

# **Operating Systems Engineering**

#### **Lecture 6: Multitasking**

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#### Program vs. process

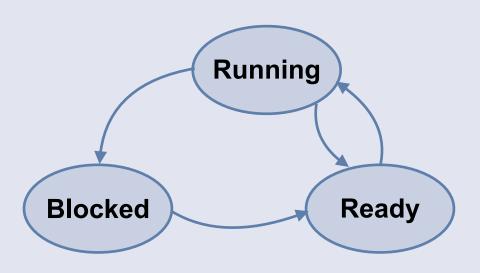


- So far, we were quite imprecise when using the terms "program" (or "application") and "process"
- We can define both more precisely:
   A process is a program in execution
- A program is static, represented by the bytes of the executable file on a file system (or in our program header file arrays)
- A process has state that changes throughout its execution, e.g.:
  - The current program counter (instruction pointer)
  - The values of processor registers
  - The values of variables
  - In addition, information about resources, user IDs, permissions...
- All this state has to be saved when the process is not active (running)

#### Process behavior



- In our current implementation, a process can either be running (it currently uses the processor) or ready (it has to wait until it is scheduled)
- In a more general process model, a process can also be blocked,
   i.e. waiting for the completion of an I/O operation it requested
- Each process transitions between these states:



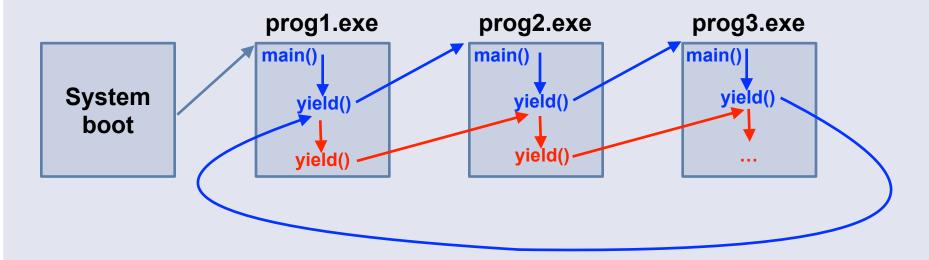
#### **Questions:**

- How many processes can be in state "Running" at the same time on a single processor system?
- Why is there no transition from "Blocked" to "Running"?
- At which points in time do the transitions occur?
- What happens if all processes are blocked?

### Cooperative Multitasking



- Cooperative multitasking uses a yield() system call to switch between processes without terminating the calling process
  - This requires more saving of state



- A program calling yield() continues to execute after the call to yield
  - (almost) like a regular system call...

### Cooperative multitasking and the stack



- The stack is used (by code generated by the compiler) to store the following process state:
  - local variables for each function in the call hierarchy
  - return addresses to a function higher up in the call hierarchy
- Example: function mul calls add
  - Add is a leaf function (calls no other function), does not require saving of the return address register ra

```
int mul(int a,b) {
    int r = 0;
    while (a--)
        r = add(r,b);
    return r;
}
```

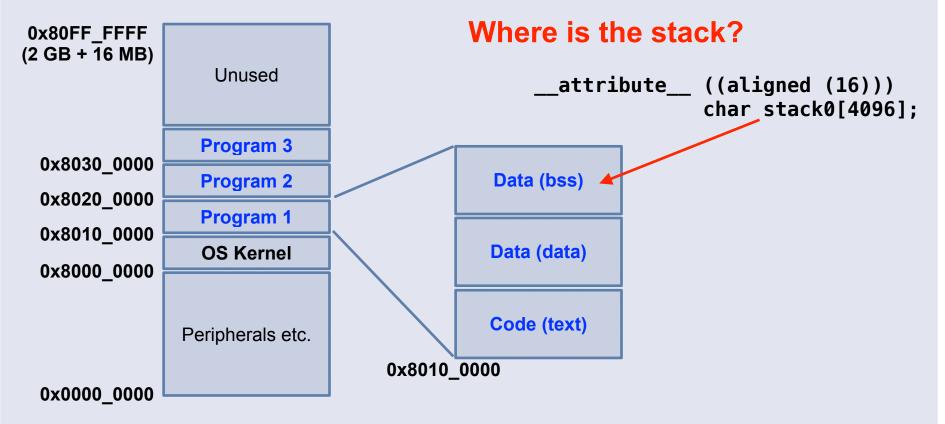
```
\begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & \text{fp in mul} \rightarrow \\ & & & \text{sp in mul} \rightarrow \\ \hline & & \text{int add(int } \texttt{x,y)} & \{ & & \\ & & \text{return } \texttt{x+y;} & & \text{fp} \rightarrow \\ \} & & & \\ \end{array}
```

