CS162
Operating Systems and Systems Programming
Lecture 12

Address Translation (Con't)

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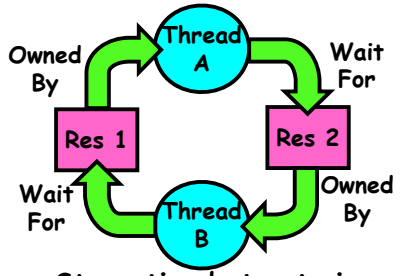
Recall: Starvation vs Deadlock

- Starvation vs. Deadlock
  - Starvation: thread waits indefinitely
    - » Example, low-priority thread waiting for resources constantly in use by high-priority threads
  - Deadlock: circular waiting for resources
    - » Thread A owns Res 1 and is waiting for Res 2
      Thread B owns Res 2 and is waiting for Res 1



  - Deadlock ⇒ Starvation but not vice versa
    - » Starvation can end (but doesn't have to)
    - » Deadlock can't end without external intervention

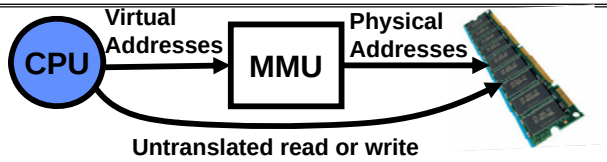
Recall: Four requirements for Deadlock

- Mutual exclusion
  - Only one thread at a time can use a resource.
- Hold and wait
  - Thread holding at least one resource is waiting to acquire additional resources held by other threads
- No preemption
  - Resources are released only voluntarily by the thread holding the resource, after thread is finished with it
- Circular wait
  - There exists a set $\{T_1, \ldots, T_n\}$ of waiting threads
    - » T_1 is waiting for a resource that is held by T_2
    - » T_2 is waiting for a resource that is held by T_3
    - » …
    - » T_n is waiting for a resource that is held by T_1

Recall: Ways of preventing deadlock

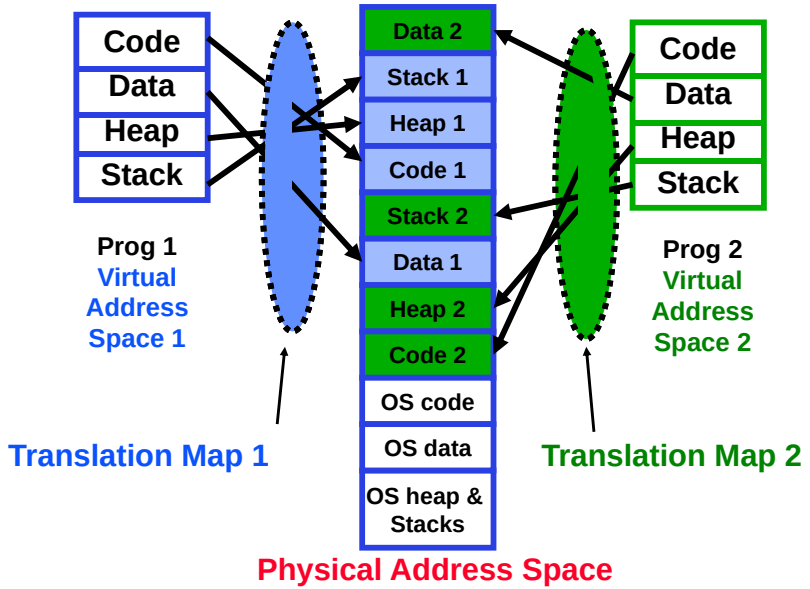
- Force all threads to request resources in a particular order preventing any cyclic use of resources
  - Example (x.P, y.P, z.P,…)
    - » Make tasks request disk, then memory, then…
- Banker's algorithm:
  - Allocate resources dynamically
    - » Evaluate each request and grant if some ordering of threads is still deadlock free afterward
    - » Technique: pretend each request is granted, then run deadlock detection algorithm, substituting $([Max_{node}]-[Alloc_{node}] \leq [Avail])$ for $([Request_{node}] \leq [Avail])$ Grant request if result is deadlock free (conservative!)
    - » Keeps system in a "SAFE" state, i.e. there exists a sequence $\{T_1, T_2, \ldots T_n\}$ with T_1 requesting all remaining resources, finishing, then T_2 requesting all remaining resources, etc..
  - Algorithm allows the sum of maximum resource needs of all current threads to be greater than total resources

Recall: Address translation

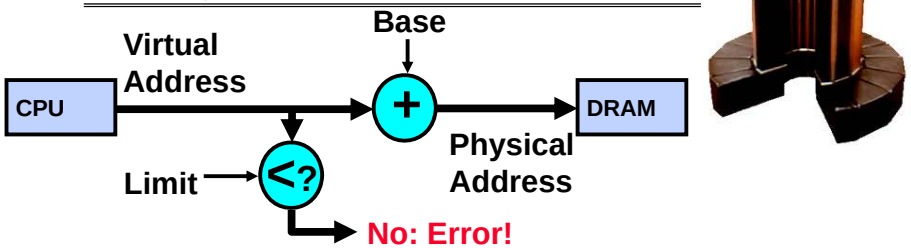


- Address Space:
  - All the addresses and state a process can touch
  - Each process and kernel has different address space
- Consequently, two views of memory:
  - View from the CPU (what program sees, virtual memory)
  - View from memory (physical memory)
  - Translation box (MMU) converts between the two views
- Translation essential to implementing protection
  - If task A cannot even gain access to task B's data, no way for A to adversely affect B
- With translation, every program can be linked/loaded into same region of user address space

Recall: General Address Translation

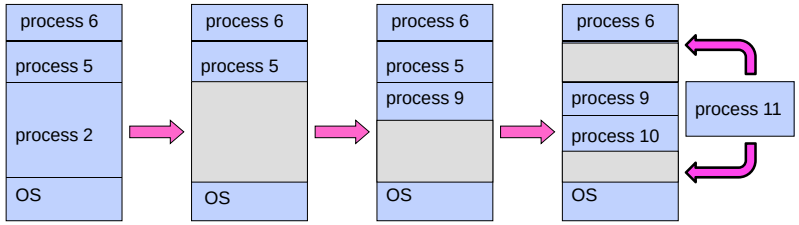


Simple Base and Bounds (CRAY-1)



