### CS 110 Computer Architecture

#### An Introduction to Operating Systems

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https://robotics.shanghaitech.edu.cn/courses/ca/20s

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Slides based on UC Berkeley's CS61C

# Admin

- From Lab 9, all labs would be on site. Visit the website of this course for details.
  - Contact your TA if you have got questions.
  - Or post your questions in Piazza.
- For students that are on the way back
  - Contact me, Dr. Sören, or TA if you need any help.
- There is a video quiz for this lecture.
  - A poll will be posted in Piazza.







# Raspberry Pi (< 300RMB on jd.com)



### It's a real computer!



### But wait...

- That's not the same! Our CS 110 experience isn't like the real world. When we run VENUS, it only executes one program and then stops.
- When I switch on my computer, I get this:



Yes, but that's just software! The Operating System (OS)

# Well, "just software"



# What does the OS do?

- One of the first things that runs when your computer starts (right after firmware/ bootloader)
- Loads, runs and manages programs:
  - Multiple programs at the same time (time-sharing)
  - Isolate programs from each other (isolation)
  - Multiplex resources between applications (e.g., devices)
- Services: File System, Network stack, printer, etc.
- Finds and controls all the devices in the machine in a general way (using "device drivers")

### What does the core of OS need to do?

- Provide **interaction** with the outside world
  - Interact with "devices"
    - Disk, screen, keyboard, mouse, network, etc.
- Provide isolation between running programs (processes)
  - Each program runs in its own little world
    - Virtual memory

# Agenda

- OS Boot Sequence and Operation
- Devices and I/O, interrupt and traps
- Application, Multiprogramming/time-sharing
- Introduction to Virtual Memory

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# What happens at boot?

 When the computer switches on, it does the same as Venus: the CPU executes instructions from some start address (stored in Flash ROM)



 Bootstrapping: <u>https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bootstrapping</u>

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### UEFI

### **Unified Extensible Firmware Interface**

- Successor of BIOS
- Much more powerful and complex
- E.g. graphics menu; networking; browsers
- All modern Intel & AMD
  based computer use UEFI





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## How to interact with devices?

- Assume a program running on a CPU. How does it interact with the outside world?
- Need I/O interface for Keyboards, Network, Mouse, Screen, etc.
  - Connect to many types of devices
  - Control these devices, respond to them, and transfer data
  - Present them to user programs so they are useful

**Operating System** 

**PCI Bus** 

Processor

cntrl reg.

data reg.

SCSI Bus

Mem

# Instruction Set Architecture for I/O

- What must the processor do for I/O?
  - Input: reads a sequence of bytes
  - Output: writes a sequence of bytes
- Interface options
  - Some processors have special input/output instructions
  - Memory Mapped Input/Output (used by RISC-V):
    - Use normal load/store instructions, e.g., lw/sw, for input/output
      In small pieces
    - A portion of the address space dedicated to IO
    - I/O device registers there (no memory there)

# Memory Mapped I/O

- Certain addresses are not regular memory
- Instead, they correspond to registers in I/O devices



# Processor-I/O Speed Mismatch

- 1GHz microprocessor can execute 1B load or store instructions per second, or 4,000,000 KB/s data rate
  - I/O data rates range from 0.01 KB/s to 1,250,000 KB/s
- Input: device may not be ready to send data as fast as the processor loads it
  - Also, might be waiting for human to act
- Output: device not be ready to accept data as fast as processor stores it
- What to do?

### **Processor Checks Status before Acting**

- Path to a device generally has 2 registers:
  - Control Register, says it's OK to read/write (I/O ready) [think of a flagman on a road]
  - Data Register, contains data
- Processor reads from Control Register in loop, waiting for device to set Ready bit in Control reg (0 => 1) to say it's OK
- Processor then loads from (input) or writes to (output) data register
  - Load from or Store into Data Register resets Ready bit (1 => 0) of Control Register
- This is called "Polling"

# I/O Example (polling)

• Input: Read from keyboard into a**0** 

	li	t0, 0xffff0000 #ffff000	)0		
Waitloop:	lw	t1, 0(t0) #control	L		
	andi	t1, t1,0x1	t1,0x1		
	beq	t1, zero, <mark>Waitloop</mark>	o, Waitloop		
	lw	a0, 4(t0) #data			

• Output: Write to display from **a0** 

	li	t0,	0xffff0000	#ffff0000	
Waitloop:	lw	t1,	<mark>8</mark> (t0)	#control	
	andi	t1,	t1,0x1		
	beq	t1,	zero, Waitloop		
	SW	a0,	<u>12</u> (t0)	#data	

"Ready" bit is from processor's point of view!

# Cost of Polling?

- Assume for a processor with a 1GHz clock it takes 400 clock cycles for a polling operation (call polling routine, accessing the device, and returning).
   Determine % of processor time for polling
  - Mouse: polled 30 times/sec so as not to miss user movement

#### % Processor time to poll

- Mouse Polling [clocks/sec]
  = 30 [polls/s] \* 400 [clocks/poll] = 12K [clocks/s]
- % Processor for polling: 12\*10<sup>3</sup> [clocks/s] / 1\*10<sup>9</sup> [clocks/s] = 0.0012%
   => Polling mouse little impact on processor

# What is the alternative to polling?

- Wasteful to have processor spend most of its time "spin-waiting" for I/O to be ready
- Would like an unplanned procedure call that would be invoked only when I/O device is ready
- Solution: use exception mechanism to help
  I/O. Interrupt program when I/O ready, return when
  done with data transfer
- Allow to register (post) interrupt handlers: functions that are called when an interrupt is triggered

## Interrupt-driven I/O



# Terminology

In CA (you'll see other definitions in use elsewhere):

- <u>Interrupt</u> caused by an event *external* to current running program (e.g. key press, mouse activity)
  - Asynchronous to current program, can handle interrupt on any convenient instruction
- <u>Exception</u> caused by some event during execution of one instruction of current running program (e.g., page fault, bus error, illegal instruction)
  - Synchronous, must handle exception on instruction that causes exception
- <u>Trap</u> action of servicing interrupt or exception by hardware jump to "trap handler" code

### **Traps/Interrupts/Exceptions**:

altering the normal flow of control



An *external or internal event* that needs to be processed - by another program – the OS. The event is often unexpected from original program's point of view.

