

CSI 62
Operating Systems and
Systems Programming
Lecture 16

Demand Paging (finished),
General I/O

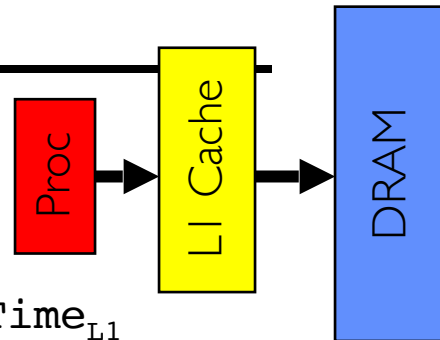
March 19th, 2020

Prof. John Kubiawicz

<http://cs162.eecs.Berkeley.edu>

Acknowledgments: Lecture slides are from the Operating Systems course taught by John Kubiawicz at Berkeley, with few minor updates/changes. When slides are obtained from other sources, a reference will be noted on the bottom of that slide, in which case a full list of references is provided on the last slide.

Recall 6 | C: Average Memory Access Time



- Used to compute access time probabilistically:

$$\text{AMAT} = \text{Hit Rate}_{L1} \times \text{Hit Time}_{L1} + \text{Miss Rate}_{L1} \times \text{Miss Time}_{L1}$$

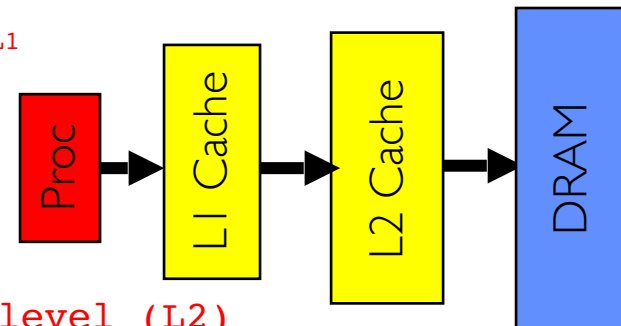
$$\text{Hit Rate}_{L1} + \text{Miss Rate}_{L1} = 1$$

Hit Time_{L1} = Time to get value from L1 cache.

Miss Time_{L1} = Hit Time_{L1} + Miss Penalty_{L1}

Miss Penalty_{L1} = AVG Time to get value from lower level (DRAM)

$$\text{So, AMAT} = \text{Hit Time}_{L1} + \text{Miss Rate}_{L1} \times \text{Miss Penalty}_{L1}$$



- What about more levels of hierarchy?

$$\text{AMAT} = \text{Hit Time}_{L1} + \text{Miss Rate}_{L1} \times \text{Miss Penalty}_{L1}$$

Miss Penalty_{L1} = AVG time to get value from lower level (L2)

$$= \text{Hit Time}_{L2} + \text{Miss Rate}_{L2} \times \text{Miss Penalty}_{L2}$$

Miss Penalty_{L2} = Average Time to fetch from below L2 (DRAM)

$$\text{AMAT} = \text{Hit Time}_{L1} +$$

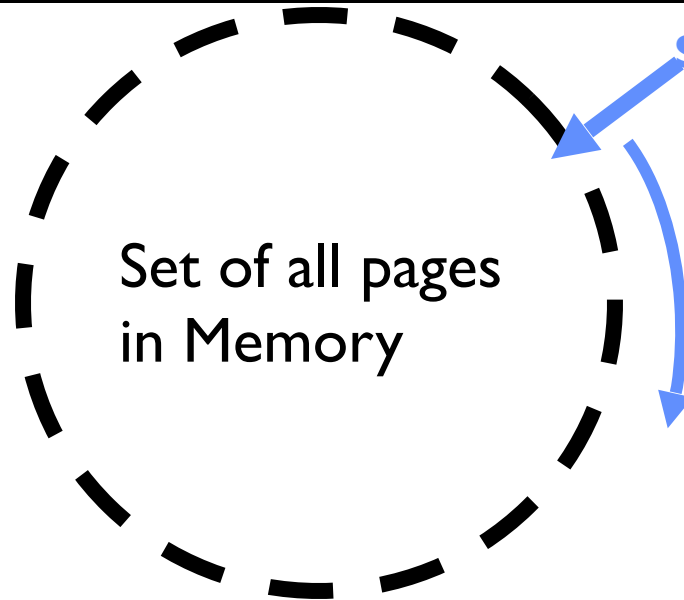
$$\text{Miss Rate}_{L1} \times (\text{Hit Time}_{L2} + \text{Miss Rate}_{L2} \times \text{Miss Penalty}_{L2})$$

- And so on ... (can do this recursively for more levels!)

Recall: Demand Paging Cost Model

- Since Demand Paging like caching, can compute average access time! (“Effective Access Time”)
 - **EAT = Hit Rate x Hit Time + Miss Rate x Miss Time**
 - **EAT = Hit Time + Miss Rate x Miss Penalty**
- Example:
 - Memory access time = 200 nanoseconds
 - Average page-fault service time = 8 milliseconds
 - Suppose p = Probability of miss, $1-p$ = Probability of hit
 - Then, we can compute EAT as follows:
EAT = 200ns + p x 8 ms
= 200ns + p x 8,000,000ns
- If one access out of 1,000 causes a page fault, then EAT = 8.2 μ s:
 - This is a slowdown by a factor of 40!
- What if want slowdown by less than 10%?
 - $\text{EAT} < 200\text{ns} \times 1.1 \Rightarrow p < 2.5 \times 10^{-6}$
 - This is about 1 page fault in 400,000!

Recall: Clock Algorithm (Not Recently Used)



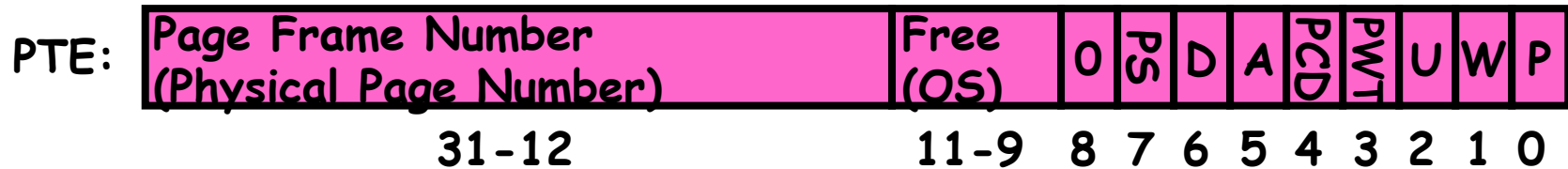
Single Clock Hand:

**Advances only on page fault!
Check for pages not used recently
Mark pages as not used recently**



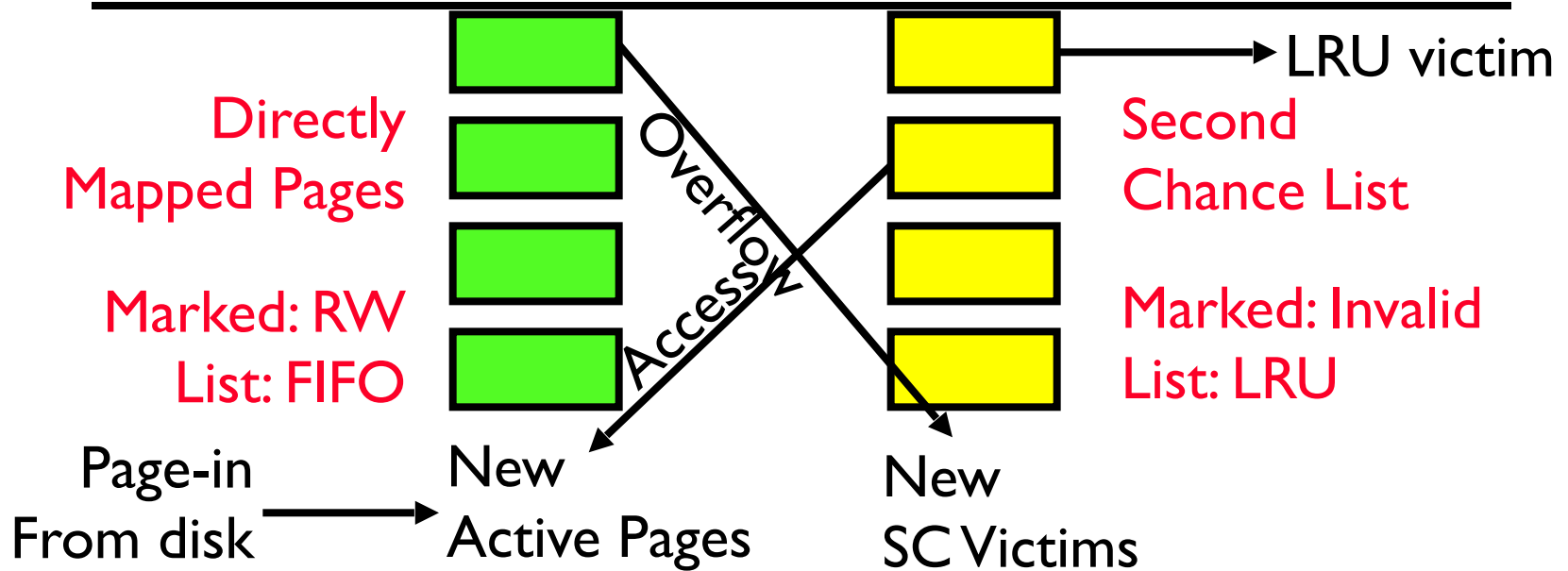
- Which bits of a PTE entry are useful to us?
 - **Use:** Set when page is referenced; cleared by clock algorithm
 - **Modified:** set when page is modified, cleared when page written to disk
 - **Valid:** ok for program to reference this page
 - **Read-only:** ok for program to read page, but not modify
 - » For example for catching modifications to code pages!
- **Clock Algorithm:** pages arranged in a ring
 - On page fault:
 - » Advance clock hand (not real time)
 - » Check **use bit:**
 - 1 → used recently; clear and leave alone
 - 0 → selected candidate for replacement
 - Crude partitioning of pages into two groups: young and old

Recall: Clock Algorithms Details (continued)



- Do we really need hardware-supported “use” or “dirty” bits?
 - No. Can emulate them in software!
 - » Keep **software** structure from pages \Rightarrow use, dirty, writable, present bits
 - » Start by marking all pages **invalid** (even if in memory)
 - On **read** to **invalid** page, trap to OS:
 - » If page actually in memory, OS sets use bit, and marks page read-only
 - » Otherwise handle page fault
 - On **write** to **invalid/read-only** page, trap to OS:
 - » If page actually in memory and supposed to be writable, OS sets use and dirty bits, and marks page read-write
 - » Otherwise handle page fault
 - When clock hand advances:
 - » Check software use and dirty bits to decide what to do
 - » If not reclaiming, mark page **invalid** and reset software **use/dirty** bits
- Remember, however, that clock is just an approximation of LRU
 - Can we do a better approximation, given that we have to take page faults on some reads and writes to collect use information?
 - Answer: second chance list

Second-Chance List Algorithm (VAX/VMS)