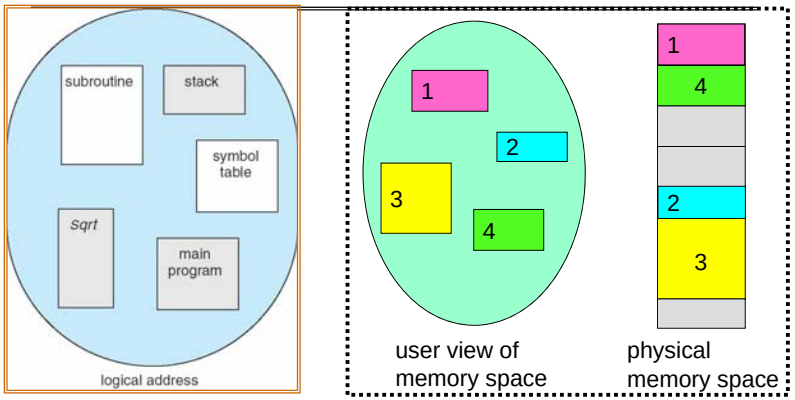
- Could use base/limit for dynamic address translation – translation happens at execution:
  - Alter address of every load/store by adding "base"
  - Generate error if address bigger than limit
- This gives program the illusion that it is running on its own dedicated machine, with memory starting at 0
  - Program gets continuous region of memory
  - Addresses within program do not have to be relocated when program placed in different region of DRAM

Issues with Simple B&B Method



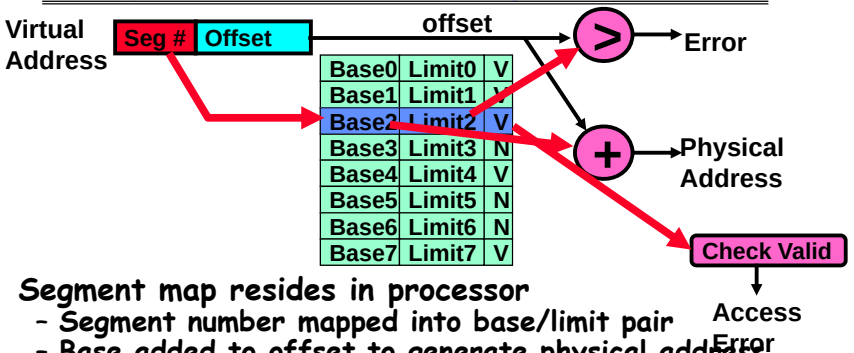
- Fragmentation problem
  - Not every process is the same size
  - Over time, memory space becomes fragmented
- Missing support for sparse address space
  - Would like to have multiple chunks/program
  - E.g.: Code, Data, Stack
- Hard to do inter-process sharing
  - Want to share code segments when possible
  - Want to share memory between processes
  - Helped by providing multiple segments per process

More Flexible Segmentation



- Logical View: multiple separate segments
  - Typical: Code, Data, Stack
  - Others: memory sharing, etc
- Each segment is given region of contiguous memory
  - Has a base and limit
  - Can reside anywhere in physical memory

Implementation of Multi-Segment Model



- Segment map resides in processor
  - Segment number mapped into base/limit pair
  - Base added to offset to generate physical address
  - Error check catches offset out of range
- As many chunks of physical memory as entries
  - Segment addressed by portion of virtual address
  - However, could be included in instruction instead:
    - » x86 Example: mov [es:bx],ax.
- What is "V/N" (valid / not valid)?
  - Can mark segments as invalid; requires check as well

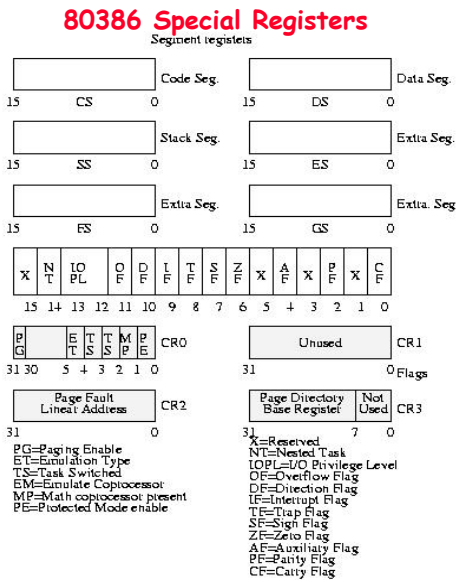
Intel x86 Special Registers

RPL = Requestor Privilege Level
TI = Table Indicator
(0 = GDT, 1 = LDT)
Index = Index into table

Protected Mode segment selector

Typical Segment Register
Current Priority is RPL
Of Code Segment (CS)

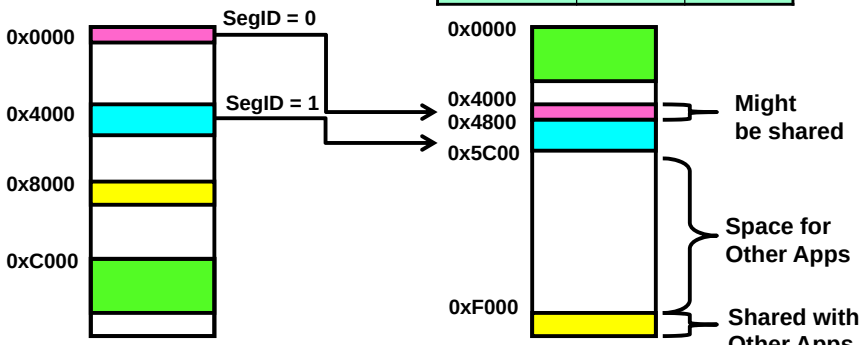
80386 Special Registers



Example: Four Segments (16 bit addresses)

Virtual Address Format

Seg ID #	Base	Limit
0 (code)	0x4000	0x0800
1 (data)	0x4800	0x1400
2 (shared)	0xF000	0x1000
3 (stack)	0x0000	0x3000



