



NTNU | Norwegian University of
Science and Technology

Operating Systems

Lecture 2: Resources and computer architecture

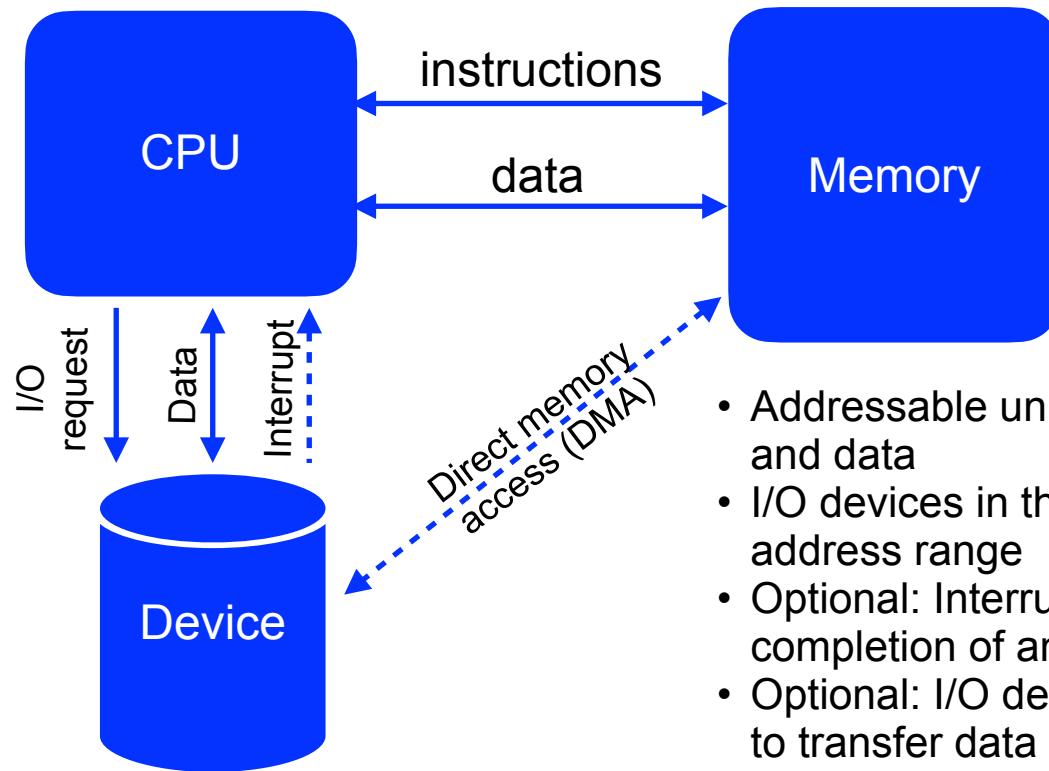
Michael Engel

Overview

- Structure of a typical computer system
 - Basic elements
 - Instruction execution
- From von Neumann to modern computers
 - Memory hierarchy
 - Multiprocessing
 - Communication
 - Heterogeneous systems: GPGPUs
- Non-functional properties
 - Security and virtual memory

