

ABNORMAL CONTROL FLOW ABSTRACTIONS

Professor Ken Birman CS4414 Lecture 7

IDEA MAP FOR TODAY

In many situations, we have a normal control flow but must also deal with abnormal events.

Can Dijkstra's concept of creating abstractions offer a unified way to deal with abnormal control flow? The hardware has this issue: an I/O event might finish more or less at any instant. Interrupts are like procedure calls that occur "when needed". Linux offers programmable signal handling mechanisms that mimic interrupts.

C++ offers a similar concept via its throw statement, and the try/catch control structure.

All forms of exceptions can disrupt computation, making it very hard to write a "safe" handler!

PRINTERS APPARENTLY USED TO CATCH FIRE FAIRLY OFTEN!



HIGHLY EXCEPTIONAL CONTROL FLOW

200	
234 sta	tic int lp_check_status(int minor)
235 {	
236	int error = 0;
237	unsigned int last = lp_table[minor].last_error;
238	unsigned char status = r_str(minor);
239	if ((status & LP_PERRORP) && !(LP_F(minor) & LP_CAREFUL))
240	/* No error. */
241	last = $0;$
242	else if ((status & LP_POUTPA)) {
243	if (last != LP_POUTPA) {
244	last = LP_POUTPA;
245	printk(KERN_INFO "lp%d out of paper\n", minor);
246	}
247	error = -ENOSPC;
248	} else if (!(status & LP_PSELECD)) {
249	if (last != LP_PSELECD) {
250	last = LP_PSELECD;
251	printk(KERN_INFO "lp%d off-line\n", minor);
252	
253	error = -EIO;
254	} else iI (: (status & LP PERKORP)) {
200	II (last := LP_PERKORP) {
250	Last = LP_PERRORP;
257	prince (KERN_INFO iped on life(n, minor);
250	
255	
261	last = 0. /* Come here if LP CADEFUL is set and no
262	errors are reported */
263	
264	,
265	lp_table[minor].last_error = last:
266	
267	if (last != 0)
268	lp error(minor);
269	The second contract of the second sec
270	return error:
271	
070	

https://git.kernel.org/pub/scm/linux/kernel/git/torvalds/linux.git/tree/drivers/char/lp.c?h=v5.0-rc3

TODAY

Exceptional Control Flow

Linux signals

Programming language-level exceptions

C++ features for handling exceptions

CONTROL FLOW

Processors do only one thing:

- From startup to shutdown, a CPU simply reads and executes (interprets) a sequence of instructions, one at a time
- This sequence is the CPU's control flow (or flow of control)



Physical control flow

ALTERING THE CONTROL FLOW

Up to now: two mechanisms for changing control flow:

- Jumps and branches... Call and return
- > In effect, we change control flow to react to changes in program state

Insufficient: We also need to react to changes in <u>system</u> state

- > Data arrives from a disk or a network adapter
- Instruction divides by zero
- User hits Ctrl-C at the keyboard... Timer expires...

EXCEPTIONS: SEVERAL "FLAVORS" BUT MANY COMMONALITIES

All exceptions "seize control," generally by forcing the immediate execution of a handler procedure, no matter what your process was doing.

When a hardware device wants to signal that something needs attention, or has gone wrong, we say that the device triggers an interrupt. Linux generalizes this and views all forms of exceptions as being like interrupts.

Once this occurs, we can "handle" the exception in ways that might hide it, or we may need to stop some task entirely (like with [^]C).

BIGGEST CONCERN

An exception can occur in the middle of some sort of expression evaluation, or data structure update.

For example, if your code manages a linked list, the exception could occur in the middle of adding a node!

So... the handler cannot assume that data structures are intact!

HOW WE HANDLE THIS

We think in terms of "recoverable" exceptions and "nonrecoverable" ones.

A recoverable exception occurs if the kernel or the program can handle the exception, then resume normal execution.

A non-recoverable exception terminates the task (or perhaps just part of some task).

LET'S LOOK FIRST AT <u>MECHANISMS</u>, BUT THEN WE WILL SEE AN <u>ABSTRACTION</u> EMERGE

A mechanistic perspective looks at how each class of event arises. Each form of abnormal control flow has a concrete cause

Because the hardware features are diverse, we could end up with a diverse set of language features to deal with them.