Example of segment translation

```
0x240   main:   la $a0, varx
0x244           jal strlen
  …               …
0x360   strlen: li   $v0, 0  ;count
0x364   loop:   lb   $t0, ($a0)
0x368           beq  $r0,$t1, done
  …               …
0x4050  varx    dw   0x314159
```

Seg ID #	Base	Limit
0 (code)	0x4000	0x0800
1 (data)	0x4800	0x1400
2 (shared)	0xF000	0x1000
3 (stack)	0x0000	0x3000

Let's simulate a bit of this code to see what happens (PC=0x240):

1. Fetch 0x240. Virtual segment #? 0; Offset? 0x240
   Physical address? Base=0x4000, so physical addr=0x4240
   Fetch instruction at 0x4240. Get "la $a0, varx"
   Move 0x4050 → $a0, Move PC+4→PC
2. Fetch 0x244. Translated to Physical=0x4244. Get "jal strlen"
   Move 0x0248 → $ra (return address!), Move 0x0360 → PC
3. Fetch 0x360. Translated to Physical=0x4360. Get "li $v0,0"
   Move 0x0000 → $v0, Move PC+4→PC
4. Fetch 0x364. Translated to Physical=0x4364. Get "lb $t0,($a0)"
   Since $a0 is 0x4050, try to load byte from 0x4050
   Translate 0x4050. Virtual segment #? 1; Offset? 0x50
   Physical address? Base=0x4800, Physical addr = 0x4850,
   Load Byte from 0x4850→$t0, Move PC+4→PC

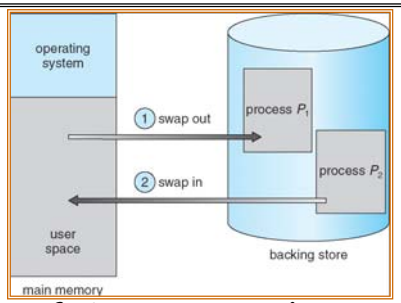
Administrivia

- Midterm I coming up in next Wednesday!
  - March 11th, 7:00-10:00PM
  - Rooms: 1 PIMENTEL; 2060 VALLEY LSB
    - » Will be dividing up in advance – watch for Piazza post
  - All topics up to and including next Monday
  - Closed book
  - 1 page hand-written notes both sides
- Review Session
  - This Sunday, 4-6 PM, 306 Soda Hall
- HW3 moved 1 week
  - Sorry about that, we had a bit of a scheduling snafu

Observations about Segmentation

- Virtual address space has holes
  - Segmentation efficient for sparse address spaces
  - A correct program should never address gaps (except as mentioned in moment)
    - » If it does, trap to kernel and dump core
- When it is OK to address outside valid range:
  - This is how the stack and heap are allowed to grow
  - For instance, stack takes fault, system automatically increases size of stack
- Need protection mode in segment table
  - For example, code segment would be read-only
  - Data and stack would be read-write (stores allowed)
  - Shared segment could be read-only or read-write
- What must be saved/restored on context switch?
  - Segment table stored in CPU, not in memory (small)
  - Might store all of processes memory onto disk when switched (called "swapping")

What if segments than will fit into memory?



- Extreme form of Context Switch: Swapping
  - In order to make room for next process, some or all of the previous process is moved to disk
    - » Likely need to send out complete segments
  - This greatly increases the cost of context-switching
- Desirable alternative?
  - Some way to keep only active portions of a process in memory at any one time
  - Need finer granularity control over physical memory

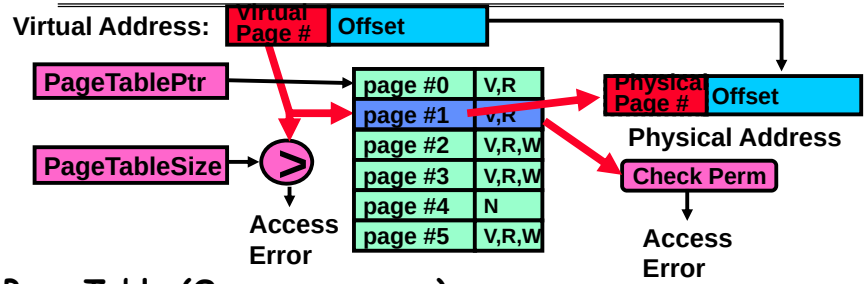
Problems with Segmentation

- Must fit variable-sized chunks into physical memory
- May move processes multiple times to fit everything
- Limited options for swapping to disk
- Fragmentation: wasted space
  - External: free gaps between allocated chunks
  - Internal: don't need all memory within allocated chunks

Paging: Physical Memory in Fixed Size Chunks

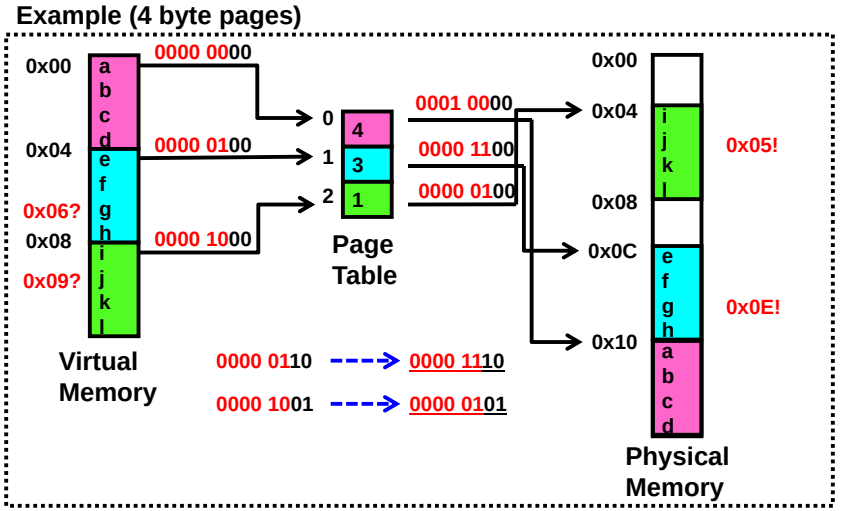
- Solution to fragmentation from segments?
  - Allocate physical memory in fixed size chunks ("pages")
  - Every chunk of physical memory is equivalent
    - » Can use simple vector of bits to handle allocation: 00110001110001101 … 110010
    - » Each bit represents page of physical memory 1⇒allocated, 0⇒free
- Should pages be as big as our previous segments?
  - No: Can lead to lots of internal fragmentation
    - » Typically have small pages (1K-16K)
  - Consequently: need multiple pages/segment

How to Implement Paging?

