CS162
Operating Systems and Systems Programming
Lecture 13

Address Translation (con't)
Caches and TLBs

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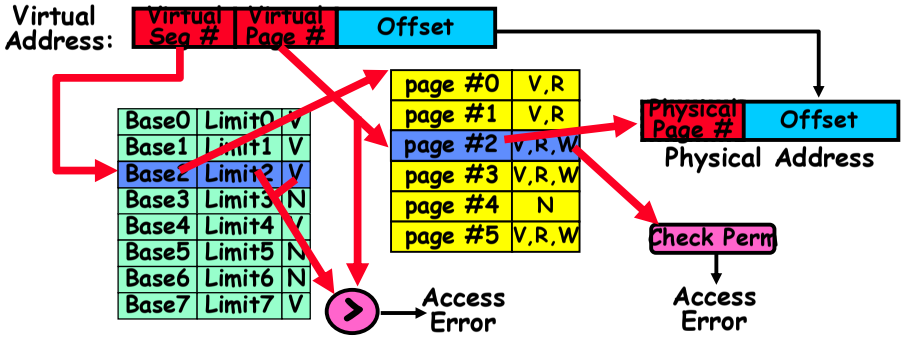
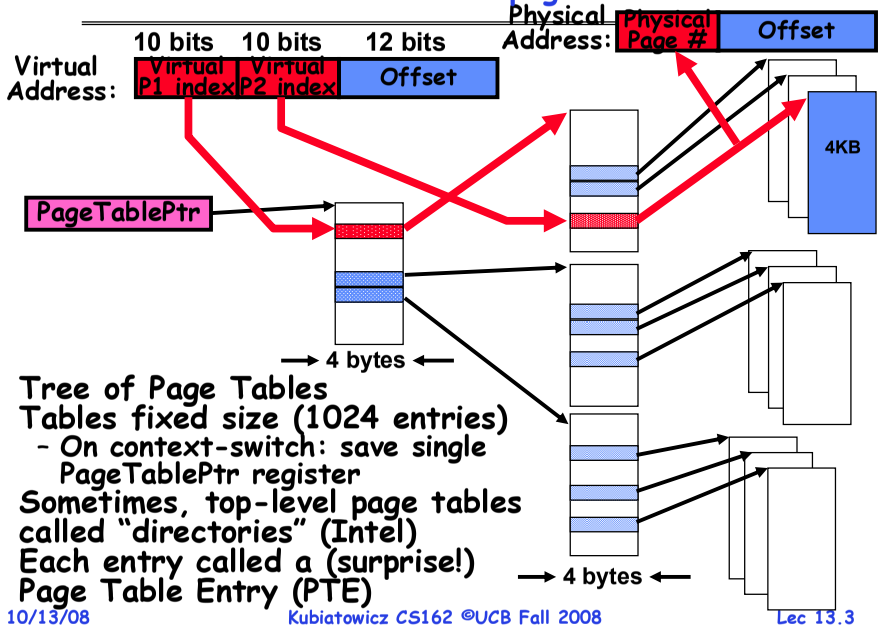
Review: Multi-level Translation

- 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)

Review: Two-level page table



- Tree of Page Tables
- Tables fixed size (1024 entries)
  - On context-switch: save single PageTablePtr register
- Sometimes, top-level page tables called "directories" (Intel)
- Each entry called a (surprise!) Page Table Entry (PTE)

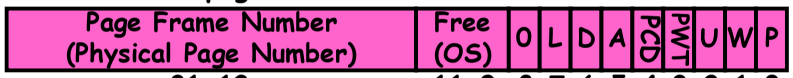
Goals for Today

- Finish discussion of both Address Translation and Protection
- Caching and TLBs

Note: Some slides and/or pictures in the following are adapted from slides ©2005 Silberschatz, Galvin, and Gagne

What is in a PTE?

