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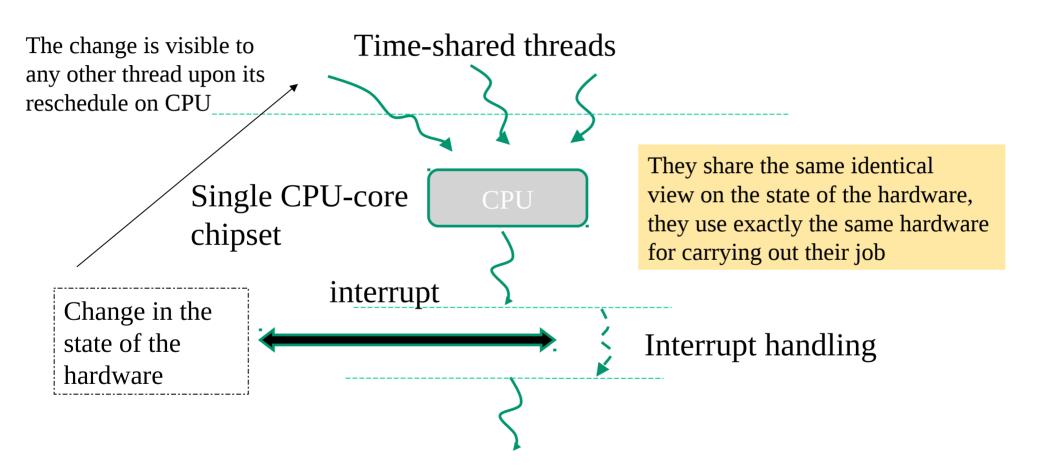
#### Trap/interrupt architecture

- 1. Architectural hints
- 2. Relations with software and its layering
- 3. Bindind to the Linux kernel internals

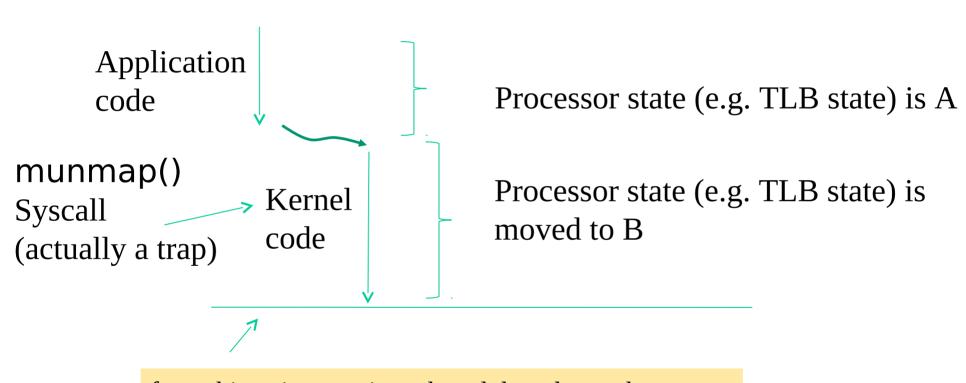
# Single-core traditional concepts

- Traditional single-core machines only relied on
  - Traps (synchronous events wrt software execution)
  - ► Interrupts from external devices (asynchronous events)
- The classical way of handling the event has been based on running operating system code on the **unique CPU** in the system (single CPU systems) upon event acceptance
- This has been enough (in terms of consistency) even for concurrent (multithread) applications given that the state of the hardware was time-shared across threads

# Some more insights

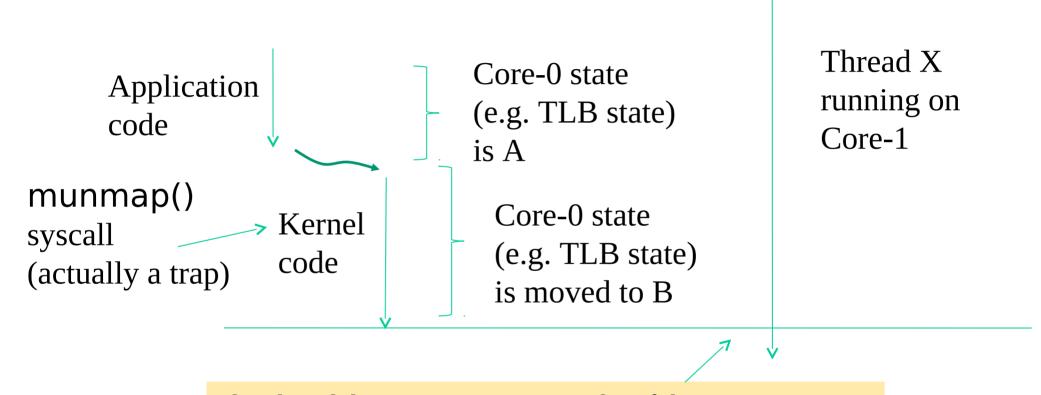


#### An example with traps (e.g. syscalls)



from this point any time-shared thread sees the correct final state as determined by trap handling

# Moving to multi-core systems



This thread does not see state B – what if the TLB on Core-1 caches the same page table (the same state portion) as the one of Core-0??

