



# OS Structure

- Topics
  - Hardware protection & privilege levels
  - Control transfer to and from the operating system
- Learning Objectives:
  - Explain what hardware protection boundaries are.
  - Explain how applications interact with the operating system and how control flows between them.



# What makes the kernel different?



Applications

**Protection Boundary**

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## Operating System

file system

networking

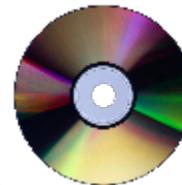
device drivers

processes

virtual memory

**HW/SW Interface**

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Hardware





# Protection Boundaries

- Processor hardware typically provides (at least) two different privilege levels:
  - User mode: how all “regular programs” run.
  - Kernel mode or supervisor mode: how the OS runs.
  - Most processors have only two modes; x86 has four; some older machines had 8!
- The mode in which a piece of software is running determines:
  - What instructions may be executed.
  - How addresses are translated.
  - What memory locations may be accessed (enforced through translation).



# Example: Intel

- Four protection levels
  - **Ring 0: Most privileged: OS runs here**
  - Rings 1 & 2: Ignored in many environments, although, can run less privileged code (e.g., third party device drivers; possibly some parts of virtual machine monitors)
  - **Ring 3: Application code**
- Memory is described in chunks called **segments**
  - Each segment also has a privilege level (0 through 3)
  - Processor maintains a “current protection level” (CPL) - usually the protection level of the segment containing the currently executing instruction.
  - Program can read/write data in segments of *less privilege* than CPL
  - Program cannot *directly* call code in segments with more privilege.

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Which of the following statements are true on the Intel architecture?



Allow Single Choice Only  Allow Multiple Choices  Shuffle Answers  Allow Retry  Limit Attempts

The OS can read application data



The OS can execute application code



Applications can read OS data



Applications can execute code from segments with privilege level 1



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# Example: MIPS

- Standard two mode processor
  - User mode: access to CPU/FPU registers and flat, uniform virtual memory address space.
  - Kernel mode: can access memory mapping hardware and special registers.



# Changing Protection Levels

- Must answer two fundamental questions:
  - **How** do we transfer control between applications and the kernel?
  - **When** do we transfer control between applications and the kernel?
- **How**: Fundamental mechanism that transfers control from less privileged to more privileged is called a **trap**.
- There are different kinds of traps; this gets us to the when ...



# When does the OS get to run?

- Sleeping Beauty Approach
  - Hope that something happens to wake you up.
  - What might happen?
    - **System calls**: An application might want the operating system to do something on its behalf.
    - **Exceptions**: An application unintentionally does something that requires OS assistance (e.g., divide by 0, read a page not in memory).
    - **Interrupts**: An asynchronous event (e.g., I/O completion).
- Alarm Clock Approach
  - The OS can set a timer, which will generate an interrupt, which guarantees that the OS gets to run at a specific time in the future.

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The OS always decides when the processor transitions from user mode to supervisor mode



Allow Retry

True



False



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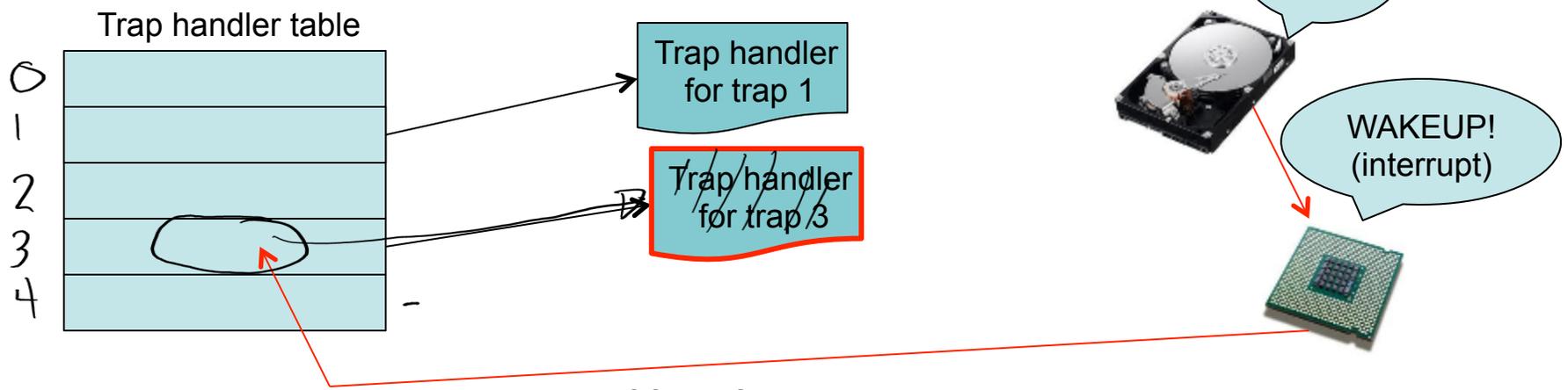
# Transferring Control