- 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"

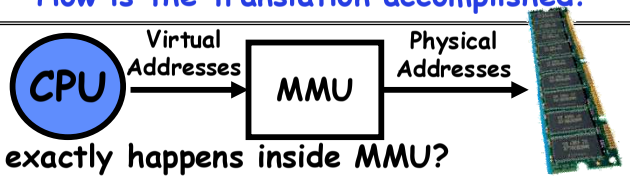


P: Present (same as "valid" bit in other architectures)
W: Writeable
U: User accessible
PWT: Page write transparent: external cache write-through
PCD: Page cache disabled (page cannot be cached)
A: Accessed: page has been accessed recently
D: Dirty (PTE only): page has been modified recently
L: L=1⇒4MB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

Dual-Mode Operation

- Can Application Modify its own translation tables?
  - 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 ("user") and PL3 ("kernel")

For Protection, Lock User-Programs in Asylum

- Idea: Lock user programs in padded cell with no exit or sharp objects
  - Cannot change mode to kernel mode
  - User cannot modify page table mapping
  - Limited access to memory: cannot adversely effect other processes
    - » Side-effect: Limited access to memory-mapped I/O operations (I/O that occurs by reading/writing memory locations)
  - Limited access to interrupt controller
  - What else needs to be protected?

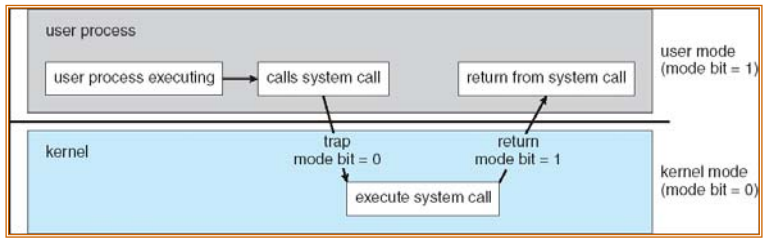
- A couple of issues
  - How to share CPU between kernel and user programs?
    - » Kinda like both the inmates and the warden in asylum are the same person. How do you manage this???
  - How do programs interact?
  - How does one switch between kernel and user modes?
    - » OS → user (kernel → user mode): getting into cell
    - » User→ OS (user → kernel mode): getting out of cell

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)

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

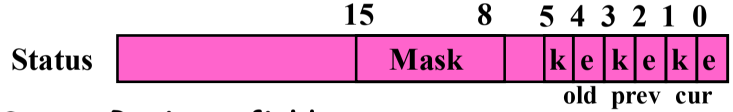
- What are some system calls?
  - I/O: open, close, read, write, lseek
  - Files: delete, mkdir, rmdir, truncate, chown, chgrp, ..
  - Process: fork, exit, wait (like join)
  - Network: socket create, set options
- Are system calls constant across operating systems?
  - Not entirely, but there are lots 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!w
    - » 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:*
  - 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

Additions to MIPS ISA to support Exceptions?

- Exception state is kept in "Coprocessor 0"
  - Use mfc0 read contents of these registers:
    - » BadVAddr (register 8): contains memory address at which memory reference error occurred
    - » Status (register 12): interrupt mask and enable bits
    - » Cause (register 13): the cause of the exception
    - » EPC (register 14): address of the affected instruction



- Status Register fields:
  - Mask: Interrupt enable
    - » 1 bit for each of 5 hardware and 3 software interrupts
  - k = kernel/user: 0⇒kernel mode
  - e = interrupt enable: 0⇒interrupts disabled
  - Exception⇒6 LSB shifted left 2 bits, setting 2 LSB to 0:
    - » run in kernel mode with interrupts disabled

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)

