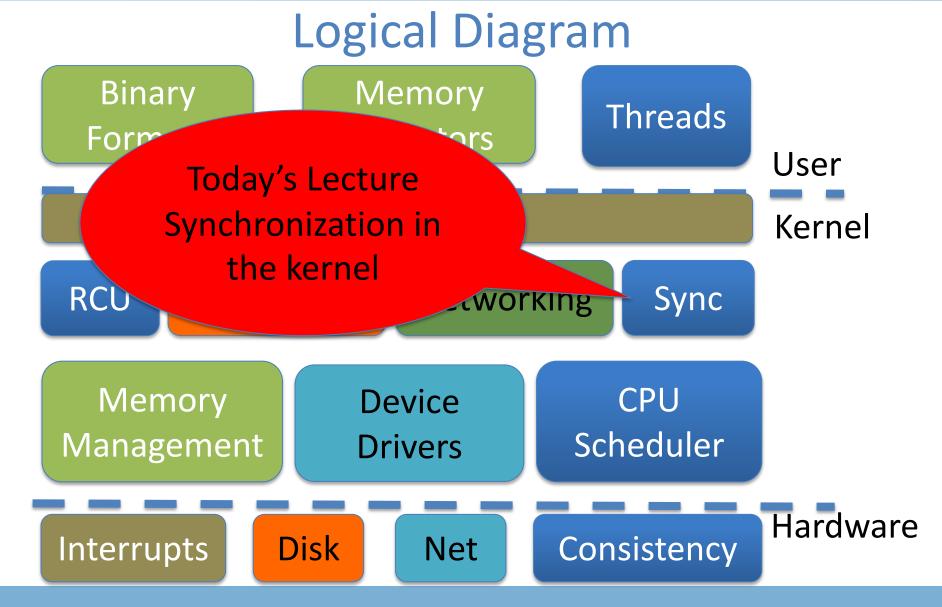
Linux Kernel Synchronization

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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...

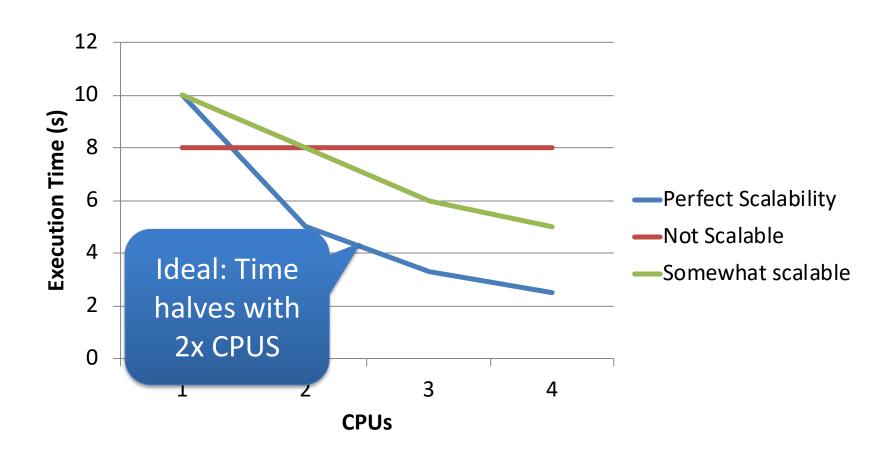
The forcing function

- 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

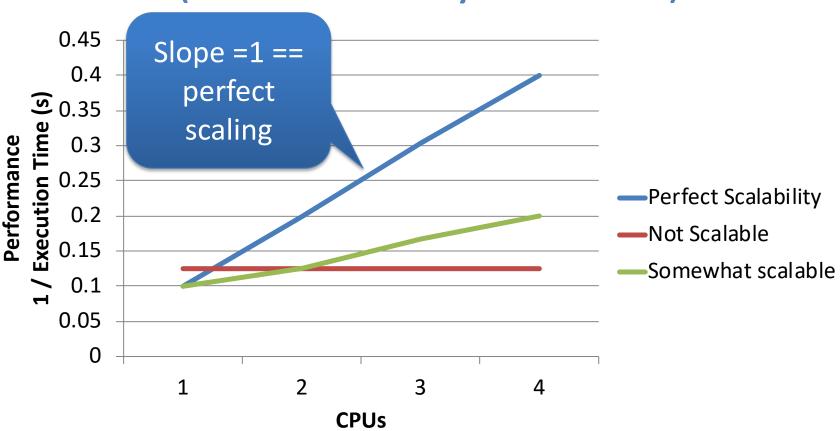
- How much more work can this software complete in a unit of time if I give it another CPU?
 - Same: No scalability---extra CPU is wasted
 - 1 -> 2 CPUs doubles the work: Perfect scalability
- Most software isn't scalable
- Most scalable software isn't perfectly scalable