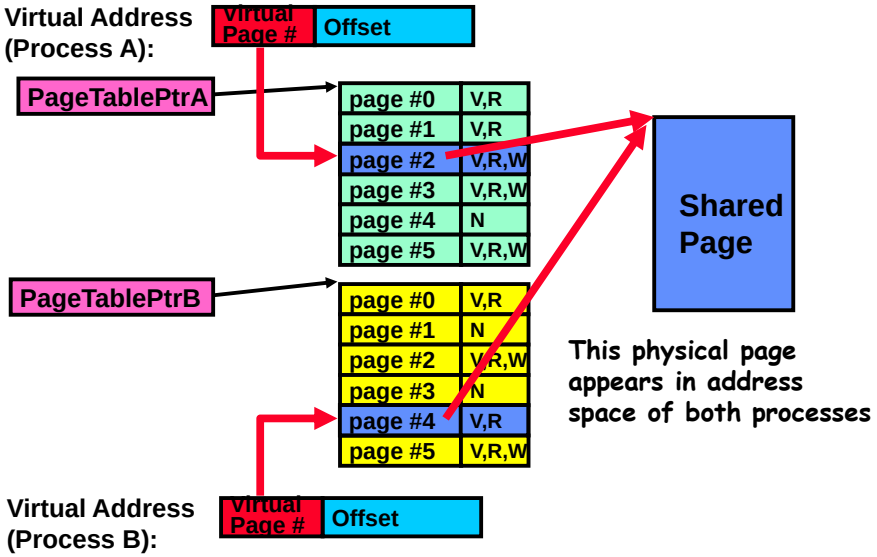


- Page Table (One per process)
  - Resides in physical memory
  - Contains physical page and permission for each virtual page
    - » Permissions include: Valid bits, Read, Write, etc
- Virtual address mapping
  - Offset from Virtual address copied to Physical Address
    - » Example: 10 bit offset ⇒ 1024-byte pages
  - Virtual page # is all remaining bits
    - » Example for 32-bits: 32-10 = 22 bits, i.e. 4 million entries
    - » Physical page # copied from table into physical address
  - Check Page Table bounds and permissions

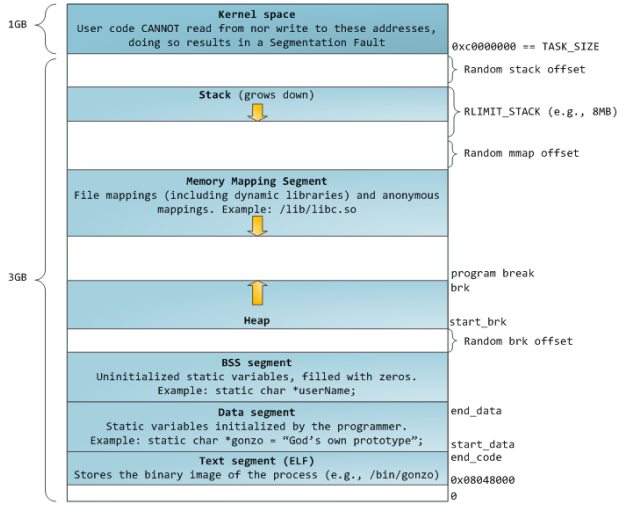
Simple Page Table Example



What about Sharing?