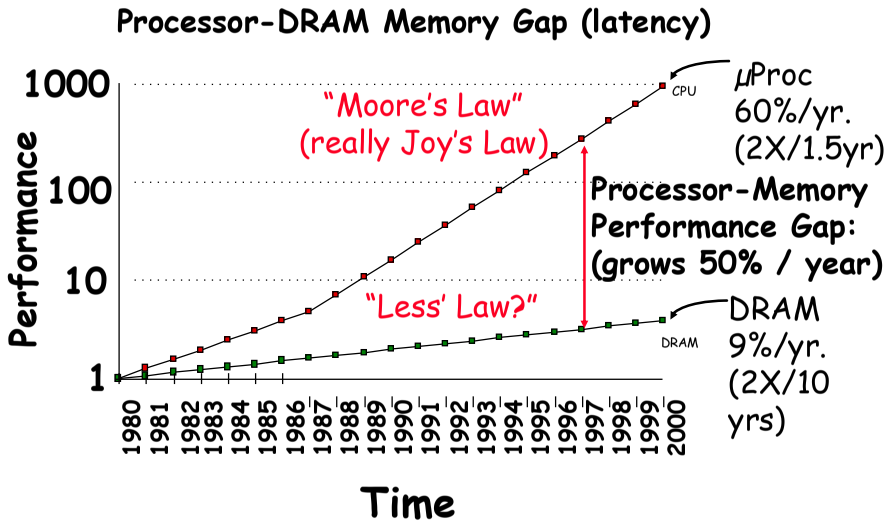
Administrivia

- Midterm I on Wednesday (10/15):
  - 5:30-8:30pm
  - Should be 2 hour exam with extra time
  - Closed book, one page of hand-written notes (both sides)
- Two testing rooms:
  - 105 NorthGate: Last Names A-M
  - 141 McCone: Last Names N-Z
- No class on Wednesday
  - Extra Office Hours: Wed 2:00-5:00, Tue? Perhaps.
- Midterm Topics
  - Topics: Everything up today
  - History, Concurrency, Multithreading, Synchronization, Protection/Address Spaces, Caching/TLBs
- Make sure to fill out Group Evaluations!
- Project 2
  - Initial Design Document due today midnight
  - Look at the lecture schedule to keep up with due dates

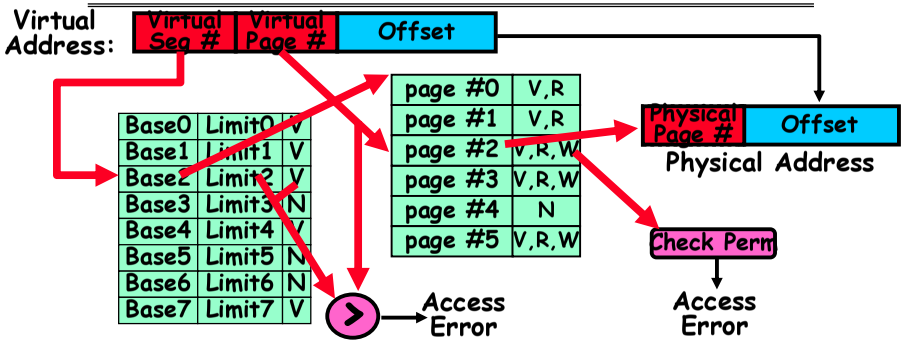
Caching Concept

- Cache: a repository for copies that can be accessed more quickly than the original
  - Make frequent case fast and infrequent case less dominant
- Caching underlies many of the techniques that are used today to make computers fast
  - Can cache: memory locations, address translations, pages, file blocks, file names, network routes, etc…
- Only good if:
  - Frequent case frequent enough and
  - Infrequent case not too expensive
- Important measure: Average Access time =
  (Hit Rate x Hit Time) + (Miss Rate x Miss Time)

Why Bother with Caching?

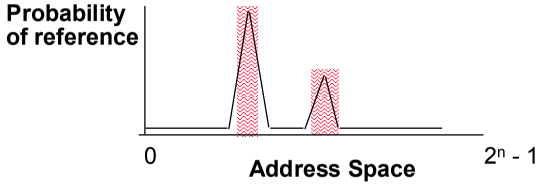


Another Major Reason to Deal with Caching

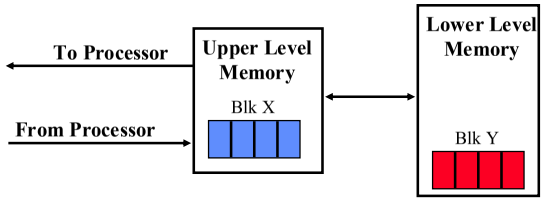


- Cannot afford to translate on every access
  - At least three DRAM accesses per actual DRAM access
  - Or: perhaps I/O if page table partially on disk!
- Even worse: What if we are using caching to make memory access faster than DRAM access???
- Solution? Cache translations!
  - Translation Cache: TLB ("Translation Lookaside Buffer")

Why Does Caching Help? Locality!