#### Core issues

- If the system state is distributed/replicated within in the hardware architecture we need mechanisms for allowing state changes by traps/interrupts to be propagated
- As an example, a trap on Core-0 needs to be propagated to Core-1 etc.
- In some cases this is addressed by pure firmware protocols (such as when the event **is bound to deterministic handling**)
- Otherwise we need mechanisms to propagate and handle the event at the operating system (software) level

# The IPI (Inter Processor Interrupt) support

- IPI is a third type of event (beyond traps and classical interrupts) that <u>may</u> trigger the execution of specific operating system software on any CPU
- An IPI is a **synchronous event at the sender** CPU and an **asynchronous one at the recipient** CPU
- On the other hand, IPI is typically used to put in place cross CPU activities (e.g. request/reply protocols) allowing, e.g., a specific CPU to trigger a change in the state of another one
- Or to trigger a change on the hardware portion only observable by the other CPU

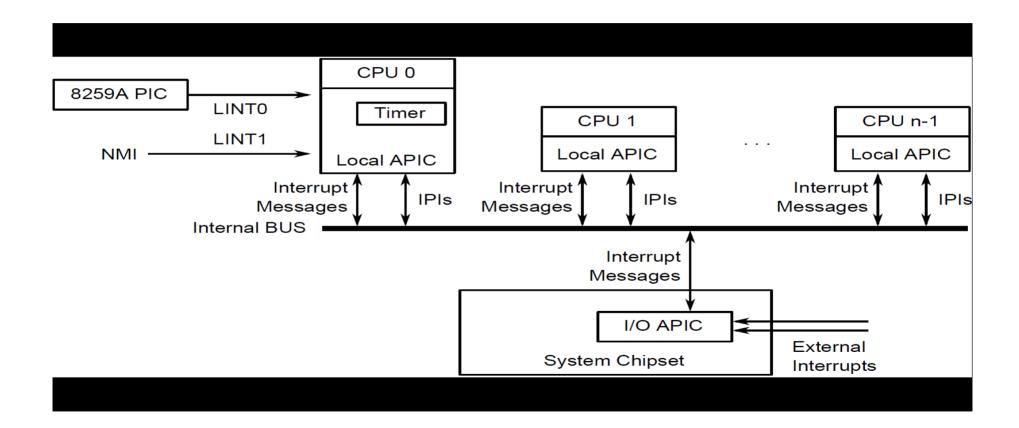
#### **Priorities**

- IPIs are generated via firmware support, <u>but are finally processed at software level (it becomes an OS matter)</u>
- Classically, at least two priority levels are admitted
  - ✓ High
  - ✓ Low
- High priority leads to immediate processing of the IPI at the recipient (a single IPI is accepted and stands out at any point in time)
- Low priority generally leads to queue the requests and process them via sequentialization

#### Actual support in x86 machines

- In x86 processors, the basic firmware support for interrupts is the so called APIC (Advanced Programmable Interrupt Controller)
- This offers a local instance to any CPU (called LAPIC Local APIC)
- As an example, LAPIC offers a "CPU-local" programmable timer (for time tracking and time-sharing purposes) .... the LAPIC-T we already met
- It also offers pseudo-registers to be used for posting IPI requests in the system
- IPI requests travel along an ad-hoc APIC bus

#### The architectural scheme



#### The architectural scheme evolution

PIC Intel 8259		IRQ0 - IRQ7				
Two PIC	C Intel 8259	IRQ0 - IRQ15				
IO-APIC		Max 255 physical hardware IRQ, typical system only around 24 total hardware lines				
IRQ 0	System timer. Reserved for the system. Cannot be changed by a user.					
IRQ 1	Keyboard. Reserved for the system. Cannot be altered even if no keyboard is present or needed.					
IRQ 2	Second IRQ controller. See below for explanation.					
IRQ 3	COM 2(Default) COM 4(User)					
IRQ 4	COM 1(Default) COM 3(User)					
IRQ 5	Sound card (Sound Blaster Pro or later) or LPT2(User)					
IRQ 6	Floppy disk controller					
IRQ 7	LPT1(Parallel port) or sound card (8-bit Sound Blaster and compatibles)					
IRQ 8	Real time clock					
IRQ 9	ACPI SCI or ISA MPU-401					
IRQ 10	Free / Open interrupt / Available					
IRQ 11	Free / Open interrupt / Available					
IRQ 12	PS/2 connector Mouse / If no PS/2 connector mouse is used, this can be used for other peripheral					
IRQ 13	Math co-processor. Cannot be changed					
IRQ 14	Primary IDE. If no Primary IDE this can be changed					
IRQ 15	Secondary IDE					