Performance Scalability

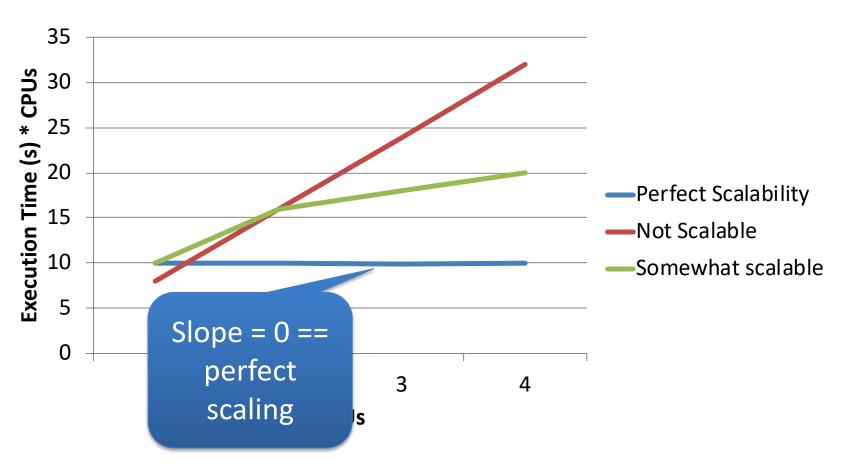




Performance Scalability (more visually intuitive)



Performance Scalability (A 3rd visual)



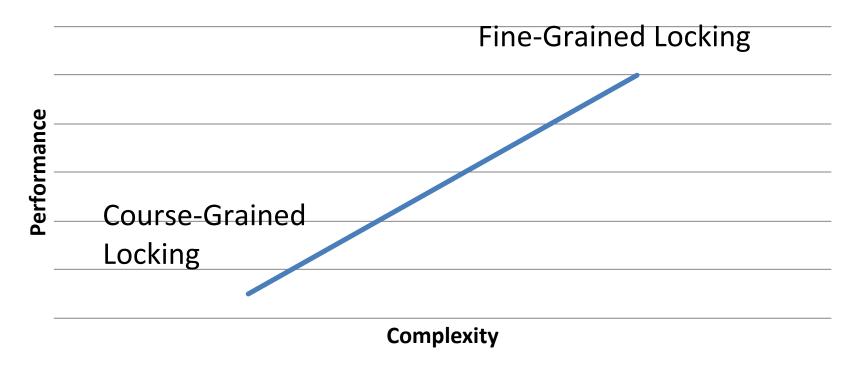
Coarse vs. Fine-grained locking

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

Rough C equivalent

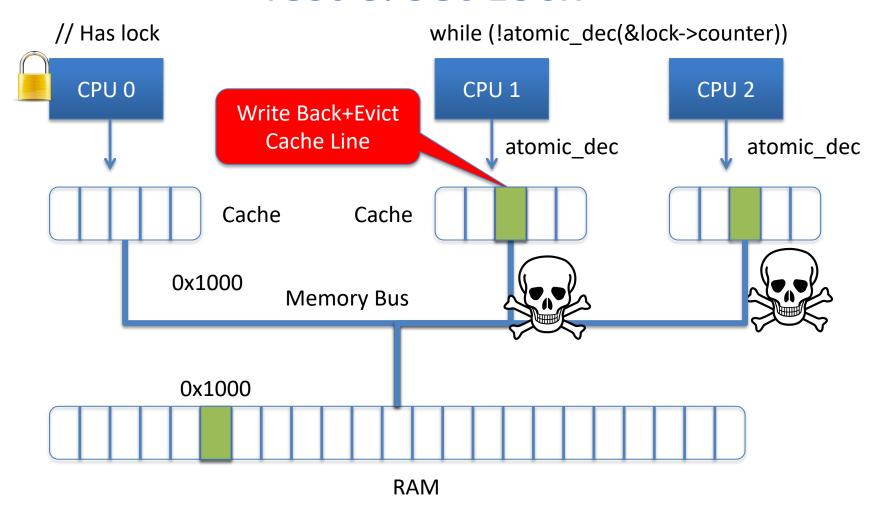
```
while (0 != atomic_dec(&lock->counter)) {
      do {
             // Pause the CPU until some coherence
             // traffic (a prerequisite for the counter
             // changing) saving power
      } while (lock->counter <= 0);</pre>
```

Why 2 loops?