In practice, there is a surprisingly degree of uniformity representing one abstraction that is applies in various ways

THIS ILLUSTRATES CONCEPTUAL ABSTRACTION

Rather than abstracting storage, the way a file system abstracts the storage blocks on a device, control flow abstractions have a conceptual flavor.

They illustrate a reused design pattern and a way of thinking about abnormal control flow. This concept is universal, yet the embodiment varies.

THIS DESIGN PATTERN IS A LINUX FEATURE

An exception often causes a transfer of control to the OS kernel in response to some event (i.e., change in processor state)

Examples: Divide by 0, arithmetic overflow, page fault, I/O request completes, typing CtrI-C



EXCEPTION TABLES

Each type of event has a unique exception number k

k = index into exception table (a.k.a. interrupt vector)

Handler k is called each time exception k occurs



EXCEPTION TABLES

The kernel has one for interrupts.

Each process has one for signals.

The entries are simply the addresses of the handler methods. A special exception handler turns the exception into a kind of procedure call, at which the handler runs like normal code.

(PARTIAL) TAXONOMY



ASYNCHRONOUS EXCEPTIONS (INTERRUPTS)

Caused by events external to the processor

- Indicated by setting the processor's interrupt pin
- Handler returns to the instruction that was about to execute

Examples:

Timer interrupt

- > Every few ms, an external timer chip triggers an interrupt.
- Used by the kernel to take back control from user programs
- I/O interrupt from external device
- > Typing a character or hitting Ctrl-C at the keyboard
- > Arrival of a packet from a network, or data from a disk

SYNCHRONOUS EXCEPTIONS

Caused by events that occur as a result of executing an instruction:

Traps

- > Intentional, set program up to "trip the trap" and do something
- > Examples: system calls, gdb breakpoints. Control resumes at "next" instruction

Faults

- > Unintentional but possibly recoverable
- > Examples: page faults (recoverable), protection faults (unrecoverable), floating point exceptions
- > Either re-executes faulting ("current") instruction or aborts

> Aborts

- Unintentional and unrecoverable... Aborts current program
- > Examples: illegal instruction, memory parity error, hardware malfunction

SYSTEM CALLS

- Each Linux system call has a unique ID number
- **Examples:**

Number	Name	Description
0	read	Read file
1	write	Write file
2	open	Open file
3	close	Close file
4	stat	Get info about file
57	fork	Create process
59	execve	Execute a program
60	_exit	Terminate process
62	kill	Send signal to process

SYSTEM CALL EXAMPLE: OPENING FILE

User calls: open(filename, options)

Calls __open function, which invokes system call instruction syscall

000000000e5d70 <open>:</open>					
 e5d79: b8 02 00 00 00 mov \$0x2 %eax # open is syscall #2					
e5d7e: 0f 05 syscall # Return value in %rax					
e5d80: 48 3d 01 f0 ff ff cmp \$0xffffffffff001,%rax					
 e5dfa: c3 retq					



- %rax contains syscall number
- Other arguments in %rdi, %rsi, %rdx, %r10, %r8, %r9
- Return value in %rax
- Negative value is an error corresponding to negative errno





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FAULT EXAMPLE: PAGE FAULT

User writes to memory location

That portion (page) of user's memory is currently paged out (on disk)



FAULT EXAMPLE: INVALID MEMORY REFERENCE



80483b7: c7 05 10 9d 04 08 0d movl \$0xd,0x8049d10



Sends SIGSEGV signal to user process

User process exits with "segmentation fault"

SOME FLAVORS OF SEGMENT FAULTS

Trying to read or write into memory that isn't part of your address space.

Trying to modify a write-protected data or code segment.

Trying to jump into (execute) a data segment (this is actually possible, but you have to do something special).

YET EXCEPTIONS ALSO ALLOW US TO EMULATE "INFINITE NUMBER OF CORES"

Basic idea: if we have more threads than cores, we can use timer exceptions to switch from thread to thread (or process to process)

This is called a "context switch" and involves saving the state of the interrupted thread: the contents of the registers.

Then we can load the state of the thread we wish to switch to.