#### Nomenclature

- IRQ is the actual code associated with the interrupt request (depending on hardware configuration)
- INT is the "interrupt line" as seen by the OS-kernel software
- In the essence INT = F(IRQ)
- The evaluation of the function F is typically hardware specific
- As it will be clear in a few slides, on x86 processors INT = IRQ+32
- This means that the first 32 INT lines are reserved for something else these are the predefined traps of the hardware architecture

#### I/O APIC insights

- I/O APIC tracks how many CPUs are in the current chipset
- It can selectively direct interrupts to the different CPUs
- It uses so called local APIC-ID as an identifier of the CPU
- Fixed/physical operations ✓ it sends interrupts from certain device to some single, predefined CPU
- Logical/low priority operations ✓ it can deliver interrupts from certain device to multiple CPUs in a round robin

constraints)

fashion ✓ the destination group is of at most 8 elements (based on internal hardware

#### The Linux interface for APIC

- /proc/interrupt tells the actual accounting of the interrupt delivery to the different CPUs
- /proc/irq/<IRQ#>/smp\_affinity tells what is the affinity of interrupts to CPUs in the logical/low priority operating mode
- The actual setup of the I/O APIC working mode is hard-coded into kernel boot rules and is generally observable via the dmesg buffer

#### Linux core data structures - the IDT

- It is a table of entries that are used to describe the entry point (the GATE) for the handling of any interrupt
- x86 machines have IDTs formed by 256 entries (the max amount of IRQ vectors we can generate with the I/O APIC architecture)
- The actual size and structure of the entries depends on the type of machine we are working with (say 32 vs 64 bit machines)
- Here is a high level view of the actual usage of the entries .....

# Linux IDT bindings

**Vector range** 

20-31 (0x14-0x1f)

32-127 (0x20-0x7f)

129-238 (0x81-0xee)

240-250 (0xf0-0xfa)

251-255 (0xfb-0xff)

128 (0x80)

239 (0xef)

Use

External interrupts (IRQs)

Programmed exception for system

a while

Back here in

0-19 (0x0-0x13)exceptions

The mixture changes with kernel releases (e.g. 255 is spurious)

Intel-reserved

Nonmaskable interrupts and

calls (segmented style) External interrupts (IRQs) **Local APIC timer interrupt** Reserved by Linux for future use **Inter-processor interrupts** 

# What we already saw - idtr

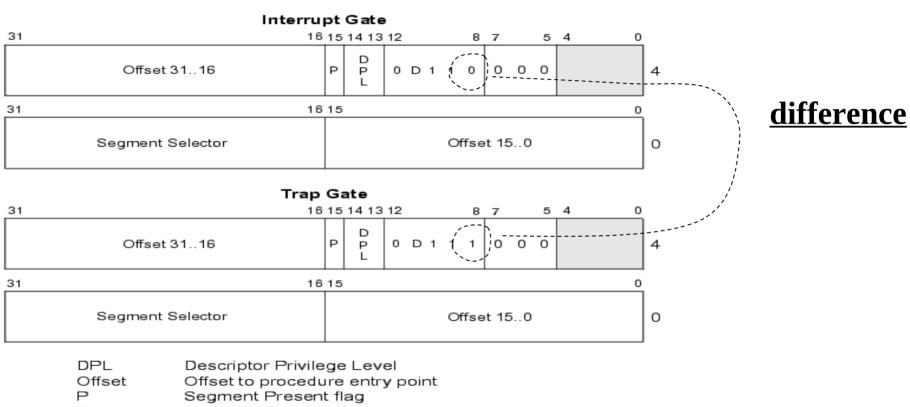
- The **idtr** register (interrupt descriptor table register) keeps on each CPU-core
  - the IDT <u>virtual address (expressed as up to 6 bytes 48bit linear address)</u>
- The number of entries currently present in the IDT (expressed as 2 bytes − up to 256)
- This is a packed structure that we can manipulate with the LIDT (Load IDT) and SIDT (Store IDT) x86 machine instructions

