Locking

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Portions courtesy Emmett Witchel
Too Much Milk: Lessons

• Software solution (Peterson’s algorithm) works, but it is unsatisfactory
  – Solution is complicated; proving correctness is tricky even for the simple example
  – While thread is waiting, it is consuming CPU time
  – Asymmetric solution exists for 2 processes.

• How can we do better?
  – Use hardware features to eliminate busy waiting
  – Define higher-level programming abstractions to simplify concurrent programming
Concurrent Quiz

If two threads execute this program concurrently, how many different final values of $X$ are there?

Initially, $X == 0$.

Thread 1

```c
void increment() {
    int temp = X;
    temp = temp + 1;
    X = temp;
}
```

Thread 2

```c
void increment() {
    int temp = X;
    temp = temp + 1;
    X = temp;
}
```

Answer:
A. 0
B. 1
C. 2
D. More than 2
Schedules and Interleavings

• Model of concurrent execution
• Interleave statements from each thread into a single thread
• If any interleaving yields incorrect results, some synchronization is needed

If X==0 initially, X == 1 at the end. WRONG result!
Mutual exclusion ensures only safe interleavings
– *When is mutual exclusion too safe?*
Introducing Locks

- **Locks** – implement mutual exclusion
  - Two methods
    - Lock::Acquire() – wait until lock is free, then grab it
    - Lock::Release() – release the lock, waking up a waiter, if any

- With locks, too much milk problem is very easy!
  - Check and update happen as one unit (exclusive access)

```cpp
Lock.Acquire();
if (noMilk) {
    buy milk;
}
Lock.Release();
Lock.Acquire();
x++;
Lock.Release();
```

How can we implement locks?
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” line of code (or CISC instruction) can span multiple memory operations
  - 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

• 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
  – 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 😞
  – 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
    • Reminder: 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
Reminder: Correctness Conditions

• Safety
  – Only one thread in the critical region

• Liveness
  – Some thread that enters the entry section eventually enters the critical region
  – Even if other thread takes forever in non-critical region

• Bounded waiting
  – A thread that enters the entry section enters the critical section within some bounded number of operations.

• Failure atomicity
  – It is OK for a thread to die in the critical region
  – Many techniques do not provide failure atomicity
Example: 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
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 <= 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)
Test & Set Lock

// Has lock

CPU 0

Write Back+Evict Cache Line

CPU 1

while (!atomic_dec(&lock->counter))

CPU 2

atomic_dec

Cache Line “ping-pongs” back and forth
Test & Test & Set Lock

// Has lock

while (lock->counter <= 0))

Unlock by writing 1

// Has lock

CPU 0

CPU 1

CPU 2

Cache

Cache

Cache

Memory Bus

RAM

Line shared in read mode until unlocked
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Implementing Blocking Locks

**With busy-waiting**

```cpp
Lock::Acquire() {
    while (test&set(lock) == 1) {
        ; // spin
    }
}
```

**Without busy-waiting, use a queue**

```cpp
Lock::Acquire() {
    while (test&set(q_lock) == 1) {
        Put TCB on wait queue for lock;
        Lock::Switch(); // dispatch thread
    }
}
```

**Lock::Release()**

```cpp
Lock::Release() {
    lock := 0;
}
```

```cpp
Lock::Release() {
    q_lock = 0;
    if (wait queue is not empty) {
        Move 1 (or all?) waiting threads to ready queue;
    }
}
```

Must only one thread be awakened? Is this code fair?
Best Practices for Lock Programming

• When you enter a critical region, check what may have changed while you were spinning
  – Did Jill get milk while I was waiting on the lock?

• Always unlock any locks you acquire
Implementing Locks: Summary

• Locks are higher-level programming abstraction
  – Mutual exclusion can be implemented using locks

• Lock implementations have 2 key ingredients:
  – Hardware instruction: atomic read-modify-write
  – Blocking mechanism
    • Busy waiting, or
      – Cheap Busy waiting important
    • Block on a scheduler queue in the OS

• Locks are good for mutual exclusion but weak for coordination, e.g., producer/consumer patterns.
Why locking is also hard (Preview)

- **Coarse-grain locks**
  - Simple to develop
  - Easy to avoid deadlock
  - Few data races
  - Limited concurrency

- **Fine-grain locks**
  - Greater concurrency
  - Greater code complexity
  - Potential deadlocks
    - Not composable
  - Potential data races
    - Which lock to lock?

```c
// WITH FINE-GRAIN LOCKS
void move(T s, T d, Obj key){
    LOCK(s);
    LOCK(d);
    tmp = s.remove(key);
    d.insert(key, tmp);
    UNLOCK(d);
    UNLOCK(s);
}
```

Thread 0
move(a, b, key1);
move(b, a, key2);

Thread 1

DEADLOCK!