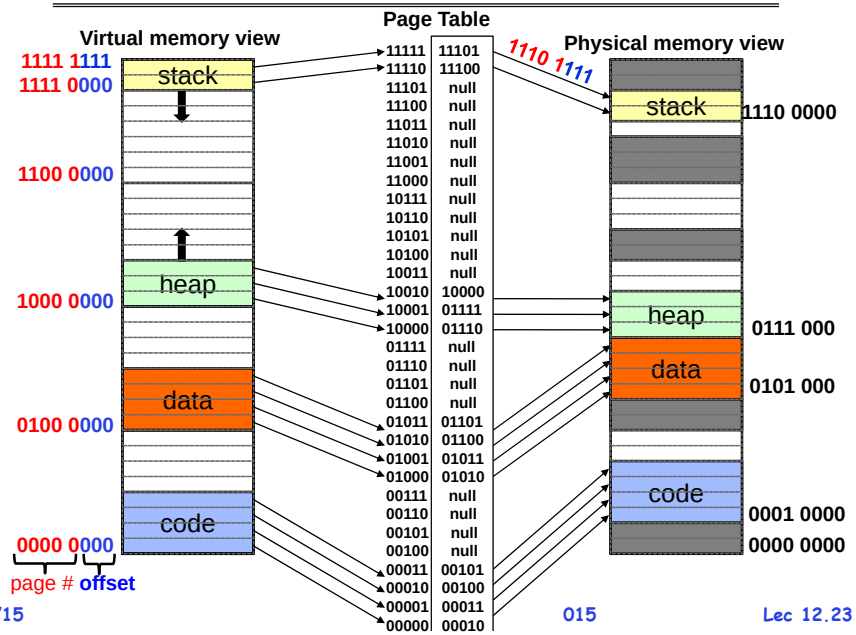


Memory Layout for Linux 32-bit



http://static.duartes.org/img/blogPosts/linuxFlexibleAddressSpaceLayout.png

Summary: Simple Page Table



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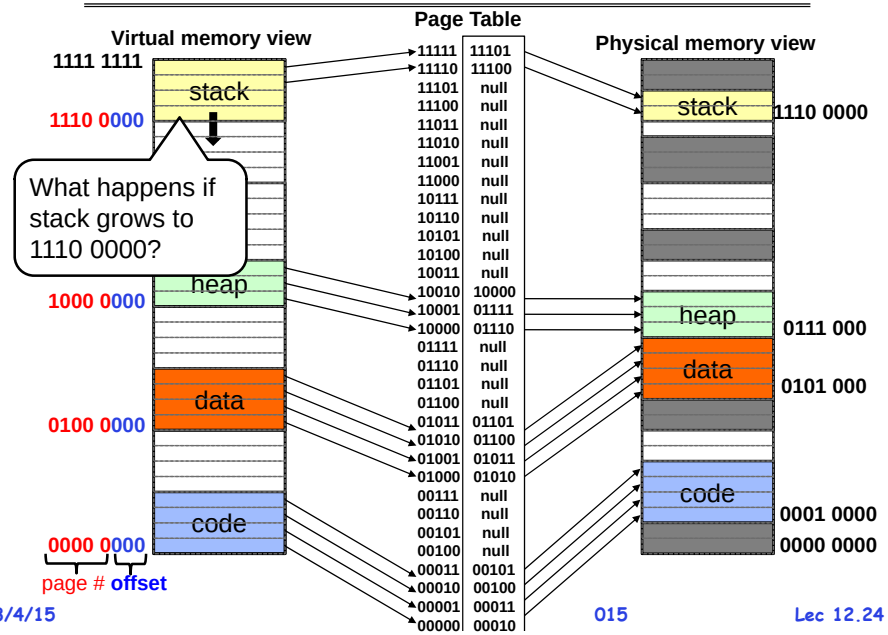

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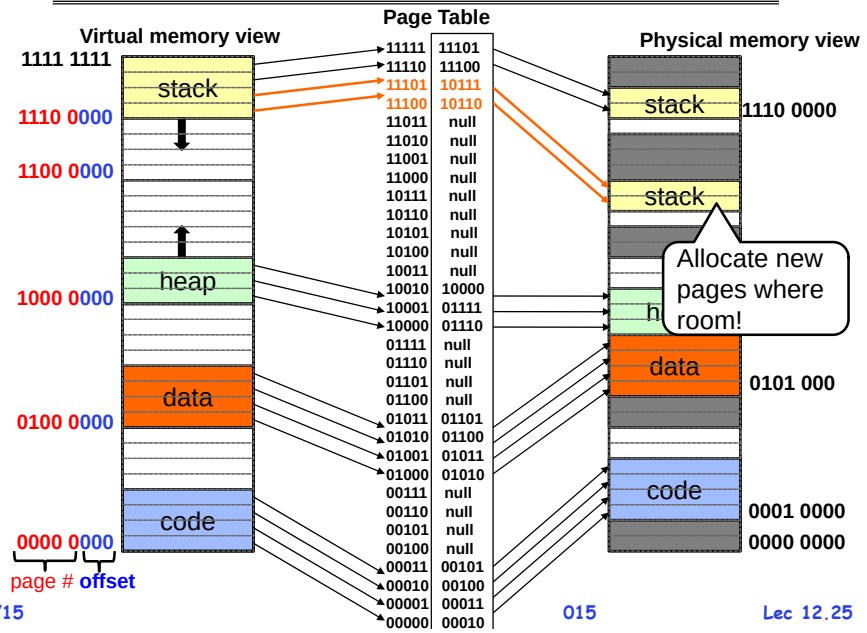
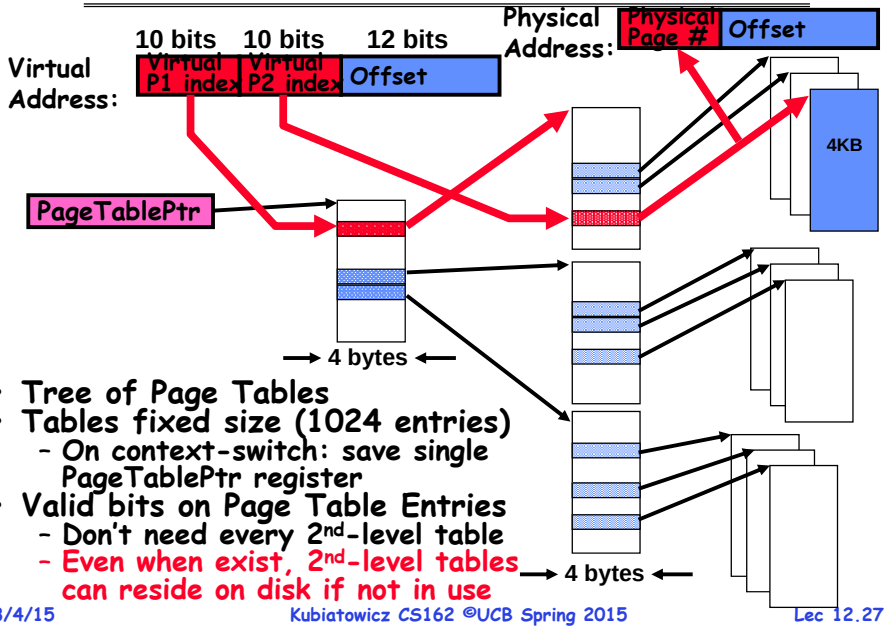


Page Table Discussion

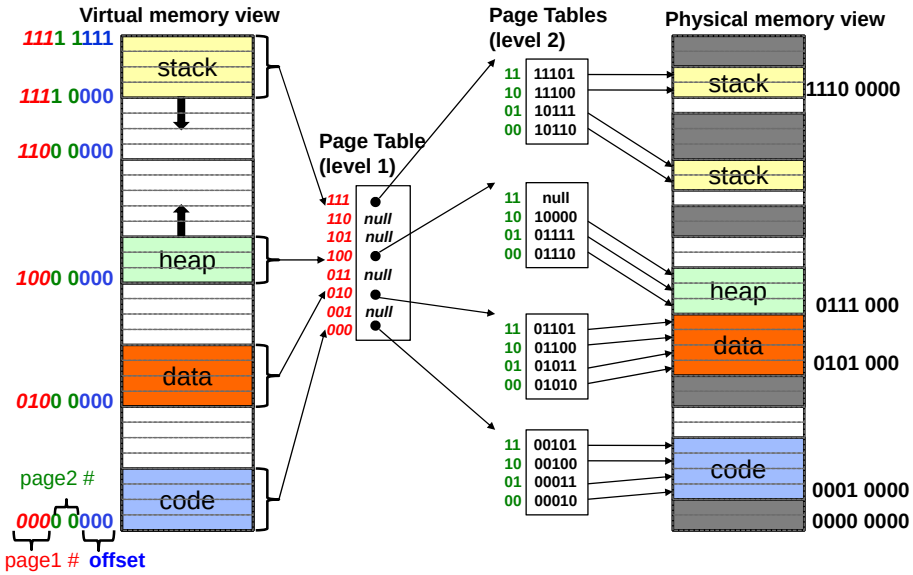
- What needs to be switched on a context switch?
  - Page table pointer and limit
- Analysis
  - Pros
    - » Simple memory allocation
    - » Easy to Share
  - Con: What if address space is sparse?
    - » E.g. on UNIX, code starts at 0, stack starts at $(2^{31}-1)$.
    - » With 1K pages, need 2 million page table entries!
  - Con: What if table really big?
    - » Not all pages used all the time ⇒ would be nice to have working set of page table in memory
- How about combining paging and segmentation?
  - Segments with pages inside them?
  - Need some sort of multi-level translation

