# The Kernel Latency

Advanced Operating Systems

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# Latency

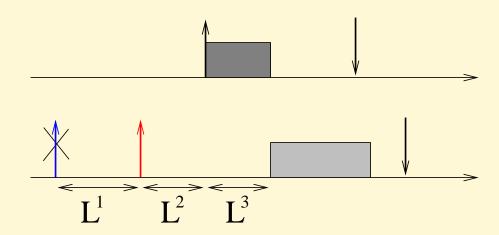
- Latency: measure of the difference between the theoretical and actual schedule
  - Task  $\tau$  expects to be scheduled at time t ....
  - ullet ... but is actually scheduled at time t'
  - $\Rightarrow$  Latency L = t' t
- The latency L can be modelled as a blocking time  $\Rightarrow$  affects the guarantee test
  - Similar to what done for shared resources
  - Blocking time due to latency, not to priority inversion

# **Effects of the Latency**

- Upper bound for L? If not known, no schedulability tests!!!
  - The latency must be bounded:  $\exists L^{max} : L < L^{max}$
- If  $L^{max}$  is too high, only few task sets result to be schedulable
  - Large blocking time experienced by all tasks!
  - The worst-case latency  $L^{max}$  cannot be too high

# **Sources of Latency**

- A task  $\tau_i$  is a stream of jobs  $J_{i,j}$  arriving at time  $r_{i,j}$
- Job  $J_{i,j}$  is scheduled at time  $t' > r_{i,j}$ 
  - $t' r_{i,j}$  is given by:
    - 1.  $J_{i,j}$ 's arrival is signalled at time  $r_{i,j} + L^1$
    - 2. Such event is served at time  $r_{i,j} + L^1 + L^2$
    - 3.  $J_{i,j}$  is actually scheduled at  $r_{i,j} + L^1 + L^2 + L^3$

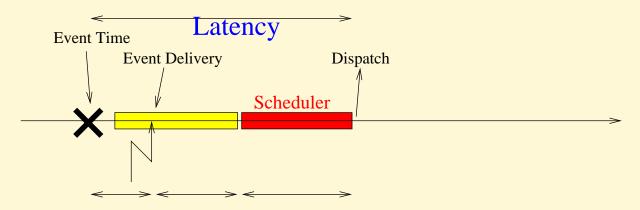


# **Analysis of the Various Sources**

- $L = L^1 + L^2 + L^3$
- $L^3$  is sometimes called *scheduler latency* 
  - But it is not really a latency!!!
  - Interference from higher priority tasks
  - Already accounted for by RTA / TDA or similar → let's not consider it
- $L^2$  is the non-preemptable section latency  $(L^{np})$
- ullet L<sup>1</sup> is due to the delayed interrupt generation

# **Non-Preemptable Section Latency**

- Delay between time when an event is generated and when the kernel handles it
  - Due to non-preemptable sections in the kernel, which delay the response to hardware interrupts
  - Composed by various parts: interrupt disabling, bottom halves delaying, . . .
- Depends on how the kernel handles the various events...
- Will talk about it later!



# **Interrupt Generation Latency**

- Hardware interrupts: generated by devices
- Sometimes, an interrupt should be generated at time t . . .
- ... but it si actually generated at time  $t' = t + L^{int}$
- $L^{int}$  is the *Interrupt Generation Latency* 
  - It is due to hardware issues
  - It is *generally* small compared to  $L^{np}$
  - Exception: if the device is a timer device, the interrupt generation latency can be quite high
    - Timer Resolution Latency L<sup>timer</sup>

# **The Timer Resolution Latency**

- Interrupt generation latency for a hw timer device
- $L^{timer}$  can often be much larger than the non-preemptable section latency  $L^{np}$
- Where does it come from?
  - Kernel timers are generally implemented by using a hardware device that produces periodic interrupts
- Can we do anything about it?