CONTEXT SWITCHES BETWEEN PROCESSES

For the hardware, a process is simply a set of threads plus a memory map that tells which memory pages belong to the process, and what protection rules to apply.

As part of the context switch, the kernel simply tells the hardware which "page table" to use for this process.

TODAY

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LINUX SIGNALS

Linux uses a variety of signals to "tell" an active process about exceptions relevant to it. The approach mimics what the hardware does for interrupts.

The signal must be caught or ignored. Some signals are ignored by default. Others must be caught and will terminate the process if not.

To catch a signal, a process (or some library it uses) must register a "signal handler" procedure. Linux will pause normal execution and call the handler. When the handler returns, the interrupted logic resumes.

LIST OF LINUX SIGNALS

SIGPROF Profiling timer expired SIGABRT Abort signal from abort(3) SIGPWR Power failure (System V) SIGALRM Timer signal from alarm(2) SIGQUIT Quit from keyboard SIGBUS Bus error (bad memory access) SIGSEGV Invalid memory reference SIGCHLD Child stopped or terminated SIGSTOP Stop process SIGCONT Continue if stopped SIGTSTP Stop typed at terminal SIGEMT Emulator trap SIGSYS Bad system call (SVr4) SIGFPE Floating-point exception SIGTERM Termination signal SIGHUP User logged out or controlling process SIGTRAP Trace/breakpoint trap terminated Terminal input for background process SIGTTIN SIGILL Illegal Instruction Terminal output for background process SIGTTOU SIGINFO A synonym for SIGPWR SIGURG Urgent condition on socket (4.2BSD) SIGUSR1 User-defined signal 1 SIGINT Interrupt from keyboard SIGUSR2 **User-defined signal 2** SIGIO I/O now possible (4.2BSD) Virtual alarm clock (4.2BSD) SIGVTALRM SIGIOT IOT trap. A synonym for SIGABRT SIGXCPU CPU time limit exceeded (4.2BSD) SIGKILL Kill signal (cannot be caught or ignored) SIGXFSZ File size limit exceeded (4.2BSD) SIGLOST File lock lost (unused) SIGWINCH Window resize signal (4.3BSD, Sun) SIGPIPE Broken pipe: write to pipe with no readers SIGPOLL Pollable event (Sys V); synonym for SIGIO

GDB – LINUX DEBUGGER

Allows you to understand where an exception occurred.

You can set breakpoints, examine variables, see the call stack

You can even watch individual variables

Uses exception handlers for all of this!

UNFORTUNATELY, NO TIME FOR A DEMO TODAY... I WOULD HAVE DONE ONE HERE (A PROCESS WITH AN ERROR TRIGGERING A SEGMENT FAULT)

BUGS THAT CAUSE EXCEPTIONS ARE COMMON... WE "DEBUG" THEM USING GDB

GDB cheatsheet - page 1

Running

- # gdb --args <program> <args...>
 Start GDB and pass arguments
- # gdb --pid <pid>
 Start GDB and attach to process.
- set args <args...> Set arguments to pass to program to be debugged.

run

Run the program to be debugged.

kill Kill the running program.

Breakpoints

break *<where>* Set a new breakpoint.

delete <breakpoint#>
 Remove a breakpoint.

clear Delete all breakpoints.

enable <breakpoint#>
 Enable a disabled breakpoint.

disable <breakpoint#>
 Disable a breakpoint.

Watchpoints

watch *<where>* Set a new watchpoint.

delete/enable/disable <watchpoint#>
 Like breakpoints.

<where>

function_name

Break/watch the named function.

line_number

Break/watch the line number in the current source file.

file:line_number Break/watch the line number in the named source file.

Conditions

break/watch <where> if <condition>
Break/watch at the given location if the
condition is met.
Conditions may be almost any C expression that evaluate to true or false.

condition <breakpoint#> <condition>
 Set/change the condition of an existing
 break- or watchpoint.

Examining the stack

backtrace

where

Show call stack.

backtrace full

where full

Show call stack, also print the local variables in each frame.

frame <frame#>
 Select the stack frame to operate on.

Stepping

step

Go to next instruction (source line), diving into function.

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next

Go to next instruction (source line) but don't dive into functions.

finish

Continue until the current function returns.

continue

Continue normal execution.