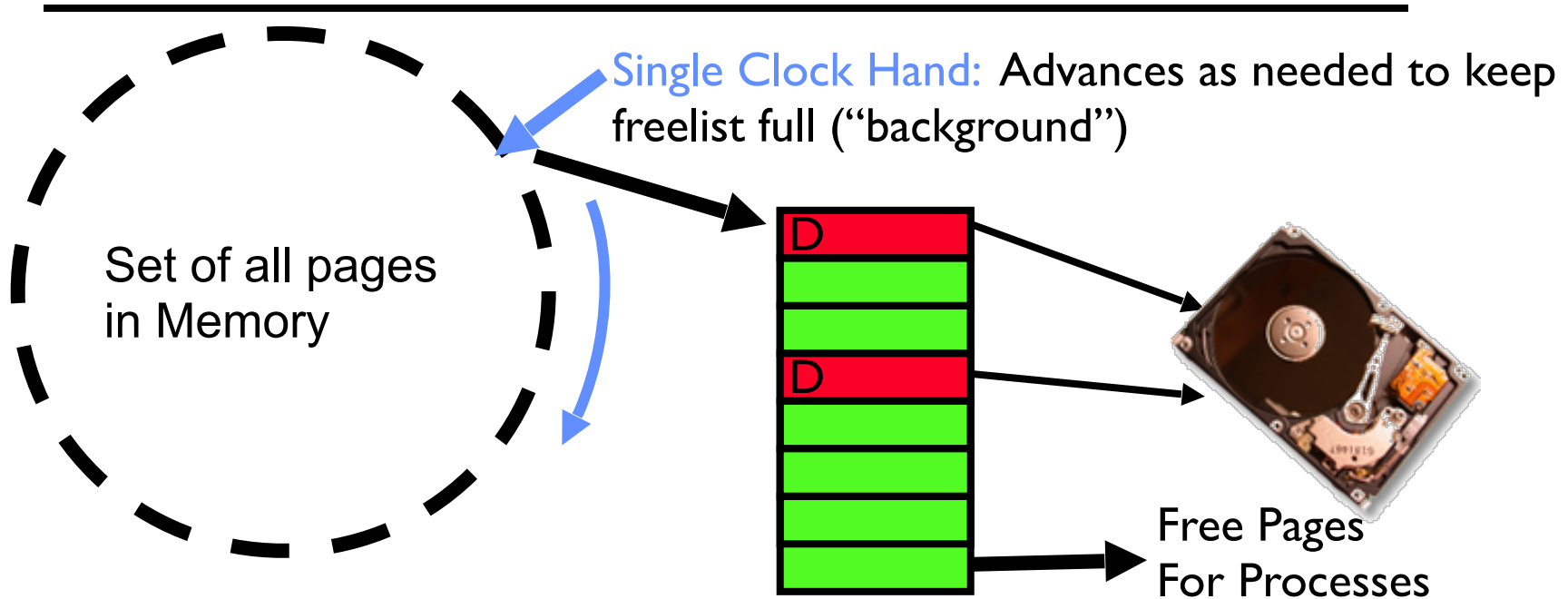


- Split memory in two: Active list (RW), SC list (Invalid)
- Access pages in Active list at full speed
- Otherwise, Page Fault
 - Always move overflow page from end of Active list to front of Second-chance list (SC) and mark invalid
 - Desired Page On SC List: move to front of Active list, mark RW
 - Not on SC list: page in to front of Active list, mark RW; page out LRU victim at end of SC list

Second-Chance List Algorithm (continued)

- How many pages for second chance list?
 - If 0 \Rightarrow FIFO
 - If all \Rightarrow LRU, but page fault on every page reference
- Pick intermediate value. Result is:
 - Pro: Few disk accesses (page only goes to disk if unused for a long time)
 - Con: Increased overhead trapping to OS (software / hardware tradeoff)
- Question: why didn't VAX include "use" bit?
 - Strecker (architect) asked OS people, they said they didn't need it, so didn't implement it
 - He later got blamed, but VAX did OK anyway

Free List



- Keep set of free pages ready for use in demand paging
 - Freelist filled in background by Clock algorithm or other technique (“Pageout demon”)
 - Dirty pages start copying back to disk when enter list
- Like VAX second-chance list
 - If page needed before reused, just return to active set
- Advantage: faster for page fault
 - Can always use page (or pages) immediately on fault

Reverse Page Mapping (Sometimes called “Coremap”)

- Physical page frames often shared by many different address spaces/page tables
 - All children forked from given process
 - Shared memory pages between processes
- Whatever reverse mapping mechanism that is in place must be very fast
 - Must hunt down all page tables pointing at given page frame when freeing a page
 - Must hunt down all PTEs when seeing if pages “active”
- Implementation options:
 - For every page descriptor, keep linked list of page table entries that point to it
 - » Management nightmare – expensive
 - Linux: Object-based reverse mapping
 - » Link together memory region descriptors instead (much coarser granularity)

Allocation of Page Frames (Memory Pages)

- How do we allocate memory among different processes?
 - Does every process get the same fraction of memory? Different fractions?
 - Should we completely swap some processes out of memory?
- Each process needs *minimum* number of pages
 - Want to make sure that all processes **that are loaded into memory** can make forward progress
 - Example: IBM 370 – 6 pages to handle SS MOVE instruction:
 - » instruction is 6 bytes, might span 2 pages
 - » 2 pages to handle *from*
 - » 2 pages to handle *to*
- Possible Replacement Scopes:
 - **Global replacement** – process selects replacement frame from set of all frames; one process can take a frame from another
 - **Local replacement** – each process selects from only its own set of allocated frames

Fixed/Priority Allocation

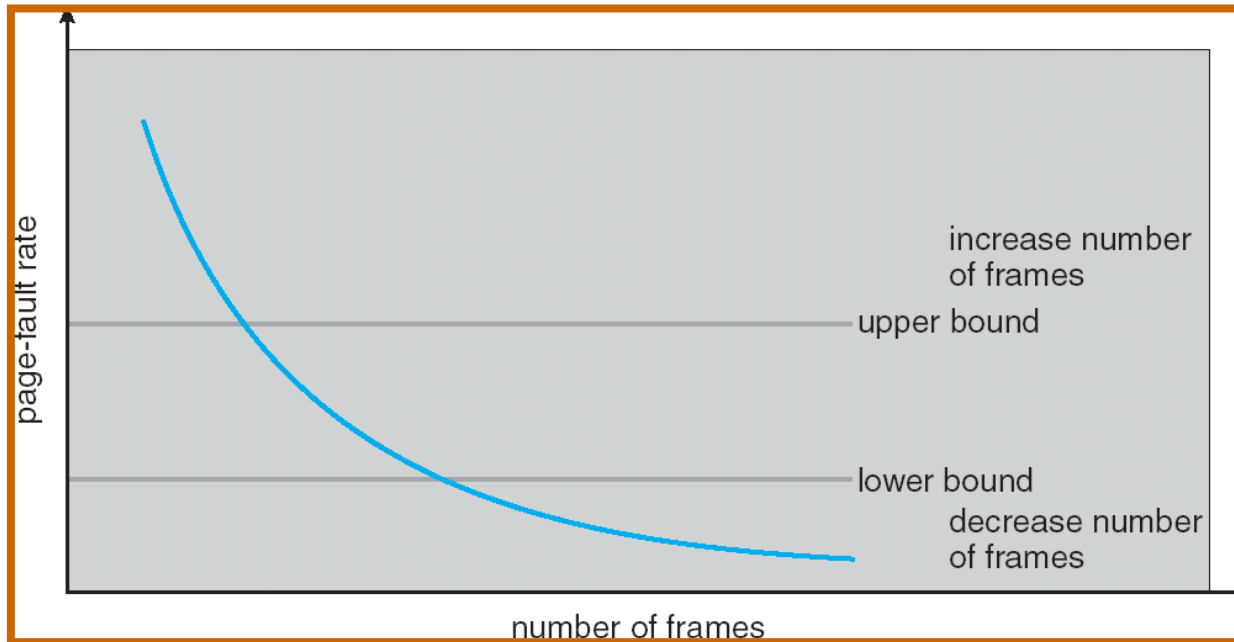
- **Equal allocation** (Fixed Scheme):
 - Every process gets same amount of memory
 - Example: 100 frames, 5 processes → process gets 20 frames
- **Proportional allocation** (Fixed Scheme)
 - Allocate according to the size of process
 - Computation proceeds as follows:
 - s_i = size of process p_i and $S = \sum s_i$
 - m = total number of physical frames in the system
 - a_i = (allocation for p_i) = $\frac{s_i}{S} \times m$
- **Priority Allocation:**
 - Proportional scheme using priorities rather than size
 - » Same type of computation as previous scheme
 - Possible behavior: If process p_i generates a page fault, select for replacement a frame from a process with lower priority number
- Perhaps we should use an adaptive scheme instead???
 - What if some application just needs more memory?

Administrivia

- Midterm :)

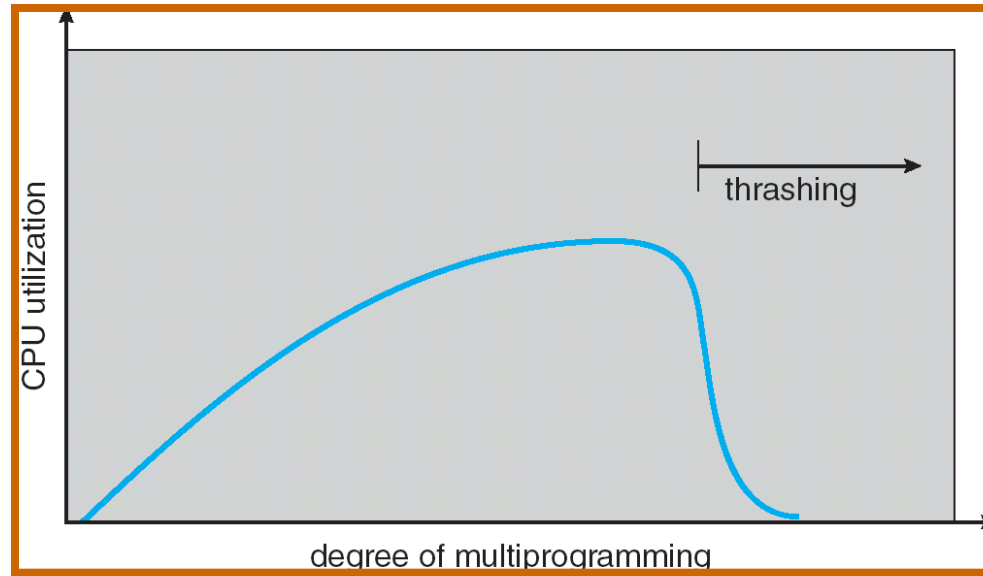
Page-Fault Frequency Allocation

- Can we reduce Capacity misses by dynamically changing the number of pages/application?



- Establish “acceptable” page-fault rate
 - If actual rate too low, process loses frame
 - If actual rate too high, process gains frame
- Question: What if we just don't have enough memory?