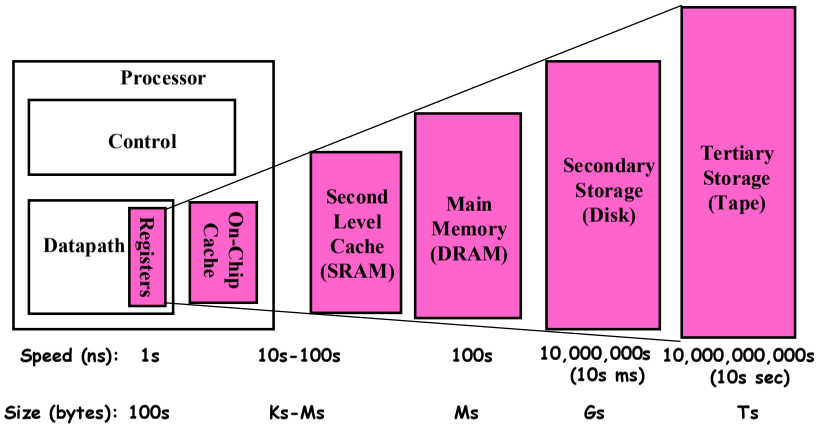


- Temporal Locality (Locality in Time):
  - Keep recently accessed data items closer to processor
- Spatial Locality (Locality in Space):
  - Move contiguous blocks to the upper levels



Memory Hierarchy of a Modern Computer System

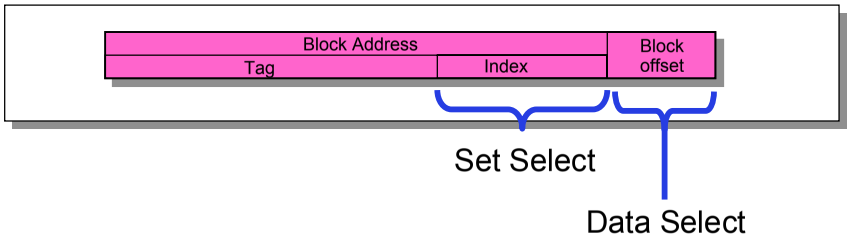
- Take advantage of the principle of locality to:
  - Present as much memory as in the cheapest technology
  - Provide access at speed offered by the fastest technology



A Summary on Sources of Cache Misses

- Compulsory (cold start or process migration, first reference): first access to a block
  - "Cold" fact of life: not a whole lot you can do about it
  - Note: If you are going to run "billions" of instruction, Compulsory Misses are insignificant
- Capacity:
  - Cache cannot contain all blocks access by the program
  - Solution: increase cache size
- Conflict (collision):
  - Multiple memory locations mapped to the same cache location
  - Solution 1: increase cache size
  - Solution 2: increase associativity
- Coherence (Invalidation): other process (e.g., I/O) updates memory

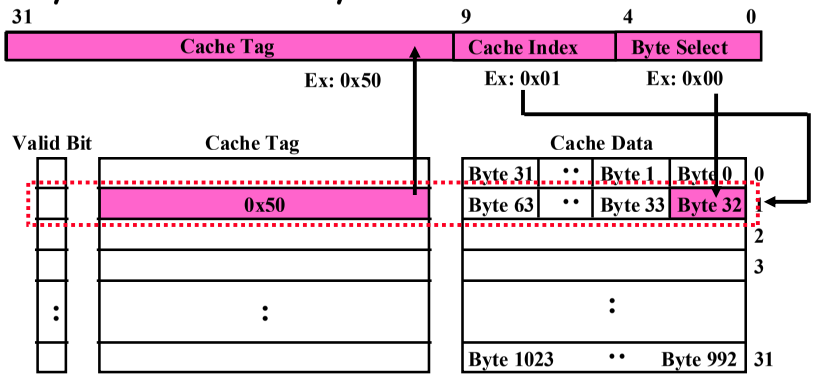
How is a Block found in a Cache?



- Index Used to Lookup Candidates in Cache
  - Index identifies the set
- Tag used to identify actual copy
  - If no candidates match, then declare cache miss
- Block is minimum quantum of caching
  - Data select field used to select data within block
  - Many caching applications don't have data select field