Variables and memory

print/format <what>

Print content of variable/memory location/register.

display/format <what> Like "print", but print the information after each stepping instruction.

undisplay *<display#>*

Remove the "display" with the given number.

enable display *<display#>* disable display *<display#>* En- or disable the "display" with the given number.

x/nfu <address>

Print memory. *n*: How many units to print (default 1). *f*: Format character (like "print"). *u*: Unit.

Unit is one of:

b: Byte, h: Half-word (two bytes) w: Word (four bytes) g: Giant word (eight bytes)).

GDB cheatsheet - page 2

Format

Pointer.

а

- *c* Read as integer, print as character.
- d Integer, signed decimal.
- *f* Floating point number.
- Integer, print as octal.
- *s* Try to treat as C string.
- t Integer, print as binary (t = ,,two").
- *u* Integer, unsigned decimal.
- x Integer, print as hexadecimal.

<what>

expression

Almost any C expression, including function calls (must be prefixed with a cast to tell GDB the return value type).

file_name::variable_name

Content of the variable defined in the named file (static variables).

function::variable_name

Content of the variable defined in the named function (if on the stack).

{type}address

Content at *address*, interpreted as being of the C type *type*.

\$register

Content of named register. Interesting registers are \$esp (stack pointer), \$ebp (frame pointer) and \$eip (instruction pointer).

Threads

thread *<thread#>* Chose thread to operate on.

Manipulating the program

set var <variable_name>=<value> Change the content of a variable to the given value.

return <expression>

Force the current function to return immediately, passing the given value.

Sources

directory *<directory>* Add *directory* to the list of directories that is searched for sources.

- list
- list <filename>:<function>
- list <filename>:<line_number>
- list <first>,<last>

Shows the current or given source context. The *filename* may be omitted. If *last* is omitted the context starting at *start* is printed instead of centered around it.

set listsize <count>

Set how many lines to show in "list".

Signals

handle <signal> <options>

Set how to handle signles. Options are:

(no)print: (Don't) print a message when signals occurs.

(no)stop: (Don't) stop the program when signals occurs.

(no)pass: (Don't) pass the signal to the program.

Informations

disassemble
disassemble <where>

Disassemble the current function or given location.

info args

Print the arguments to the function of the current stack frame.

info breakpoints

Print informations about the break- and watchpoints.

info display

Print informations about the "displays".

info locals

Print the local variables in the currently selected stack frame.

info sharedlibrary

List loaded shared libraries.

info signals

List all signals and how they are currently handled.

info threads

List all threads.

show directories

Print all directories in which GDB searches for source files.

show listsize

Print how many are shown in the "list" command.

whatis variable_name Print type of named variable.

TODAY

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UNHANDLED SEGMENTATION FAULTS

Our program dereferenced a null pointer, causing a segmentation fault. gdb showed us the line and variable responsible for the crash.

Notice the contrast with the cases where Linux was able to handle the fault: page faults and stack faults... in those, the program hadn't done anything wrong... The instruction that caused the fault can be retried (and will succeed) once the new page is mapped in.

With a segmentation fault, there is no way to "repair" the issue.

WHAT CAN WE DO?

Segmentation faults terminate the process.

But you could also "imagine" catching them and just terminating some thread that triggered the fault.

Other kinds of exceptions might be user-designed ones intended to reflect program logic, like "divide by 0" in Bignum

... LEADING TO

The C++ concept of a "thrown" exception, and try/catch

We use this feature to manage many kinds of exceptions that we anticipated and want to handle in code

But it can be a bit tricky to get this right without leaking memory or other kinds of resources, as we will see next

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EXCEPTIONS AT THE LANGUAGE LEVEL

Many programming languages have features to help you manage exceptions.

For Linux signals, this is done purely through library procedures that register that register the desired handler method.

But for program exceptions, a program might halt, or there may be a way to manage the exception and resume execution.

One big difference: Linux can restart a program at the exact instruction and in the exact state it was in prior to an interrupt or signal. But a programming language generally can't resume the same instruction after an event like a zero divide, so we need a way to transfer control to "alternative logic"

WHAT CAN WE DO IF A FAULT MIGHT OCCUR, BUT CAN BE HANDLED?

