CS 152 Computer Architecture and Engineering

Lecture 8 - Address Translation

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CS152 Administrivia

- Lab 2 due Friday
- PS 2 due Tuesday
- Quiz 2 next Thursday!
Last time in Lecture 7

- **3 C’s of cache misses**
  - Compulsory, Capacity, Conflict

- **Write policies**
  - Write back, write-through, write-allocate, no write allocate

- **Multi-level cache hierarchies reduce miss penalty**
  - 3 levels common in modern systems (some have 4!)
  - Can change design tradeoffs of L1 cache if known to have L2

- **Prefetching**: retrieve memory data before CPU request
  - Prefetching can waste bandwidth and cause cache pollution
  - Software vs hardware prefetching

- **Software memory hierarchy optimizations**
  - Loop interchange, loop fusion, cache tiling
In a bare machine, the only kind of address is a **physical address**
Absolute Addresses

EDSAC, early 50’s

- Only one program ran at a time, with unrestricted access to entire machine (RAM + I/O devices)
- Addresses in a program depended upon where the program was to be loaded in memory
- But it was more convenient for programmers to write location-independent subroutines

How could location independence be achieved?

Linker and/or loader modify addresses of subroutines and callers when building a program memory image
Dynamic Address Translation

- **Motivation**
  - In early machines, I/O was slow and each I/O transfer involved the CPU (programmed I/O)
  - Higher throughput possible if CPU and I/O of 2 or more programs were overlapped, how?
  - $\Rightarrow$ multiprogramming with DMA I/O devices, interrupts

- **Location-independent programs**
  - Programming and storage management ease
  - $\Rightarrow$ need for a *base* register

- **Protection**
  - Independent programs should not affect each other inadvertently
  - $\Rightarrow$ need for a *bound* register

- **Multiprogramming** drives requirement for resident supervisor software to manage context switches between multiple programs
Base and bounds registers are visible/accessible only when processor is running in the *supervisor mode*
Separate Areas for Program and Data
(Scheme used on all Cray vector supercomputers prior to X1, 2002)

What is an advantage of this separation?
Can fold addition of base register into (register+immediate) address calculation using a carry-save adder (sums three numbers with only a few gate delays more than adding two numbers)
As users come and go, the storage is “fragmented”. Therefore, at some stage programs have to be moved around to compact the storage.
Paged Memory Systems

- Processor-generated address can be split into:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page Number</th>
<th>Offset</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

- A Page Table contains the physical address at the start of each page

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, ...
  \[ \Rightarrow \text{Too large to keep in registers} \]

- 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
A Problem in the Early Sixties

- There were many applications whose data could not fit in the main memory, e.g., payroll
  - *Paged memory system reduced fragmentation but still required the whole program to be resident in the main memory*
Demand Paging in Atlas (1962)

The Atlas Computer was a joint development between the University of Manchester, Ferranti, and Plessey.

“A page from secondary storage is brought into the primary storage whenever it is (implicitly) demanded by the processor.”

Tom Kilburn

Primary memory as a cache for secondary memory

User sees 32 x 6 x 512 words of storage
Hardware Organization of Atlas

Effective Address

- Initial Address Decode
  - 16 ROM pages
    - 0.4-1 µsec
  - 2 subsidiary pages
    - 1.4 µsec
  - 32 pages Main
    - 1.4 µsec
  - 192 pages Drum (4)

- 8 Tape decks
  - 88 sec/word

48-bit words
512-word pages

1 Page Address Register (PAR) per “page frame”

On memory access compare the effective page address against all 32 PARs

- match ⇒ normal access
- no match ⇒ page fault
  save the state of the partially executed instruction
Atlas Demand Paging Scheme

On a page fault:

- Transfer from drum to a free page in primary memory is initiated
- The Page Address Register (PAR) is updated
- If no free page is left, a page is selected to be replaced (based on usage)
- The replaced page is written on the drum
  - to minimize drum latency effect, the first empty page on the drum was selected
- The page table is updated to point to the new location of the page on the drum
Linear Page Table