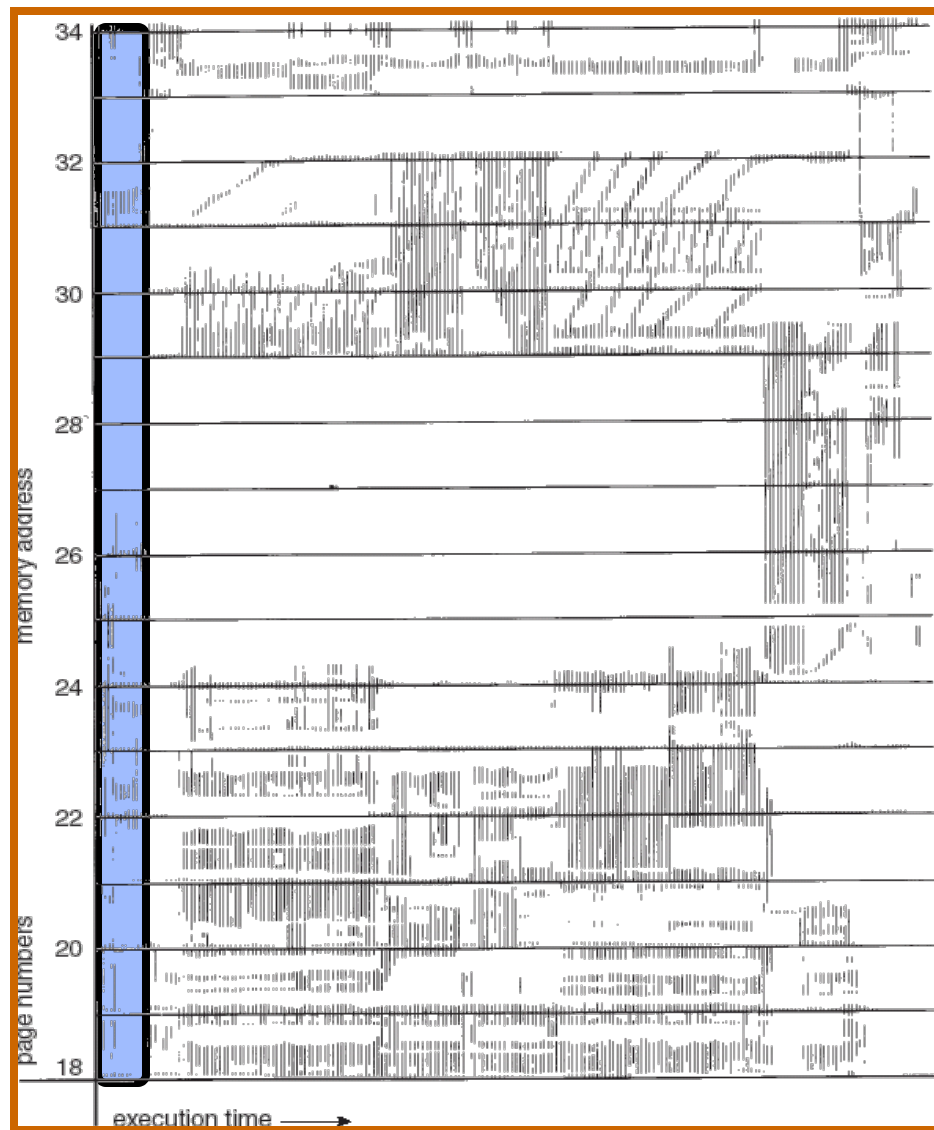
Thrashing



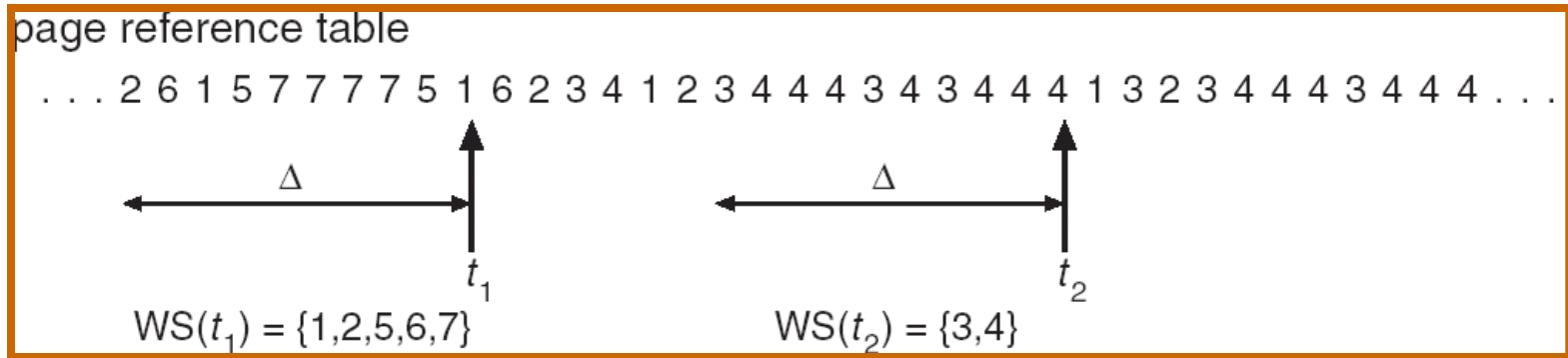
- If a process does not have “enough” pages, the page-fault rate is very high. This leads to:
 - low CPU utilization
 - operating system spends most of its time swapping to disk
- **Thrashing** \equiv a process is busy swapping pages in and out with little or no actual progress
- Questions:
 - How do we detect Thrashing?
 - What is best response to Thrashing?

Locality In A Memory-Reference Pattern

- Program Memory Access Patterns have temporal and spatial locality
 - Group of Pages accessed along a given time slice called the “Working Set”
 - Working Set defines minimum number of pages needed for process to behave well
- Not enough memory for Working Set \Rightarrow Thrashing
 - Better to swap out process?



Working-Set Model



- $\Delta \equiv$ working-set window \equiv fixed number of page references
 - Example: 10,000 instructions
- WS_i (working set of Process P_i) = total set of pages referenced in the most recent Δ (varies in time)
 - if Δ too small will not encompass entire locality
 - if Δ too large will encompass several localities
 - if $\Delta = \infty \Rightarrow$ will encompass entire program
- $D = \sum |WS_i| \equiv$ total demand frames
- if $D > m \Rightarrow$ Thrashing
 - Policy: if $D > m$, then suspend/swap out processes
 - This can improve overall system behavior by a lot!

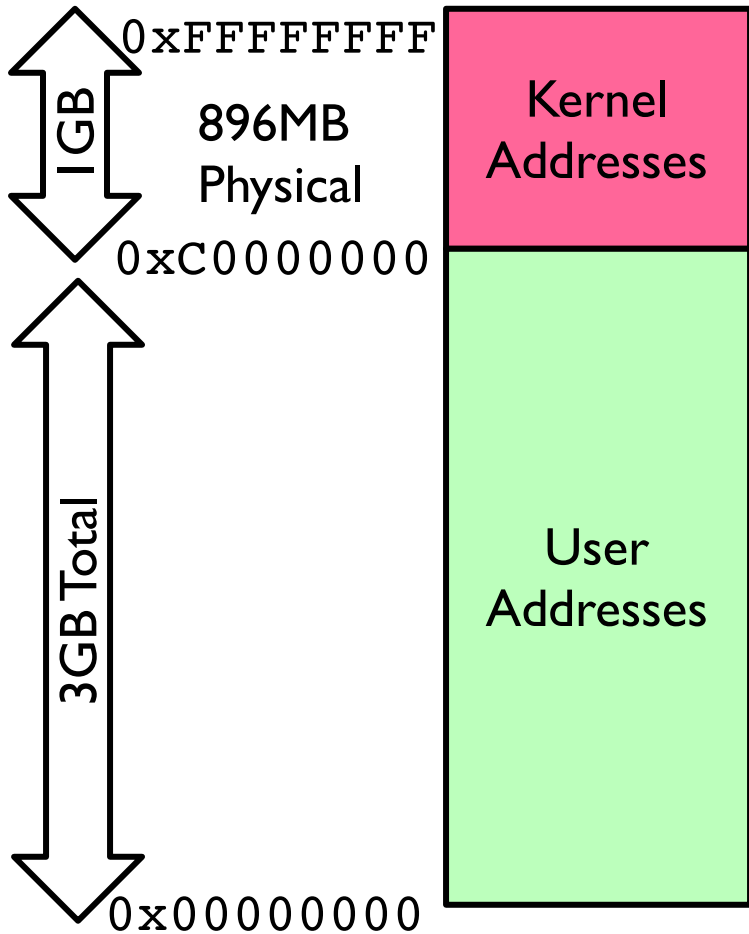
What about Compulsory Misses?

- Recall that compulsory misses are misses that occur the first time that a page is seen
 - Pages that are touched for the first time
 - Pages that are touched after process is swapped out/swapped back in
- Clustering:
 - On a page-fault, bring in multiple pages “around” the faulting page
 - Since efficiency of disk reads increases with sequential reads, makes sense to read several sequential pages
- Working Set Tracking:
 - Use algorithm to try to track working set of application
 - When swapping process back in, swap in working set

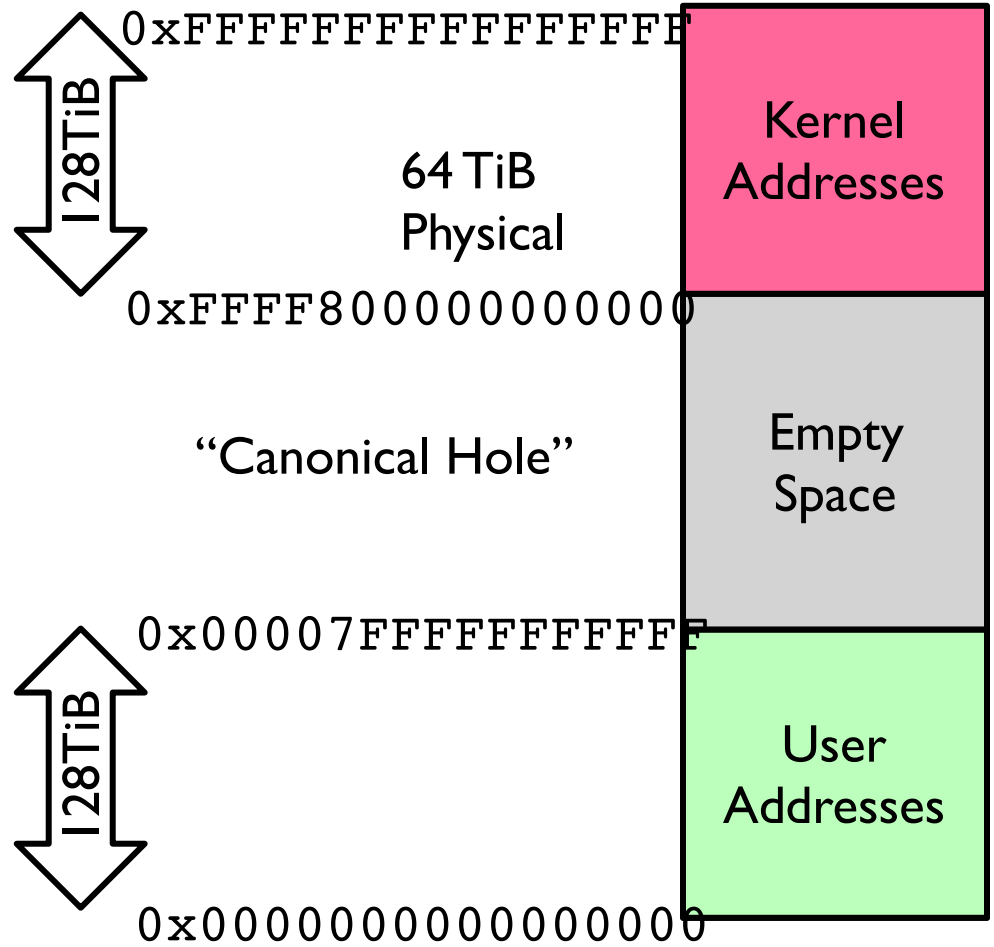
Linux Memory Details?

- Memory management in Linux considerably more complex than the examples we have been discussing
- Memory Zones: physical memory categories
 - ZONE_DMA: < 16MB memory, DMAable on ISA bus
 - ZONE_NORMAL: 16MB → 896MB (mapped at 0xC0000000)
 - ZONE_HIGHMEM: Everything else (> 896MB)
- Each zone has 1 freelist, 2 LRU lists (Active/Inactive)
- Many different types of allocation
 - SLAB allocators, per-page allocators, mapped/unmapped
- Many different types of allocated memory:
 - Anonymous memory (not backed by a file, heap/stack)
 - Mapped memory (backed by a file)

Linux Virtual memory map (Pre-Meltdown)



32-Bit Virtual Address Space



64-Bit Virtual Address Space

Pre-Meltdown Virtual Map (Details)

- Kernel memory not generally visible to user
 - Exception: special VDSO (virtual dynamically linked shared objects) facility that maps kernel code into user space to aid in system calls (and to provide certain actual system calls such as `gettimeofday()`)
- Every physical page described by a “page” structure
 - Collected together in lower physical memory
 - Can be accessed in kernel virtual space
 - Linked together in various “LRU” lists
- For 32-bit virtual memory architectures:
 - When physical memory < 896MB
 - » All physical memory mapped at `0xC0000000`
 - When physical memory \geq 896MB
 - » Not all physical memory mapped in kernel space all the time
 - » Can be temporarily mapped with addresses $>$ `0xCC000000`
- For 64-bit virtual memory architectures:
 - All physical memory mapped **above** `0xFFFF800000000000`

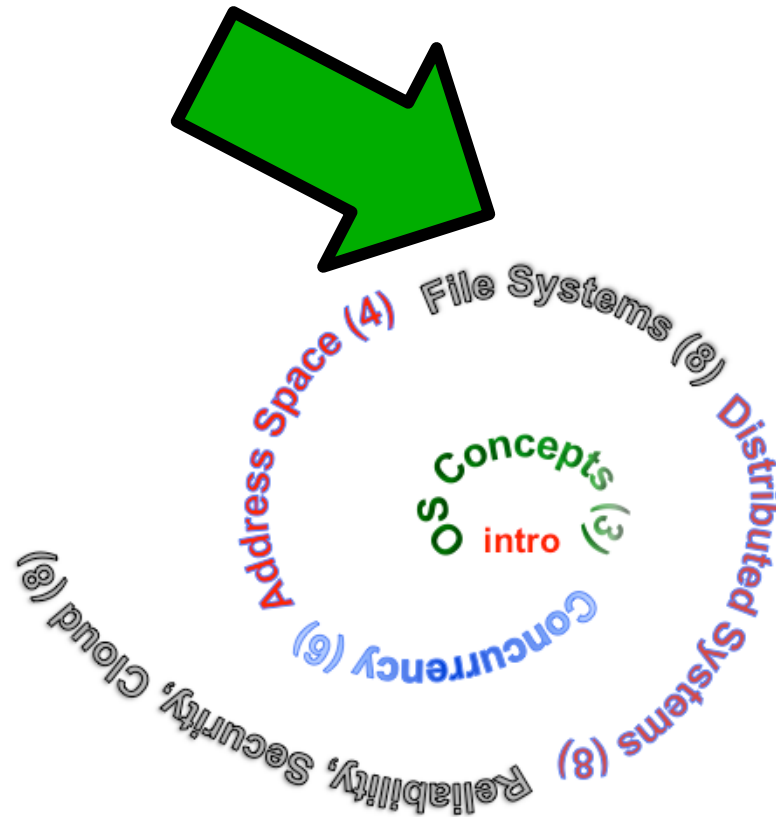
Post Meltdown Memory Map

- Meltdown flaw (2018, Intel x86, IBM Power, ARM)
- **Patch:** Need different page tables for user and kernel
 - Without PCID tag in TLB, flush TLB *twice* on syscall (800% overhead!)
 - Need at least Linux v 4.14 which utilizes PCID tag in new hardware to avoid flushing when change address space
- **Fix:** better hardware without timing side-channels
 - Will be coming, but still in works