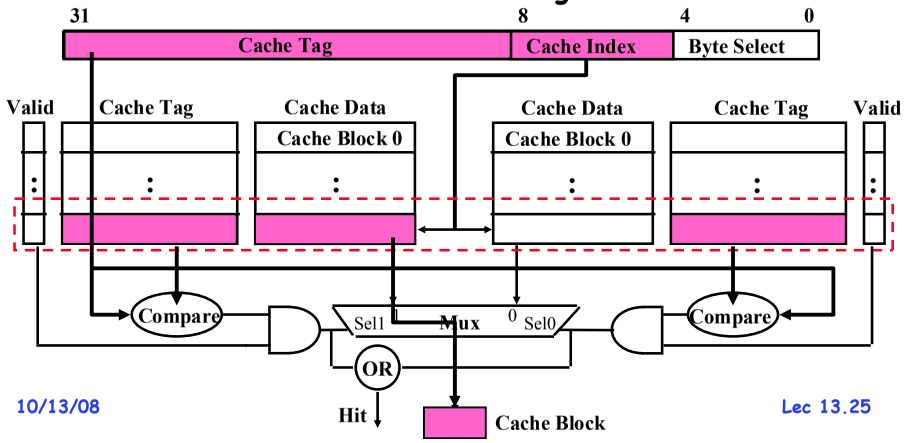
Review: Direct Mapped Cache

- Direct Mapped 2^N byte cache:
  - The uppermost (32 - N) bits are always the Cache Tag
  - The lowest M bits are the Byte Select (Block Size = 2^M)
- Example: 1 KB Direct Mapped Cache with 32 B Blocks
  - Index chooses potential block
  - Tag checked to verify block
  - Byte select chooses byte within block



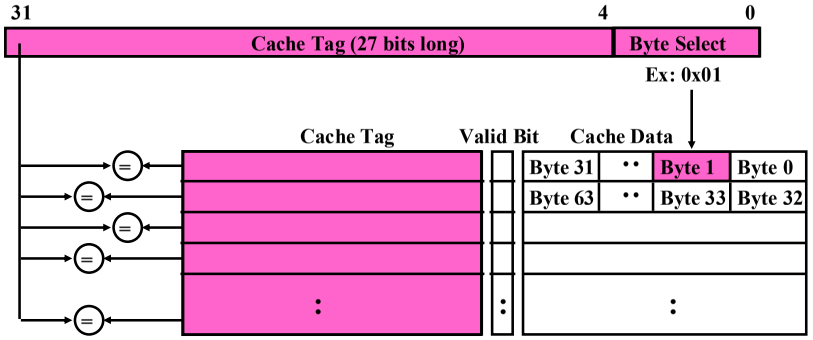
Review: Set Associative Cache

- N-way set associative: N entries per Cache Index
  - N direct mapped caches operates in parallel
- Example: Two-way set associative cache
  - Cache Index selects a "set" from the cache
  - Two tags in the set are compared to input in parallel
  - Data is selected based on the tag result



Review: Fully Associative Cache

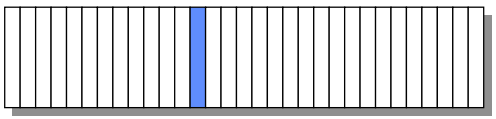
- Fully Associative: Every block can hold any line
  - Address does not include a cache index
  - Compare Cache Tags of all Cache Entries in Parallel
- Example: Block Size=32B blocks
  - We need N 27-bit comparators
  - Still have byte select to choose from within block



Where does a Block Get Placed in a Cache?

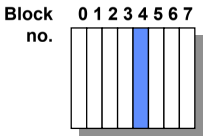
- Example: Block 12 placed in 8 block cache

32-Block Address Space:

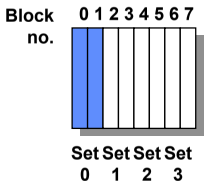


Block no. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31

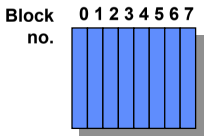
Direct mapped: block 12 can go only into block 4 (12 mod 8)



Set associative: block 12 can go anywhere in set 0 (12 mod 4)



Fully associative: block 12 can go anywhere



Review: Which block should be replaced on a miss?

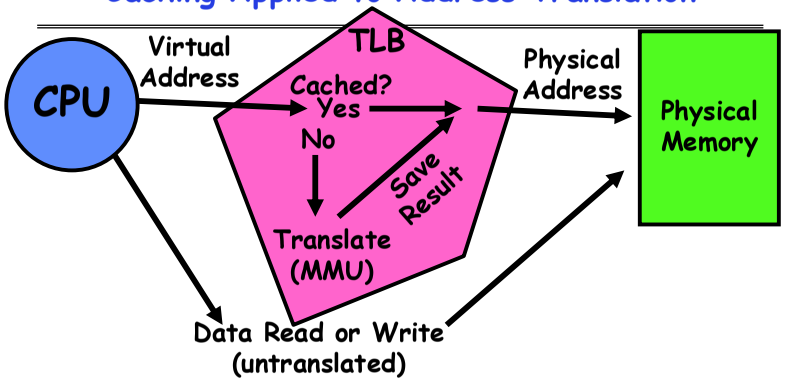
- Easy for Direct Mapped: Only one possibility
- Set Associative or Fully Associative:
  - Random
  - LRU (Least Recently Used)