#### x86 protected mode

- The elements of the IDT are made up by 32-bit data structures
- In more detail, the data stucture is of type struct desc\_struct
- It is defined in include/asm-i386/desc.h as

```
struct desc_struct {
    unsigned long a,b;
}
```

#### Structure of the x86 protected mode IDT entry



Selector Segment Selector for destination code segment

D Size of gate: 1 = 32 bits; 0 = 16 bits

Reserved

#### IDT entry, Interrupt Gates

Name	Bit	Full Name	Description					
Offset	4863	Offset 1631	Higher part of the offset.					
Р	47	Present	can be set to 0 for unused interrupts or for Paging.					
DPL	45,46	Descriptor Privilege Level	have. So	Gate call protection. Specifies which privilege Level the calling Descriptor minimum should have. So hardware and CPU interrupts can be protected from beeing called out of userspace.				
s	44	Storage Segment	= 0 for interrupt gates.					
Type	4043	Gate Type 03	Ob0101 Ob0110 Ob0111 Ob1110 Ob1111		5 6 7 14	80386 32 bit Task gate 80286 16-bit interrupt gate 80286 16-bit trap gate 80386 32-bit interrupt gate 80386 32-bit trap gate		
0	3239	Unused 07	Have to be 0.					
Selector	1631	Selector 015	Selector of the interrupt function (to make sense - the kernel's selector). The selector's descriptor's DPL field has to be <b>0</b> .					
Offset	015	Offset 015	Lower part of the interrupt function's offset address (also known as pointer).					

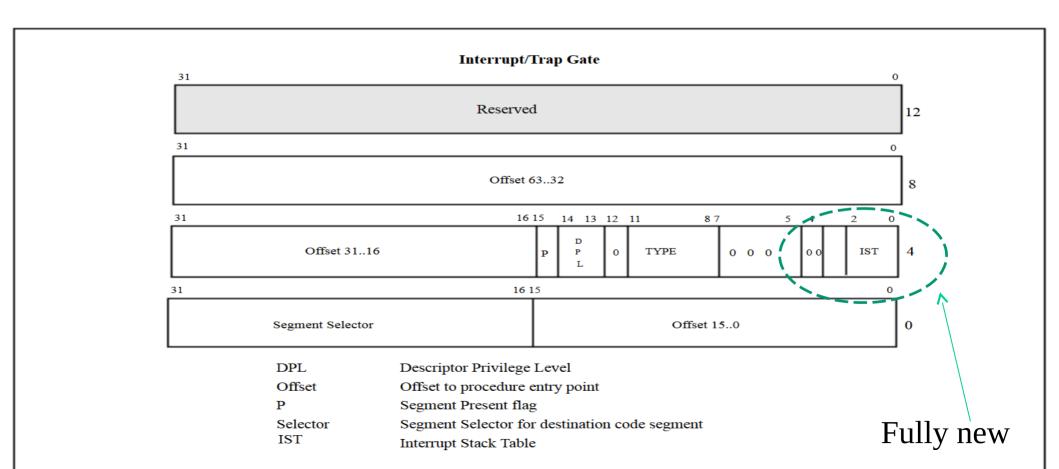
#### Recap on relations with the GDT

• The segment identifier/selector allows accessing the entry of the GDT where we can find the base value for the target segment

#### • NOTE

- As we already know, there are 4 valid data/code segments, all mapped to base 0x0
- This is done in order to make <u>Linux portable on architectures</u> <u>offering no segmentation support</u> (i.e. only offering paging)
- This is one reason why
  - ✓ Protection meta-data are also kept within page table entries
  - ✓ Setting up the offset for a GATE requires a **displacement referring to 0x0**, which can be denoted to the linker by the & operator