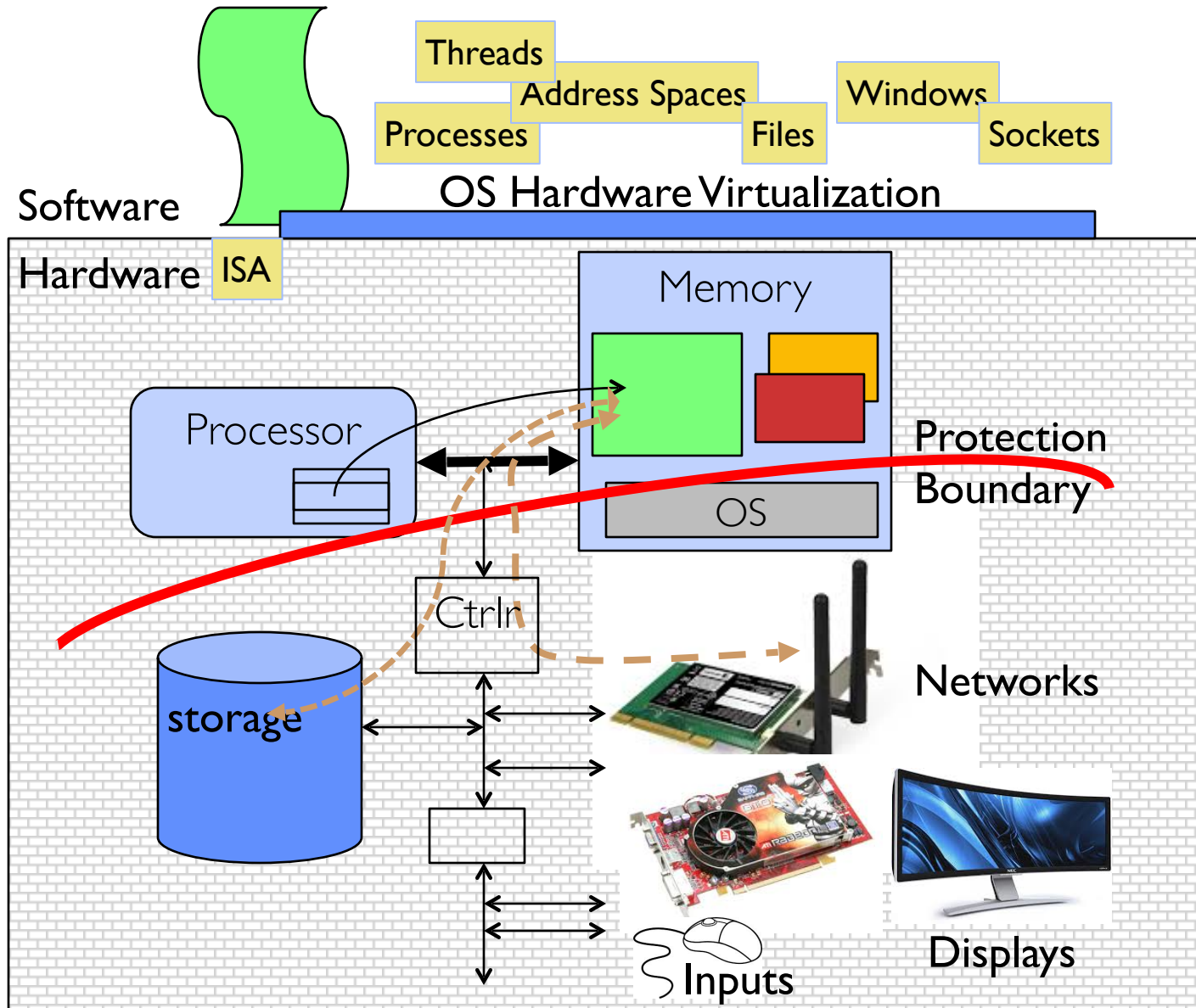
The Requirements of I/O

- So far in this course:
 - We have learned how to manage CPU and memory
- What about I/O?
 - Without I/O, computers are useless (disembodied brains?)
 - But... thousands of devices, each slightly different
 - » How can we standardize the interfaces to these devices?
 - Devices unreliable: media failures and transmission errors
 - » How can we make them reliable???
 - Devices unpredictable and/or slow
 - » How can we manage them if we don't know what they will do or how they will perform?

Next Objective



OS Basics: I/O



Recall: I/O is at very different timescale

And Range of Timescales

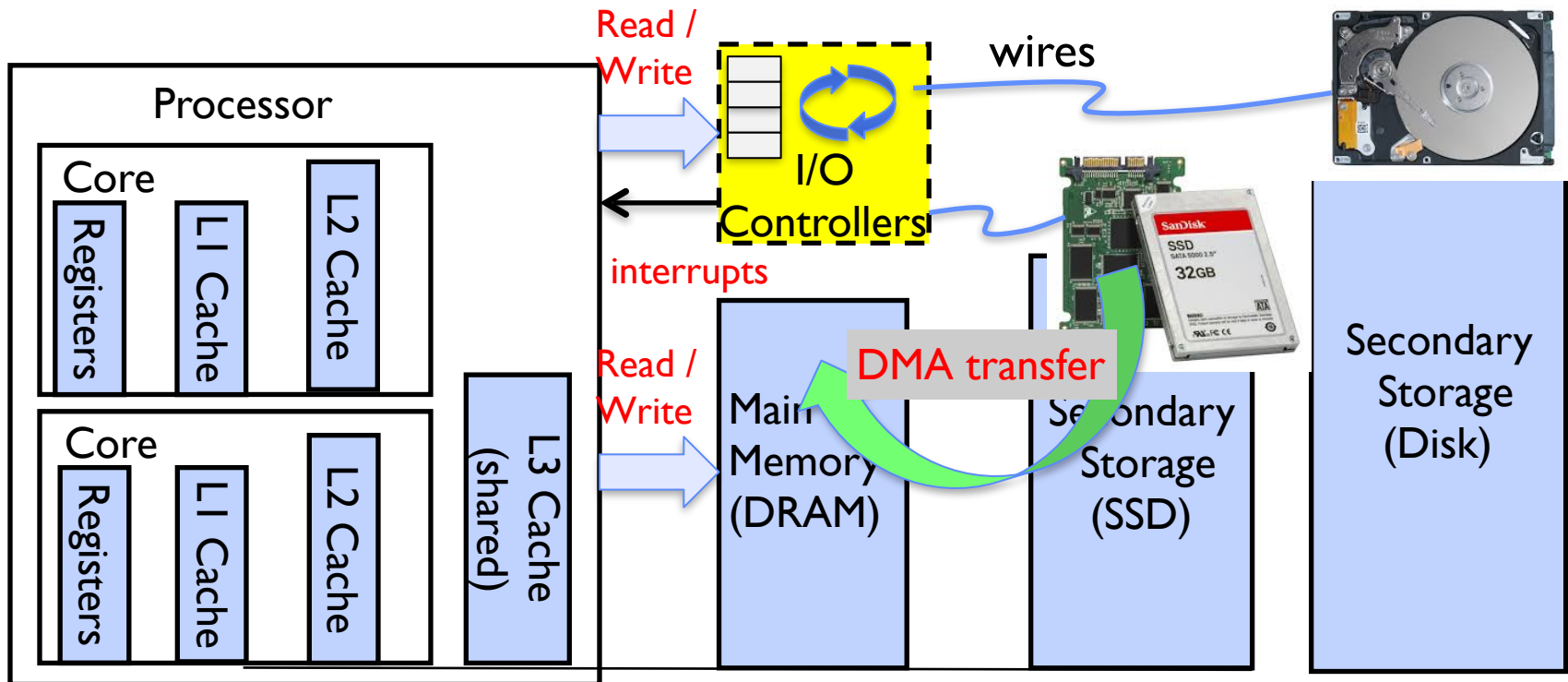


Jeff Dean: "Numbers Everyone Should Know"

L1 cache reference	0.5 ns
Branch mispredict	5 ns
L2 cache reference	7 ns
Mutex lock/unlock	25 ns
Main memory reference	100 ns
Compress 1K bytes with Zippy	3,000 ns
Send 2K bytes over 1 Gbps network	20,000 ns
Read 1 MB sequentially from memory	250,000 ns
Round trip within same datacenter	500,000 ns
Disk seek	10,000,000 ns
Read 1 MB sequentially from disk	20,000,000 ns
Send packet CA->Netherlands->CA	150,000,000 ns