#### Cooperative multitasking: memory view



#### All processes have to remain in memory now

 Code (text segments) is static and could be reloaded, but the data programs manipulate (data + bss segments) would need to be saved



#### Unfortunate effects...



- In our current setup, this still requires a separate linker script for each of the user processes
- Idea: parametrize the linker to dynamically define a start address for each of the processes (to 0x8000\_0000 + 0x0010\_0000 \* process ID) using a linker option on the gcc command line:

```
-W1, --defsym=PROC_START=$(VALUE_T0_OVERRIDE)
(see [4] for details)
```

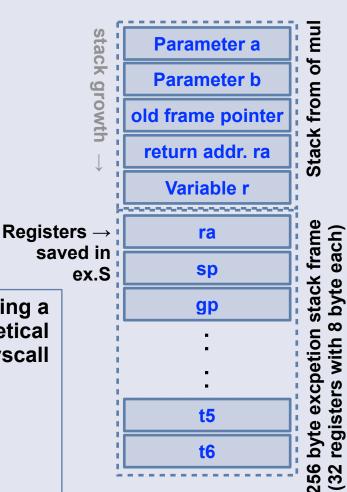
- Virtual memory will make our life easier (later...)
  - All programs can be linked at the same address
  - The virtual memory subsystem uses the MMU to map the overlapping virtual address ranges of processes to separate virtual memory regions

# What other data is important?



- Register values we only have one set of registers for all processes
  - Executing another process (or the kernel code) overwrites values!
- We already have ex.S doing this
  - This already saves all registers to the process stack – even those saved by the exception C function prologue code

int mul(int a,b) {
 int r = 0;
 asm("mv a0, %0"::"r" (a));
 asm("mv a1, %0"::"r" (b));
 asm("li a7, 99");
 asm("ecall");
 asm("mv %0, a0":"=r" (r));
 return r;
}



#### A stack for the OS



- Where does the OS store its own context?
  - In its own address range (0x8000\_0000-0x800F\_FFFF)
- Currently, there is not a lot of context to be saved:
  - exception only relies on
    - the current\_process process ID (global variable in the data segment)
    - the pcb process control block array of struct pcb\_struct (one entry per process), also in data
- What if we call other functions from exception that could return to user mode before they are finished, blocking I/O functions?
  - We would need a stack to store register values and the call hierarchy
    - This information could be stored on the current user process stack
    - Disadvantage: could be manipulated by a user process?
- Idea: provide a stack for the kernel and switch to/from it when entering/ leaving M mode

# Scheduling



- Simple implementation of a round-robin scheduler: the OS switches to a different process at every invocation of yield() – here shown for two processes
- The pcb struct holds the current state of the process
  - At the moment, we need the PC and SP at the point the exception was invoked (i.e. the ecall instruction in user mode)

```
case 23: // yield system call
    // save pc, stack pointer
    pcb[current_process].pc = pc;
    pcb[current_process].sp = s;

// select new process
    current_process++;
    if (current_process > 2) current_process = 0;
    pc = pcb[current_process].pc; // add +4 later!
    break;
```

#### Process state



- Where can we get the values of the user process program counter pc and stack pointer from?
- The value of pc (address of the ecall instruction) was stored by the processor in when the exception was invoked
- The value of s needs to come from the assembler code in ex.S
  - Passed as parameter to our exception function
  - We can now use the values of a0 and a7 (parameter and system call number) stored on the stack frame in ex.S:

### Passing the stack pointer



- The value of the user stack pointer s needs to come from the assembler code in ex. S
  - Passed as parameter to our exception function (in a0)
  - This is the stack pointer value after we saved all registers
- Now a0 no longer contains the system call parameter!
  - Take this (and a7) from the user process stack as shown on the previous slide!

```
Stack handling
ex:
                          in ex.S
  addi sp, sp, -256
  sd ra, \theta(sp)
  sd t6, 240(sp)
  // set stackframe parameter
  mv a0, sp
  // call the C trap handler
  call exception
  // restore stackframe
  mv sp, a1
  // restore registers.
  ld ra, O(sp)
  // ld sp, 8(sp)
  ld gp, 16(sp)
  ld t6, 240(sp)
  addi sp, sp, 256
  mret
```

