Like the Big Kernel Lock (BKL)
 - ♦ Benefit: Better CPU utilitzation

A slippery slope

- ♦ We can enable interrupts during system calls
 - ♦ More complexity, lower latency
- ♦ We can block in more places that make sense
 - ♦ Better CPU usage, more complexity
- ♦ Concurrency was an optimization for really fancy OSes, until...

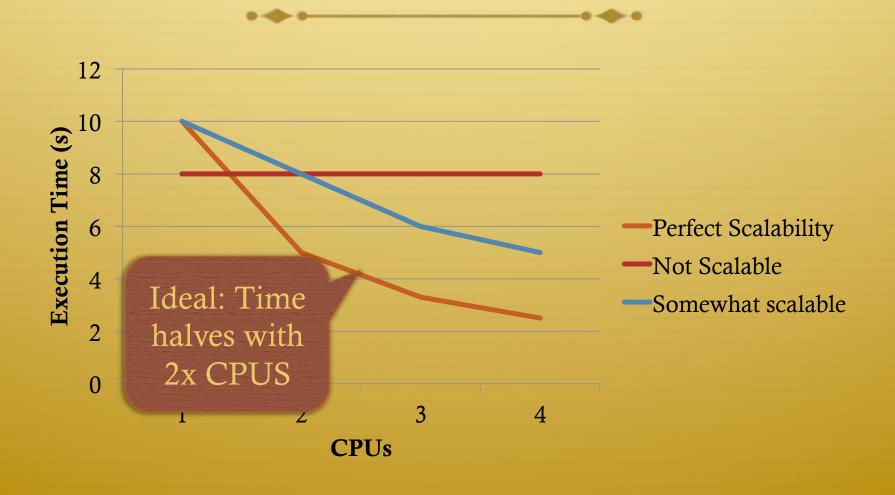
The forcing function

- ♦ Multi-processing
 - ♦ CPUs aren't getting faster, just smaller
 - ♦ So you can put more cores on a chip
- ♦ The only way software (including kernels) will get faster is to do more things at the same time

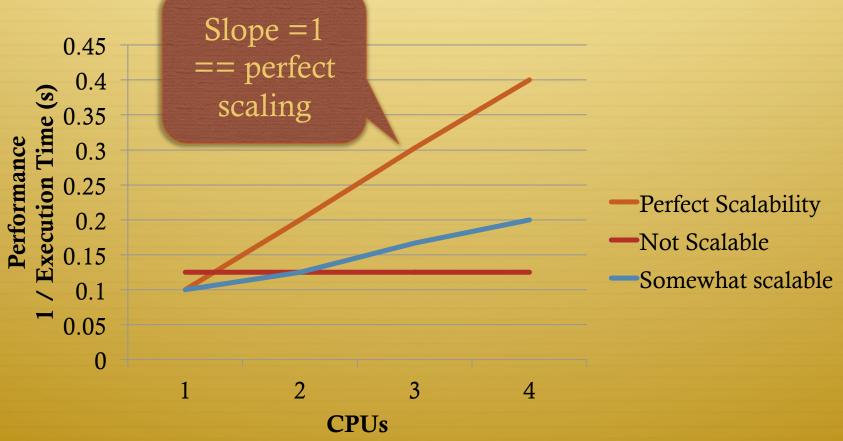
Performance Scalability

- ✦ How much more work can this software complete in a unit of time if I give it another CPU?
 - ♦ Same: No scalability---extra CPU is wasted
 - → 1 -> 2 CPUs doubles the work: Perfect scalability
- ♦ Most software isn't scalable
- ♦ Most scalable software isn't perfectly scalable