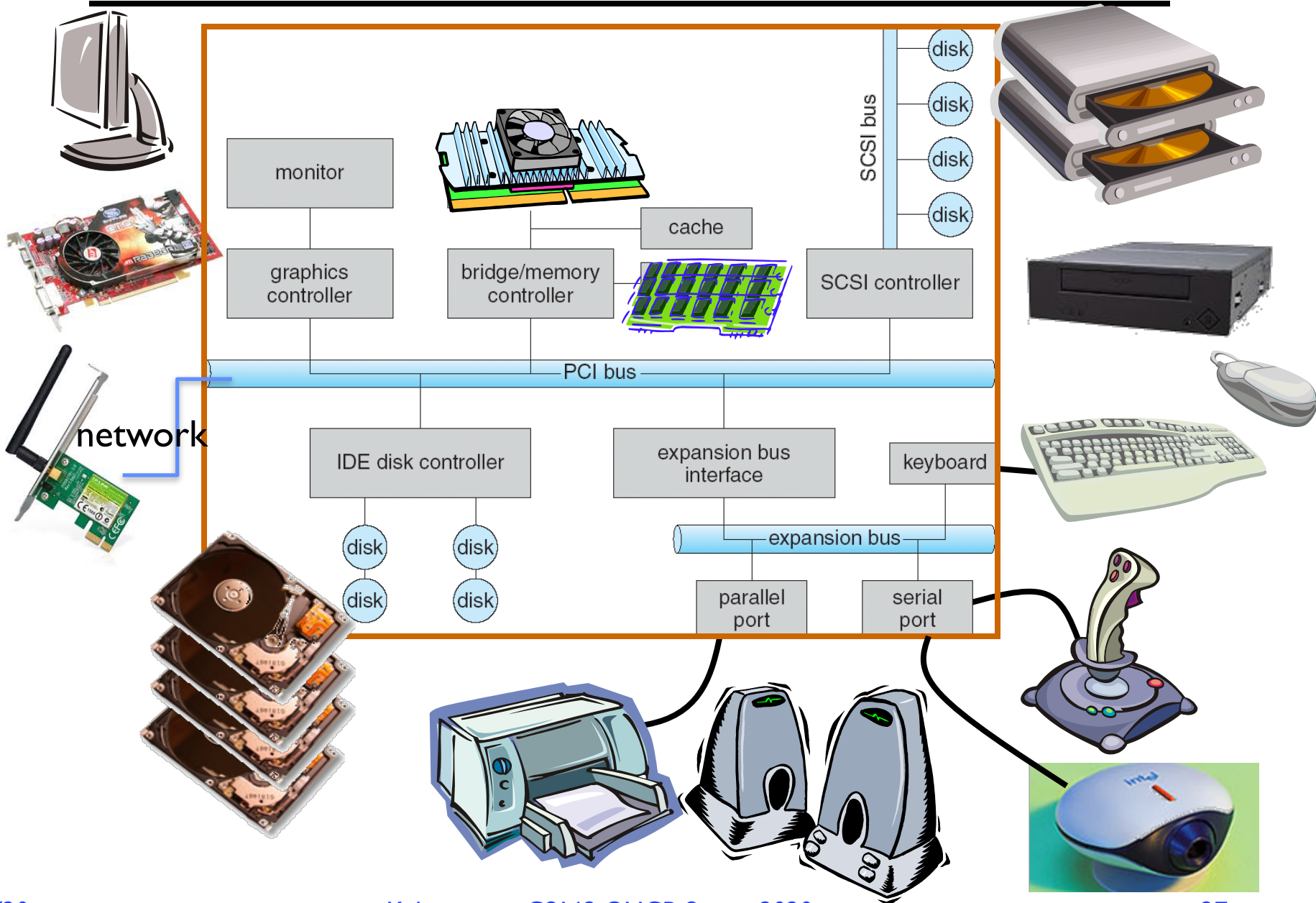
← Key Stroke / Click
100 ms

In a Picture

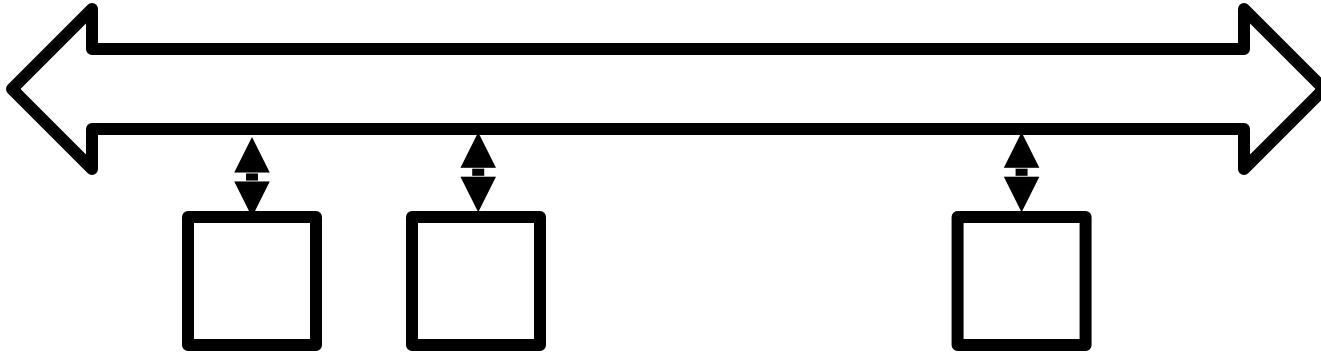


- I/O devices you recognize are supported by I/O Controllers
- Processors access them by reading and writing I/O registers as if they were memory
 - Write commands and arguments, read status and results

Modern I/O Systems

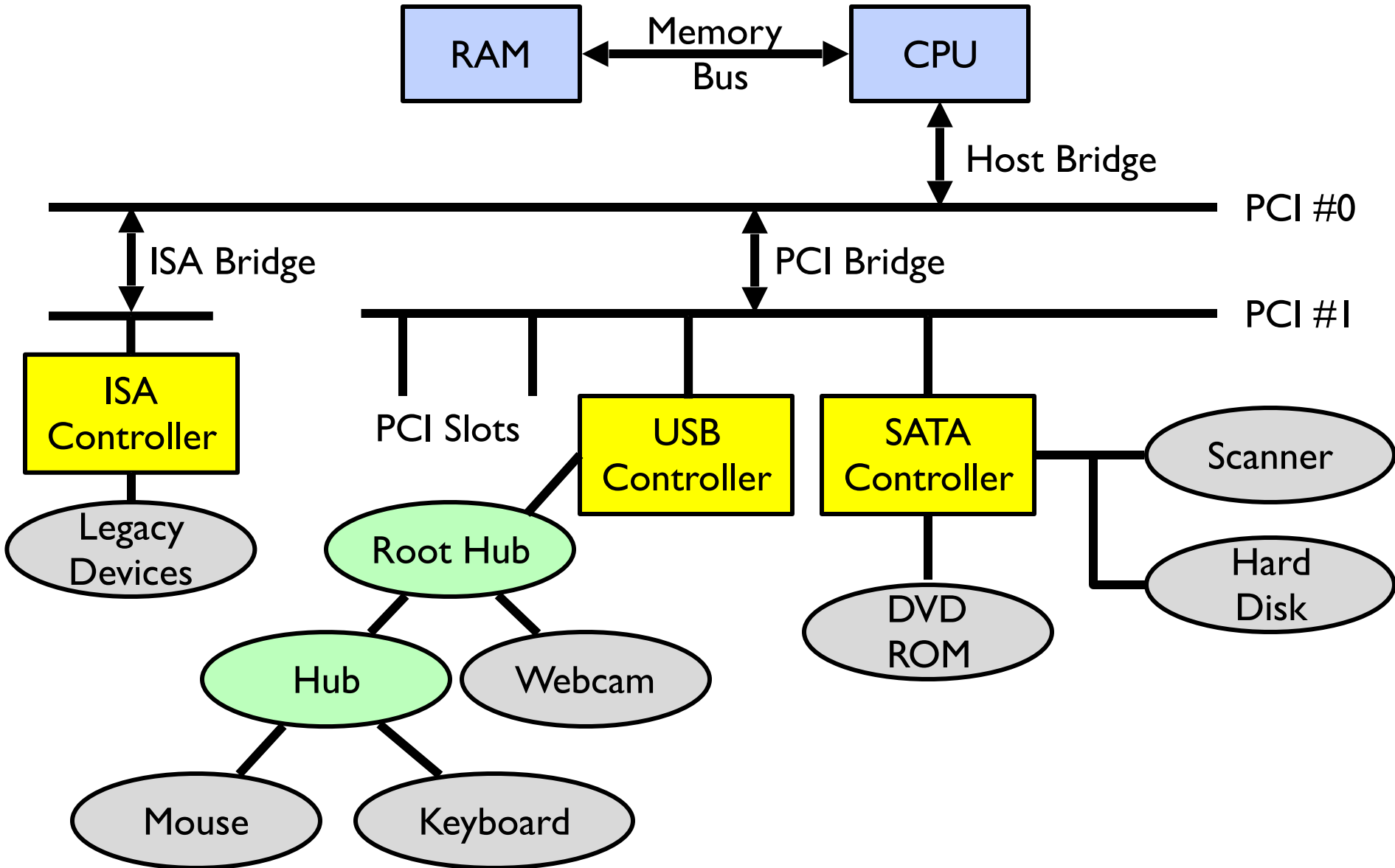


What's a bus?

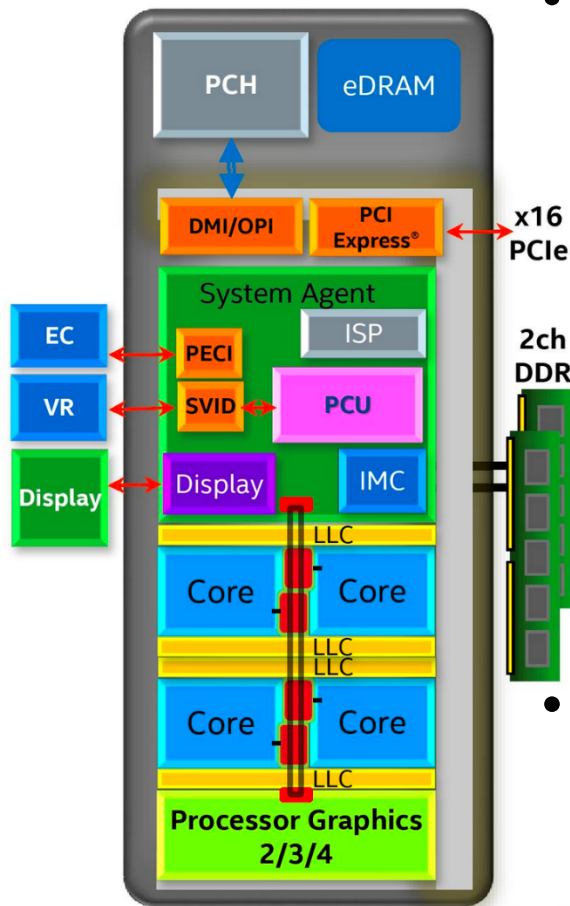


- Common set of wires for communication among hardware devices plus protocols for carrying out data transfer transactions
 - Operations: e.g., Read, Write
 - Control lines, Address lines, Data lines
 - Typically multiple devices
- Protocol: initiator requests access, arbitration to grant, identification of recipient, handshake to convey address, length, data
- Very high BW close to processor (wide, fast, and inflexible), low BW with high flexibility out in I/O subsystem

Example: PCI Architecture

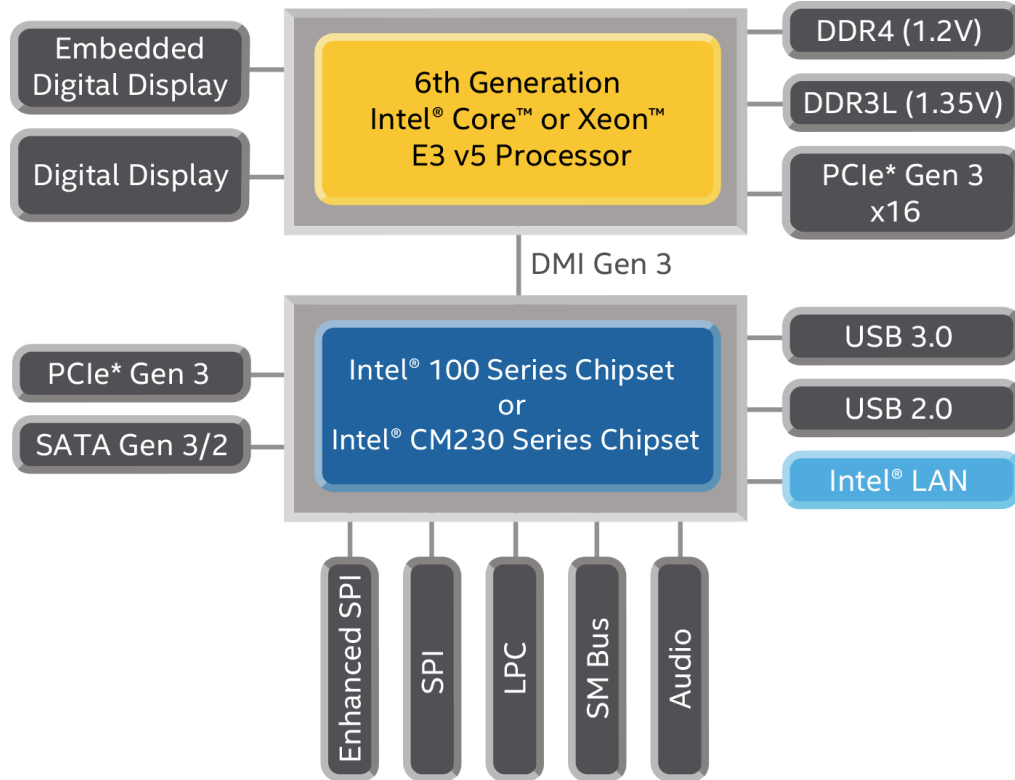


Chip-scale Features of 2015 x86 (Sky Lake)



- Significant pieces:
 - Four OOO cores with deeper buffers
 - » Intel MPX (Memory Protection Extensions)
 - » Intel SGX (Software Guard Extensions)
 - » Issue up to 6 μ -ops/cycle
 - GPU, System Agent (Mem, Fast I/O)
 - Large shared L3 cache with on-chip ring bus
 - » 2 MB/core instead of 1.5 MB/core
 - » High-BW access to L3 Cache
- Integrated I/O
 - Integrated memory controller (IMC)
 - » Two independent channels of DRAM
 - High-speed PCI-Express (for Graphics cards)
 - Direct Media Interface (DMI) Connection to PCH (Platform Control Hub)