Size	2-way LRU	2-way Random	4-way LRU	4-way Random	8-way LRU	8-way Random
16 KB	5.2%	5.7%	4.7%	5.3%	4.4%	5.0%
64 KB	1.9%	2.0%	1.5%	1.7%	1.4%	1.5%
256 KB	1.15%	1.17%	1.13%	1.13%	1.12%	1.12%

Review: What happens on a write?

- Write through: The information is written to both the block in the cache and to the block in the lower-level memory
- Write back: The information is written only to the block in the cache.
  - Modified cache block is written to main memory only when it is replaced
  - Question is block clean or dirty?
- Pros and Cons of each?
  - WT:
    - » PRO: read misses cannot result in writes
    - » CON: Processor held up on writes unless writes buffered
  - WB:
    - » PRO: repeated writes not sent to DRAM
      processor not held up on writes
    - » CON: More complex
      Read miss may require writeback of dirty data

Caching Applied to Address Translation



- Question is one of page locality: does it exist?
  - Instruction accesses spend a lot of time on the same page (since accesses sequential)
  - Stack accesses have definite locality of reference
  - Data accesses have less page locality, but still some…
- Can we have a TLB hierarchy?
  - Sure: multiple levels at different sizes/speeds

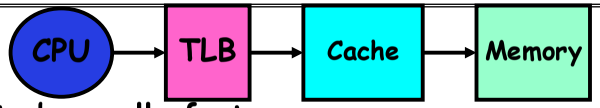
What Actually Happens on a TLB Miss?

- Hardware traversed page tables:
  - On TLB miss, hardware in MMU looks at current page table to fill TLB (may walk multiple levels)
    - » If PTE valid, hardware fills TLB and processor never knows
    - » If PTE marked as invalid, causes Page Fault, after which kernel decides what to do afterwards
- Software traversed Page tables (like MIPS)
  - On TLB miss, processor receives TLB fault
  - Kernel traverses page table to find PTE
    - » If PTE valid, fills TLB and returns from fault
    - » If PTE marked as invalid, internally calls Page Fault handler
- Most chip sets provide hardware traversal
  - Modern operating systems tend to have more TLB faults since they use translation for many things
  - Examples:
    - » shared segments
    - » user-level portions of an operating system

What happens on a Context Switch?

- Need to do something, since TLBs map virtual addresses to physical addresses
  - Address Space just changed, so TLB entries no longer valid!
- Options?
  - Invalidate TLB: simple but might be expensive
    - » What if switching frequently between processes?
  - Include ProcessID in TLB
    - » This is an architectural solution: needs hardware
- What if translation tables change?
  - For example, to move page from memory to disk or vice versa…
  - Must invalidate TLB entry!
    - » Otherwise, might think that page is still in memory!

What TLB organization makes sense?



- Needs to be really fast
  - Critical path of memory access
    - » In simplest view: before the cache
    - » Thus, this adds to access time (reducing cache speed)
  - Seems to argue for Direct Mapped or Low Associativity
- However, needs to have very few conflicts!
  - With TLB, the Miss Time extremely high!
  - This argues that cost of Conflict (Miss Time) is much higher than slightly increased cost of access (Hit Time)
- Thrashing: continuous conflicts between accesses
  - What if use low order bits of page as index into TLB?
    - » First page of code, data, stack may map to same entry
    - » Need 3-way associativity at least?
  - What if use high order bits as index?
    - » TLB mostly unused for small programs

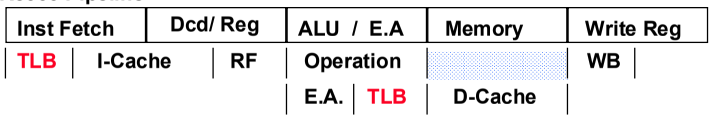
TLB organization: include protection

- How big does TLB actually have to be?
  - Usually small: 128-512 entries
  - Not very big, can support higher associativity
- TLB usually organized as fully-associative cache
  - Lookup is by Virtual Address
  - Returns Physical Address + other info
- What happens when fully-associative is too slow?
  - Put a small (4-16 entry) direct-mapped cache in front
  - Called a "TLB Slice"
- Example for MIPS R3000:

