Operating Systems & Virtual Memory
Administrivia

- Check-Ins Round 2 are starting soon
  - Make sure to sign up, same format as last time
- Midterm grades are released
  - Regrade requests due by Friday at 12PM Pacific Time
  - We plan to process all regrades by 4/12
- Project 3B: Be mindful of collaboration policy
  - We do have ways to catch duplicates
  - Ok to share ideas, but not exact implementations
- Project 4 released: Try to complete tasks 1-3 by 4/9
- Labs 9 and 10 have new due dates
CS61C so far…

C Programs

```c
#include <stdlib.h>
int fib(int n) {
    return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);
}
```

RISC-V Assembly

```
.foo
lw $t0, 4($r0)
addi $t1, $t0, 3
beq $t1, $t2, foo
nop
```

Project 1

Project 2

Project 3
Adding I/O

Project 1

Project 2

Project 3

CPU

Caches

Memory

Screen

Keyboard

Storage

I/O (Input/Output)

RISC-V Assembly

C Programs

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#include <stdlib.h>

int fib(int n) {
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beq $t1, $t2, foo
nop
```
Raspberry Pi

- **Storage I/O (Micro SD Card)**
- **CPU+$$s, Memory**
- **Screen I/O (HDMI)**
- **Serial I/O (USB)**
- **Network I/O (Ethernet)**
But Wait…

• That’s not the same! Our 61c experience isn’t like the real world. When we run VENUS, it only executes one program and then stops.

• When I switch on my computer, I get this:

Yes, but that’s “just software!” The Operating System (OS)
Well, “Just Software”

- The biggest piece of software on your machine?
- How many lines of code? These are guesstimates:

Codebases (in millions of lines of code).
CC BY-NC 3.0 — David McCandless © 2013
http://www.informationisbeautiful.net/visualizations/million-lines-of-code/
Operating System

Diagram showing the relationship between various software and hardware components, with a focus on Linux kernel version and the number of lines of code. The kernel version 5.11 has the least number of lines of code, while version 3.2 has the most.
What Does the OS do?

- OS runs before any user programs (after BIOS and boot loader) when computer is first turned on, and intermittently runs as long as computer is on
- Finds and controls all I/O devices in the machine in a general way
  - Relying on hardware specific “device drivers”
- Starts services (100+)
  - File system,
  - Network stack (Ethernet, WiFi, Bluetooth, …),
  - …
- Loads, runs and manages programs:
  - Multiple programs at the same time (time-sharing)
  - Isolate programs from each other (isolation)
  - Multiplex resources between applications (e.g., devices)
What Does the core of the OS Need To Do?

• Mediate interactions between running programs (processes) and hardware

• Enables *interaction* with the outside world in a uniform way
  • Interact with “devices”: Disk, display, network, etc.
  • Project 1: We can use `fopen` to read a file on any kind of storage device

• Allows multiple processes to safely share one computer
  • *Protection* for the hardware, the OS, and other processes from a faulty/ malicious proc.
Safe Sharing of Resources

• OS gives each process **isolation** even when multiple processes share the same hardware resources

• Each process has the view that it “owns” the whole machine when it is running

• Share **time** on the CPU: *Context Switch*
  • Need to change from one process to another on CPU
  • Need to save and restore state so a process can pick up where it left off

• Share **space** in memory: *Virtual Memory*
  • Each process has the “illusion” of access to the full address space
  • One process cannot see what another process has stored in memory
What does an OS need from hardware?

- **Memory translation**
  - Each running process has a mapping from "virtual" to "physical" addresses that are different for each process
  - When you do a load or a store, the program issues a virtual address... But the actual memory accessed is a physical address

- **Protection and privilege**
  - Split the processor into at least two running modes: "User" and "Supervisor"
    - RISC-V also has "Machine" below "Supervisor"
  - Lesser privilege **cannot** change its memory mapping
    - But "Supervisor" **can** change the mapping for any given program
    - And supervisor has its own set of mapping of virtual->physical

- **Traps & Interrupts:**
  - A way of going into Supervisor mode on demand
Hardware "Control and Status Registers"

- A set of separate registers that can be read/written atomically
  - CSRRW rd rs csr
    - Read the old value of the specific control and status register and put it into rd
    - If rs != 0, place the new value in the CSR
  - Similar versions to just set or clear some bits in the CSR, and versions with a 5 bit immediate instead of rs

- These aren't normal registers...
  - Instead they are used to communicate requests with the hardware

- The hardware enforces privileges
  - So a program running at User level can't change Supervisor-level CSRs
Interrupts and Exceptions...

- We need to transition into Supervisor mode when "something" happens

- Interrupt: Something external to the running program
  - Something happens from the outside world

- Exception: Something done by the running program
  - Accessing memory it isn't "supposed" to, executing an illegal instruction, reading a csr not supposed at that privilege