Sky Lake I/O: PCH



- **Platform Controller Hub**

- Connected to processor with proprietary bus
 - » Direct Media Interface

- **Types of I/O on PCH:**

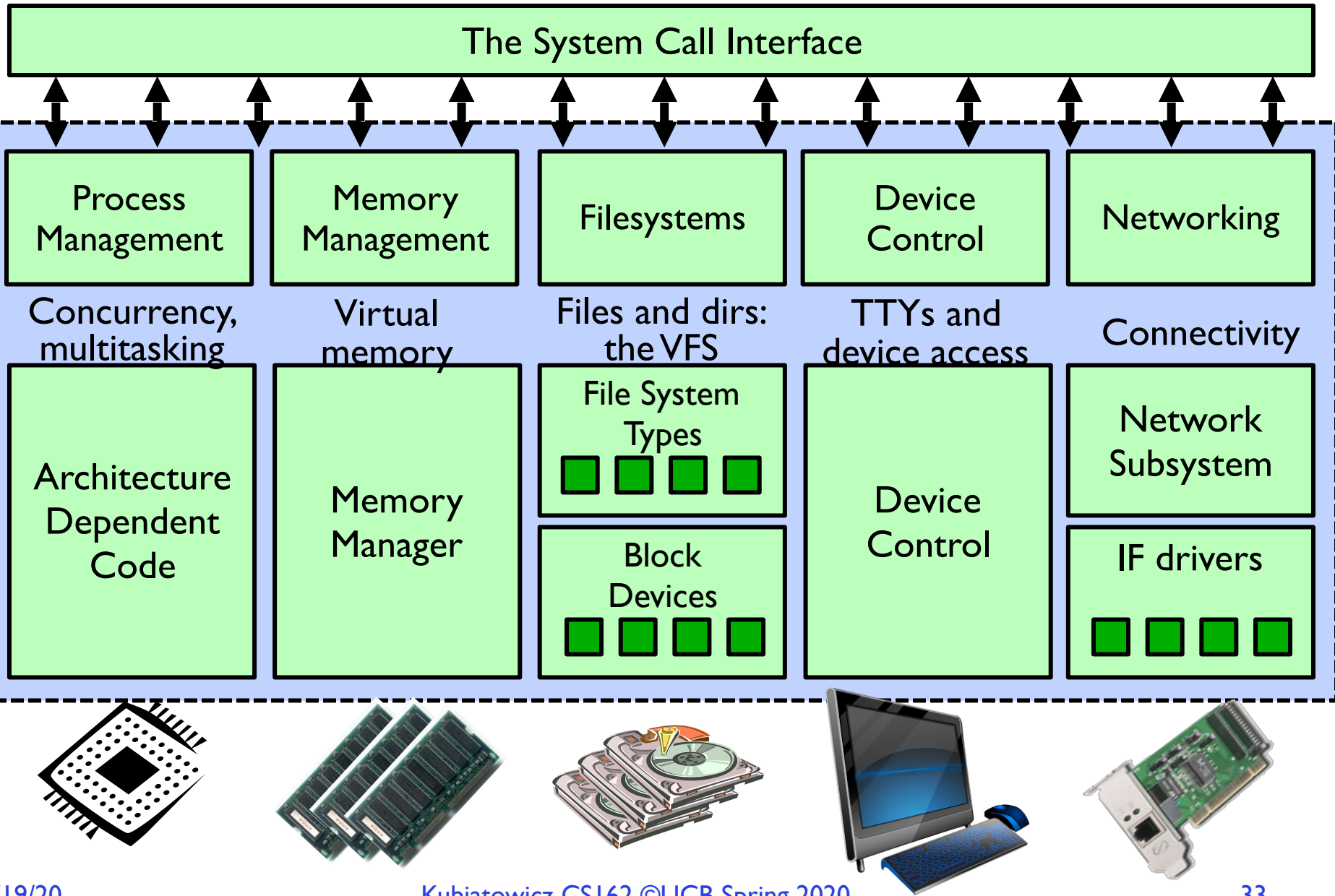
- USB, Ethernet
- Thunderbolt 3
- Audio, BIOS support
- More PCI Express (lower speed than on Processor)
- SATA (for Disks)

Sky Lake System Configuration

Operational Parameters for I/O

- Data granularity: Byte vs. Block
 - Some devices provide single byte at a time (e.g., keyboard)
 - Others provide whole blocks (e.g., disks, networks, etc.)
- Access pattern: Sequential vs. Random
 - Some devices must be accessed sequentially (e.g., tape)
 - Others can be accessed “randomly” (e.g., disk, cd, etc.)
 - » Fixed overhead to start transfers
 - Some devices require continual monitoring
 - Others generate interrupts when they need service
- Transfer Mechanism: Programmed IO and DMA

Kernel Device Structure



The Goal of the I/O Subsystem

- Provide Uniform Interfaces, Despite Wide Range of Different Devices

- This code works on many different devices:

```
FILE fd = fopen("/dev/something",  
"rw");  
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {  
    fprintf(fd, "Count %d\n", i);  
}  
close(fd);
```

- Why? Because code that controls devices (“device driver”) implements standard interface
- We will try to get a flavor for what is involved in actually controlling devices in rest of lecture
 - Can only scratch surface!

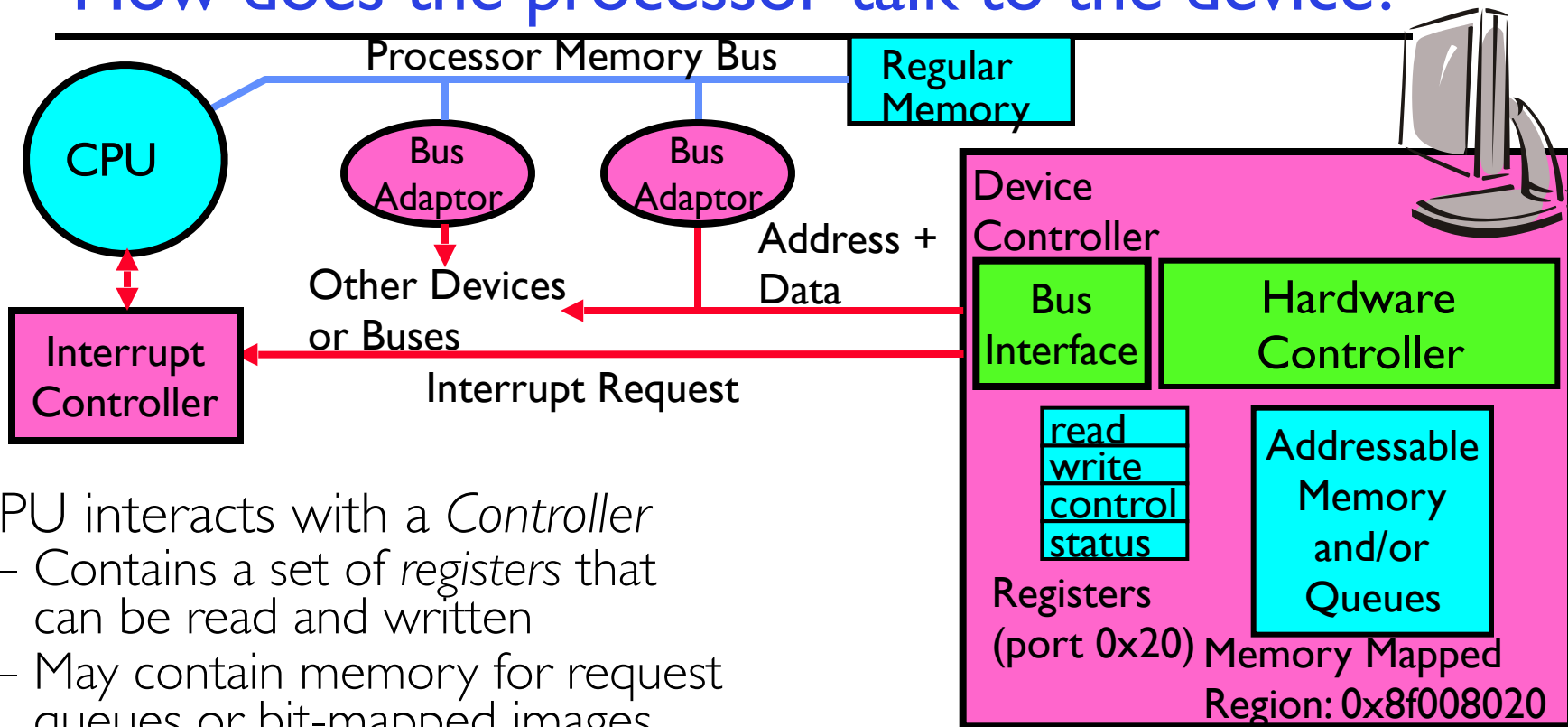
Want Standard Interfaces to Devices

- **Block Devices:** e.g. disk drives, tape drives, DVD-ROM
 - Access blocks of data
 - Commands include `open()`, `read()`, `write()`, `seek()`
 - Raw I/O or file-system access
 - Memory-mapped file access possible
- **Character Devices:** e.g. keyboards, mice, serial ports, some USB devices
 - Single characters at a time
 - Commands include `get()`, `put()`
 - Libraries layered on top allow line editing
- **Network Devices:** e.g. Ethernet, Wireless, Bluetooth
 - Different enough from block/character to have own interface
 - Unix and Windows include `socket` interface
 - » Separates network protocol from network operation
 - Usage: pipes, FIFOs, streams, queues, mailboxes

How Does User Deal with Timing?

- **Blocking Interface:** “Wait”
 - When request data (e.g. `read()` system call), put process to sleep until data is ready
 - When write data (e.g. `write()` system call), put process to sleep until device is ready for data
- **Non-blocking Interface:** “Don’t Wait”
 - Returns quickly from read or write request with count of bytes successfully transferred
 - Read may return nothing, write may write nothing
- **Asynchronous Interface:** “Tell Me Later”
 - When request data, take pointer to user’s buffer, return immediately; later kernel fills buffer and notifies user
 - When send data, take pointer to user’s buffer, return immediately; later kernel takes data and notifies user

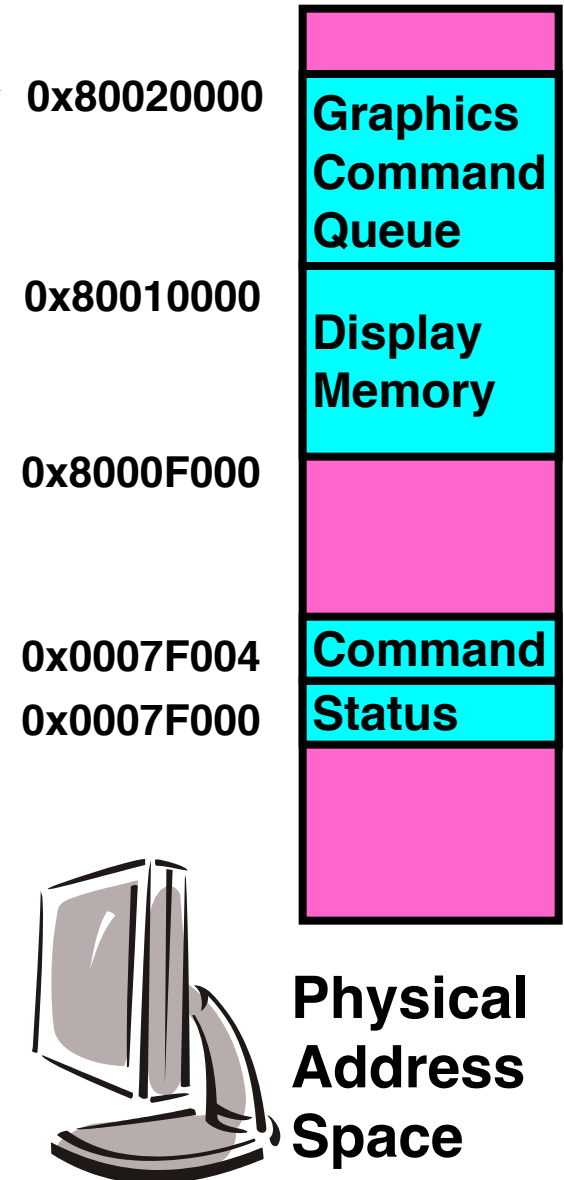
How does the processor talk to the device?