#### **Ticks and Timers**

- Periodic timer interrupt → tick
- Example: periodic task (setitimer(), Posix timers, clock\_nanosleep(), ...)  $\tau_i$  with period  $T_i$
- Job end  $\rightarrow \tau_i$  sleeps for the next activation
- Activations are triggered by the periodic interrupt
  - Periodic tick interrupt, with period  $T^{tick}$
  - Every  $T^{tick}$ , the kernel checks if the task must be woken up
  - If  $T_i$  is not multiple of  $T^{tick}$ ,  $\tau_i$  experiences a timer resolution latency

#### **The Periodic Tick**

- Traditional operating systems: timer device programmed to generate a periodic interrupt
  - Example: in a PC, the Programmable Interval Timer (PIT) is programmed in periodic mode
- At every tick the execution enter kernel space
- The kernel executes and can
  - Wake up tasks
  - Adjust tasks priorities
  - Run the scheduler, when returning to user space
    - → possible preemption

#### **Tick Tradeoff**

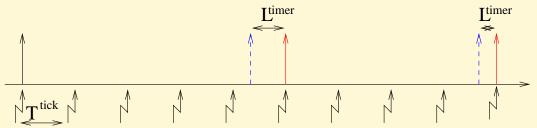
- Timer interrupt period: trade-off between responsiveness (low latency) and throughput (low overhead)
- Large  $T^{tick} \rightarrow$  large timer resolution latency
- Small  $T^{tick} \rightarrow \text{high number of interrupts}$ 
  - More switches between US and KS
  - Tasks are interrupted more often
  - → Larger overhead

### **Trade-off Examples**

- For non real-time systems, it is possible to find a reasonable tradeoff...
- But it still depends on the workload!
  - Desktop or server?
- Example: the Linux kernel
  - Linux 2.4: 10ms (HZ = 100)
  - Linux 2.6: HZ = 100, 250, or 1000
  - Other systems:  $T^{tick} = 1/1024$

# **Timer Resolution Latency**

ullet Experienced by all tasks that want to sleep for a specified time T



- $\tau_i$  must wake up at time  $r_{i,j} = jT_i$
- But is woken up at time  $t' = \left\lceil \frac{r_{i,j}}{T^{tick}} \right\rceil T^{tick}$

# **Timer Resolution Latency - Upper Bound**

The timer resolution latency is bounded:

• 
$$t = r_{i,j}$$
•  $t' = \left\lceil \frac{r_{i,j}}{T^{tick}} \right\rceil T^{tick}$ 

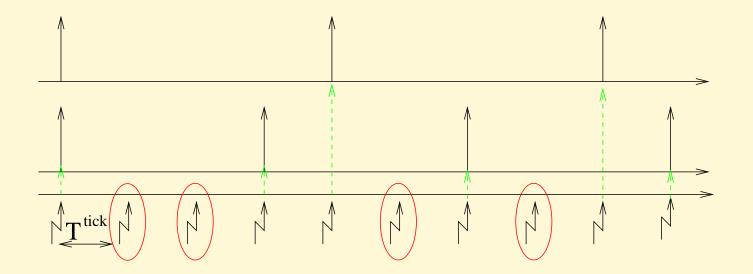
•  $L^{timer} = t' - r_{i,j} = \left\lceil \frac{r_{i,j}}{T^{tick}} \right\rceil T^{tick} - r_{i,j} = \left( \left\lceil \frac{r_{i,j}}{T^{tick}} \right\rceil - \frac{r_{i,j}}{T^{tick}} \right) T^{tick} \le T^{tick}$ 

#### **Problems with Periodic Ticks**

- Reducing  $T^{tick}$  below 1ms is generally not acceptable...
- ...So, periodic tasks can expect a blocking time due to  $L^{timer}$  up to 1ms
  - How large is the effect on the schedulability tests?
- Additional problems:
  - ullet Tasks' periods are rounded to multiples of  $T^{tick}$
  - Limit on the minimum task period:  $\forall i, T_i \geq T^{tick}$
  - ...

# **Useless Timer Interrupts**

 Additional problem: a lot of useless timer interrupts might be generated



#### **Timers and Clocks**

- Remember?
  - Timer: generate an event at a specified time t
  - Clock: keep track of the current system time
- A timer can be used to wake up a periodic task  $\tau$ , a clock can be used to read the system time (gettimeofday())
- Timer Resolution
- Clock Resolution

#### **Timer and Clock Resolution**

- Timer Resolution: minimum interval at which a periodic timer can fire
  - If periodic ticks are used, the timer resolution is  $T^{tick}$
- Clock Resolution: minimum difference between two different times returned by the clock
  - What's the expected clock resolution?