#### Protection, again



- Idea: Enable additional protection
  - So far: protect kernel from program accesses
  - Additional: protect programs against each other
- We now have to define PMP regions as follows in setup.c:
  - 0x0000 0000–0x7FFF FFFF: I/O
  - 0x8000\_0000-0x800F\_FFFF: kernel
  - 0x80n0\_0000-0x80nF\_FFFF: process n

```
case 23: // yield system call
   // save pc, stack

...

// Switch memory protection to new process
if (current_process == 0)
   w_pmpcfg0(0x0f0000); // 2 - full access; 1,0 - no access
else if (current_process == 1)
   w_pmpcfg0(0x0f000000); // 3 - full; 2,1,0 - no access
// ...handle further processes in a more elegant way?
break;
```

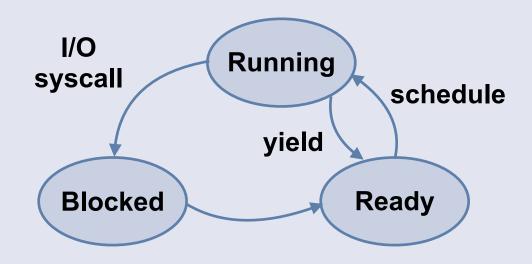
#### Cooperation extended



- Idea: Also enable switching at every system call
- This will enable us to implement our three-state process model
  - Running, Ready, Blocked
  - Switch from Running to Blocked when an I/O syscall is made
- This also enables event loops for interactive applications (see next slide)

#### **Question:**

 What happens in our process state diagram if a process calls syscall #42 (exit)?



### Cooperative MT: Event loops



- Event loops allow the OS to take back control often
  - ...but not always
  - relies on programmer discipline (and bug-free programs...)

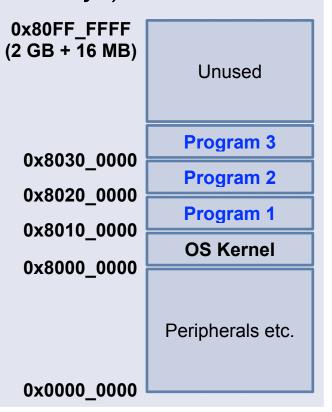
```
PROCEDURE MyEventLoop;
                                           Example event loop application
                                                 code for Mac System 7
VAR
                 RgnHandle;
   cursorRqn:
                 Boolean;
   gotEvent:
                 EventRecord;
   event:
BEGIN
   cursorRqn := NewRqn; {pass an empty region the first time thru}
   REPEAT
      gotEvent := WaitNextEvent(everyEvent, event, MyGetSleep,
                                 cursorRqn);
      IF (event.what <> kHighLevelEvent) AND (NOT gInBackground)
         THEN MyAdjustCursor(event.where, cursorRqn);
      IF gotEvent THEN {the event isn't a null event, }
         DoEvent(event) { so handle it}
                        {no event (other than null) to handle }
      ELSE
         DoIdle(event); { right now, so do idle processing}
   UNTIL gDone; {loop until user quits}
END;
```

# Loading programs



- Compiling programs into header files is cumbersome
- Remember from slide 2:
   A program is static, represented by the bytes of the executable file on a file system (or in our program header file arrays)
- ...but we do not (yet) have a file system!
  - We do, but not in our OS
  - there's one on the host running qemu!
- Load (binary, not ELF) programs directly into qemu memory using gdb commands (this can be put in a .gdbinit file) [3]:

```
restore user1.bin binary 0x80100000 restore user2.bin binary 0x80200000
```



### Evaluating cooperative multitasking



- Cooperative multitasking is (relatively) easy to implement
- However, it has a major disadvantage
  - it relies on each process regularly giving up time to other processes on the system
  - a poorly designed program can consume all CPU time for itself, either by performing extensive calculations or by busy waiting
    - both would cause the whole system to hang
- Windows 3 and Apple's old Mac OS (before OS X) used it
- How can the OS gain back control from the application?
  - application architectures with regular system calls (event loop)
  - asynchronous return to the OS without an action by the application