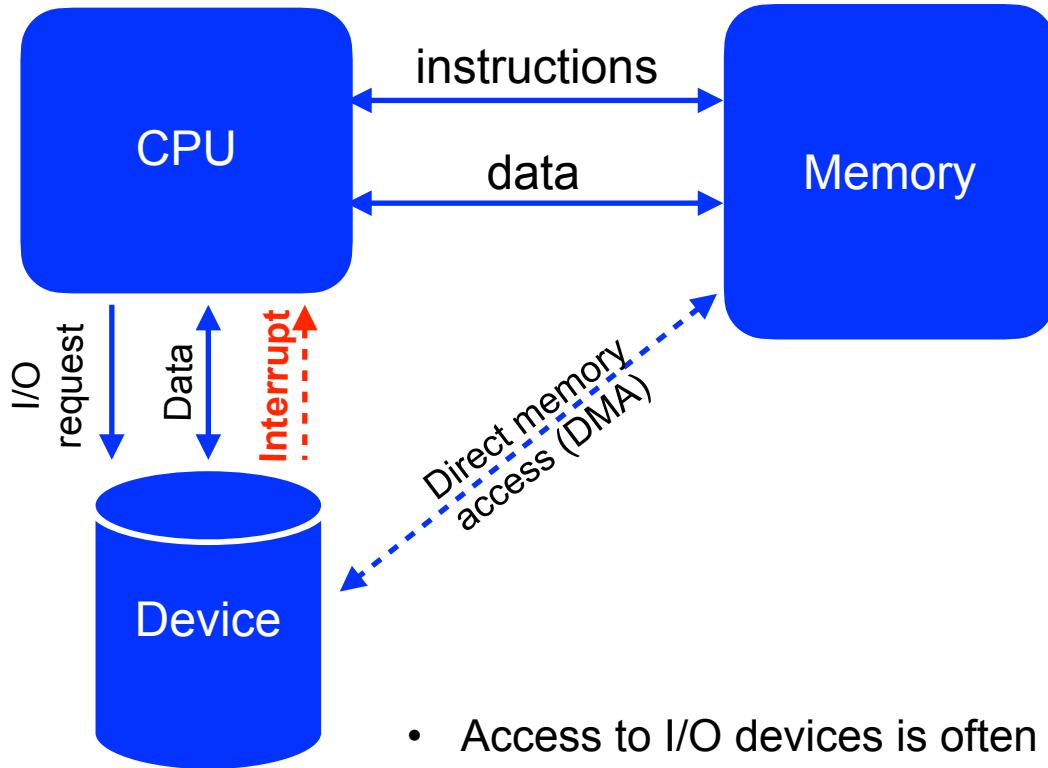
Computers as they are no more

- The typical diagram of a *von Neumann*-style computer system in an introductory course of computer architecture [1] (this diagram only models very simple microcontrollers today):



- Addressable unified memory for code and data
- I/O devices in the same or a different address range
- Optional: Interrupts notify CPU of the completion of an I/O operation
- Optional: I/O devices can use DMA to transfer data to memory without CPU interaction

Asynchronous execution: interrupts



- Access to I/O devices is often slow
 - **Polling** sends a command and then waits until the device returns data
 - With **interrupts**, the device notifies the program when data is ready
 - This changes the **control flow** the CPU executes!
 - More complex to develop software for

Polling:

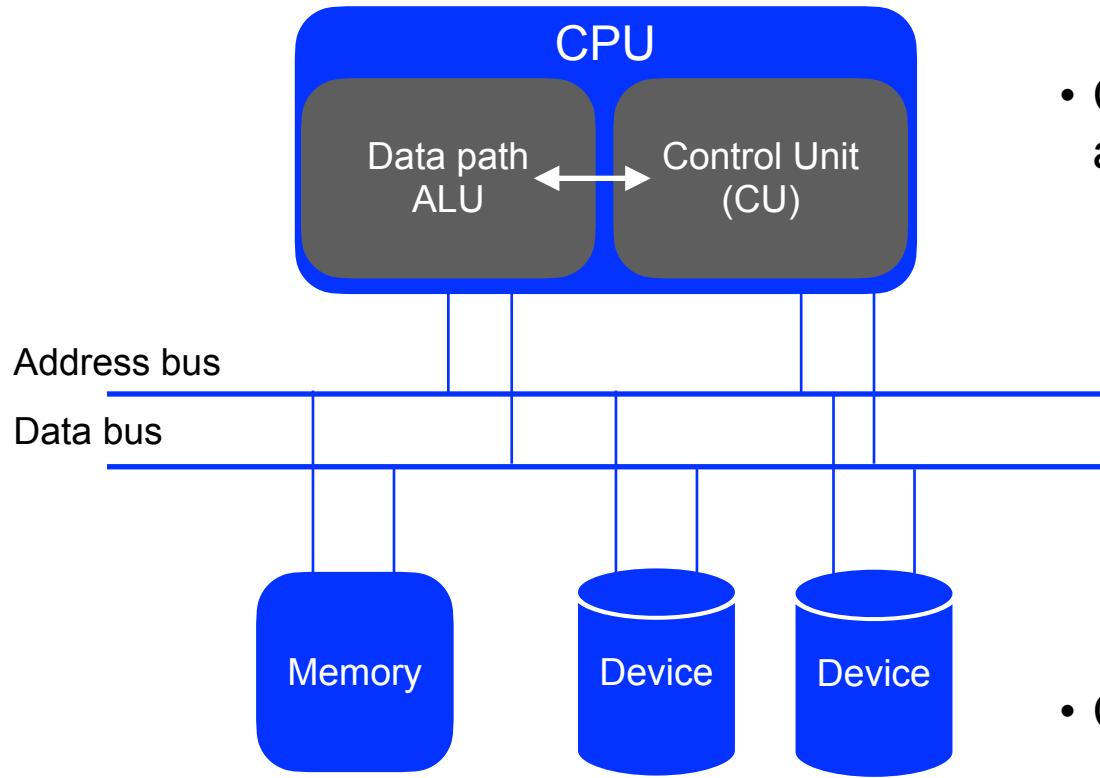
```
write(device, command)  
while (not ready(device)) {  
    // just wait and waste time!  
}  
read(device, data)
```