# Long mode IDT entry structure



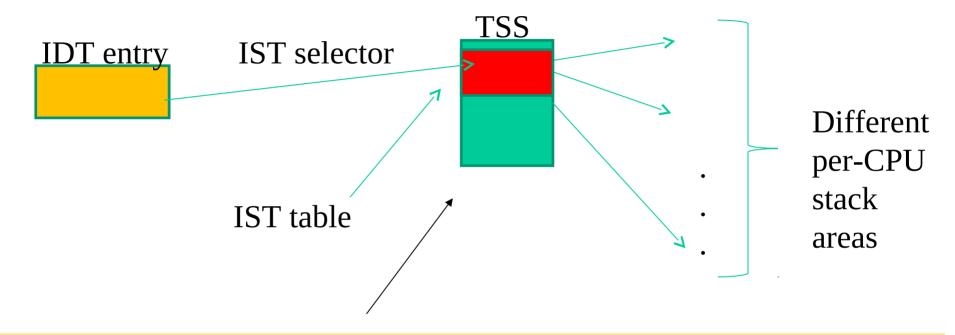
#### Accessing the gate address - long mode

```
#define HML_TO_ADDR(h,m,1) \
   ((unsigned long) (l) | ((unsigned long) (m) << 16) | \
   ((unsigned long) (h) \ll 32))
gate desc *gate ptr;
gate_ptr = .....;
HML_TO_ADDR(gate_ptr->offset_high, gate_ptr->offset_middle,
      gate ptr->offset low);
```

# x86 long mode fully new concepts - IST

- The **Interrupt Stack Table (IST)** is available as an alternative to handle stack switch upon traps/interrupts
- This mechanism unconditionally switches stacks when it is enabled on each individual interrupt-vector basis using a field in the IDT entry
- This means that some interrupt vectors can selectively use the IST mechanism
- IST provides a method for specific interrupts (such as NMI, double-fault, and machine-check) to always execute on a known good stack
- The IST mechanism provides **up to seven IST pointers** in the TSS

#### A scheme



These are typically the primary stacks (possibly of different size) for processing a given trap/interrupts
Software will then switch to the classical kernel level stack of the running task if nothing prevents it (e.g. a double fault)

# Macros for setting IDT entries - x86 protected mode

- within the arch/i386/kernel/traps.c file we can find the declaration of the following macros that can be used for setting up one entry of the IDT
  - set\_trap\_gate(displacement,&symbol\_name)
  - > set\_intr\_gate(displacement,&symbol\_name)
  - > set\_system\_gate(displacement,&symbol\_name)
- •displacement indicates the target entry of the IDT
- •&simbol\_name identifies the segment displacement (starting from 0x0) which determines the address of the software module to be invoked for handling the trap or the interrupt

# Main differences among the modules

- The set\_trap\_gate() function initializes one IDT entry such in away to define the value 0 as the privilege level admitted for accessing the GATE via software
- Therefore we cannot rely on the INT assembly instruction unless we are already executing in kernel mode
- The set\_intr\_gate() function looks similar, however the handler activation relies on interrupt masking
- set\_system\_gate() is similar to set\_trap\_gate() however it defines the value 3 as the level of privilege admitted for accessing the GATE

# i386/kernel-2.4 examples

Handler managing division errors
 set\_trap\_gate(0,&divide\_error)

Handler for non-maskable interrupts set\_intr\_gate(2,&nmi)

Handler used for dispatching system calls set\_system\_gate(SYSCALL\_VECTOR,&system\_call)

# Variants for x86 long mode - kernel 3

#### **CODE SNIPPET FROM desc.h**

```
409 /*
410 * This routine sets up an interrupt gate at directory privilege level 3.
411 */
412 static inline void set system intr gate(unsigned int n, void *addr)
413 {
        BUG ON((unsigned)n > 0xFF);
414
415
        set gate(n, GATE INTERRUPT, addr, 0x3, 0, KERNEL CS);
416 }
417
418 static inline void set system trap gate(unsigned int n, void *addr)
419 {
420
        BUG ON((unsigned)n > 0xFF);
421
        set gate(n, GATE TRAP, addr, 0x3, 0, KERNEL CS);
422 }
423
424 static inline void set trap gate(unsigned int n, void *addr)
425 {
426
        BUG ON((unsigned)n > 0xFF);
427
        set gate(n, GATE TRAP, addr, 0, 0, KERNEL CS);
428 }
```

# Variants for x86 long mode - kernel 4/5

```
#define write_ldt_entry(dt, entry, desc) \
    native_write_idt_entry(dt, entry, desc)

static inline void native_write_idt_entry(gate_desc *idt,
    int entry, const gate_desc *gate) {
        memcpy(&idt[entry], gate, sizeof(*gate));
}
```

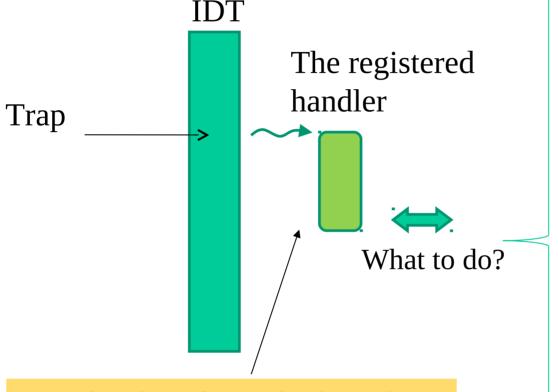
#### Reserved vs available IDT entries

- The entries from 0 to 31 are reserved for handlers that are used to manage specific (predefined) events/conditions (such as divide by 0 or page fault) or are already planned for future use ... these are mostly traps
- This is based on hardware design/requirements
- All the other entries are available for system programming purposes
- As an example, the entry at displacement 0x80 has been traditionally used for kernel level access via system calls
- We note that for some of the reserved entries, microcode tasks generate a **so** called error-code to be passed to the handler .....