Most languages, including C++, offer a way to attempt some action, but then "catch" exceptions that might occur.

As part of these mechanisms the application is given a way to "throw" an exception if the logic detects a problem.

C++ CONSTRUCT

try
{
 do_something...
}
catch (exception-type)
{
 handler for exception
}

// Something went wrong!

// "Fix" the issue (or report it)

C++ CONSTRUCT

try salaries[employee] *= 1.05;// Give a raise... catch (EmployeeUnknown) // "Employee unknown" handler for exception // Print an error msg

"DO_SOMETHING" WON'T BE RETRIED

When Linux handled a page fault, it restarted the program on the same instruction and in the same state as it had at the fault.

When C++ catches this "not found" error and prints the error message, we just continue with the next line of code.

A COMMON ISSUE THIS CAN RAISE

Suppose that your program was working with a resource such as an open file, or was holding a lock (we'll discuss locks soon...)

The try/catch can jump to a caller, exiting from one or more code blocks and method calls that were active.

Thus the resource could be left "dangling", causing memory leaks or open files or other potential problems.

VISUALIZING THIS ISSUE

```
void annual_sip(float standard_raise)
```

```
for(auto emp: emp_list)
```

try

í

```
give_raise(emp.name, .05);
```

```
catch(EmployeeNotFound)
```

cout << "Salary DB is missing an employee!" << endl;

```
void give_raise(char* name, float raise)
```

```
FILE *fp = fopen("Paychecks.dat");
salaries[name] *= 1.0 + raise;
.... write a record in the paychecks file...
fclose(fp);
```

VISUALIZING THIS ISSUE



VISUALIZING THIS ISSUE

```
void annual_sip(float standard_raise)
{
    for(auto emp: emp_list)
    {
        The exception transfers control to the catch block
        in annual_sip. The stack frame of give_raise is
        released. But this means that the line that calls
        fclose will never execute, so we "leak" open files!
        catch(EmployeeNotFound)
        {
            cout << "Salary DB is missing an employee!" << endl;
        }
    }
</pre>

void give_raise(char* name, float raise)
{
    FILE *fp = fopen("Paychecks.dat");
    salaries[name] *= 1.0 + raise;
    .... write a record in the paychecks file...
        fclose(fp);
    }
```

LINKED LIST EXAMPLE



Suppose that your code is adding a node in a linked list. Now the exception handler tries to access that list data structure.

The list might sometimes "seem to be broken" because not all the pointers will have their correct values!

Any data that your program updates could be seen during the update, rather than just before or after!

EXCEPTIONS RUN A RISK OF BUGS!

If an exception handler were to look at this list while it was changing, it could crash! Similarly, an exception handler can't allocate new memory objects, or print a message – all of those could be unsafe at some random moment when the handler runs!

Solution? Sometimes you can temporarily disable exception handling. Additionally, it is always best for exceptional handlers to be short, self-contained, and to not invoke library methods!

THAT ISSUE WON'T ARISE WITH C++ CATCH

A throw/catch sequence won't resume the code that threw the exception.

Moreover, in C++ we will have run the destructors for all stack allocated objects that went out of scope before running catch.

This gives a very predicable, controlled behavior

COULD C++ THROW/CATCH REPLACE SIGNALS?

It may seem natural to think about using throw/catch as a signal replacement, but this won't work.

The problem is that a signal is asynchronous and unpredictable. With throw/catch the exception is synchronous and usually involves a software "choice" to throw the exception.

This is a shame, in fact, because it is so hard to write safe signal handlers.

REVIEW: THE EXCEPTION ABSTRACTION

Normal flow of events triggers some exception { if (automatically fixable) { OS kernel fixes the issue, resumes invisibly. } else if catchable and there is a catch block { control transfers to the **catch** block } else { abort terminates the program, creates a core file you can examine using gdb

Can't find your Ubuntu core file? Read these instructions.

SUMMARY

The exception pattern is very widely seen in Linux and C++. Broadly, exception handling mimics hardware interrupts. But hardware interrupts and signals can be "inhibited".

C++ try/catch control flow can't be inhibited and can easily disrupt updates and resource management: a potential source of <u>serious</u> bugs.

Per-resource wrappers offer an elegant solution.