INF333 - Operating Systems Lecture IX

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Course website

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1

Based On

cs212.stanford.edu & OSC-10 Slides &

Overview of previous and current lectures

Locks create serial code

- Serial code gets no speedup from multiprocessors
- Test-and-set spinlock has additional disadvantages
 - ► Lots of traffic over memory bus
 - Not fair on NUMA machines

3

Overview of previous and current lectures

- Idea 1: Avoid spinlocks
 - ► We saw lock-free algorithms last lecture
 - Mentioned RCU last time, dive deeper today
- Idea 2: Design better spinlocks
 - Less memory traffic, better fairness
- Idea 3: Hardware turns coarse- into fine-grained locks!
 - While also reducing memory traffic for lock in common case

Read-Copy Update

Read-copy update [McKenney] &

Some data is read way more often than written

- Routing tables consulted for each forwarded packet
- ▶ Data maps in system with 100+ disks (updated on disk failure)

Optimize for the common case of reading without lock

- Have global variable: _Atomic(routing_table *) rt;
- Use it with no lock

```
#define RELAXED(var) \
atomic_load_explicit(&(var), memory_order_relaxed)
/* ... */
route = lookup(RELAXED(rt), destination);
```


Update by making copy, swapping pointer:

```
/* update mutex held here, serializing updates */
routing_table *newrt = copy_routing_table(rt);
update_routing_table(newrt);
atomic_store_explicit(&rt,newrt,memory_order_release);
```

7

Is RCU really safe?

Consider the use of global rt with no fences:

```
lookup(RELAXED(rt), route);
```

- Could a CPU read new pointer but then old contents of *rt?
- Yes on alpha, No on all other existing architectures

Is RCU really safe?

We are saved by dependency ordering in hardware

- ▶ Instruction *B* depends on *A* if *B* uses result of *A*
- Non-alpha CPUs won't re-order dependent instructions
- ▶ If writer uses release fence, safe to load pointer then just use it

This is the point of memory_order_consume

- Should be equivalent to acquire barrier on alpha
- But should compile to nothing (be free) on other machines

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Preemptible kernels

Recall kernel process context:

- ► When CPU is in kernel mode but doing process work (e.g., might be in system call or page fault handler)
- ► As opposed to interrupt handlers or context switch code

A preemptible kernel can preempt process context code

- ➤ Take a CPU core away from kernel process context code between any two instructions
- Give the same CPU core to kernel code for a different process

Preemptible kernels

Don't confuse with:

- ► Interrupt handlers can always preempt process context
- Preemptive threads (always have for multicore)
- Process context code running concurrently on other CPU cores

Sometimes want or need to disable preemption

- Code that must not be migrated between CPUs (per-CPU structs)
- ► Before acquiring spinlock (could improve performance)

Garbage collection

- ▶ When can you free memory of old routing table?
- ▶ When you are guaranteed no one is using it—how to determine?
- Definitions:

temporary variable: short-used (e.g., local) variable permanent variable: long lived data (e.g., global rt pointer) quiescent state: when all of a thread's temporary variables are dead

quiescent period: time during which every thread has been in quiescent state at least once

Garbage collection

- Free old copy of updated data after quiescent period
- How to determine when quiescent period has gone by?
- ► E.g., keep count of syscalls/context switches on each CPU
- ► Restrictions:
 - Can't hold a pointer across context switch or user mode (Never copy rt into another permanent variable)
 - Must disable preemption while consuming RCU data structure

Improving spinlock performance

Useful macros

Atomic compare and swap: CAS (mem, old, new)

- ► If *mem == old, then swap *mem onew and return true, else
 false
- On x86, can implement using locked cmpxchg instruction
- ▶ In C11, use atomic_compare_exchange_strong
 (note: C atomics version sets old = *mem if *mem != old)

Atomic swap: XCHG (mem, new)

- ▶ Atomically exchanges *mem⇔new
- ► Implement w. C11 atomic_exchange a, or xchg on x86

Useful macros

Atomic fetch and add: FADD (mem, val)

- ► Atomically sets *mem += val and returns old value of *mem
- ► Implement w. C11 atomic_fetch_add æ, lock add on x86

Atomic fetch and subtract: FSUB (mem, val)

- ▶ Note: atomics return prev. value: (like x++, not ++x)
- ► All behave like sequentially consistent fences by default
 - In C11, weaker _explicit versions take a memory_order argument

