Jin-Soo Kim (jinsoo.kim@snu.ac.kr) Systems Software & Architecture Lab. Seoul National University

Spring 2020

Locks



The Classic Example

- Withdrawing money from a bank account
 - Suppose you and your girl (or boy) friend share a bank account with a balance of 1,000,000won
 - What happens if both go to separate ATM machines and simultaneously withdraw 100,000won from the account?

```
int withdraw(account, amount)
{
    balance = get_balance(account);
    balance = balance - amount;
    put_balance(account, balance);
    return balance;
}
```

The Classic Example: Problem

The execution of the two threads can be interleaved, assuming preemptive scheduling:

Execution sequence as seen by CPU



The Real Example



context switch ld a0, 0(s1) addi a0, a0, 1 sd a0, 0(s1)

context switch

sd a0, 0(s1)

4190.307: Operating Systems | Spring 2020 | Jin-Soo Kim (jinsoo.kim@snu.ac.kr)

Sharing Resources

- Local variables are not shared among threads
 - Refer to data on the stack
 - Each thread has its own stack
 - Never pass/share/store a pointer to a local variable on another thread's stack
- Global variables are shared among threads
 - Stored in static data segment, accessible by any thread
- Dynamic objects are shared among threads
 - Stored in the heap, shared through the pointers
- Also, processes can share memory (shmem)

Synchronization Problem

- Concurrency leads to non-deterministic results
 - Two or more concurrent threads accessing a shared resource create a <u>condition</u>
 - The output of the program is not deterministic; it varies from run to run even with same inputs, depending on timing
 - Hard to debug ("Heisenbugs")
- We need synchronization mechanisms for controlling access to shared resources
 - Synchronization restricts the concurrency
 - Scheduling is not under programmer's control

Concurrency in the Kernel



Critical Section

 A critical section is a piece of code that accesses a shared resource, usually a variable or data structure

- Need ______ for critical sections
 - Execute the critical section atomically (all-or-nothing)
 - Only one thread at a time can execute in the critical section
 - All other threads are forced to wait on entry
 - When a thread leaves a critical section, another can enter

Locks

- A lock is an object (in memory) that provides mutual exclusion with the following two operations:
 - acquire(): wait until lock is free, then grab it
 - release(): unlock and wake up any thread waiting in acquire()
- Using locks
 - Lock is initially free
 - Call acquire() before entering a critical section, and release() after leaving it
 - acquire() does not return until the caller holds the lock
 - On acquire(), a thread can spin (spinlock) or block (mutex)
 - At most one thread can hold a lock at a time

Using Locks





Requirements for Locks

- Correctness
 - Mutual exclusion: only one thread in critical section at a time
 - _____ (deadlock-free): if several threads want to enter the critical section, must allow one to proceed
 - Bounded waiting (______): must eventually allow each waiting thread to enter
- Fairness
 - Each thread gets a fair chance at acquiring the lock
- Performance
 - Time overhead for a lock without and with contentions (possibly on multiple CPUs)?

An Initial Attempt

An initial implementation of a spinlock

```
struct lock { int held = 0; }
void acquire(struct lock *1) {
  while (l->held); _______ The caller "busy-waits",
    l->held = 1;
}
void release(struct lock *1) {
  l->held = 0;
}
```

Does this work?

Implementing Locks

- Software-only algorithms
 - Dekker's algorithm (1962)
 - Peterson's algorithm (1981)
 - Lamport's Bakery algorithm for more than two processes (1974)
- Hardware atomic instructions
 - Test-And-Set
 - Compare-And-Swap
 - Load-Linked (LL) and Store-Conditional (SC)
 - Fetch-And-Add
- Controlling interrupts

Software-only Algorithm

- The second attempt to implement spinlocks
 - Note: each load and store instruction is atomic

```
int interested[2];
void acquire(int process) {
    int other = 1 - process;
    interested[process] = TRUE;
    while (interested[other]);
  }
void release(int process) {
    interested[process] = FALSE;
}
```