Interrupt driven:

```
write(device, command)  
// do something else.....  
Interrupt:  
→ read(device, data)
```

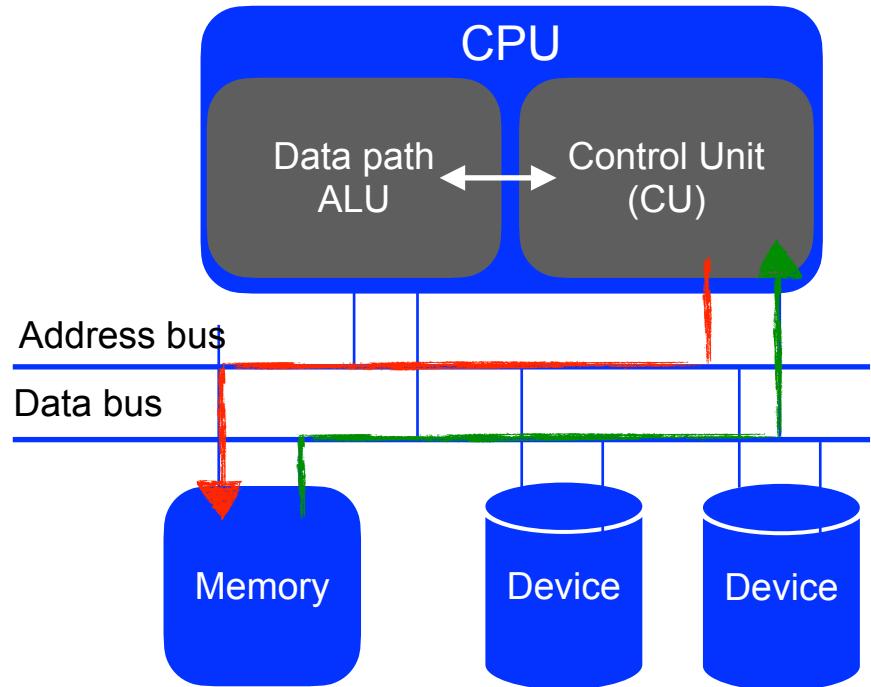
Computers as they are no more

- Going a bit more into details:

