

CSE 451: Operating Systems Autumn 2003

Lecture 2 Architectural Support for Operating Systems

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Architecture affects the OS

- Operating system functionality is dictated, at least in part, by the underlying hardware architecture
 - includes instruction set (synchronization, I/O, ...)
 - also hardware components like MMU or DMA controllers
- Architectural support can vastly simplify (or complicate!) OS tasks
 - e.g.: early PC operating systems (DOS, MacOS) lacked support for virtual memory, in part because at that time PCs lacked necessary hardware support
 - Current Intel-based PCs still lack support for 64-bit addressing (which has been available for a decade on other platforms: MIPS, Alpha, IBM, etc...) [this will change mostly due to AMD's new 64-bit architecture]

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Architectural Features affecting OS's

- These features were built primarily to support OS's:
 - timer (clock) operation
 - synchronization instructions (e.g. atomic test-and-set)
 - memory protection
 - I/O control operations
 - interrupts and exceptions
 - protected modes of execution (kernel vs. user)
 - protected instructions
 - system calls (and software interrupts)

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Protected Instructions

- some instructions are restricted to the OS
 - known as protected or privileged instructions
- e.g., only the OS can:
 - directly access I/O devices (disks, network cards)
 - why?
 - manipulate memory state management
 - page table pointers, TLB loads, etc.
 - why?
 - manipulate special 'mode bits'
 - interrupt priority level
 - why?
 - halt instruction
 - why?

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OS Protection

- So how does the processor know if a protected instruction should be executed?
 - the architecture must support at least two modes of operation: kernel mode and user mode
 - VAX, x86 support 4 protection modes
 - why more than 2?
 - mode is set by status bit in a protected processor register
 - user programs execute in user mode
 - OS executes in kernel mode (OS == kernel)
- Protected instructions can only be executed in the kernel mode
 - what happens if user mode executes a protected instruction?

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Crossing Protection Boundaries

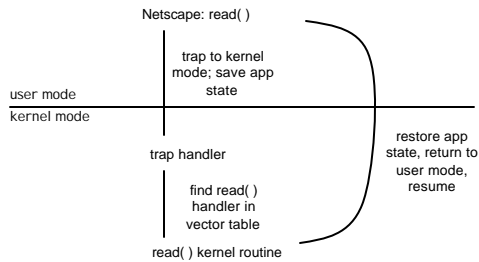
- So how do user programs do something privileged?
 - e.g., how can you write to a disk if you can't do I/O instructions?
- User programs must call an OS procedure
 - OS defines a sequence of system calls
 - how does the user-mode to kernel-mode transition happen?
- There must be a system call instruction, which:
 - causes an exception (throws a software interrupt), which vectors to a kernel handler
 - passes a parameter indicating which system call to invoke
 - saves caller's state (regs, mode bit) so they can be restored
 - OS must verify caller's parameters (e.g. pointers)
 - must be a way to return to user mode once done

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A Kernel Crossing Illustrated



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System Call Issues

- What would happen if kernel didn't save state?
- Why must the kernel verify arguments?
- How can you reference kernel objects as arguments or results to/from system calls?

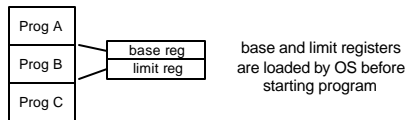
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Memory Protection

- OS must protect user programs from each other
 - maliciousness, ineptitude
- OS must also protect itself from user programs
 - integrity and security
 - what about protecting user programs from OS?
- Simplest scheme: base and limit registers
 - are these protected?



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More sophisticated memory protection

- coming later in the course
- virtual memory
 - paging, segmentation
 - page tables, page table pointers
 - translation lookaside buffers (TLBs)

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OS control flow

- after the OS has booted, all entry to the kernel happens as the result of an event
 - event immediately stops current execution
 - changes mode to kernel mode, event handler is called
- kernel defines handlers for each event type
 - specific types are defined by the architecture
 - e.g.: timer event, I/O interrupt, system call trap
 - when the processor receives an event of a given type, it
 - transfers control to handler within the OS
 - handler saves program state (PC, regs, etc.)
 - handler functionality is invoked
 - handler restores program state, returns to program

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Interrupts and Exceptions

- Two main types of events: interrupts and exceptions
 - exceptions are caused by software executing instructions
 - e.g. the x86 'int' instruction
 - e.g. a page fault, write to a read-only page
 - an expected exception is a "trap", unexpected is a "fault"
 - interrupts are caused by hardware devices
 - e.g. device finishes I/O
 - e.g. timer fires

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I/O Control

- Issues:
 - how does the kernel start an I/O?
 - special I/O instructions
 - memory-mapped I/O
 - how does the kernel notice an I/O has finished?
 - polling
 - interrupts
- Interrupts are basis for asynchronous I/O
 - device performs an operation asynch to CPU
 - device sends an interrupt signal on bus when done
 - in memory, a vector table contains list of addresses of kernel routines to handle various interrupt types
 - who populates the vector table, and when?
 - CPU switches to address indicated by vector specified by interrupt signal

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Timers

- How can the OS prevent runaway user programs from hogging the CPU (infinite loops?)
 - use a hardware timer that generates a periodic interrupt
 - before it transfers to a user program, the OS loads the timer with a time to interrupt
 - "quantum": how big should it be set?
 - when timer fires, an interrupt transfers control back to OS
 - at which point OS must decide which program to schedule next
 - very interesting policy question: we'll dedicate a class to it
- Should the timer be privileged?
 - for reading or for writing?

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Synchronization

- Interrupts cause a wrinkle:
 - may occur any time, causing code to execute that interferes with code that was interrupted
 - OS must be able to synchronize concurrent processes
- Synchronization:
 - guarantee that short instruction sequences (e.g., read-modify-write) execute atomically
 - one method: turn off interrupts before the sequence, execute it, then re-enable interrupts
 - architecture must support disabling interrupts
 - another method: have special complex atomic instructions
 - read-modify-write
 - test-and-set
 - load-linked store-conditional

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