MCS lock

Idea 2: Build a better spinlock

- ▶ Lock designed by Mellor-Crummey and Scott
- ▶ Goal: reduce bus traffic on cache-coherent (cc) machines, improve fairness
- Each CPU has a qnode structure in local memory

MCS lock

- Local can mean local memory in NUMA machine
- Or just its own cache line that gets cached in exclusive mode
- While waiting, spin on your local locked flag
- A lock is a qnode pointer: typedef _Atomic (qnode *) lock;
 - Construct list of CPUs holding or waiting for lock
 - lock itself points to tail of list (or NULL when unlocked)

- ▶ If unlocked, L is NULL
- If locked, no waiters, L is owner's qnode
- ► If waiters, *L is tail of waiter list:

```
acquire (lock *L, qnode *I) {
   I->next = NULL;
   qnode *predecessor = I;
   XCHG (*L, predecessor);
   if (predecessor != NULL) {
       I->locked = true;
       predecessor->next = I;
       while (I->locked);
   }
}
```

```
waiter next waite
```

*[

owner

next

- ▶ If unlocked, L is NULL
- If locked, no waiters, L is owner's qnode
- ► If waiters, *L is tail of waiter list:

waiter

next

next.

waiter

```
acquire (lock *L, gnode *I) {
     I->next = NULL;
    qnode *predecessor = I;
    XCHG (*L, predecessor);
     if (predecessor != NULL) {
      I->locked = true:
      predecessor->next = I;
      while (I->locked):
      predecessor
►NUI.I.
          *T
                 ►NULL.
```

- ▶ If unlocked, L is NULL
- If locked, no waiters, L is owner's qnode
- If waiters, *L is tail of waiter list:

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acquire (lock *L, qnode *I) {
 I->next = NULL;
 qnode *predecessor = I;
 XCHG (*L, predecessor);
 if (predecessor != NULL) {
   I->locked = true:
   predecessor->next = I;
   while (I->locked):
```

```
owner next waiter next waiter NULL *I NULL
```

- ▶ If unlocked, L is NULL
- If locked, no waiters, L is owner's qnode
- If waiters, *L is tail of waiter list:

```
acquire (lock *L, gnode *I) {
 I->next = NULL;
 qnode *predecessor = I;
 XCHG (*L, predecessor);
 if (predecessor != NULL) {
   I->locked = true:
   predecessor->next = I;
   while (I->locked):
```

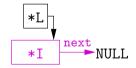
```
owner next waiter waiter waiter waiter waiter waiter
```

MCS Release with CAS

```
If I->next NULL and *L == I
```

No one else is waiting for lock, OK to set *L = NULL

```
release (lock *L, qnode *I) {
  if (!I->next)
    if (CAS (*L, I, NULL))
      return;
  while (!I->next);
  I->next->locked = false;
}
```

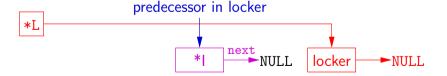


MCS Release with CAS

```
If I->next NULL and *L != I
```

- Another thread is in the middle of acquire
- Just wait for I->next to be non-NULL

```
release (lock *L, qnode *I) {
  if (!I->next)
    if (CAS (*L, I, NULL))
      return;
  while (!I->next);
  I->next->locked = false;
}
```

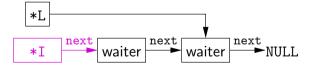


MCS Release with CAS

If I->next is non-NULL

I->next oldest waiter,
wake up with
I->next->locked = false

```
release (lock *L, qnode *I) {
  if (!I->next)
    if (CAS (*L, I, NULL))
     return;
  while (!I->next);
  I->next->locked = false;
```



Kernel interface for sleeping locks

Kernel support for sleeping locks

Sleeping locks must interact with scheduler

- For processes or native threads, must go into kernel (expensive)
- ▶ If the generally expected case is "you can acquire lock" — how to optimize?

Kernel support for sleeping locks

Idea: never enter kernel for uncontested lock

```
struct lock {
 atomic flag busy;
 Atomic (thread *) waiters; /* wait-free stack/queue */
void acquire (lock *lk) {
 while (atomic flag test and set (&lk->busy)) { /* 1 */
   atomic push (&lk->waiters, self);
   sleep ();
void release (lock *lk) {
 atomic flag clear(&lk->busy);
 wakeup (atomic pop (&lk->waiters));
```

Race condition

Unfortunately, previous slide not safe

- ▶ What happens if release called between lines 1 and 2?
- wakeup called on NULL, so acquire blocks

Race condition

 Ask kernel to sleep only if memory location hasn't changed