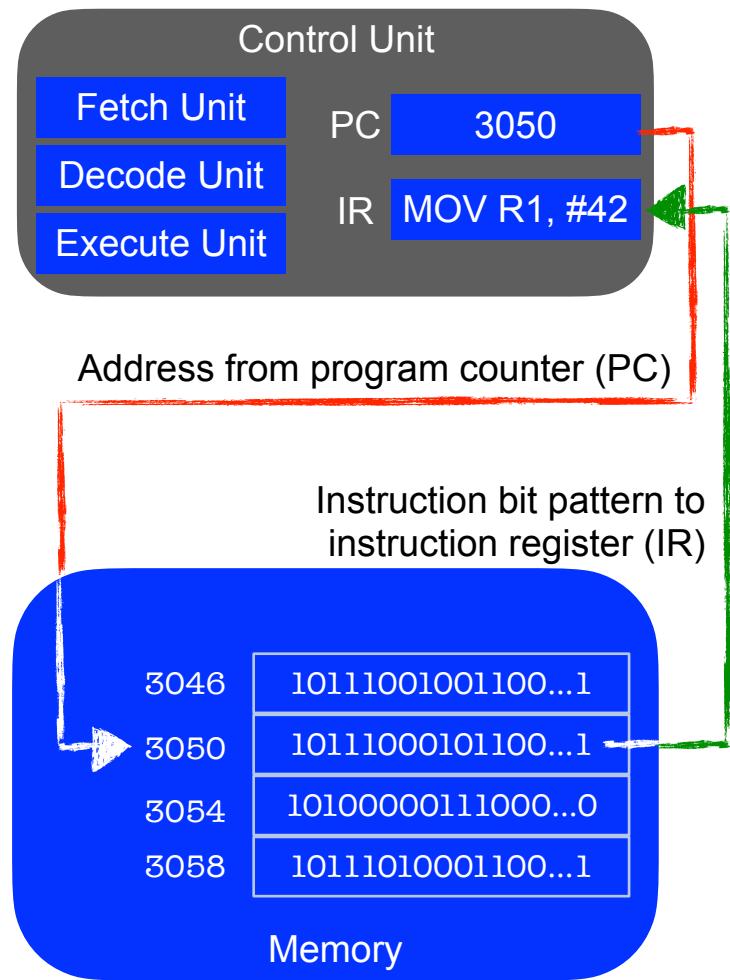


- Components of the computer are connected by *buses*
 - Address bus: identify component
 - Data bus: transfer information
 - Control bus: metainformation (read/write, interrupt, ...)
 - not shown here
- CPU has control over the bus
- Exception: DMA

Instruction execution

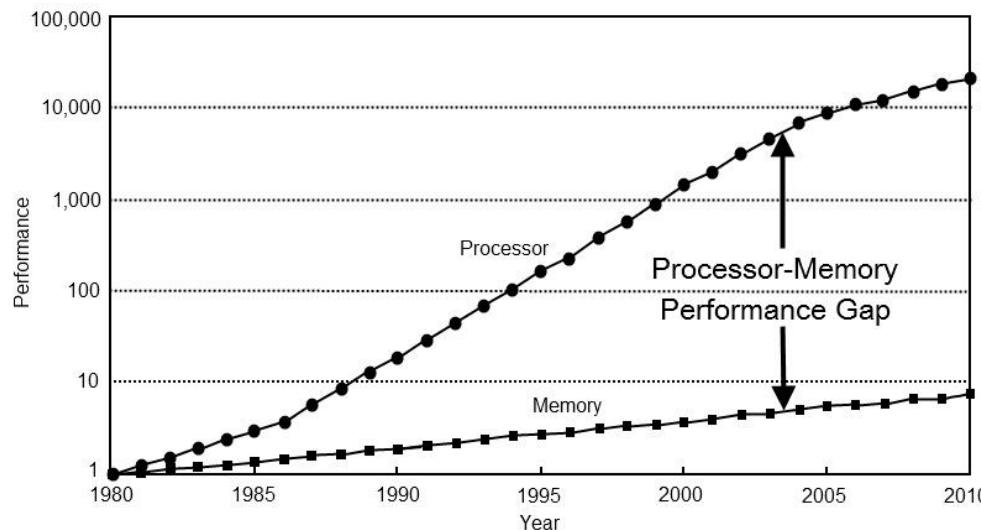


```
PC = <reset address> // initialize PC
IR = memory[PC]      // fetch first instruction
haltFlag = false
while (not haltFlag) {
    execute(IR)        // execute
    PC = PC + 4        // address of next instr.
    IR = memory[PC]    // fetch it!
}
```