#### Reserved vs available IDT entries

- If needed, the handler needs to be structured such in a way to be aware of the production of the error-code
- Particularly, beyond exploiting the error-code value, it needs to remove it from, e.g., the stack right before returning from trap/interrupt (IRET)
- Non-reserved entries area managed by the microcode with no generation of any error-code value

#### Recap on actions of trap/interrupt handlers



In modern kernels we also have the need for handling kernel isolation on page tables

CPU snapshot generation on the stack? YES

Management of the presence/absence of error code? YES

Additional stack change? YES/NO

Control passage to a second level handler? Typically YES (for sure if we are running a non top/bottom half task)

# Modular handler management (i)

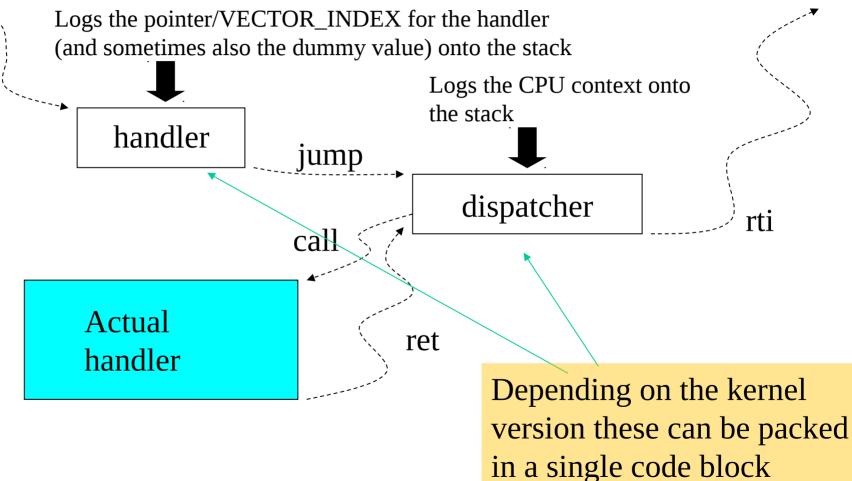
- The interrupt handlers are managed <u>via an additional dispatcher</u>
- Initially, each handler logs a dummy-value into the stack in case no error-code is generated in relation to the specific trap/interrupt
- Then it logs into the stack the address of the actual handler-function (typically written in C)
- In more modern versions we log a VECTOR\_INDEX for access to the vector of function pointers ......

# Modular handler management (ii)

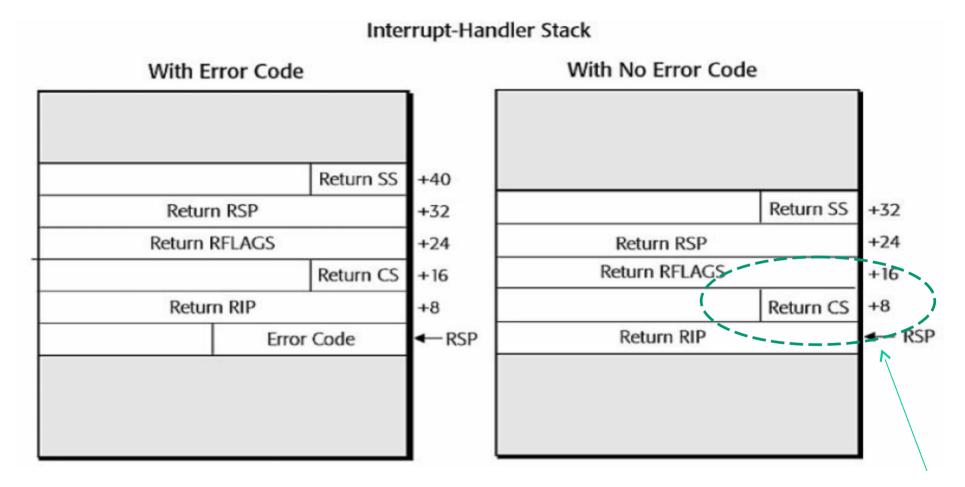
- After, an assembly module, operating the dispatching, is activated
- This logs the CPU context and gives control to the handler via a conventional call
- Given that the input parameters are passed via the stack, the handlers will need to be compiled with asmlinkage directives (or more modern dotraplinkage)
- ... in more modern Linux kernel flavors (<u>e.g. for x86 long mode</u>), the layering is a bit more articulated, but the basic concepts are the same
- One thing which is dealth with explicitly is IST and the stack frame redirection

#### The actual scheme

trap/interrupt



# x86-64 early trap/interrupt stack layout details



Coming from where?