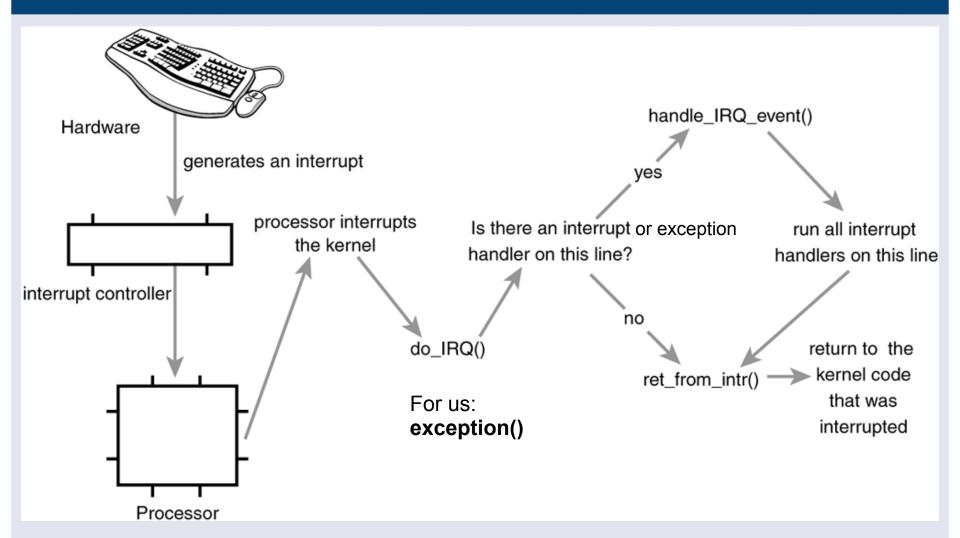
# Preemptive multitasking



- A better idea: enable the asynchronous return to the OS without an action by the application
  - "Preemption": taking possession before others (Merriam-Webster)
- How can we enable a switch to the OS that does not require an action by the currently running program?
  - Hardware support required: interrupts
- Interrupts are raised due to a signal
  - usually a defined voltage level (e.g. low = 0V) or transition (e.g. high → low) at a CPU pin or an internal signal

# General interrupt handling (in Linux)





Source: Robert Love, Linux Kernel Development

# **Exception handling**



- The exceptions we have seen so far are synchronous: they occur due to an action of the running program
  - intentional: execution of the ecall instruction
  - unintentional: an action that raises an error condition
    - PMP access violation, undefined instruction, division by 0...
- · Asynchronous exceptions can occur at any time
  - They interrupt the currently running program
  - ...and transfer execution to M-mode to the address in mtvec
    - like a synchronous exception

# Identifying exception sources



- The mcause CSR can be used to check if an exception occurred synchronously or due to an (asynchronous) interrupt
  - Check the most significant bit (for us: bit 63)<sup>1</sup> of mcause

```
MXLEN-1 MXLEN-2 0
Interrupt Exception Code (WLRL)

1 MXLEN-1
```

Figure 3.22: Machine Cause register mcause.

We can read mcause with the r\_mcause function (riscv.h)

```
if ((r_mcause() & (1<<63)) != 0) {
    // interrupt
} else {
    // synchronous exception
}</pre>
```

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> There are also 32-bit RISC-V processors (MXLEN=32), for these it would be bit 31

### Exception causes



 MXLEN-1
 MXLEN-2
 0

 Interrupt
 Exception Code (WLRL)

 1
 MXLEN-1

Figure 3.22: Machine Cause register mcause.