#### **Clock Resolution**

- Traditional OSs use a "tick counter"
  - Very fast clock: return the number of ticks (jiffies in Linux) from the system boot
  - Clock Resolution:  $T^{tick}$
- Modern PCs have higher resolution time sources...
  - On x86, TSC (TimeStamp Counter)
  - High-Resolution clock: use the TSC to compute the time since the last timer tick...
- Summary: High-Resolution clocks are easy!
  - Every modern OS kernel provides them

#### **Clock Resolution vs Timer Resolution**

- Even using a "traditional" periodic timer tick, it is easy to provide high-resolution clocks
  - Time can be easily read with a high accuracy
- On the other hand, timer resolution is limited by the system tick  $T^{tick}$  (= 1 / HZ)
  - It is impossible to generate events at arbitrary instants in time, without latencies

#### **Timer Devices**

- Timer devices (ex: PIT i8254) generally work in 2 modes: periodic and one-shot
- Programmed writing a value C in a counter register
- The counter register is decremented at a fixed rate
- When the counter is 0, an interrupt is generated
  - If the device is programmed in periodic mode, the counter register is automatically reset to the programmed value
  - If the device is programmed in one-shot mode, the kernel has to explicitly reprogram the device (setting the counter register to a new value)

# **Using the One-Shot Mode**

- The periodic mode is easier to use! This is why most kernels use it
- When using one-shot mode, the timer interrupt handler must:
  - 1. Acknowledge the interrupt handler, as usual
  - 2. Check if a timer expired, and do its usual stuff...
  - 3. Compute when the next timer must fire
  - Reprogram the timer device to generate an interrupt at the correct time
- Steps 3 and 4 are particularly critical and difficult

### **Reprogramming the Timer Device - 1**

- When the kernel reprograms the timer device (step
  4), it must know the current time...
- ...But the last known time is the time when the interrupt fired (before step 1)...
  - A timer interrupt fires at time  $t_1$
  - The interrupt handler starts (enter KS) at time  $t_1^\prime$
  - Before returning to US, the timer must be reprogrammed, at time  $t_1''$
  - Next interrupt must fire at time  $t_2$ ; the counter register is loaded with  $t_2-t_1$
  - Next interrupt will fire at  $t_2 + (t_1'' t_1)$

### **Reprogramming the Timer Device - 2**

- The error described previously accumulates
- Risk: drift between real time and system time
- A free run counter (not stopped at  $t_1$ ) is needed
- The counter is synchronised with the timer device  $\Rightarrow$  the value of the counter at time  $t_1$  is known
- This permits to know the time  $t_1'' \Rightarrow$  the new counter register value can be computed correctly
- On a PC, the second PIT counter, or the TSC, or the APIC timer can be used as a free run counter

# **High Resolution Timers**

- Serious real-time kernels → High-Resolution Timers (use hw timer in one-shot mode)
  - Already implemented in RT-Mach
  - Also implemented in RTLinux, RTAI and others
- General-Purpose kernels are more concerned about stability and overhead
  - Too much overhead for GP kernels?
- Fixed: hrtimers are in Linux since version 2.6.21

#### **HRT and Timer Ticks**

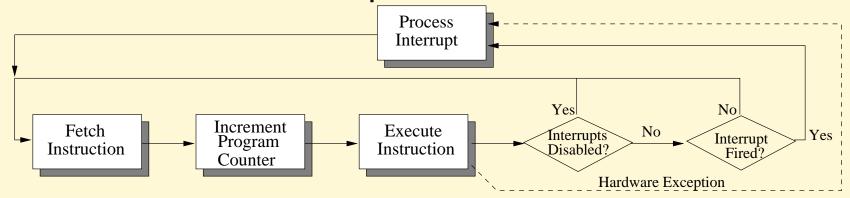
- Compatibility with "traditional" kernels:
  - The tick event can be emulated through high-resolution timers
  - ⇒ Timer device programmed to generate interrupts both:
    - When needed to serve a timer, and
    - At tick boundaries
- ...But the "tick" concept is now useless
  - Tickless (or NO\_HZ) system
  - Good for saving power

# **Non-Preemptable Section Latency**

- The non-preemptable section latency  $L^{np}$  is given by the sum of different components
  - 1. Interrupt disabling
  - 2. Delayed interrupt service
  - 3. Delayed scheduler invocation
- The first two are mechanisms used by the kernel to guarantee the consistency of internal structures
- The third mechanism is sometimes used to reduce the number of preemptions and increase the system throughput

# **Disabling Interrupts**

 Remember? Before checking if an interrupt fired, the CPU checks if interrupts are enabled...



