

Linux kernel synchronization

Don Porter
CSE 506

The old days

- ✦ Early/simple OSes (like JOS): 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 utilization

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 will increasingly cost complexity

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

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

```

mm/filemap.c lock ordering
/*
 * Lock ordering:
 * ->i_ummap_lock      (truncate)
 * ->private_lock     (__free_pte->_set_page_dirty_buffers)
 * ->swap_lock @      (exclusive_swap_page_others)
 * ->mapping->tree_lock
 * ->i_mutex
 * ->i_ummap_lock      (truncate->ummap_mapping_range)
 * ->mmap_sem
 * ->i_ummap_lock     (page_table_lock or pte_lock (various, mainly in memory.c))
 * ->page_table_lock or pte_lock (various, mainly in memory.c)
 * ->mapping->tree_lock (arch-dependent flush_dcache_ummap_lock)
 * ->mmap_sem
 * ->lock_page       (access_process_vm)
 * ->mmap_sem
 * ->i_mutex         (msync)
 * ->i_mutex
 * ->i_allot_sem      (various)
 * ->inode_lock
 * ->sb_lock         (fs/fs-writeback.c)
 * ->mapping->tree_lock (__sync_single_inode)
 * ->i_ummap_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)
 * ->same_lru_lock   (follow_page->next_page_accessed)
 * ->same_lru_lock   (check_pte_range->isolate_lru_page)
 * ->private_lock    (page_remove_rmap->set_page_dirty)
 * ->private_lock    (page_remove_rmap->set_page_dirty)
 * ->tree_lock       (page_remove_rmap->set_page_dirty)
 * ->inode_lock     (smp_pte_range->set_page_dirty)
 * ->inode_lock     (smp_pte_range->set_page_dirty)
 * ->private_lock   (smp_pte_range->_set_page_dirty_buffers)
 * ->task->proc_lock
 * ->dcache_lock    (proc_pid_lookup)
 */

```

Current reality

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- ✦ Unsavory trade-off between complexity and performance scalability

How do locks work?

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

Atomic instructions

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- ✦ 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 (much confusion on midterm here)

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 <= 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
 - ✦ Unlocked: 0x01000000
 - ✦ To read lock: `atomic_dec_unless(count, 0)`
 - ✦ 1 reader: 0x:00ffffff
 - ✦ 2 readers: 0x00ffffffe
 - ✦ 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, neither has data

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

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

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