

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

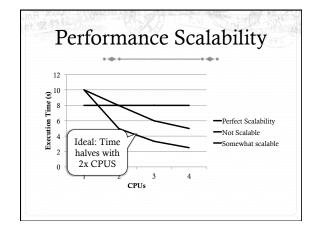
- * We can enable interrupts during system calls
 - * More complexity, lower latency
- ♦ We can block in more places that make sense
 - * Better CPU usage, more complexity
- Concurrency was an optimization for really fancy OSes, until

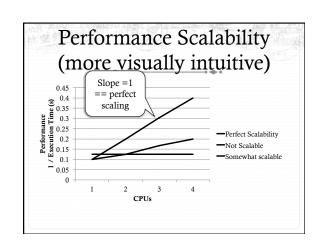
The forcing function

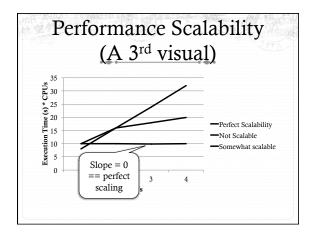
- * Multi-processing
 - * CPUs aren't getting faster, just smaller
 - * So you can put more cores on a chip
- → The only way software (including kernels) will get faster is to do more things at the same time

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







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 Fine-Grained Locking Complexity 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

- $\, \boldsymbol{\div} \,$ 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
- $\begin{tabular}{ll} \bigstar & An atomic instruction guarantees that the entire operation is \\ & not interleaved with any other CPU \end{tabular}$
 - * 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
 - \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 ☺</p>
 - * 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

jns 3f

// 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

jle 2b

// Read the lock value, compare to zero

jle 2b

jmp 1b

// Else jump to 1 and try again

3:

// We win the lock

Rough C equivalent

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 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

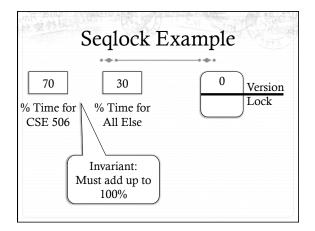
- ♦ Low 24 bits count active readers
 - Unlocked: 0x01000000
 - * To read lock: atomic_dec_unless(count, 0)
 - * 1 reader: 0x:00ffffff
 - * 2 readers: 0x00fffffe
 - + Etc.
 - * Readers limited to 2^24. That is a lot of CPUs!
- 25th bit for writer
- ♦ Write lock CAS 0x01000000 -> 0
 - * Readers will fail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

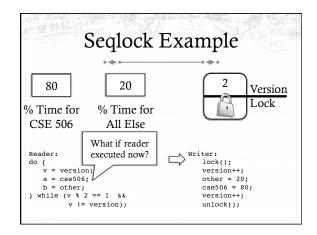
Subtle issue

- 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





Seqlocks

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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

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

void d_prune_aliases(struct inode *inode) {
    struct dentry *dentry;
    struct hist_node *p;

restart:
    spin_lock(sinode->1_lock);
    if (!dentry->d_lock);
    if (!dentry->d_lock);
    if (!dentry->d_lock);
        spin_unlock (sinode->1_lock);
        spin_unlock (sinode->1_lock);
    }
}
```

mm/filemap.c lock ordering Lock ordering: Lock ordering: (mtrumcate) -pervive lock -pervive

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