Fix for sparse address space: The two-level page table

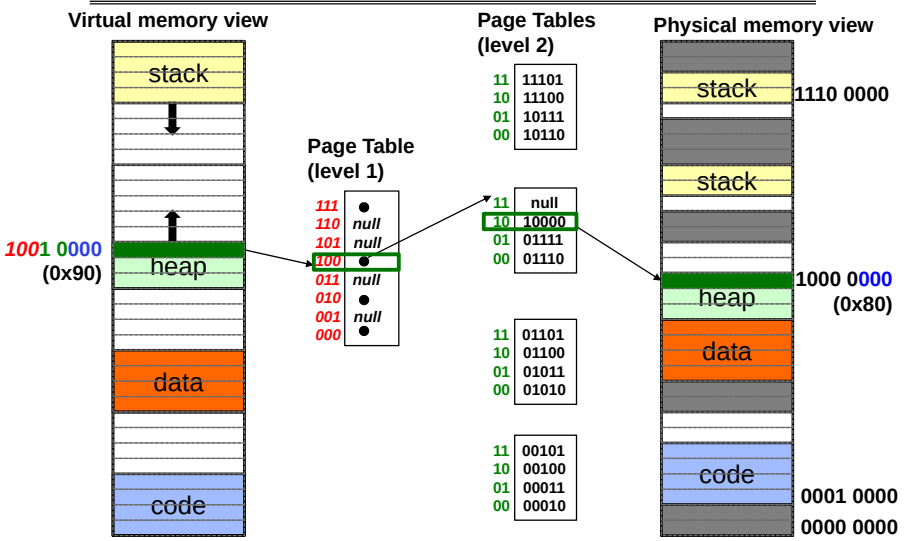


- Tree of Page Tables
- Tables fixed size (1024 entries)
  - On context-switch: save single PageTablePtr register
- Valid bits on Page Table Entries
  - Don't need every 2nd-level table
  - Even when exist, 2nd-level tables can reside on disk if not in use

Summary: Two-Level Paging

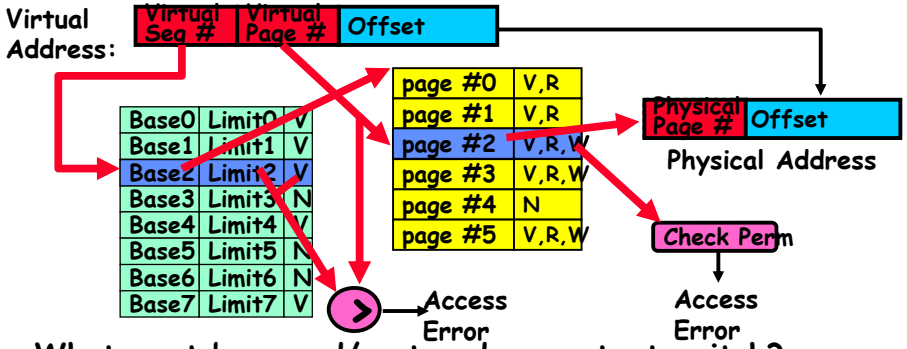


Summary: Two-Level Paging



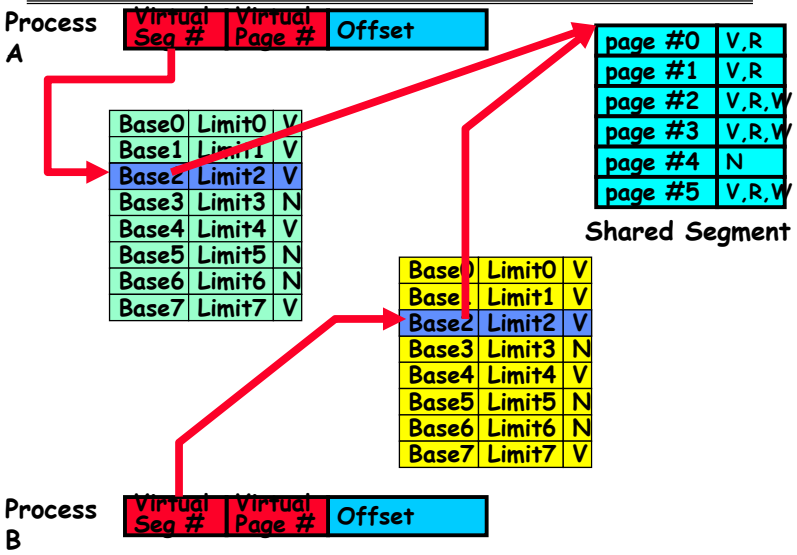
Multi-level Translation: Segments + Pages

- What about a tree of tables?
  - Lowest level page table⇒memory still allocated with bitmap
  - Higher levels often segmented
- Could have any number of levels. Example (top segment):



- What must be saved/restored on context switch?
  - Contents of top-level segment registers (for this example)
  - Pointer to top-level table (page table)

What about Sharing (Complete Segment)?