Every CPU has some protected instructions
 (STI/CLI on x86) for enabling/disabling interrupts

# **Interrupts and Latency**

- In modern system, only the kernel (or code running in KS) can enable/disable interrupts
- Interrupts disabled for a time  $T^{cli} \rightarrow L^{np} \geq T^{cli}$
- Interrupt disabling is used to enforce mutual exclusion between sections of the kernel and ISRs

# **Delayed Interrupt Service - 1**

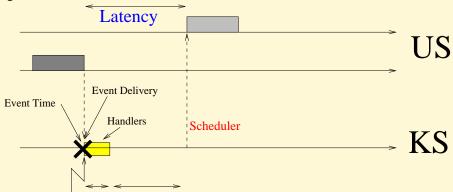
- When the interrupt fire, the ISR is ran, but the kernel can delay interrupt service some more...
  - ISRs are generally small, and do only few things
  - An ISR can set some kind of software flag, to notify that the interrupt fired
  - Later, the kernel can check such flag and run a larger (and more complex) interrupt handler
- Hard IRQ handlers (ISRs) vs "Soft IRQ handlers"

# **Delayed Interrupt Service - 2**

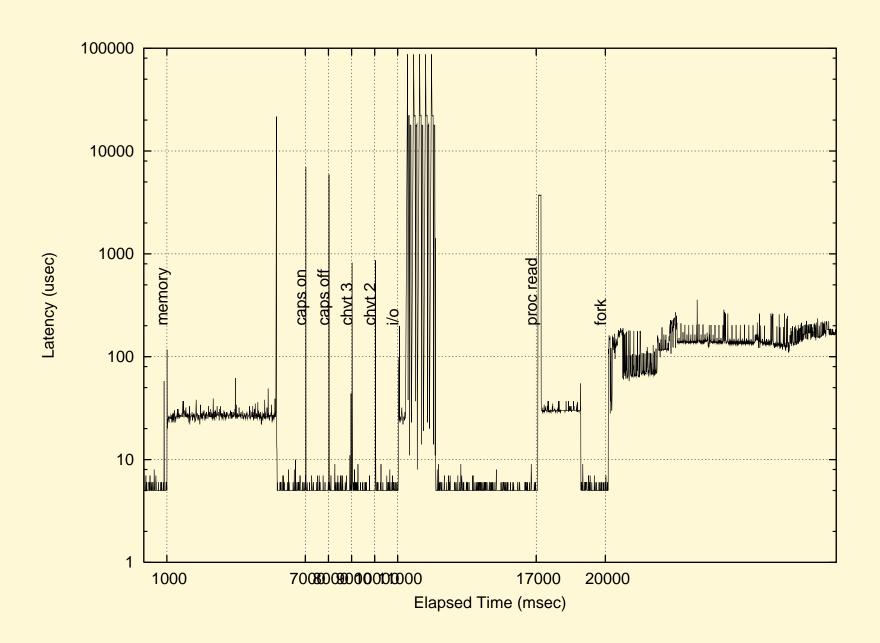
- Advantages of "soft IRQ handlers":
  - ISRs generally run with interrupts disabled,
  - Soft IRQ handlers can re-enable hardware interrupts
  - Enabling/Disabling soft handlers is simpler/cheaper
- Disadvantages:
  - Increase NP latency:  $L^{np} >> T^{cli}$
  - "Soft IRQ handlers" are often non-preemptable increasing the latency for other tasks too...

# **Deferred Scheduling**

- Scheduler invoked when returning from KS to US
- Sometimes, return to US after a lot of activities
  - Try to reduce the number of KS ↔ US switches
  - Reduce the number of context switches
  - Throughput vs low latency
- ISR executed at the correct time, soft IRQ handler ran immediately, but scheduler invoked too late



# Latency in the Standard Kernel



# **Summing Up - 1**

- $L^{np}$  depends on some different factors
- In general, no hw reasons  $\rightarrow$  it almost entirely depends on the *kernel structure* 
  - Non-preemptable section latency is generally the result of the strategy used by the kernel for ensuring mutual exclusion on its internal data structures

# **Summing Up - 2**

- To analyze / reduce  $L^{np}$ , we need to understand such strategies
- Different kernels, based on different structures, work in different ways
- Some activities causing  $L^{np}$ :
  - Interrupt Handling (Device Drivers)
  - Management of the parallelism

# **Example: Data Structures Consistency**

- HW interrupt: breaks the regular execution flow
  - If the CPU is executing in US, switch to KS
- If execution is already in KS, possible problems:
  - 1. The kernel is updating a linked list
  - 2. IRQ While the list is in an inconsistent state
  - 3. Jump to the ISR, that needs to access the list...
- Must disable interrupts while updating the list!
- Similar interrupt disabling is also used in spinlocks and mutex implementations...