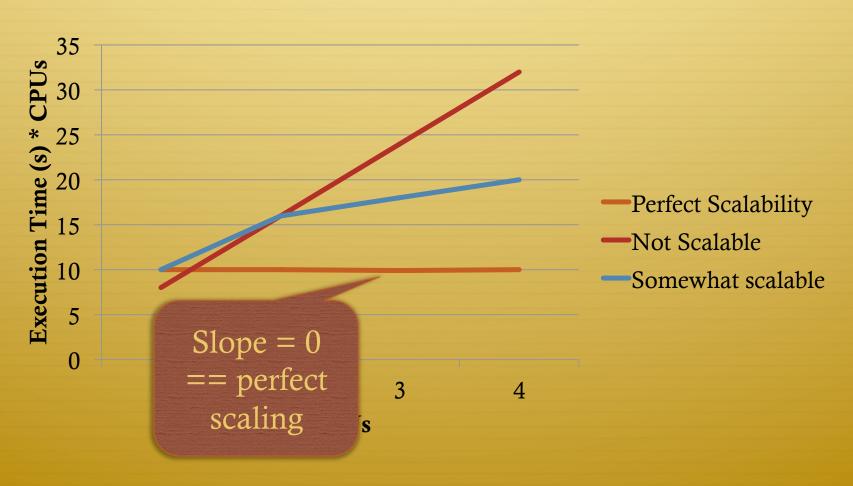
Performance Scalability



Performance Scalability (more visually intuitive)



Performance Scalability (A 3rd visual)



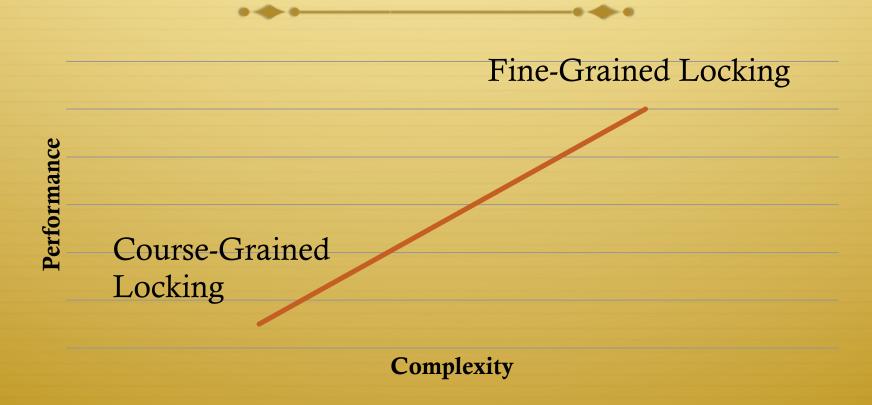
Coarse vs. Fine-grained locking

- ♦ Coarse: A single lock for everything
 - ♦ Idea: Before I touch any shared data, grab the lock
 - ♦ Problem: completely unrelated operations wait on each other
 - ♦ Adding CPUs doesn't improve performance

Fine-grained locking

- ♦ Fine-grained locking: Many "little" locks for individual data structures
 - ♦ Goal: Unrelated activities hold different locks
 - ♦ Hence, adding CPUs improves performance
 - ♦ Cost: complexity of coordinating locks

Current Reality



♦ Unsavory trade-off between complexity and performance scalability

How do locks work?

- ♦ Two key ingredients:
 - ♦ A hardware-provided atomic instruction
 - ♦ Determines who wins under contention
 - ♦ A waiting strategy for the loser(s)

Atomic instructions

- ♦ A "normal" instruction can span many CPU cycles
 - \Rightarrow Example: 'a = b + c' requires 2 loads and a store
 - * These loads and stores can interleave with other CPUs' memory accesses
- * An atomic instruction guarantees that the entire operation is not interleaved with any other CPU
 - * x86: Certain instructions can have a 'lock' prefix
 - ♦ Intuition: This CPU 'locks' all of memory
 - * Expensive! Not ever used automatically by a compiler; must be explicitly used by the programmer

Atomic instruction examples

- \Rightarrow Atomic increment/decrement (x++ or x--)
 - Used for reference counting
 - ♦ Some variants also return the value x was set to by this instruction (useful if another CPU immediately changes the value)
- ♦ Compare and swap
 - \Rightarrow if (x == y) x = z;
 - Used for many lock-free data structures

Atomic instructions + locks

- ♦ Most lock implementations have some sort of counter
- ♦ Say initialized to 1
- ♦ To acquire the lock, use an atomic decrement
 - ♦ If you set the value to 0, you win! Go ahead
 - + If you get < 0, you lose. Wait \otimes
 - ♦ Atomic decrement ensures that only one CPU will decrement the value to zero
- ♦ To release, set the value back to 1

Waiting strategies

- ♦ Spinning: Just poll the atomic counter in a busy loop; when it becomes 1, try the atomic decrement again
- * Blocking: Create a kernel wait queue and go to sleep, yielding the CPU to more useful work
 - ♦ Winner is responsible to wake up losers (in addition to setting lock variable to 1)
 - ♦ Create a kernel wait queue the same thing used to wait on I/O
 - ♦ Note: Moving to a wait queue takes you out of the scheduler's run queue

Which strategy to use?