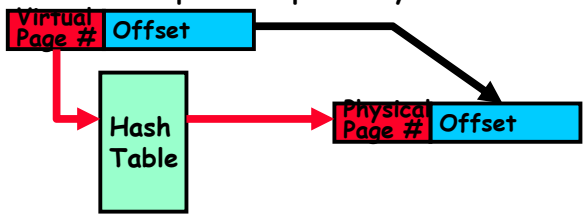


Multi-level Translation Analysis

- Pros:
  - Only need to allocate as many page table entries as we need for application
    - » In other wards, sparse address spaces are easy
  - Easy memory allocation
  - Easy Sharing
    - » Share at segment or page level (need additional reference counting)
- Cons:
  - One pointer per page (typically 4K – 16K pages today)
  - Page tables need to be contiguous
    - » However, previous example keeps tables to exactly one page in size
  - Two (or more, if >2 levels) lookups per reference
    - » Seems very expensive!

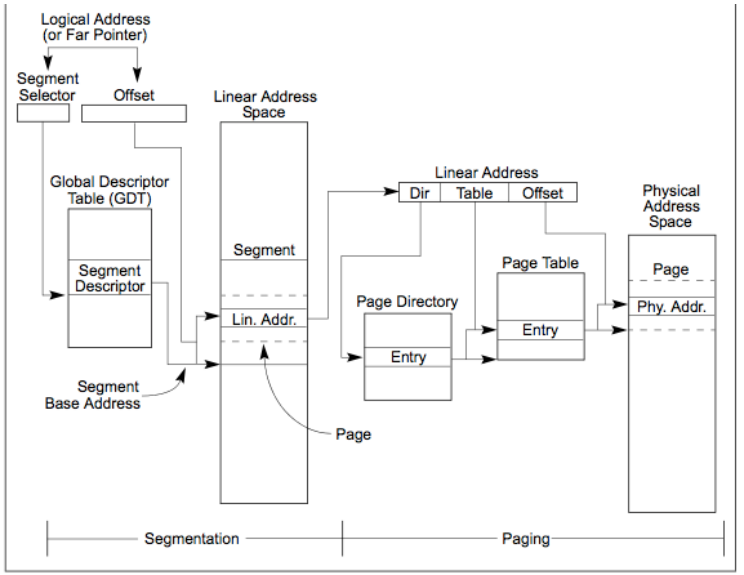
Inverted Page Table

- With all previous examples ("Forward Page Tables")
  - Size of page table is at least as large as amount of virtual memory allocated to processes
  - Physical memory may be much less
    - » Much of process space may be out on disk or not in use



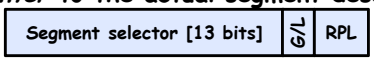
- Answer: use a hash table
  - Called an "Inverted Page Table"
  - Size is independent of virtual address space
  - Directly related to amount of physical memory
  - Very attractive option for 64-bit address spaces
- Cons: Complexity of managing hash changes
  - Often in hardware!

Making it real: X86 Memory model with segmentation (16/32-bit)



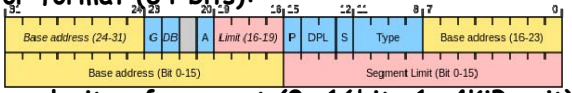
X86 Segment Descriptors (32-bit Protected Mode)

- Segments are either implicit in the instruction (say for code segments) or actually part of the instruction
  - There are 6 registers: SS, CS, DS, ES, FS, GS
- What is in a segment register?
  - A *pointer* to the actual segment description:



G/L selects between GDT and LDT tables (global vs local descriptor tables)

- Two registers: GDTR and LDTR hold pointers to the global and local descriptor tables in memory
  - Includes length of table (for < 2^{13}) entries
- Descriptor format (64 bits):



G: Granularity of segment (0: 16bit, 1: 4KiB unit)
DB: Default operand size (0: 16bit, 1: 32bit)
A: Freely available for use by software
P: Segment present
DPL: Descriptor Privilege Level
S: System Segment (0: System, 1: code or data)
Type: Code, Data, Segment

What is in a Page Table Entry?

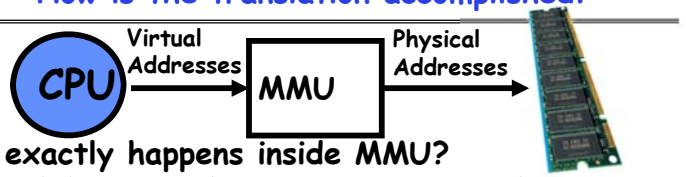
- What is in a Page Table Entry (or PTE)?
  - Pointer to next-level page table or to actual page
  - Permission bits: valid, read-only, read-write, write-only
- Example: Intel x86 architecture PTE:
  - Address same format previous slide (10, 10, 12-bit offset)
  - Intermediate page tables called "Directories"

P: Present (same as "valid" bit in other architectures)
W: Writeable
U: User accessible
PWT: Page write transparent: external cache write-through
PCD: Page cache disabled (page cannot be cached)
A: Accessed: page has been accessed recently
D: Dirty (PTE only): page has been modified recently
L: L=1⇒4MB page (directory only).
Bottom 22 bits of virtual address serve as offset

Examples of how to use a PTE

- How do we use the PTE?
  - Invalid PTE can imply different things:
    - » Region of address space is actually invalid or
    - » Page/directory is just somewhere else than memory
  - Validity checked first
    - » OS can use other (say) 31 bits for location info
- Usage Example: Demand Paging
  - Keep only active pages in memory
  - Place others on disk and mark their PTEs invalid
- Usage Example: Copy on Write
  - UNIX fork gives *copy* of parent address space to child
    - » Address spaces disconnected after child created
  - How to do this cheaply?
    - » Make copy of parent's page tables (point at same memory)
    - » Mark entries in both sets of page tables as read-only
    - » Page fault on write creates two copies
- Usage Example: Zero Fill On Demand
  - New data pages must carry no information (say be zeroed)
  - Mark PTEs as invalid; page fault on use gets zeroed page
  - Often, OS creates zeroed pages in background

How is the translation accomplished?



- What, exactly happens inside MMU?
- One possibility: Hardware Tree Traversal
  - For each virtual address, takes page table base pointer and traverses the page table in hardware
  - Generates a "Page Fault" if it encounters invalid PTE
    - » Fault handler will decide what to do
    - » More on this next lecture
  - Pros: Relatively fast (but still many memory accesses!)
  - Cons: Inflexible, Complex hardware
- Another possibility: Software
  - Each traversal done in software
  - Pros: Very flexible
  - Cons: Every translation must invoke Fault!
- In fact, need way to *cache* translations for either case!