Getting a bit more real

- Simple model of execution only works efficiently if the speed of memory = speed of the CPU
 - This was the case until ca. 1980
- Memory speed only improved ~6%/year
- Today: “memory gap:
 - CPU speed ~ 10,000x faster, but memory speed only ~ 10x



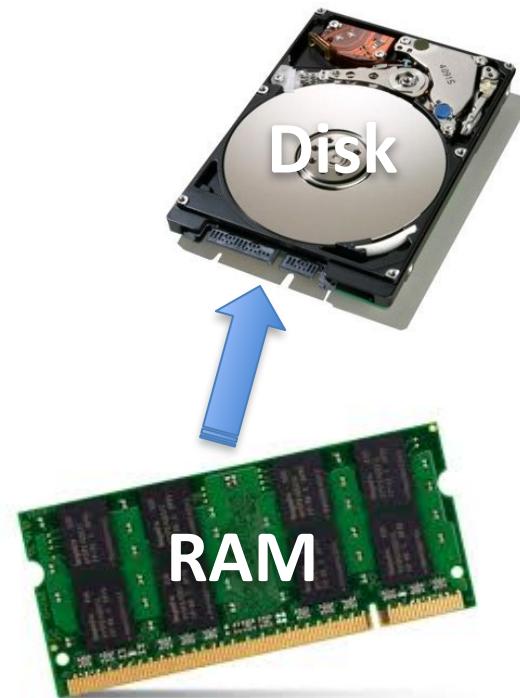
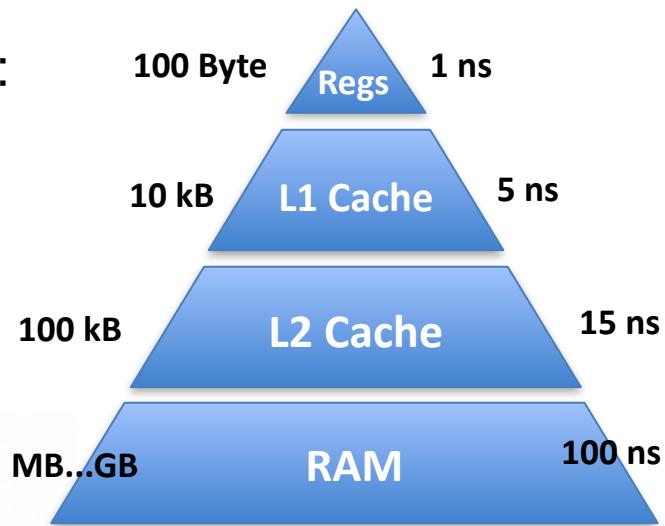
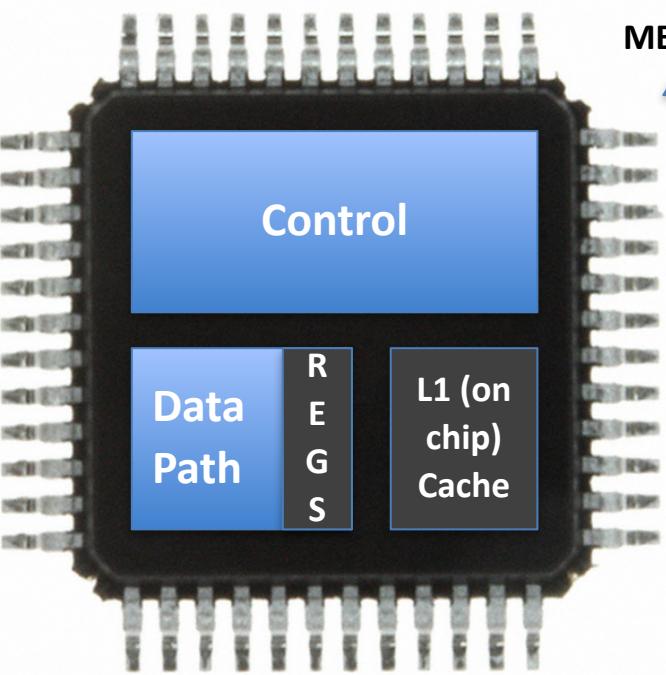
Introducing a memory hierarchy