# Examples (dated)

```
No error code by firmware
ENTRY(overflow)
      pushl $0
      pushl $ SYMBOL NAME(do overflow)
      imp error code
ENTRY(general protection)
      pushl $ SYMBOL NAME(do general protection)
      imp error code
ENTRY(page fault)
      pushl $ SYMBOL NAME(do page fault)
      jmp error code
                                           Error code already posted
```

firmware

## The error\_code block - still i386 case

- The assembler code block called error\_code is in charge of logging the CPU context into the stack
- This is done by aligning the stack content with the following data structure defined in include/asm-i386/ptrace.h

```
struct pt_regs {
    long ebx; long ecx;
    long edx; long esi;
    long edi; long ebp;
    long eax; int xds; int xes;
    long orig_eax; long eip; int xcs;
    long eflags; long esp; int xss;
}
```

• The actual handler can take as input a pt\_regs\* pointer and, if needed, an unsigned long representing the error-code

# struct pt\_regs for x86 long mode

```
struct pt_regs {
       unsigned long r15; ... unsigned long r12;
       unsigned long bp;
       unsigned long bx; /* arguments: non interrupts/non tracing syscalls
only save up to here*/
       unsigned long r11; ... unsigned long r8;
       unsigned long ax;
       unsigned long cx;
       unsigned long dx;
       unsigned long si;
       unsigned long di;
       unsigned long orig_ax; /* end of arguments */ /* cpu exception frame
or undefined */
       unsigned long ip;
       unsigned long cs;
       unsigned long flags;
       unsigned long sp;
       unsigned long ss; /* top of stack page */
```

## The page fault handler - main features

- The page fault handler is do\_page\_fault(struct pt\_regs \*regs, unsigned long error\_code)
- It takes as input the error-code determining the type of the occurred fault, which needs to be handled
- The fault type is specified via the three least significant bits of error\_code according to the following rules
  - bit 0 == 0 means no page found, 1 means protection
    fault
  - bit 1 == 0 means read, 1 means write
  - bit 2 == 0 means kernel, 1 means user-mode

## Back to IPI

- Immediate handling is allowed for the case in which there are no data structures that are shared across CPU-cores that need to be accessed for the handling (kind of stateless scenarios)
- An example is the system-halt (e.g. upon panic)
- Other classical usages of IPI are
  - ✓ Execution on a same function across all the CPU-cores (like the initialization of per-CPU variables)
  - Change of the state of hardware components across multiple CPU-cores in the system (e.g. the TLB state)
  - ✓ Ask some CPU to preempt the current thread

## Actual IPI usage in Linux - a few examples

### CALL\_FUNCTION\_VECTOR

Sent to all CPUs but the sender, forcing those CPUs to run a function passed by the sender. The corresponding interrupt handler is named call\_function\_interrupt(). Usually this interrupt is sent to all CPUs except the CPU executing the calling function by means of the smp\_call\_function() facility function.

#### RESCHEDULE\_VECTOR

When a CPU receives this type of interrupt, the corresponding handler limits itself to acknowledge the interrupt.

### INVALIDATE\_TLB\_VECTOR

Sent to all CPUs but the sender, forcing them to invalidate their TLB.