- Page Table Entry (PTE) contains:
  - A bit to indicate if a page exists
  - PPN (physical page number) for a memory-resident page
  - DPN (disk page number) for a page on the disk
  - Status bits for protection and usage
- OS sets the Page Table Base Register whenever active user process changes

- Supervisor Accessible
- Control Register inside CPU

VPN
Offset
Virtual address from CPU Execute Stage

VPN
Offset
Data word
Data Pages

PT Base Register

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Size of Linear Page Table

- With 32-bit addresses, 4-KB pages & 4-byte PTEs:
  ⇒ \( \frac{2^{32}}{2^{12}} = 2^{20} \) virtual pages per user, assuming 4-Byte PTEs,
  ⇒ \( 2^{20} \) PTEs, i.e, 4 MB page table per user!
  - 4 GB of swap needed to back up full virtual address space

- Larger pages helps, but:
  - Internal fragmentation (Not all memory in page is used)
  - Larger page fault penalty (more time to read from disk)

- What about 64-bit virtual address space???
  - Even 1MB pages would require \( 2^{24} \) 8-byte PTEs (35 TB!)

What is the “saving grace”?
Hierarchical Page Table

Virtual Address from CPU

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>31</th>
<th>22</th>
<th>21</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p1</td>
<td>p2</td>
<td>offset</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10-bit L1 index
10-bit L2 index

Root of the Current Page Table

(Processor Register)

Level 1 Page Table

Level 2 Page Tables

Physical Memory

Data Pages

page in primary memory
page in secondary memory
PTE of a nonexistent page

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Address Translation & Protection

- Every instruction and data access needs address translation and protection checks

*A good VM design needs to be fast (~one cycle) and space efficient*
Translation Lookaside Buffers (TLB)

Address translation is very expensive!
In a two-level page table, each reference becomes several memory accesses

Solution: *Cache translations in TLB*

- **TLB hit**: \( \Rightarrow \) *Single-Cycle Translation*
- **TLB miss**: \( \Rightarrow \) *Page-Table Walk to refill*

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**Diagram:**

- *Virtual address*
- **VPN** and **offset**
- **PPN** and **offset**
- **VR**, **RW**, **WD**, **tag**, **PPN**
- **hit?**
- *Physical address*
TLB Designs

- Typically 32-128 entries, usually fully associative
  - Each entry maps a large page, hence less spatial locality across pages → more likely that two entries conflict
  - Sometimes larger TLBs (256-512 entries) are 4-8 way set-associative
  - Larger systems sometimes have multi-level (L1 and L2) TLBs

- Random or FIFO replacement policy

- No process information in TLB?

- TLB Reach: Size of largest virtual address space that can be simultaneously mapped by TLB

Example: 64 TLB entries, 4KB pages, one page per entry

TLB Reach = 64 entries \* 4 KB = 256 KB (if contiguous)
Handling a TLB Miss

- **Software (MIPS, DEC/Alpha):**
  - TLB miss causes an exception and the operating system walks the page tables and reloads TLB. A privileged “untranslated” addressing mode used for walk.

- **Hardware (SPARC v8, x86, PowerPC, RISC-V):**
  - A memory management unit (MMU) walks the page tables and reloads the TLB.
  - If a missing (data or PT) page is encountered during the TLB reloading, MMU gives up and signals a Page Fault exception for the original instruction.
Hierarchical Page Table Walk: SPARC v8

MMU does this table walk in hardware on a TLB miss
Page-Based Virtual-Memory Machine
(Hardware Page-Table Walk)

Assumes page tables held in untranslated physical memory
Address Translation: *putting it all together*

Virtual Address

- **TLB Lookup**
  - *hit*:
    - **Protection Check**
      - *denied*:
        - **Protection Fault**
      - *permitted*:
        - **Physical Address (to cache)**
  - *miss*:
    - **Page Table Walk**
      - *∉ memory*:
        - **Page Fault** *(OS loads page)*
      - *∈ memory*:
        - **Update TLB**

Where?
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