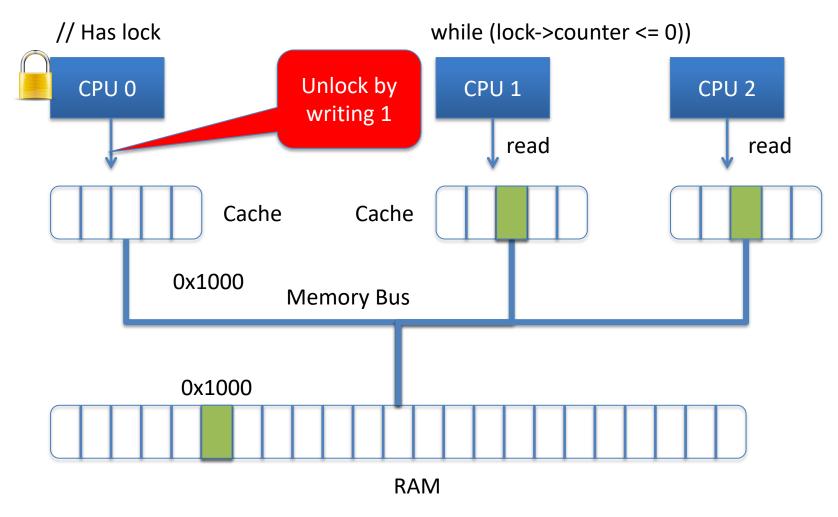
- Functionally, the outer loop is sufficient
- Problem: Attempts to write this variable invalidate it in all other caches
 - If many CPUs are waiting on this lock, the cache line will bounce between CPUs that are polling its value
 - This is VERY expensive and slows down EVERYTHING on the system
 - The 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



Test & Test & Set Lock



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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
 - Unlocked: 0x01000000
 - 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

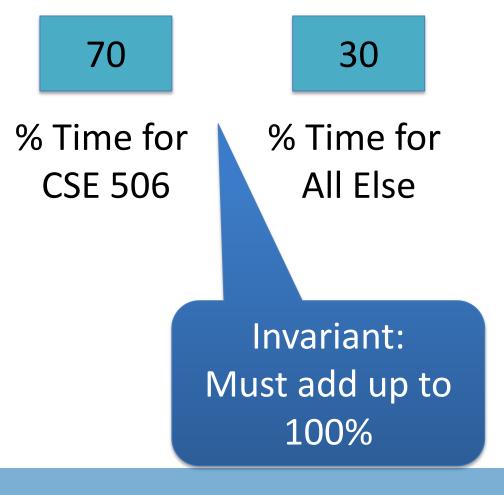
Subtle issue

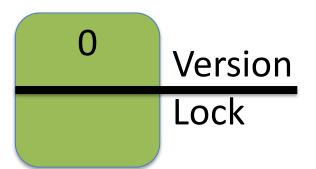
- What if we have a constant stream of readers and a waiting writer?
 - The writer will starve
- We may want to prioritize writers over readers
 - For instance, when readers are polling for the write
 - How to do this?

Seglocks

- 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



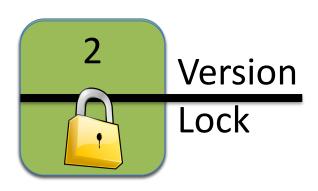


Seqlock Example

80 20 % Time for % Time for All Else **CSE 506** What if reader Reader: executed now? do { v = versi a = cse5%; b = other;

v != version);

 $\}$ while (v % 2 == 1



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

Seglocks

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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) {
        struct dentry *dentry;
        struct hlist node *p;
restart:
        spin lock(&inode->i lock);
        hlist for each entry (dentry, p, &inode
                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);
                        goto restart;
                spin unlock(&dentry->d lock):
        spin unlock(&inode->i lock);
```

Care taken to lock inode before each alias

Inode lock protects list;
Must restart loop after
modification

mm/filemap.c lock ordering

```
Lock ordering:
 ->i mmap lock
                               (vmtruncate)
   ->private lock
                              ( free pte-> set page dirty buffers)
     ->swap lock
                              (exclusive swap page, others)
       ->mapping->tree lock
 ->i mutex
                              (truncate->unmap mapping range)
   ->i mmap lock
 ->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)
                              ( sync single inode)
   ->mapping->tree lock
 ->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
                              (check_pte_range->isolate_lru_page)
   ->zone.lru lock
                              (page_remove_rmap->set_page_dirty)
   ->private lock
   ->tree lock
                              (page_remove_rmap->set_page_dirty)
                              (page_remove_rmap->set_page_dirty)
   ->inode lock
   ->inode lock
                               (zap pte range->set page dirty)
                              (zap pte range-> set page_dirty_buffers)
   ->private lock
 ->task->proc lock
                               (proc pid lookup)
   ->dcache lock
```

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