Peterson's Algorithm

Solves the critical section problem for two processes

```
int turn;
int interested[2];
void acquire(int process) {
  int other = 1 - process;
  interested[process] = TRUE;
  turn = other;
  while (interested[other] && _____
}
void release(int process) {
  interested[process] = FALSE;
```

Test-And-Set

- Atomic instructions
 - read-modify-write operations guaranteed to be executed "atomically"
- Test-And-Set instruction
 - Returns the old value of a memory location while simultaneously updating it to the new value
 - e.g., xchg in x86 (amoswap in RISC-V): exchange memory with register

```
int TestAndSet(int *v, int new) {
    int old = *v;
    *v = new;
    return old;
}
```

Using Test-And-Set

- A simple spinlock using Test-And-Set instruction
 - Refer to spinlock.h and spinlock.c in xv6

```
struct lock { int held = 0; }
void acquire(struct lock *1) {
while (1->held);
1->held = 1;
}
void release(struct lock *1) {
1->held = 0;
}
void release(struct lock *1) {
1->held = 0;
}
struct lock { int held = 0; }
```

Compare-And-Swap

- Supported in x86, Sparc, etc.
 - Update the memory location with the new value only when its old value equals to the "expected" value
 - e.g., cmpxchg in x86: compare and exchange

```
int CompareAndSwap(int *v, int expected, int new) {
    int old = *v;
    if (old == expected)
        *v = new;
    return old;
}
void acquire(struct lock *1) {
    while (CompareAndSwap(&l->held, ____, ___));
}
```

LL & SC

- Supported in MIPS, Alpha, PowerPC, ARM, RISC-V, etc.
 - Load-Locked(LL) fetches a value from memory
 - Store-Conditional(SC) succeeds with returning I if no intervening store to the address has taken place
 - Otherwise, SC returns 0 without updating the memory

```
void acquire(struct lock *1) {
    while (1) {
        while (LL(&l->held));
        if (SC(&l->held, 1)) return;
    }
}
void release(struct lock *1) {
    l->held = 0;
}
```

Fetch-And-Add

- Supported in x86, RISC-V, etc.
 - Atomically increments a value while returning the old value
 - e.g., xadd in x86: exchange and add

```
int FetchAndAdd(int *v, int a) {
    int old = *v;
    *v = old + a;
    return old;
}
```

Ticket Locks Using Fetch-And-Add

- First get a ticket and wait until its turn
- Provides bounded waiting

```
struct lock {
  int ticket = 0;
  int turn = 0;
};
void acquire(struct lock *1) {
  int myturn = FetchAndAdd(&l->ticket, 1);
 while (l->turn != myturn);
}
void release(struct lock *1) {
  1->turn = 1->turn + 1;
```

Controlling Interrupts (I)

Disable interrupts for critical sections

```
void acquire(struct lock *1) {
   cli(); // disable interrupts;
}
void release(struct lock *1) {
   sti(); // enable interrupts;
}
```

- Disabling interrupts blocks external events that could trigger a context switch
- The code inside the critical section will not be interrupted
- There is no state associated with the lock
- intr_off() and intr_on() vs.push_off() and pop_off() in xv6
- Can two threads disable interrupts simultaneously?

Controlling Interrupts (2)

Pros

- Simple
- Useful for a single-processor system

Cons

- Only available to kernel
 - Why not provide them as system calls?
- Insufficient on multi-processor systems
 - Back to atomic instructions
- When the critical section is long, important interrupts can be delayed or lost (e.g. timer, disks, etc.)
- Slower than executing atomic instructions on modern CPUs

Summary

- Spinlocks are horribly wasteful
 - If a thread is spinning on a lock, the thread holding the lock cannot make progress
 - The longer the critical section, the longer the spin
 - CPU cycle is wasted
 - Greater the chances for lock holder to be interrupted through involuntary context switch
- Spinlocks (and disabling interrupts on a single CPU) are primitive synchronization mechanisms
 - They are used to build higher-level synchronization constructs