- Regardless of why and when control must transfer to the operating system, the mechanism is the same.
- First, we'll talk about what must happen in the abstract (i.e., not in the context of any particular processor).
- Then, we'll step through two different hardware platforms and examine how they transfer control.
- Key points:
  - We can invoke the operating system explicitly via a system call.
  - The operating system can be invoked implicitly via an exception (sometimes called a software interrupt), such as a divide by zero or a bad memory reference.
  - The operating system can be invoked asynchronously via (hardware) interrupts, such as a timer, an I/O device, etc.



# Trap Handling

- Each type of trap is assigned a number. For example:
  - 1 = system call
  - 2 = timer interrupt
  - 3 = disk interrupt
  - 4 = interprocessor interrupt
- The operating system sets up a table, indexed by trap number, that contains the address of the code to be executed whenever that kind of trap happens.
- These pieces of code are called “trap handlers.”





# MIPS (sys161) Trap Handling (1)

- MIPS has only 5 distinct traps and those addresses are hardwired (no software dispatch)

- One each for:

- 1. Reset,
  - 2. ~~NMI~~ (non-maskable interrupt)
  - 3. Fast-TLB loading
  - 4. ~~Debug~~
  - 5. One for everything else (software must then do further dispatch).
- HW dispatch* (handwritten) is written vertically to the left of the list, with a bracket encompassing items 1 through 4.
- SW dispatch* (handwritten) is written to the right of the list, pointing towards item 5.

- **Note: Sys/161 does not support NMI or debug**

- Trap handling varies according to the type of trap.



# MIPS (sys161) Trap Handling (2)

- The MIPS processor has special registers that get set with vital information at trap time. For example:
  - The **EPC (exception program counter)** tells you the address that caused the exception.
  - The **cause register** is set to a value indicating the source of the trap -- interrupt, exception, system call, and which kind of interrupt/exception/system it was.
  - The **status register** indicates:
    - Mode the processor was in when the interrupt happened.
    - The state of which kinds of interrupts/exceptions are enabled
- In early versions of the MIPS, you return from trap handlers using a combination of a JMP instruction and an RFE (return from exception).
- Later versions have ERET (exception return).



# x86 Trap Handling

- Hardware register, traditionally called PIC (Programmable Interrupt Controller), then APIC (advanced PIC) and most recently LAPIC (local advanced PIC, one per CPU in the system)
  - Maps different events to particular locations in **IDT (interrupt descriptor table)**.
  - PIC sends the appropriate value for the interrupt handler dispatch to the processor.
- Recall:
  - x86 has multiple protection levels
  - Cannot directly call code in a different level.
  - So, we need a special mechanism to facilitate the transfer.
- IDT: contains special objects called **gates**.
  - Gates provide access from lower privileged segments to higher privileged segments.
    - When a low-privilege segment invokes a gate, it automatically raises the CPL to the higher level.
    - When returning from a gate, the CPL drops to its original level.
  - First 32 gates reserved for hardware defined traps.
  - Remaining entries are available to software using the INT (interrupt) instruction.



# x86 System Calls

- There are multiple ways to handle system calls and different operating systems use different ways:
  - Linux uses a single designated INT instruction (triggers a software interrupt) and then dispatches again within a single handler (like MIPS).
  - Solaris uses the LCALL instruction (goes through a gate).
  - Some new Linux systems use the newer SYSENTER/SYSEXIT calls.
- The IRET instruction returns from the trap



# Recap

- The operating system is just a bunch of code that sits around waiting for something to do (e.g., help out a user process, respond to a hardware device, process a timer interrupt, etc).
- The operating system runs in **privileged mode**.
- Hardware provides some sort of mechanism to transfer control from one privilege level to another.
- We use the term **trap** to refer to any mechanism that transfers control into the operating system.
- There are different kinds of traps:
  - **Interrupts** (caused by hardware; **asynchronous**)
  - **Exceptions** (software interrupts; **synchronous with respect to programs**)
  - **System calls**: intentional requests of the operating system on behalf of a program; **synchronous with respect to the program**)