```
void futex (int *uaddr, FUTEX_WAIT, int val...);
```

- Go to sleep only if *uaddr == val
- Extra arguments allow timeouts, etc.

Race condition

```
void futex (int *uaddr, FUTEX_WAKE, int val...);
```

- Wake up at most val threads sleeping on uaddr
- uaddr is translated down to offset in VM object
 - So works on memory mapped file at different virtual addresses in different processes

Futex example

```
struct lock {
 atomic flag busy;
void acquire (lock *lk) {
 while (atomic flag test and set (&lk->busy))
   futex(&lk->busy, FUTEX WAIT, 1);
void release (lock *lk) {
 atomic flag clear (&lk->busy);
 futex(&lk->busy, FUTEX WAKE, 1);
```

- What's suboptimal about this code?
- ► See [Drepper] r for these examples and a good discussion

Futex example

```
struct lock {
 atomic flag busy;
void acquire (lock *lk) {
 while (atomic flag test and set (&lk->busy))
   futex(&lk->busy, FUTEX WAIT, 1);
void release (lock *lk) {
 atomic flag clear (&lk->busy);
 futex(&lk->busy, FUTEX WAKE, 1);
```

- What's suboptimal about this code?
 - ▶ release requires a system call (expensive) even with no contention
- ► See [Drepper] or these examples and a good discussion

Futex example, second attempt

```
static assert(ATOMIC INT LOCK FREE >= 2);
struct lock { atomic int busy; };
void acquire(lock *lk) {
 int c:
 while ((c = FADD(&lk->busy, 1)))
   futex((int*) &lk->busy, FUTEX WAIT, c+1): /* 2 */
void release(lock *lk) {
 if (FSUB(&lk->busy, 1) != 1) {
     1k->busy = 0;
     futex((int*) &lk->busy, FUTEX WAKE, 1);
```

► Now what's wrong with this code?

Futex example, second attempt

```
static assert(ATOMIC INT LOCK FREE >= 2);
struct lock { atomic int busy; };
void acquire(lock *lk) {
 int c:
 while ((c = FADD(&lk->busy, 1)))
   futex((int*) &lk->busy, FUTEX WAIT, c+1); /* 2 */
void release(lock *lk) {
 if (FSUB(&lk->busy, 1) != 1) {
     1k->busy = 0;
     futex((int*) &lk->busy, FUTEX WAKE, 1);
```

- ► Now what's wrong with this code?
 - ▶ Two threads could interleave lines 1 and 2, never sleep
 - ► Could even overflow the counter, violate mutual exclusion

Futex example, third attempt