  - **ECALL:** Trigger an exception to the higher privilege
    - How you communicate with the operating system: Used to implement "syscalls"
  - **EBREAK:** Trigger an exception within the current privilege
Traps/Interrupts/Exceptions:
altering the normal flow of control

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

In CS61C (other definitions in use elsewhere):

• **Interrupt** – caused by an event *external* to current running program
  • E.g., key press, disk I/O
  • Asynchronous to current program
    • Can handle interrupt on any convenient instruction
    • “Whenever it’s convenient, just don’t wait too long”

• **Exception** – caused by some event *during* execution of one instruction of current running program
  • E.g., memory error, bus error, illegal instruction, raised exception
  • Synchronous
    • Must handle exception *precisely* on instruction that causes exception
    • “Drop whatever you are doing and act now”

• **Trap** – action of servicing interrupt or exception by hardware jump to “interrupt or trap handler” code
Precise Traps

• Trap handler’s view of machine state is that every instruction prior to the trapped one (e.g., memory error) has completed, and no instruction after the trap has executed.

• Implies that handler can return from an interrupt by restoring user registers and jumping back to interrupted instruction
  • Interrupt handler software doesn’t need to understand the pipeline of the machine, or what program was doing!
  • More complex to handle trap caused by an exception than interrupt

• Providing precise traps is tricky in a pipelined superscalar out-of-order processor!
  • But a requirement for things to actually work right
Exceptions are handled *like pipeline hazards*

1) Complete execution of instructions before exception occurred
2) Flush instructions currently in pipeline (i.e., convert to `nop`s or “bubbles”)
3) Optionally store exception cause in status register
   - Indicate type of exception
   - Note: several exceptions can occur in a single clock cycle!
4) Transfer execution to trap handler
5) Optionally, return to original program and re-execute instruction
Trap Pipeline Diagram

\[
t_{0} \quad t_{1} \quad t_{2} \quad t_{3} \quad t_{4} \quad t_{5} \quad t_{6} \quad t_{7} \ldots
\]

(I_1) 096: LW
IF_1 \quad ID_1 \quad EX_1 \quad MA_1 \quad invalid memory read!

(I_2) 100: XOR
IF_2 \quad ID_2 \quad EX_2

(I_3) 104: SUB
IF_3 \quad ID_3

(I_4) 108: ADD
IF_4

(I_5) Trap Handler code*
IF_5 \quad ID_5 \quad EX_5 \quad MA_5 \quad WB_5

*MEPC = 100 (instruction following offending LW)
So an Exception or Interrupt happens...
What does the hardware do?

- Note, slightly simplified and RISC-V specific
  - But most processors have a similar flow...
- All this happens as a single action ("Atomically")
- The hardware adjust the privilege level (if appropriate)
  - So the processor is now in *supervisor* mode in most cases
- Disable interrupts!
  - Don't want to get interrupted when handling an interrupt
- Write the old program counter into the **sepc** CSR
  - Note: It is the PC that triggered the exception or the first instruction that hasn't yet executed if an interrupt
- Write the reason into the **scause** CSR
- Set the PC to the value in the **stvec** CSR
  - This is the address of the "trap handler":
    The single function that handles *ALL* exceptions and interrupts
And Now It Is In Software's Hands...
The Trap Handler's Job...

- Save all the registers
  - Intent is to make the previous program think that nothing whatsoever actually happened!
- Figure out what the exception or interrupt is...
  - Read the appropriate CSRs and other pieces to do what is necessary
- Restore all the registers
- Return to the right point in execution
How To Save The Registers?

- Supervisor mode has a `sscratch` CSR
  - Use it to point to a piece of memory to store things for the trap handler

- Swap x1 for `sscratch`
  - `csrrw x1 x1 sscratch`

- Now save all the other registers into that location
  - `sw x2 4(x1)`
  - `sw x3 8(x1)`
  - ...

- And store the pc from the `sepc` CSR
  - `csrrw x2 x0 sepc`
  - `sw x2 124(x1)`

- And finally save x1 and restore `sscratch`
  - `csrrw x2 x1 sscratch`
  - `sw x2 0(x1)`
Figure Out What To Do...

• We will cover that later
  • It really depends on what caused the exception or interrupt

• If it is an ECALL (so we’re doing a “sys call”)
  • What is user process asking OS to do? Do that and return to the next instruction...

• If it is an illegal instruction or similar error
  • Just kill the running program and do something else

• If it is some memory-related exception
  • Can we clean things up? If so, do that and return to the current instruction...

• If it is the "timer interrupt" - this process has used up its time slice
  • OK, we will execute a "context switch"

• If it is external I/O...
And Now To Return...

- Need to restore all the registers
- Restore the value for `sepc`
  - So we know where to return to...
    - If ECALL, increment it by 4 first
  - Otherwise, don't...
    - We will just redo the instruction that triggered the exception
- Restore all the other registers
  - May need to swap one temporarily using `sscratch`
    - But make sure `sscratch` is back to where it should be
  - And if an `ecall`, set `a0` to the return value...
- Now execute the `SRET` instruction
So with \texttt{sret} it is back to the hardware...