Virtual Address	Physical Address	Dirty	Ref	Valid	Access	ASID
0xFA00	0x0003	Y	N	Y	R/W	34
0x0040	0x0010	N	Y	Y	R	0
0x0041	0x0011	N	Y	Y	R	0

Example: R3000 pipeline includes TLB "stages"

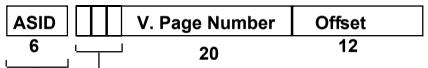
MIPS R3000 Pipeline



TLB

64 entry, on-chip, fully associative, software TLB fault handler

Virtual Address Space

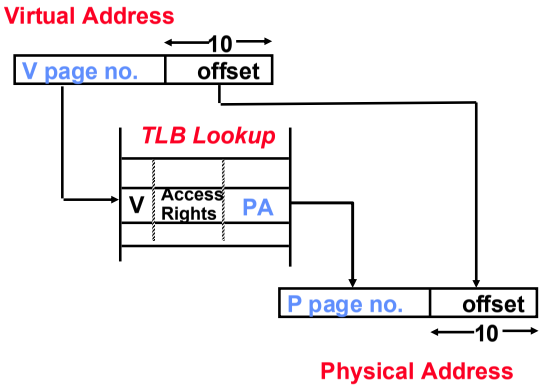


0xx User segment (caching based on PT/TLB entry)
100 Kernel physical space, cached
101 Kernel physical space, uncached
11x Kernel virtual space

Allows context switching among
64 user processes without TLB flush

Reducing translation time further

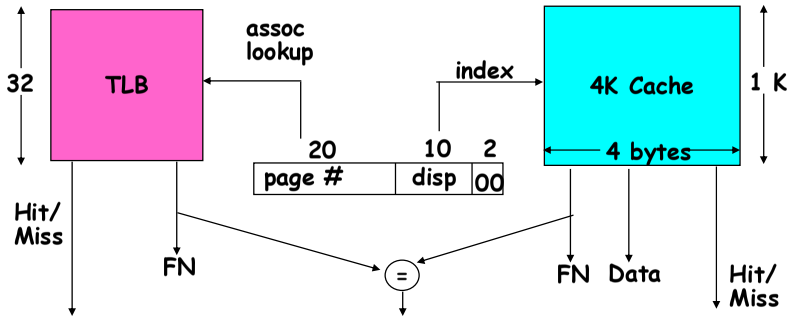
- As described, TLB lookup is in serial with cache lookup:



- Machines with TLBs go one step further: they overlap TLB lookup with cache access.
  - Works because offset available early

Overlapping TLB & Cache Access

- Here is how this might work with a 4K cache:



- What if cache size is increased to 8KB?
  - Overlap not complete
  - Need to do something else. See CS152/252
- Another option: Virtual Caches
  - Tags in cache are virtual addresses
  - Translation only happens on cache misses

Summary #1/2

- The Principle of Locality:
  - Program likely to access a relatively small portion of the address space at any instant of time.
    - » Temporal Locality: Locality in Time
    - » Spatial Locality: Locality in Space
- Three (+1) Major Categories of Cache Misses:
  - Compulsory Misses: sad facts of life. Example: cold start misses.
  - Conflict Misses: increase cache size and/or associativity
  - Capacity Misses: increase cache size
  - Coherence Misses: Caused by external processors or I/O devices
- Cache Organizations:
  - Direct Mapped: single block per set
  - Set associative: more than one block per set
  - Fully associative: all entries equivalent

Summary #2/2: Translation Caching (TLB)

- PTE: Page Table Entries
  - Includes physical page number
  - Control info (valid bit, writeable, dirty, user, etc)
- A cache of translations called a "Translation Lookaside Buffer" (TLB)
  - Relatively small number of entries (< 512)
  - Fully Associative (Since conflict misses expensive)
  - TLB entries contain PTE and optional process ID
- On TLB miss, page table must be traversed
  - If located PTE is invalid, cause Page Fault
- On context switch/change in page table
  - TLB entries must be invalidated somehow
- TLB is logically in front of cache
  - Thus, needs to be overlapped with cache access to be really fast