```
// 0=unlocked, 1=locked no waiters, 2=locked+waiters
struct lock { atomic int state; };
void acquire (lock *lk) { int c = 1;
 if (! CAS(&lk->state, 0, c)) {
   XCHG(\&lk->state, c = 2):
   while (c != 0) {
     futex((int *) &lk->state, FUTEX WAIT, 2);
     XCHG(\&lk->state, c = 2);
void release (lock *lk) {
 if (FSUB(&lk->state, 1) != 1) { // FSUB returns old value
   lk->state = 0:
   futex((int *) &lk->state, FUTEX WAKE, 1);
```

Deadlock

The Deadlock Problem

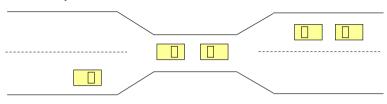
```
mutex t m1, m2;
void p1 (void *ignored) {
 lock (m1): lock (m2):
 /* critical section */
           unlock (m2): unlock (m1):
void p2 (void *ignored) {
 lock (m2): lock (m1):
  /* critical section */
           unlock (m1); unlock (m2);
```

- This program can cease to make progress how?
- Can you have deadlock w/o mutexes?

More deadlocks

- ► Same problem with condition variables
 - ▶ Suppose resource 1 managed by c_1 , resource 2 by c_2
 - \blacktriangleright A has 1, waits on c2, B has 2, waits on c1
- Or have combined mutex/condition variable deadlock:
 - lock(a); lock(b); while(!ready) wait(b, c);
 unlock(b); unlock(a);
 - lock(a); lock(b); ready = true; signal(c); unlock(b); unlock(a);
- One lesson: Dangerous to hold locks when crossing abstraction barriers!
 - ▶ I.e., lock(a) then call function that uses condition variable

Deadlocks w/o computers



- Real issue is resources & how required
- E.g., bridge only allows traffic in one direction
 - ▶ Each section of a bridge can be viewed as a resource.
 - ▶ If a deadlock occurs, it can be resolved if one car backs up (preempt resources and rollback).
 - Several cars may have to be backed up if a deadlock occurs.
 - Starvation is possible.

Deadlock conditions I

- 1. Limited access (mutual exclusion):
 - Resource can only be shared with finite users
- 2. No preemption:
 - Once resource granted, cannot be taken away
- **3.** Multiple independent requests (hold and wait):
 - Don't ask all at once (wait for next resource while holding current one)
- **4.** Circularity in graph of requests

Deadlock conditions II

- ► All of 1–4 necessary for deadlock to occur
- Two approaches to dealing with deadlock:
 - Pro-active: prevention
 - ▶ Reactive: detection + corrective action

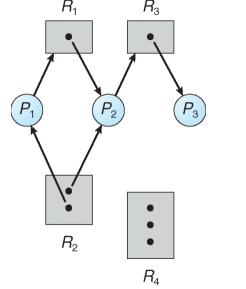
Prevent by eliminating one condition

- 1. Limited access (mutual exclusion):
 - Buy more resources, split into pieces, or virtualize to make "infinite" copies
 - ► Threads: threads have copy of registers = no lock
- 2. No preemption:
 - Physical memory: virtualized with VM, can take physical page away and give to another process!
- 3. Multiple independent requests (hold and wait):
 - ▶ Wait on all resources at once (must know in advance)
- 4. Circularity in graph of requests
 - Single lock for entire system: (problems?)
 - Partial ordering of resources (next)

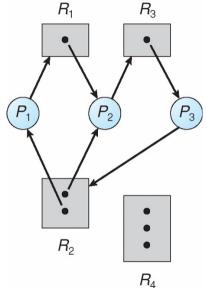
Resource-allocation graph

- View system as graph
 - Processes and Resources are nodes
 - Resource Requests and Assignments are edges
- ► Process:
- Resource with 4 instances:
- $P_i \text{ requesting } R_j: P_i \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_i$
- ▶ P_i holding instance of R_j : P_i ← R_j

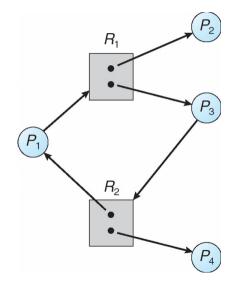
Example resource allocation graph



Graph with deadlock R_1



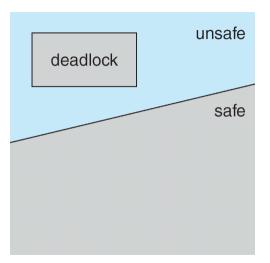
Is this deadlock?



Cycles and deadlock

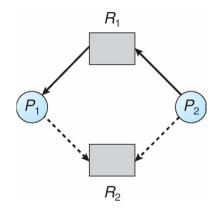
- ► If graph has no cycles ⇒ no deadlock
- If graph contains a cycle
 - Definitely deadlock if only one instance per resource
 - ▶ Otherwise, maybe deadlock, maybe not
- Prevent deadlock with partial order on resources
 - ▶ E.g., always acquire mutex m_1 before m_2
 - Usually design locking discipline for application this way

Prevention



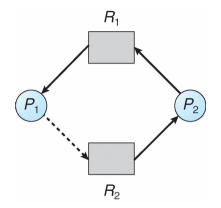
- ▶ Determine safe states based on *possible* resource allocation
- Conservatively prohibits non-deadlocked states

Claim edges



- ► Dotted line is *claim edge*
 - ► Signifies process *may* request resource

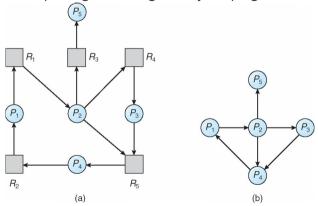
Example: unsafe state



- Note cycle in graph
 - $ightharpoonup P_1$ might request R_2 before relinquishing R_1
 - Would cause deadlock

Detecting deadlock

- Static approaches (hard)Dynamically, program grinds to a halt
 - ► Threads package can diagnose by keeping track of locks held:



Resource-Allocation Graph

Corresponding wait-for graph

Fixing & debugging deadlocks

- ► Reboot system / restart application
- Examine hung process with debugger
- Threads package can deduce partial order
 - ► For each lock acquired, order with other locks held
 - If cycle occurs, abort with error
 - Detects potential deadlocks even if they do not occur
- Or use transactions...
 - Another paradigm for handling concurrency