### **Precise Traps**

- Trap handler's view of machine state is that every instruction prior to the trapped one has completed, and no instruction after the trap has executed.
- Implies that handler can return from an interrupt by restoring user registers and jumping back to interrupted instruction (SEPC register will hold the instruction address)
  - Interrupt handler software doesn't need to understand the pipeline of the machine, or what program was doing!
  - More complex to handle trap caused by an exception than interrupt
- Providing precise traps is tricky in a pipelined superscalar out-of-order processor!
  - But handling imprecise interrupts in software is even worse.

# **Trap Handling in 5-Stage Pipeline**



Asynchronous Interrupts

- How to handle multiple simultaneous exceptions in different pipeline stages?
- How and where to handle external asynchronous interrupts?

## Save Exceptions Until Commit



### Handling Traps in In-Order Pipeline

- Hold exception flags in pipeline until commit point (M stage)
- Exceptions in earlier instructions override exceptions in later instructions
- Exceptions in earlier pipe stages override later exceptions *for a given instruction*
- Inject external interrupts at commit point
- If exception/interrupt at commit: update Cause and SEPC registers, kill all stages, inject handler PC into fetch stage

### **Trap Pipeline Diagram**





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# Launching Applications

- Applications are called "processes" in most OSs.
  - Process: separate memory; thread: shared memory
- Created by another process calling into an OS routine (using a "syscall", more details later).
  - Depends on OS, but Linux uses fork to create a new process, and execve to load application.
- Loads executable file from disk (using the file system service) and puts instructions & data into memory (.text, .data sections), prepare stack and heap.
- Set argc and argv, jump into the main function.

## Supervisor Mode

- If something goes wrong in an application, it could crash the entire machine. And what about malware, etc.?
- The OS may need to enforce resource constraints to applications (e.g., access to devices).
- To help protect the OS from the application, CPUs have a supervisor mode bit.
  - When not in supervisor mode (user mode), a process can only access a subset of instructions and (physical) memory.
  - Process can enter the supervisor mode by using an interrupt, and change out of supervisor mode using a special instruction.

# Syscalls

- What if we want to call into an OS routine? (e.g., to read a file, launch a new process, send data, etc.)
  - Need to perform a syscall: set up function arguments in registers, and then raise software interrupt
  - OS will perform the operation and return to user mode
- This way, the OS can mediate access to all resources, including devices and the CPU itself.

# Multiprogramming

- The OS runs multiple applications at the same time.
- But not really (unless you have a core per process)
  - Time-sharing processor
- When jumping into process, set timer interrupt.
  - When it expires, store PC, registers, etc. (process state).
  - Pick a different process to run and load its state.
  - Set timer, change to user mode, jump to the new PC.
- Switches between processes very quickly. This is called a "context switch".
- Deciding what process to run is called scheduling.

## Protection, Translation, Paging

- Supervisor mode does not fully isolate applications from each other or from the OS.
  - Application could overwrite another application's memory.
  - Also, may want to address more memory than we actually have (e.g., for sparse data structures).
- Solution: Virtual Memory. Gives each process the illusion of a full memory address space that it has completely for itself.

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### "Bare" 5-Stage Pipeline



In a bare machine, the only kind of address is a physical address

## **Dynamic Address Translation**

#### Motivation

Multiprogramming, multitasking: Desire to execute more than one process at a time (more than one process can reside in main memory at the same time).

#### Location-independent programs

Programming and storage management ease => base register – add offset to each address

#### Protection

Independent programs should not affect each other inadvertently

=> bound register – check range of access

(Note: Multiprogramming drives requirement for resident *supervisor (OS)* software to manage context switches between multiple programs)



# Virtual vs. Physical Addresses



Many of these (software & hardware cores)

**One main memory** 

- Processes use virtual addresses, e.g., 0 ... 0xffff,ffff
  - Many processes, all using same (conflicting) addresses
- Memory uses physical addresses (also, e.g., 0 ... 0xffff,ffff)
  - Memory manager maps virtual to physical addresses

# Simple Base and Bound Translation



Base and bounds registers are visible/accessible only when processor is running in *supervisor mode* 

### **Base and Bound Machine**



### In Conclusion

- Once we have a basic machine, it's mostly up to the OS to use it and define application interfaces.
- Hardware helps by providing the right abstractions and features (e.g., Virtual Memory, I/O).



### Quiz

#### Piazza: "Video Lecture 21 OS"

Hard disk: transfers data in 16-Byte chunks and can transfer at 16 MB/second. No transfer can be missed. What percentage of processor time is spent in polling (assume 1GHz clock; 400 cycles per poll)?

- A: 2%
- B: 4%
- C: 20%
- D: 40%
- E: 80%