Interrupt	Exception Code	Description
1	0	Reserved
1	1	Supervisor software interrupt
1	$\overline{2}$	Reserved
1	3	Machine software interrupt
1	4	Reserved
1	5	Supervisor timer interrupt
1	6	Reserved
1	7	Machine timer interrupt
1	8	Reserved
1	9	Supervisor external interrupt
1	10	Reserved
1	11	Machine external interrupt
1	12–15	Reserved
1	≥16	Designated for platform use

mcause values for asynchronous exceptions (interrupts)

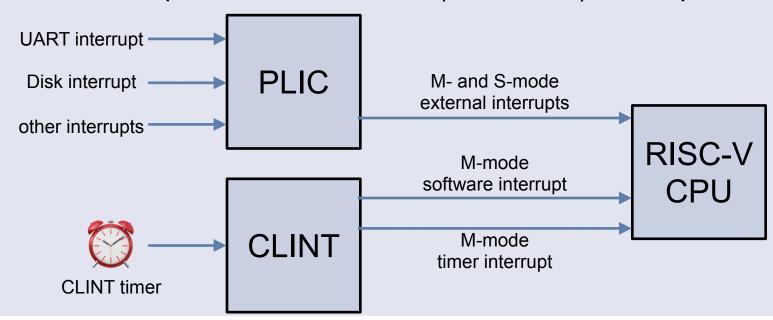
Interrupt	Exception Code	Description
0	0	Instruction address misaligned
0	1	Instruction access fault
0	2	Illegal instruction
0	3	Breakpoint
0	4	Load address misaligned
0	5	Load access fault
0	6	Store/AMO address misaligned
0	7	Store/AMO access fault
0	ecall 8	Environment call from U-mode
0	9	Environment call from S-mode
0	10	Reserved
0	11	Environment call from M-mode
0	12	Instruction page fault
0	13	Load page fault
0	14	Reserved
0	15	Store/AMO page fault
0	16-23	Reserved
0	24–31	Designated for custom use
0	32–47	Reserved
0	48-63	Designated for custom use
0	≥64	Reserved

mcause values for synchronous exceptions (also called traps)

# Interrupt controlling in RISC-V



- Two different interrupt controllers (on-chip hardware components) can raise interrupts:
  - the Core-Local Interrupt Controller (CLINT)
    - responsible for software and timer interrupts
  - the Platform-Level Interrupt Controller (PLIC)
    - responsible for external (I/O device) interrupts



#### Timers in RISC-V



- Timers are local to a processor core (we only have one...) and are part of the core-local interrupt controller (CLINT)
- CLINT can be configured using three memory-mapped registers:

Register name	Offset (hex)	Size (bits)	Description
msip	0	32	Generates machine mode software interrupts when set
mtimecmp	4000	64	Holds the compare value for the timer
mtime	BFF8	64	Provides the current timer value

• In qemu, the base address for the CLINT is 0x2000\_0000, so mtimecmp is at address 0x2000\_4000, mtime at 0x2000\_BFF8

#### Timers in RISC-V



Register name	Offset (hex)	Size (bits)	Description
msip	0	32	Generates machine mode software interrupts when set
mtimecmp	4000	64	Holds the compare value for the timer
mtime	BFF8	64	Provides the current timer value

- The timer "ticks" (counts upwards from zero) at a given frequency
  - specific frequency  $f_{tick}$  is system-specific (e.g. 10 MHz in qemu)
- A timer interrupt is generated by the CLINT whenever mtime is greater than or equal to the value in the mtimecmp register
  - The timer interrupt is used to drive the MTIP bit of the mip CSR
- Writing to mtimecmp clears the timer interrupt

# Timer interrupt programming



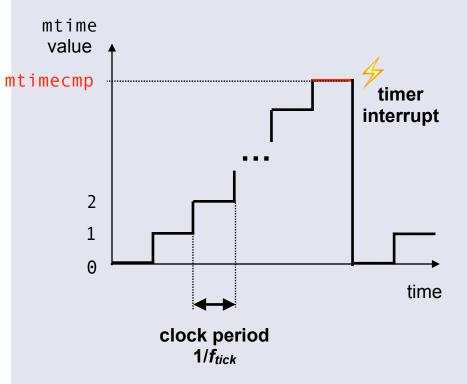
- The CLINT timer is *free-running*, i.e. it does not reset the current time value when the timer compare value is reached
- A periodic timer interrupt with a given frequency f<sub>int</sub> can be achieved in two ways (usually, approach 2 is implemented):
- 1. Reset current timer value to zero
- Initially set mt ime to 0 and mt imecmp to the value  $f_{tick}$  /  $f_{int}$  e.g. for 100 Hz (10 ms) timer interval in qemu: 10.000.000/100
- When the timer interrupt occurs, reset mt ime to 0
- Write mtimecmp (with its old value) to clear the timer interrupt
- 2. Change the compare value
- Initially set mtimecmp to the value of mtime +  $f_{tick}$  /  $f_{int}$
- When the timer interrupt occurs, add  $f_{tick}$  /  $f_{int}$  to mtimecmp

