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)
  - privileged instructions
  - system calls (and software interrupts)
- [2006] virtualization architectures (aka Intel discovers the early 1970s)

Privileged 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)
  - page table pointers, TLB loads, etc.
- manipulate special ‘mode bits’
  - interrupt priority level
- halt instruction
- why?

OS protection

- So how does the processor know if a privileged 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
  - mode is set by status bit in a protected processor register
  - user programs execute in user mode
  - OS executes in kernel mode (OS == kernel)
- Privileged instructions can only be executed in kernel mode
  - what happens if user mode attempts to execute a privileged instruction?

Crossing protection boundaries

- So how do user programs do something privileged?
  - e.g., how can you write to a disk if you can’t execute 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 (registers, 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

A kernel crossing illustrated

Firefox: read(int fileDescriptor, void *buffer, int numBytes)

package arguments

trap to kernel mode

user mode

kernel mode

save registers

find sys_read() handler in vector table

sys_read() kernel routine

restore app state, return to user mode, resume
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?

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?

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

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

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, or an attempted 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

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 asynchronously 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 index specified by interrupt signal
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?

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

“Concurrent programming”

- Management of concurrency and asynchronous events is biggest difference between “systems programming” and “traditional application programming”
  - Modern “event-oriented” application programming is a middle ground
- Arises from the architecture
- Can be sugar-coated, but cannot be totally abstracted away
- Huge intellectual challenge
  - Unlike vulnerabilities due to buffer overruns, which are just sloppy programming

Some questions

- Why wouldn’t you want a user program to be able to access an I/O device (e.g., the disk) directly?
- OK, so what keeps this from happening? What prevents user programs from directly accessing the disk?
- So, how does a user program cause disk I/O to occur?
- What prevents a user program from scribbling on the memory of another user program?
- What prevents a user program from scribbling on the memory of the operating system?
- What prevents a user program from running away with the CPU?