- CPU interacts with a *Controller*
 - Contains a set of *registers* that can be read and written
 - May contain memory for request queues or bit-mapped images
- Regardless of the complexity of the connections and buses, processor accesses registers in two ways:
 - **I/O instructions**: in/out instructions
 - » Example from the Intel architecture: `out 0x21, AL`
 - **Memory mapped I/O**: load/store instructions
 - » Registers/memory appear in physical address space
 - » I/O accomplished with load and store instructions

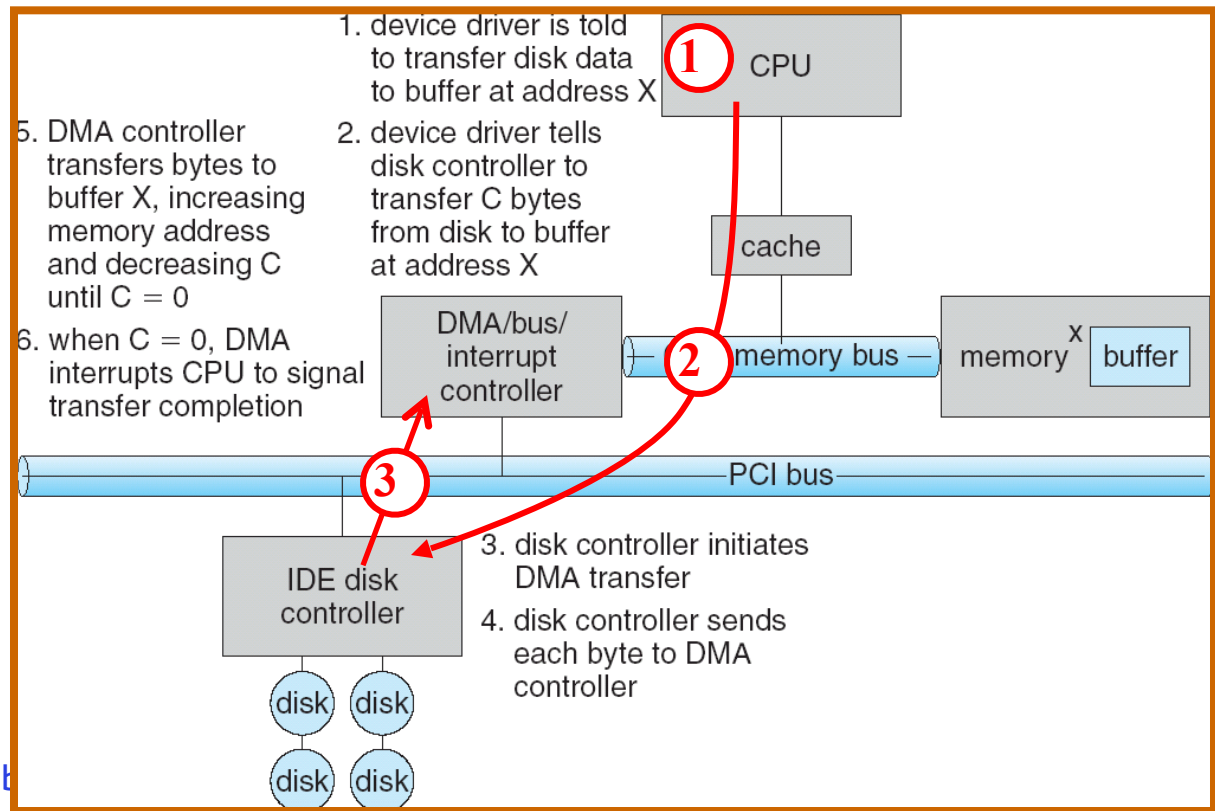
Example: Memory-Mapped Display Controller

- Memory-Mapped:
 - Hardware maps control registers and display memory into physical address space
 - » Addresses set by HW jumpers or at boot time
 - Simply writing to display memory (also called the “frame buffer”) changes image on screen
 - » Addr: 0x8000F000 — 0x8000FFFF
 - Writing graphics description to cmd queue
 - » Say enter a set of triangles describing some scene
 - » Addr: 0x80010000 — 0x8001FFFF
 - Writing to the command register may cause on-board graphics hardware to do something
 - » Say render the above scene
 - » Addr: 0x0007F004
- Can protect with address translation



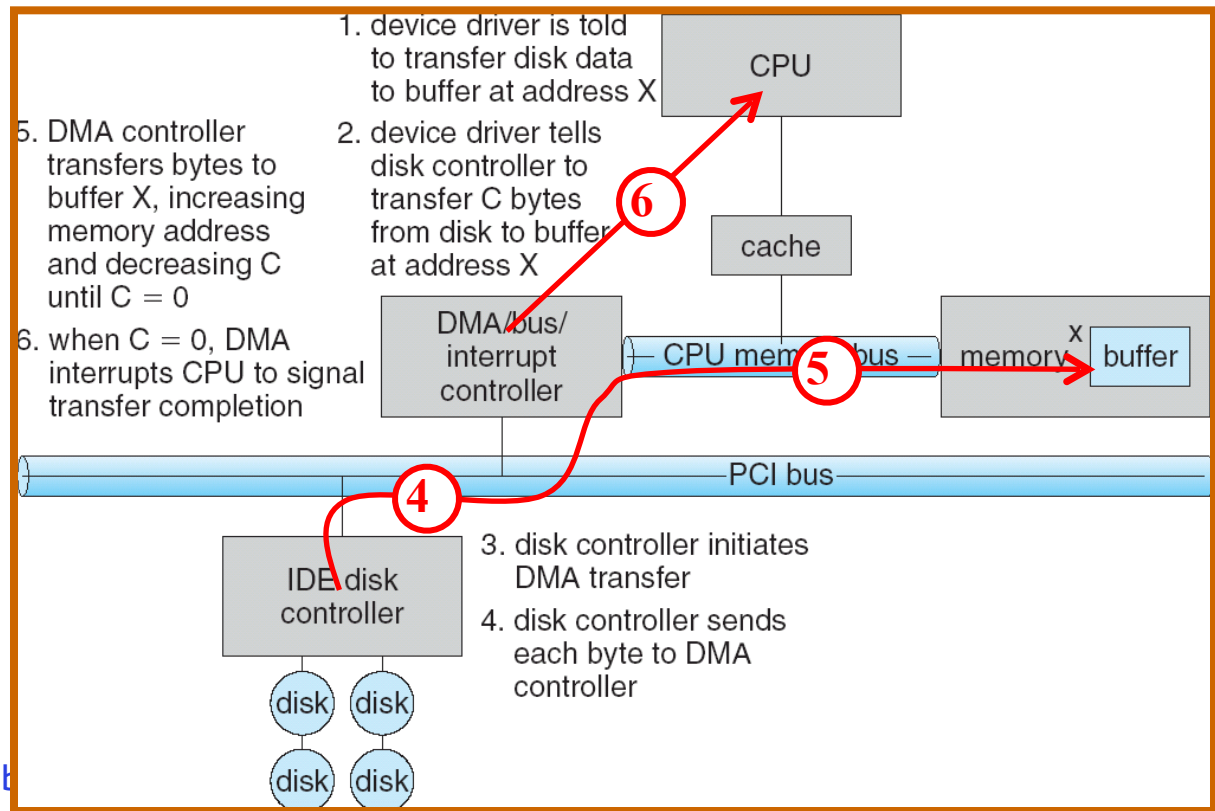
Transferring Data To/From Controller

- **Programmed I/O:**
 - Each byte transferred via processor in/out or load/store
 - Pro: Simple hardware, easy to program
 - Con: Consumes processor cycles proportional to data size
- **Direct Memory Access:**
 - Give controller access to memory bus
 - Ask it to transfer data blocks to/from memory directly
- Sample interaction with DMA controller (from OSC book):



Transferring Data To/From Controller

- **Programmed I/O:**
 - Each byte transferred via processor in/out or load/store
 - Pro: Simple hardware, easy to program
 - Con: Consumes processor cycles proportional to data size
- **Direct Memory Access:**
 - Give controller access to memory bus
 - Ask it to transfer data blocks to/from memory directly
- Sample interaction with DMA controller (from OSC book):



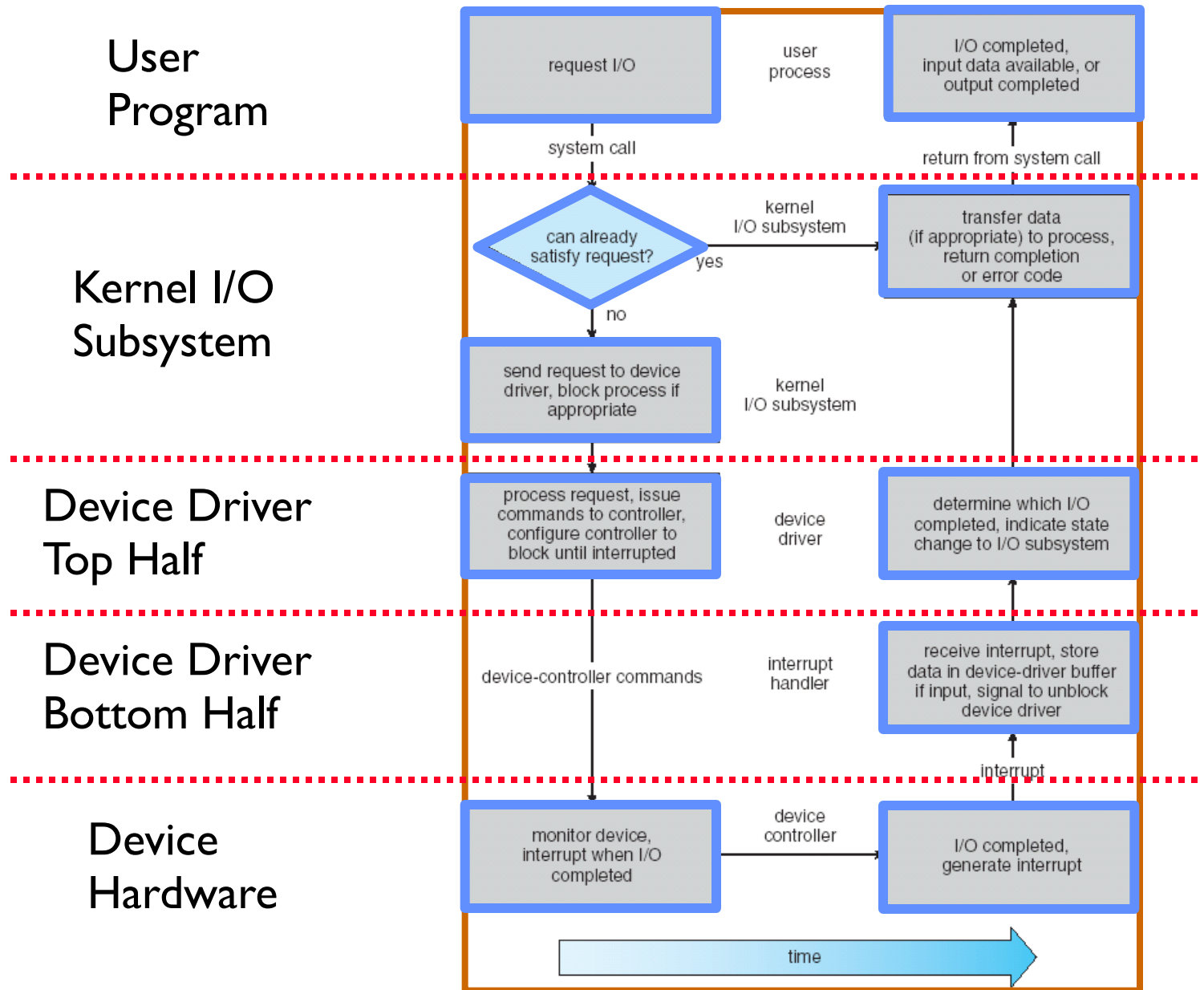
I/O Device Notifying the OS

- The OS needs to know when:
 - The I/O device has completed an operation
 - The I/O operation has encountered an error
- **I/O Interrupt:**
 - Device generates an interrupt whenever it needs service
 - Pro: handles unpredictable events well
 - Con: interrupts relatively high overhead
- **Polling:**
 - OS periodically checks a device-specific status register
 - » I/O device puts completion information in status register
 - Pro: low overhead
 - Con: may waste many cycles on polling if infrequent or unpredictable I/O operations
- Actual devices combine both polling and interrupts
 - For instance – High-bandwidth network adapter:
 - » Interrupt for first incoming packet
 - » Poll for following packets until hardware queues are empty

Device Drivers

- **Device Driver:** Device-specific code in the kernel that interacts directly with the device hardware
 - Supports a standard, internal interface
 - Same kernel I/O system can interact easily with different device drivers
 - Special device-specific configuration supported with the `ioctl()` system call
- Device Drivers typically divided into two pieces:
 - Top half: accessed in call path from system calls
 - » implements a set of **standard, cross-device calls** like `open()`, `close()`, `read()`, `write()`, `ioctl()`, `strategy()`
 - » This is the kernel's interface to the device driver
 - » Top half will *start* I/O to device, may put thread to sleep until finished
 - Bottom half: run as interrupt routine
 - » Gets input or transfers next block of output
 - » May wake sleeping threads if I/O now complete