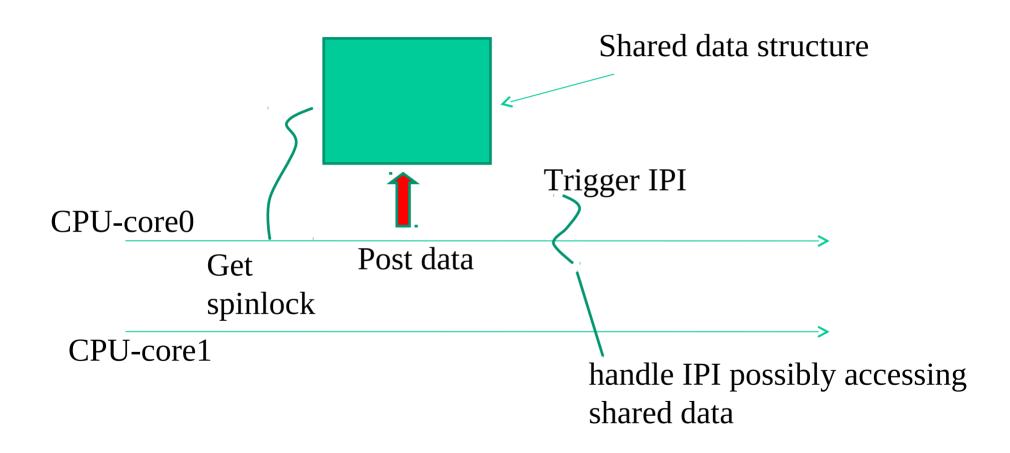
# Actual IPI API in the apic driver

```
send_IPI_all( )
      Sends an IPI to all CPUs (including the sender)
send_IPI_allbutself( )
      Sends an IPI to all CPUs except the sender
send IPI self( )
      Sends an IPI to the sender CPU
send_IPI_mask( )
      Sends an IPI to a group of CPUs specified by a bit mask
```

## Sequentialization of IPI management

- The sequentializing approach is used in case the IPI requires managing a shared data structure across the threads
- This is the typical case of an IPI that requires <u>specific parameters for correct management</u>
- These parameters are in fact <u>passed into predetermined memory locations</u> accessible to all the CPU-cores, whose position in memory is predetermined
- The classical case is the one of smp-call-function, whose function pointer and parameter are both passed into a global table

## The scheme



```
207 int smp_call_function(void (* func)(void *info), void * info, int wait)
208 {
        /* Can deadlock when called with interrupts disabled */
215
                                                                                                     Beware this!!
216
        WARN ON(irgs disabled());
217
218
        spin lock_bh(&call_lock):
219
        atomic set(&scf started, 0);
220
        atomic set(&scf finished, 0);
221
        func = func;
222
        info = info;
223
224
        for each online cpu(i)
225
             os_write_file(cpu_data[i].ipi_pipe[1], "C", 1);
226
227
        while (atomic_read(&scf_started) != cpus)
228
             barrier();
229
230
        if (wait)
231
             while (atomic_read(&scf_finished) != cpus)
232
                  barrier();
233
        spin unlock bh(&call lock);
234
235
        return 0;
```

## IPI additional effects

- As noted before, one IPI used by Linux is the **reschedule** one
- This may lead to preemption of the task running on the CPU-core targeted by the IPI
- This may have effects on both
  - ✓ Correctness/consistency
  - ✓ Performance

## Consistency aspects

- What about running a piece of code which is <u>CPU-specific</u> and preemption occurs??
- One example

```
struct _the_struct v[NR_CPUS];
v[smp_processor_id()] = some_value;
/* task is preempted here... */
something = v[smp_processor_id()];
```

We may be targeting different entries

## Performance aspects

- smp\_call\_function() tipcally runs with interrupts allowed ... just remember the deadlock issue!!
- But we cannot risk to have some smp\_call\_function() runner getting context switched off the CPU
- Otherwise the release of the smp\_call\_function() resources (e.g. the spinlock) might be delayed
- .... and we might even deadlock anyhow!!

## How to run with interrupts but no actual preemption

- We use per-thread atomic counters (we already saw)
- If the counter is not zero then no preemption will take place (although we can be targeted by interrupts)
- The check is clearly done via software upon attempting to process the preemption interrupt
- Beware managing the preemption counter explicitly if required!!

# Preemption enabling/disabling API recall

```
preempt_enable() // decrement the preempt counter
preempt_disable() // increment the preempt counter
preempt_enable_no_resched() decrement, but do not
immediately preempt
preempt_check_resched() /X if needed, reschedule
preempt_count() return the preempt counter
put_cpu() /get_cpu() //decrase/increase the counter
(enable/disable preemption)
```

Variants of each other

## Preemption vs SMP function calls

```
int smp_call_function(void (*func) (void *info), void *info, int wait)
    preempt_disable();
    smp_call_function_many(cpu_online_mask, func, info, wait );
    preempt_enable();
    return 0;
```

Internal structure with preemption awareness

## Be careful

- IPI is an extremely powerful technology
- However you need to consider scalability aspects
- This leads to conclude that IPI schemes involving large counts of CPU-cores need to be used only when mandatorily needed
- The classical example is when patching the kernel on line, e.g. upon mounting a module