- ♦ Main consideration: Expected time waiting for the lock vs. time to do 2 context switches
 - → If the lock will be held a long time (like while waiting for disk I/O), blocking makes sense
 - ♦ If the lock is only held momentarily, spinning makes sense
- ♦ Other, subtle considerations we will discuss later

Linux lock types

- ♦ Blocking: mutex, semaphore
- * Non-blocking: spinlocks, seqlocks, completions

Linux spinlock (simplified)

```
1: lock; decb slp->slock
                                 // Locked decrement of lock var
   jns 3f
                                 // Jump if not set (result is zero) to 3
2: pause
                                 // Low power instruction, wakes on
                                 // coherence event
  cmpb $0,slp->slock
                                 // Read the lock value, compare to zero
  jle 2b
                                 // If less than or equal (to zero), goto 2
  jmp 1b
                                 // Else jump to 1 and try again
3:
                                 // We win the lock
```

Rough C equivalent

```
while (0 != atomic_dec(&lock->counter)) {
        do {
               // Pause the CPU until some coherence
               // traffic (a prerequisite for the counter changing)
               // saving power
        } while (lock->counter \leq 0);
```

Why 2 loops?

- → Functionally, the outer loop is sufficient
- ♦ Problem: Attempts to write this variable invalidate it in all other caches
 - ♦ If many CPUs are waiting on this lock, the cache line will bounce between CPUs that are polling its value
 - ♦ This is VERY expensive and slows down EVERYTHING on the system
 - The inner loop read-shares this cache line, allowing all polling in parallel
- ♦ This pattern called a Test&Test&Set lock (vs. Test&Set)

Reader/writer locks

- ♦ Simple optimization: If I am just reading, we can let other readers access the data at the same time
 - → Just no writers
- ♦ Writers require mutual exclusion

Linux RW-Spinlocks

- ♦ Low 24 bits count active readers

 - ♦ To read lock: atomic_dec_unless(count, 0)
 - ♦ 1 reader: 0x:00ffffff
 - ♦ 2 readers: 0x00fffffe
 - ♦ Etc.
 - ♦ Readers limited to 2^24. That is a lot of CPUs!
- ♦ 25th bit for writer
 - ♦ Write lock CAS 0x01000000 -> 0
 - * Readers will fail to acquire the lock until we add 0x1000000

Subtle issue

- ♦ What if we have a constant stream of readers and a waiting writer?
 - ♦ The writer will starve
- ♦ We may want to prioritize writers over readers
 - + For instance, when readers are polling for the write
 - ♦ How to do this?

Seqlocks

- ♦ Explicitly favor writers, potentially starve readers
- ♦ Idea:
 - ♦ An explicit write lock (one writer at a time)
 - → Plus a version number each writer increments at beginning and end of critical section
- * Readers: Check version number, read data, check again
 - ♦ If version changed, try again in a loop
 - → If version hasn't changed and is even, neither has data

Seqlock Example

70

% Time for CSE 506

30

% Time for All Else

Invariant:
Must add up to
100%



Seqlock Example

80

20

% Time for CSE 506

% Time for All Else

What if reader executed now?

```
Reader:
    do {
        v = version;
        a = cse506;
        b = other;
} while (v % 2 == 1 &&
        v != version);
```



```
Writer:
lock();
version++;
other = 20;
cse506 = 80;
version++;
unlock();
```

Seqlocks

- ♦ Explicitly favor writers, potentially starve readers
- ♦ Idea:
 - ♦ An explicit write lock (one writer at a time)
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Composing locks

- ♦ Suppose I need to touch two data structures (A and B) in the kernel, protected by two locks.
- ♦ What could go wrong?
 - ♦ Deadlock!
 - ♦ Thread 0: lock(a); lock(b)
 - ♦ Thread 1: lock(b); lock(a)
- ♦ How to solve?
 - Lock ordering

Lock Ordering

- ♦ A program code convention
- ♦ Developers get together, have lunch, plan the order of locks
- ♦ In general, nothing at compile time or run-time prevents you from violating this convention
 - * Research topics on making this better:
 - ♦ Finding locking bugs
 - ♦ Automatically locking things properly
 - ♦ Transactional memory

How to order?