Life Cycle of An I/O Request

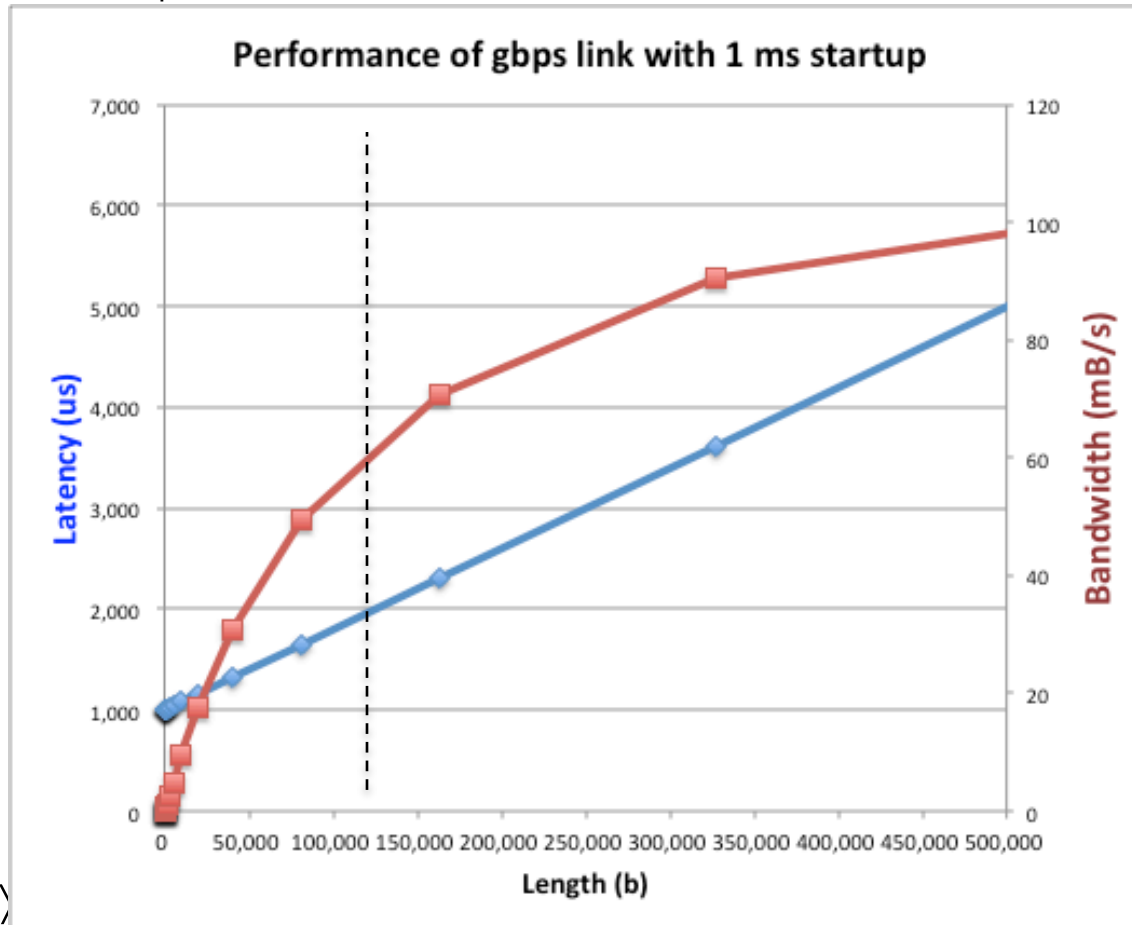


Basic Performance Concepts

- *Response Time or Latency*: Time to perform an operation(s)
- *Bandwidth or Throughput*: Rate at which operations are performed (op/s)
 - Files: MB/s, Networks: Mb/s, Arithmetic: GFLOP/s
- *Start up or “Overhead”*: time to initiate an operation
- Most I/O operations are roughly linear in b bytes
 - $\text{Latency}(b) = \text{Overhead} + b/\text{TransferCapacity}$

Example (Fast Network)

- Consider a 1 Gb/s link ($B = 125 \text{ MB/s}$)
 - With a startup cost $S = 1 \text{ ms}$

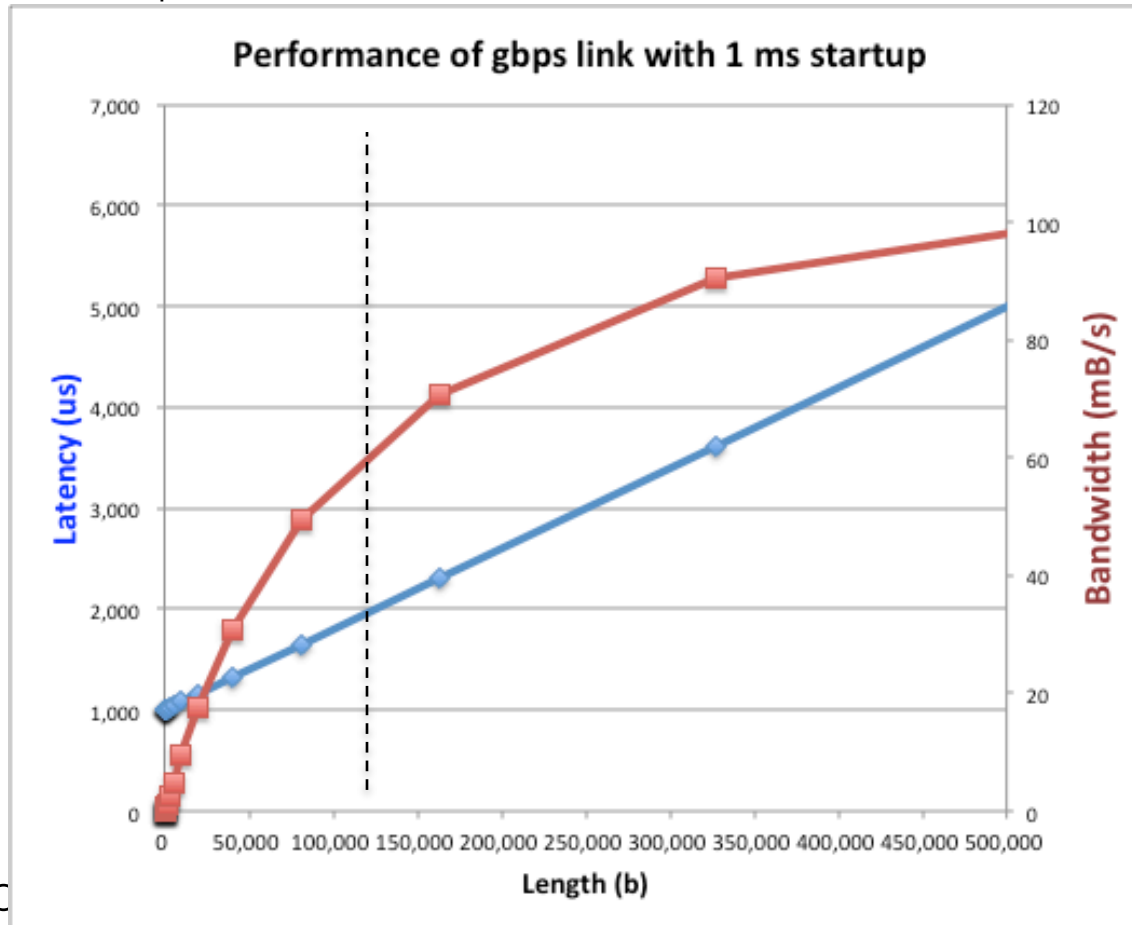


– Latency

– Bandwidth = $b/(S + b/B) = B*b/(B*S + b) = B/(B*S/b + 1)$

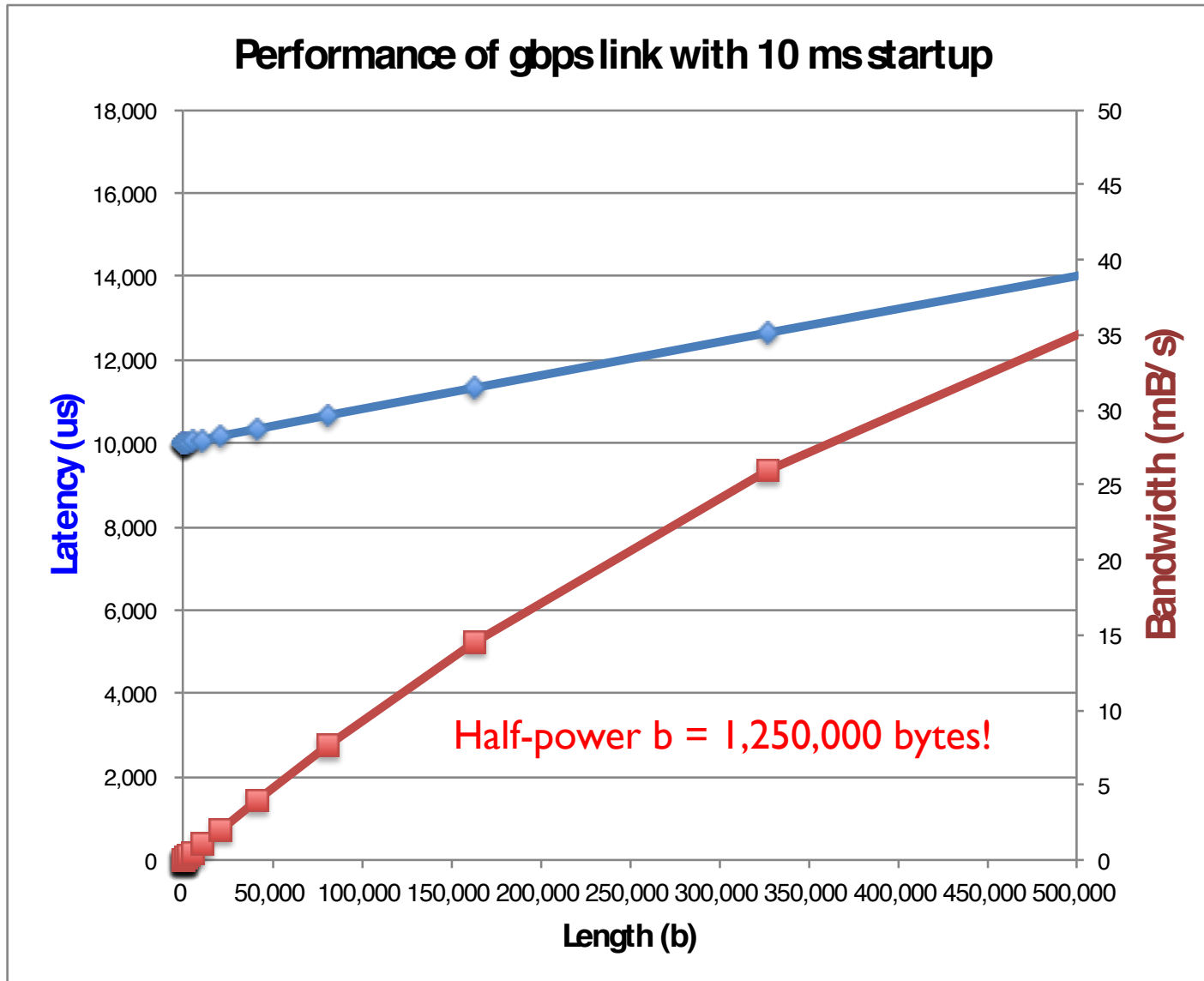
Example (Fast Network)

- Consider a 1 Gb/s link ($B = 125 \text{ MB/s}$)
 - With a startup cost $S = 1 \text{ ms}$



- Half-power point occurs at $b = S \cdot B = 125,000$ bytes

Example: at 10 ms startup (like Disk)



What Determines Peak BW for I/O ?

- Bus Speed
 - PCI-X: 1064 MB/s = 133 MHz × 64 bit (per lane)
 - ULTRA WIDE SCSI: 40 MB/s
 - Serial Attached SCSI & Serial ATA & IEEE 1394 (firewire): 1.6 Gb/s full duplex (200 MB/s)
 - USB 3.0 – 5 Gb/s
 - Thunderbolt 3 – 40 Gb/s
- Device Transfer Bandwidth
 - Rotational speed of disk
 - Write / Read rate of NAND flash
 - Signaling rate of network link
- Whatever is the bottleneck in the path...

Summary

- I/O Devices Types:
 - Many different speeds (0.1 bytes/sec to GBytes/sec)
 - Different Access Patterns:
 - » Block Devices, Character Devices, Network Devices
 - Different Access Timing:
 - » Blocking, Non-blocking, Asynchronous
- I/O Controllers: Hardware that controls actual device
 - Processor Accesses through I/O instructions, load/store to special physical memory
- Notification mechanisms
 - Interrupts
 - Polling: Report results through status register that processor looks at periodically
- Device drivers interface to I/O devices
 - Provide clean Read/Write interface to OS above
 - Manipulate devices through PIO, DMA & interrupt handling
 - Three types: block, character, and network