- Again, this is atomic
- Reenable interrupts
  - After all, now we are done with the trap handler we can get interrupted again
- Reset back down to user level
  - No longer in the privileged mode of operation
- Restore the pc to the value in \texttt{sepc}
- And now the program continues on like \textit{nothing ever happened}
So What Does This Mean?

• If it was an **ecall**, it worked just like a function call
  • We returned to the next instruction and just carried on:
    The return value is in a0 and, we have what we wanted from the OS

• Otherwise, it is like nothing ever happened...
  • Except for a gap in time:
    Between one instruction and the next significant time may have passed

• And the caches probably got trashed
  • Because something else was using the memory
This Is A Very Powerful Primitive...

• In User mode the program is constrained
  • It can only access the memory it is allowed to: Controlled by the virtual memory system
  • Can only update the virtual memory->physical memory mapping by changing the satp (page table pointer) CSR or the data pointed to by the satp CSR
    • But can't update any of the supervisor CSRs in user mode
    • And the satp pointer points to a piece of physical memory that the user mode program should not have access to

• So this provides strong constraints
  • Have to stay in user mode except for invoking the trap handler
  • Can only affect the data it is supposed to
But It Isn't Cheap...

- Taking an interrupt or trap is **expensive**...
- We have to flush the pipeline
  - So a big penalty on a modern processor with ~20 or more stages
- We have to save and restore all the registers
- The caches get trashed
  - Since the trap handler is completely unrelated code
So The First Thing We Build...

Context Switching...

- The hardware provides the OS an interrupt: the "Timer Interrupt"
  - Triggers at a regular interval, e.g. 10 ms
  - So every process gets a 10ms “time slice” where it can use the CPU
- When triggered, trap handler can execute a context switch
  - Take those saved register that were stored in the area pointed to by `sscratch`
    - And copy them to a bookkeeping data structure for the current process (Process Control Block)
    - Also copy the `satp` value to that data structure so we know its memory mapping
- Now pick some other process's data structure
  - Determined by the "scheduler": Lots of details in CS162
  - Load that process's registers, `satp`, `sepc`, etc...
- And then return with `sret`. 
So What Just Happened?

• One program was happily running along...
  • Then all of a sudden the timer triggered

• All its data got stored away...

• And now some other program got restored...
  • From where it had previously gotten hit by the timer interrupt!

• Congratulations! Now we have multiple programs running!
  • And simply switch between them all on a regular schedule

• Eventually we will get back to the first program...
  • And it is like nothing ever happened, except that between one instruction and the next a lot of time passed...
Let’s use the same mechanism to talk to the “outside world”

• How do we talk to devices?
• How do we see if there is data ready to use?
  • E.g, data read in from a file on an SSD
• How do we respond?
How to Interact with Devices?

• Assume a program running on a CPU. How does it interact with the “outside world”?

• Need I/O interface for Keyboards, Network, Mouse, Screen, etc.
  • Connect to many different types of devices
  • Control these devices, respond to them, and transfer data
  • Present them to user programs so they are useful
Instruction Set Architecture for I/O

• What must the processor do for I/O?
  • Input: read a sequence of bytes
  • Output: write a sequence of bytes

• Interface options
  a) Special input/output instructions & hardware
  b) Memory mapped I/O
    • Portion of address space dedicated to I/O
    • I/O device registers there (no memory)
    • Use normal load/store instructions, e.g. \texttt{lw/sw}
    • Very common, used by RISC-V
Memory Mapped I/O

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

Memory-mapped I/O

0x00000000

Control reg.

Data reg.

Program & Data Memory

0xFFFFF

0x8000000

0x7FFFFFFF
Processor-I/O Speed Mismatch

• 1 GHz microprocessor I/O throughput:
  • 4 Gi-B/s (1w/sw)
  • Typical I/O data rates:
    • 10 B/s (keyboard)
    • 100 Ki-B/s (Bluetooth)
    • 60 Mi-B/s (USB 2)
    • 100 Mi-B/s (Wifi, depends on standard)
    • 125 Mi-B/s (G-bit Ethernet)
    • 550 Mi-B/s (cutting edge SSD)
    • 1.25 Gi-B/s (USB 3.1 Gen 2)
    • 6.4 Gi-B/s (DDR3 DRAM)
  • These are peak rates – actual throughput is lower

• Common I/O devices neither deliver nor accept data matching processor speed
Polling: 
Processor Checks Status before Acting

- Device registers generally serve two functions:
  - **Control Register**, says it’s OK to read/write (I/O ready)  
    [think of a flagman on a road]
  - **Data Register**, contains data

- Processor reads from Control Register in loop
  - Waiting for device to set **Ready** bit in Control reg (0 → 1)
  - Indicates “data available” or “ready to accept data”

- Processor then loads from (input) or writes to (output) data register
  - I/O device resets control register bit (1 → 0)

- Procedure called “Polling”
I/O Example (Polling)

- **Input:** Read from keyboard into `a0`