- ♦ What if I lock each entry in a linked list. What is a sensible ordering?
 - ♦ Lock each item in list order
 - ♦ What if the list changes order?
 - ♦ Uh-oh! This is a hard problem
- ♦ Lock-ordering usually reflects static assumptions about the structure of the data
 - When you can't make these assumptions, ordering gets hard

Linux solution

- ♦ In general, locks for dynamic data structures are ordered
 by kernel virtual address
 - ♦ I.e., grab locks in increasing virtual address order
- ♦ A few places where traversal path is used instead

Lock ordering in practice From Linux: fs/dcache.c

```
void d prune aliases(struct inode *inode) {
                                                     Care taken to lock inode
        struct dentry *dentry;
                                                         before each alias
        struct hlist node *p;
restart:
        spin lock(&inode->i lock);
        hlist for each entry(dentry, p, &inode->i dentry, d alias) {
                spin lock(&dentry->d lock);
                if (!dentry->d count) {
                         dget dlock(dentry);
                         d drop(dentry);
                        spin unlock(&dentry->d lock);
                        spin unlock(&inode->i lock);
                        dput(dentry);
                                                      Inode lock protects list;
                        goto restart;
                                                      Must restart loop after
                                                           modification
                spin unlock(&dentry->d lock);
        spin unlock(&inode->i lock);
```

mm/filemap.c lock ordering

```
/*
 * Lock ordering:
   ->i mmap lock
                                (vmtruncate)
                                (__free_pte->__set_page_dirty_buffers)
     ->private lock
                                (exclusive swap page, others)
       ->swap lock
          ->mapping->tree lock
   ->i mutex
     ->i mmap lock
                                (truncate->unmap mapping range)
   ->mmap_sem
    ->i mmap lock
       ->page table lock or pte lock (various, mainly in memory.c)
          ->mapping->tree lock (arch-dependent flush dcache mmap lock)
   ->mmap_sem
     ->lock page
                                (access process vm)
   ->mmap_sem
     ->i mutex
                                (msync)
   ->i mutex
     ->i alloc sem
                                (various)
   ->inode lock
    ->sb lock
                                (fs/fs-writeback.c)
    ->mapping->tree lock
                                ( sync_single_inode)
   ->i mmap lock
     ->anon vma.lock
                                (vma adjust)
   ->anon vma.lock
     ->page table lock or pte lock
                                        (anon vma prepare and various)
   ->page table lock or pte lock
     ->swap lock
                                (try to unmap one)
     ->private lock
                                (try to unmap one)
     ->tree lock
                                (try to unmap one)
                                (follow page->mark page accessed)
     ->zone.lru lock
     ->zone.lru lock
                                (check_pte_range->isolate_lru_page)
                                (page remove rmap->set page dirty)
     ->private lock
                                (page remove rmap->set page dirty)
     ->tree lock
     ->inode lock
                                (page remove rmap->set page dirty)
     ->inode lock
                                (zap_pte_range->set_page_dirty)
                                (zap pte range-> set page dirty buffers)
     ->private lock
    ->task->proc lock
     ->dcache lock
                                (proc pid lookup)
 */
```

Semaphore

- ♦ A counter of allowed concurrent processes
 - ♦ A mutex is the special case of 1 at a time
- ♦ Plus a wait queue
- → Implemented similarly to a spinlock, except spin loop replaced with placing oneself on a wait queue

Ordering blocking and spin locks

- ♦ If you are mixing blocking locks with spinlocks, be sure to acquire all blocking locks first and release blocking locks last
 - * Releasing a semaphore/mutex schedules the next waiter
 - ♦ On the same CPU!
 - ♦ If we hold a spinlock, the waiter may also try to grab this lock
 - The waiter may block trying to get our spinlock and never yield the CPU
 - ♦ We never get scheduled again, we never release the lock

Summary

- Understand how to implement a spinlock/semaphore/ rw-spinlock
- ♦ Understand trade-offs between:
 - ♦ Spinlocks vs. blocking lock
 - ♦ Fine vs. coarse locking
 - * Favoring readers vs. writers
- ♦ Lock ordering issues