Recall: Dual-Mode Operation

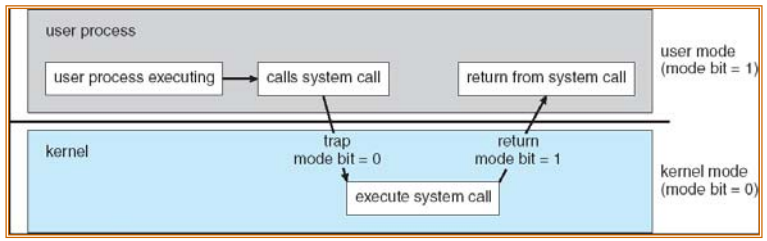
- Can a process modify its own translation tables?
  - NO!
  - If it could, could get access to all of physical memory
  - Has to be restricted somehow
- To Assist with Protection, Hardware provides at least two modes (Dual-Mode Operation):
  - "Kernel" mode (or "supervisor" or "protected")
  - "User" mode (Normal program mode)
  - Mode set with bits in special control register only accessible in kernel-mode
- Intel processor actually has four "rings" of protection:
  - PL (Priviledge Level) from 0 – 3
    - » PL0 has full access, PL3 has least
  - Privilege Level set in code segment descriptor (CS)
  - Mirrored "IOPL" bits in condition register gives permission to programs to use the I/O instructions
  - Typical OS kernels on Intel processors only use PL0 ("kernel") and PL3 ("user")

How to get from Kernel→User

- What does the kernel do to create a new user process?
  - Allocate and initialize address-space control block
  - Read program off disk and store in memory
  - Allocate and initialize translation table
    - » Point at code in memory so program can execute
    - » Possibly point at statically initialized data
  - Run Program:
    - » Set machine registers
    - » Set hardware pointer to translation table
    - » Set processor status word for user mode
    - » Jump to start of program
- How does kernel switch between processes?
  - Same saving/restoring of registers as before
  - Save/restore PSL (hardware pointer to translation table)

Recall: User→Kernel (System Call)

- Can't let inmate (user) get out of padded cell on own
  - Would defeat purpose of protection!
  - So, how does the user program get back into kernel?



- System call: Voluntary procedure call into kernel
  - Hardware for controlled User→Kernel transition
  - Can any kernel routine be called?
    - » No! Only specific ones.
  - System call ID encoded into system call instruction
    - » Index forces well-defined interface with kernel

System Call Continued

- What are some system calls?
  - I/O: open, close, read, write, lseek
  - Files: delete, mkdir, rmdir, truncate, chown, chgrp, ..
  - Process: fork, exit, wait (like join)
  - Network: socket create, set options
- Are system calls constant across operating systems?
  - Not entirely, but there are lots of commonalities
  - Also some standardization attempts (POSIX)
- What happens at beginning of system call?
  - » On entry to kernel, sets system to kernel mode
  - » Handler address fetched from table/Handler started
- System Call argument passing:
  - In registers (not very much can be passed)
  - Write into user memory, kernel copies into kernel mem
    - » User addresses must be translated!
    - » Kernel has different view of memory than user
  - Every Argument must be explicitly checked!

User→Kernel (Exceptions: Traps and Interrupts)

- A system call instruction causes a synchronous exception (or "trap")
  - In fact, often called a software "trap" instruction
- Other sources of *Synchronous Exceptions ("Trap"):*
  - Divide by zero, Illegal instruction, Bus error (bad address, e.g. unaligned access)
  - Segmentation Fault (address out of range)
  - Page Fault (for illusion of infinite-sized memory)
- Interrupts are *Asynchronous Exceptions*
  - Examples: timer, disk ready, network, etc….
  - Interrupts can be disabled, traps cannot!
- On system call, exception, or interrupt:
  - Hardware enters kernel mode with interrupts disabled
  - Saves PC, then jumps to appropriate handler in kernel
  - For some processors (x86), processor also saves registers, changes stack, etc.
- Actual handler typically saves registers, other CPU state, and switches to kernel stack

Closing thought: Protection without Hardware

- Does protection require hardware support for translation and dual-mode behavior?
  - No: Normally use hardware, but anything you can do in hardware can also do in software (possibly expensive)
- Protection via Strong Typing
  - Restrict programming language so that you can't express program that would trash another program
  - Loader needs to make sure that program produced by valid compiler or all bets are off
  - Example languages: LISP, Ada, Modula-3 and Java
- Protection via software fault isolation:
  - Language independent approach: have compiler generate object code that provably can't step out of bounds
    - » Compiler puts in checks for every "dangerous" operation (loads, stores, etc). Again, need special loader.
    - » Alternative, compiler generates "proof" that code cannot do certain things (Proof Carrying Code)
  - Or: use virtual machine to guarantee safe behavior (loads and stores recompiled on fly to check bounds)

Summary (1/2)

- Segment Mapping
  - Segment registers within processor
  - Segment ID associated with each access
    - » Often comes from portion of virtual address
    - » Can come from bits in instruction instead (x86)
  - Each segment contains base and limit information
    - » Offset (rest of address) adjusted by adding base
- Page Tables
  - Memory divided into fixed-sized chunks of memory
  - Virtual page number from virtual address mapped through page table to physical page number
  - Offset of virtual address same as physical address
  - Large page tables can be placed into virtual memory
- Multi-Level Tables
  - Virtual address mapped to series of tables
  - Permit sparse population of address space
- Inverted page table
  - Size of page table related to physical memory size

Summary (2/2)

- PTE: Page Table Entries
  - Includes physical page number
  - Control info (valid bit, writeable, dirty, user, etc)
- Dual-Mode
  - Kernel/User distinction: User restricted
  - User→Kernel: System calls, Traps, or Interrupts
  - Inter-process communication: shared memory, or through kernel (system calls)
- Exceptions
  - Synchronous Exceptions: Traps (including system calls)
  - Asynchronous Exceptions: Interrupts