  ```
  lui  t0  0x7ffff  #7ffff000 (io addr)
  ```
  
  **Waitloop:**
  ```
  lw   t1  0(t0)  #read control
  andi t1 t1  0x1  #ready bit
  beq  t1  zero  Waitloop
  lw   a0  4(t0)  #data
  ```

- **Output:** Write to display from `a1`

  ```
  lui  t0  0x7ffff  #7ffff000
  ```
  
  **Waitloop:**
  ```
  lw   t1  8($t0)  #write control
  andi t1 t1  0x1  #ready bit
  beq  t1  zero  Waitloop
  sw   a1  12(t0)  #data
  ```

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

**Memory Map**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7ffff000</td>
<td>input control reg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7ffff004</td>
<td>input data reg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7ffff008</td>
<td>output control reg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7ffff00C</td>
<td>output data reg</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cost of Polling?

- Assume for a processor with
  - 1 GHz clock rate
  - Taking 400 clock cycles for a polling operation
    - Call polling routine
    - Check device (e.g., keyboard or wifi input available)
    - Return
  - What’s the percentage of processor time spent polling?

- Example:
  - Mouse
  - Poll 30 times per second
    - Set by requirement not to miss any mouse motion (which would lead to choppy motion of the cursor on the screen)
% Processor time to poll

• Mouse Polling [clocks/sec]
  \[= 30 \text{ [polls/s]} \times 400 \text{ [clocks/poll]} = 12K \text{ [clocks/s]}\]

• % Processor for polling:
  \[12 \times 10^3 \text{ [clocks/s]} / 1 \times 10^9 \text{ [clocks/s]} = 0.0012\%
  \]

=> Polling mouse little impact on processor...
(Except that you need to know you should be polling...)
% Processor time to poll hard disk

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

- Frequency of Polling Disk (rate at which chunks come could off disk)
  \[ \frac{16 \text{ [MB/s]}}{16 \text{ [B/poll]}} = 1 \text{M [polls/s]} \]

- Disk Polling, Clocks/sec
  \[ 1 \text{M [polls/s]} \times 400 \text{ [clocks/poll]} = 400 \text{M [clocks/s]} \]

- % Processor for polling:
  \[ \frac{400 \times 10^6 \text{ [clocks/s]}}{1 \times 10^9 \text{ [clocks/s]}} = 40\% \]
  => Unacceptable
  (Polling is only part of the problem – main problem is that accessing in small chunks is inefficient)
What is the Alternative to Polling?

• Polling wastes processor resources
• Akin to waiting at the door for guests to show up
  • What about a bell?
• Computer lingo for bell:
  • Interrupt
  • Occurs when I/O is ready or needs attention
    • Interrupt current program
    • Transfer control to the trap handler in the operating system
Have I/O trigger interrupts too!

- It just jumps to the trap handler
  - The trap handler then figures out what to do...
    Does it...
  - And returns
- If there is no I/O...
  - This is wonderfully efficient because nothing needs to be done
- If there is a lot of I/O...
  - This gets costly:
    Taking an interrupt is effectively hundreds or thousands of instructions of effort...
    Between the pipeline flush, the cost of the trap handler itself, and the thrashing of caches
Real World: Polling and Interrupts...

- Low data rate (e.g. mouse, keyboard)
  - Use interrupts. We *could* poll with the timer interrupt, but why?
  - Overhead of interrupts ends up being low

- High data rate (e.g. network, disk)
  - Start with interrupts...
    - After all, if there is no data, you don't do anything!
  - Once you start getting data...
    - Then you switch to polling... Keep grabbing the data until it stops...
    - Or, use a trick we will talk about later: Direct Memory Access...
      The device just writes the data into memory directly
    - And then after the data stops, shift back to interrupts