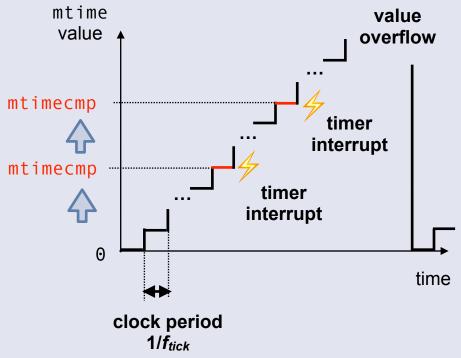
#### Timer values



#### Reset current timer value to zero

#### Change the compare value





The timer value eventually overflows (resets to zero) after reaching 263-1

# Enabling and disabling interrupts



- Sometimes, interrupts need to be **disabled** (and re-enabled)
  - e.g. to ensure uninterrupted execution of code in the kernel
  - when processing data shared between interrupt handler code and the rest of the kernel
- Interrupts can only be disabled in the mode they will arrive
  - We want to be able to en/disable M-mode interrupts for now
- "1"-bits in the mie CSR determine which interrupts are enabled:



Figure 3.15: Standard portion (bits 15:0) of mie.

MEIE/SEIE: machine/supervisor level external interrupts

MTIE/STIE: machine/supervisor level timer interrupts

MSIE/SSIE: machine/supervisor level software interrupts

#### Global interrupt enable/disable



- Interrupts can also be disabled globally (for a single core) if required
  - Global interrupt-enable bits, MIE and SIE, are provided for M-mode and S-mode respectively
  - see 3.1.6.1 in [1]

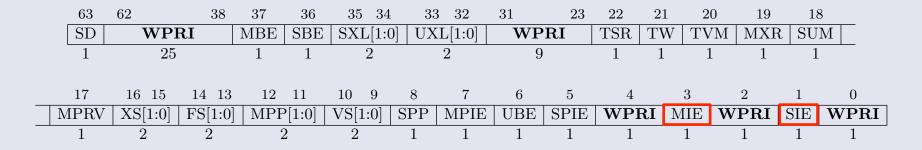


Figure 3.7: Machine-mode status register (mstatus) for RV64.

# Which interrupts are pending?



- When handling interrupts, the kernel can check for additional interrupts before leaving the exception handler
  - Pending (recently occurred but not yet handled) interrupts can be determined by reading the mip CSR:



Figure 3.14: Standard portion (bits 15:0) of mip.

- mip has bits with identical meaning to mie
  - mip bits are read-only, the corresponding interrupt source has to be cleared in a source-specific way (see 3.1.9 in [1])

#### Conclusion



- Cooperative multitasking is simple to implement
  - ...but can cause system hangs when using incorrect (or malicious) programs
  - ...has unpredictable answer times
- Preemptive multitasking is a better alternative
  - Requires configuration of timers
  - Asynchronous timer handling
  - State saving required
- Let's add preemptive multitasking to our OS!
  - We also need external device interrupts using the PLIC (later)

#### References



- 1. Andrew Waterman, Krste Asanovic and John Hauser, The RISC-V Instruction Set Manual Volume II: Privileged Architecture Document, Version 20211203
- 2. SiFive Interrupt Cookbook, https://starfivetech.com/uploads/sifive-interrupt-cookbookv1p2.pdf
- 3. Free Software Foundation, *Debugging with gdb*, 10th Edition, section 10.19
  <a href="https://sourceware.org/gdb/onlinedocs/gdb/Dump\_002fRestore-Files.html">https://sourceware.org/gdb/onlinedocs/gdb/Dump\_002fRestore-Files.html</a>
- 4. StackOverflow, *GNU LD: How to override a symbol value*, <a href="https://stackoverflow.com/questions/10032598/gnu-ld-how-to-override-a-symbol-value-an-address-defined-by-the-linker-script">https://stackoverflow.com/questions/10032598/gnu-ld-how-to-override-a-symbol-value-an-address-defined-by-the-linker-script</a>