 - Often provided by databases, but some OSes use them
 - Vino OS used transactions to abort after failures [Seltzer] ☑

Transactional Memory

Transactions

A transaction T is a collection of actions with

- Atomicity all or none of actions happen
- ► Consistency T leaves data in valid state
- ► Isolation T's actions all appear to happen before or after every other transaction
- ightharpoonup Durability¹ T's effects will survive reboots
- ▶ Often hear mnemonic *ACID* to refer to above

¹Not applicable to topics in this lecture

Transactions

Transactions are typically executed concurrently

- ▶ But *isolation* means must *appear* not to
- Must roll-back transactions that use others' state
- Means you have to record all changes to undo them

When deadlock detected just abort a transaction

Breaks the dependency cycle

Transactional memory

- Some modern processors support transactional memory
- ► Transactional Synchronization Extensions (TSX) [intel1§16]
 - xbegin abort_handler begins a transaction
 - xend commit a transaction
 - xabort \$code abort transaction with 8-bit code
 - Note: nested transactions okay (also xtest tests if in transaction)

Transactional memory

During transaction, processor tracks accessed memory

- ► Keeps read-set and write-set of cache lines
- Nothing gets written back to memory during transaction
- ► Transaction aborts (at xend or earlier) if any conflicts
- Otherwise, all dirty cache lines are "written" atomically (in practice switch to non-transactional M state of MESI)

Using transactional memory

Idea 3: Use to get "free" fine-grained locking on a hash table

- ▶ E.g., concurrent inserts that don't touch same buckets are okay
- Should read spinlock to make sure not taken (but not write) [Kim] ☑
- Hardware will detect there was no conflict

Can also use to poll for one of many asynchronous events

- Start transaction
- ▶ Fill cache with values to which you want to see changes
- Loop until a write causes your transaction to abort

Using transactional memory

Note: Transactions are never guaranteed to commit

- Might overflow cache, get false sharing, see weird processor issue
- Means abort path must always be able to perform transaction (e.g., you do need a lock on your hash table)

Hardware lock elision (HLE)

Idea: make it so spinlocks rarely need to spin

- ► Begin a transaction when you acquire lock
- Other CPUs won't see lock acquired, can also enter critical section
- Okay not to have mutual exclusion when no memory conflicts!
- On conflict, abort and restart without transaction, thereby visibly acquiring lock (and aborting other concurrent transactions)

Hardware lock elision (HLE)

Intel support:

- Use xacquire prefix before xchgl (used for test and set)
- Use xrelease prefix before mov1 that releases lock
- Prefixes chosen to be noops on older CPUs (binary compatibility)

Hash table example:

- Use xacquire xchgl in table-wide test-and-set spinlock
- Works correctly on older CPUs (with coarse-grained lock)
- ▶ Allows safe concurrent accesses on newer CPUs!

Detecting data races

- Static methods (hard)
- Debugging painful—race might occur rarely
- Instrumentation—modify program to trap memory accesses
- - For each global memory location, keep a "lockset"
 - On each access, remove any locks not currently held
 - ▶ If lockset becomes empty, abort: No mutex protects data
 - Catches potential races even if they don't occur

Scalable Interface Design

Scalable interfaces

- ► Not all interfaces can scale
- ► How to tell which can and which can't?
- ➤ Scalable Commutativity Rule: "Whenever interface operations commute, they can be implemented in a way that scales" [Clements] ☑

Are fork(), execve() broadly commutative?

```
pid_t pid = fork();
if (pid == 0)
  execlp("bash", "bash", NULL);
```

Are fork(), execve() broadly commutative?

```
pid_t pid = fork();
if (pid == 0)
  execlp("bash", "bash", NULL);
```

- No, fork() doesn't commute with memory writes, many file descriptor operations, and all address space operations
 - E.g., close(fd); fork(); vs. fork(); close(fd);
- execve() often follows fork() and undoes most of fork()'s sub operations
- posix_spawn(), which combines fork() and execve() into a single operation, is broadly commutative
 - ▶ But obviously more complex, less flexible
 - Maybe Microsoft will have the last laugh?

Is open() broadly commutative?

```
int fd1 = open("foo", O_RDONLY);
int fd2 = open("bar", O_RDONLY);
```

Is open() broadly commutative?

```
int fd1 = open("foo", O_RDONLY);
int fd2 = open("bar", O_RDONLY);
```

- Actually open() does not broadly commute!
- ▶ Does not commute with any system call (including itself) that creates a file descriptor
- Why? POSIX requires new descriptors to be assigned the lowest available integer