What Happens at Boot?

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

PC = 0x2000 (some default value)

Address Space

Memory mapped

0x8002000: Code to copy firmware into regular memory and jump into it}
What Happens at Boot?

1. **BIOS**: Find a storage device and load first sector (block of data)

2. **Bootloader** (stored on, e.g., disk): Load the OS kernel from disk into a location in memory and jump into it

3. **OS Boot**: Initialize services, drivers, etc.

4. **Init**: Launch an application that waits for input in loop (e.g., Terminal/Desktop/...)

*BIOS: Basic Input Output System also "EFI Firmware"
Launching Applications

- Applications are called “processes” in most OSs
  - Each process has its own address space (so each process is isolated)
  - A process has one or more threads of execution
  - All threads in the system run (pseudo) simultaneously
  - Many user applications actually comprise multiple threads and/or processes (e.g., Chrome)

- Apps are started by another process (e.g., shell) calling an OS routine (This is a system call [“syscall”])
  - Depends on OS, but Linux uses fork to create a new process, and execve (execute file command) to load application
  - Under the hood these call something like ecall.

- Loads executable file from disk (using the file system service) and puts instructions & data into memory (.text, .data sections), prepares stack and heap

- Set argc and argv, jump to start of main

- Shell waits for main to return (wait)
Protection, Translation, Paging

• Supervisor mode alone is not sufficient to fully isolate applications from each other or from the OS
  • Application could overwrite another application’s memory.
  • Typically programs start at some fixed address, e.g. 0x8FFFFFFF
    • How can hundreds of processes all use memory at location 0x8FFFFFFF?
  • Also, may want to address more memory than we actually have (e.g., for sparse data structures)

• Solution: Virtual Memory
  • Gives each process the *illusion* of a full memory address space that it has completely for itself
Modern Virtual Memory Systems

Illusion of a large, private, uniform store

Protection
- several users (processes), each with their private address space and one or more shared address spaces

Demand Paging
- Provides the ability to run programs larger than the primary memory
- Hides differences in machine configurations

The price is address translation on each memory reference
Dynamic Address Translation

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

Location-independent programs
Programming and storage management ease

Protection
Independent programs should not affect each other inadvertently

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

- Processor-generated address can be split into:
  - A page table contains the physical address of the base of each page

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address Space of User-1</th>
<th>Page Table of User-1</th>
<th>Physical Memory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Page tables make it possible to store the pages of a program non-contiguously.
Private Address Space per User

- Each user has a page table
- Page table contains an entry for each user page
Where Should Page Tables Reside?

- Space required by the page tables (PT) is proportional to the address space, number of users, ...
  \[ \Rightarrow \text{Too large to keep in cpu registers} \]

- Idea: Keep PTs in the main memory
  - Needs one reference to retrieve the page base address and another to access the data word
  \[ \Rightarrow \text{doubles the number of memory references!} \]
Page Tables in Physical Memory

User 1 Virtual Address Space

User 2 Virtual Address Space

Physical Memory