- Idea: introduce **caches**
 - small, but fast intermediate levels of memory
- Caches can only hold a **partial copy** of the whole memory
 - Unified caches vs. separate instruction and data caches
 - Expensive to manufacture (→ small)
 - Later: introduction of **multiple levels of cache** (L1, L2, L3...)
 - Each one bigger but slower than the previous one
- Caches work efficiently due to *locality principles* [2]:
 - temporal locality: a program accessing some part of memory is likely to access the same memory soon thereafter
 - spatial locality: a program accessing some part of memory is likely to access nearby memory next

Introducing a memory hierarchy

The further from the CPU:

- Increasing size
- *Decreasing* speed



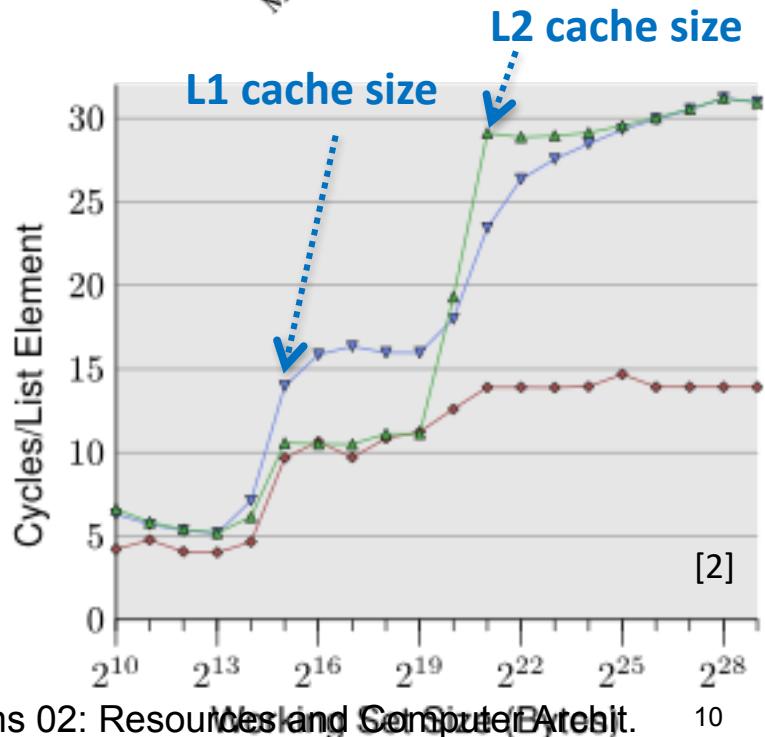
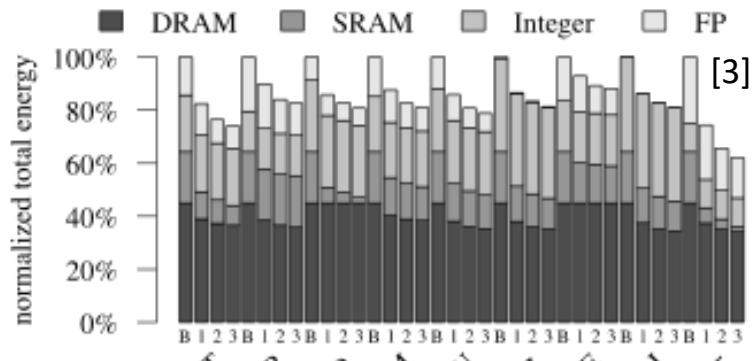
Memory impact: non-functional properties

Memory has a large influence on non-functional properties of a system

- Average, best, and worst case performance, throughput and latencies
- Power and energy consumption
- Reliability and security

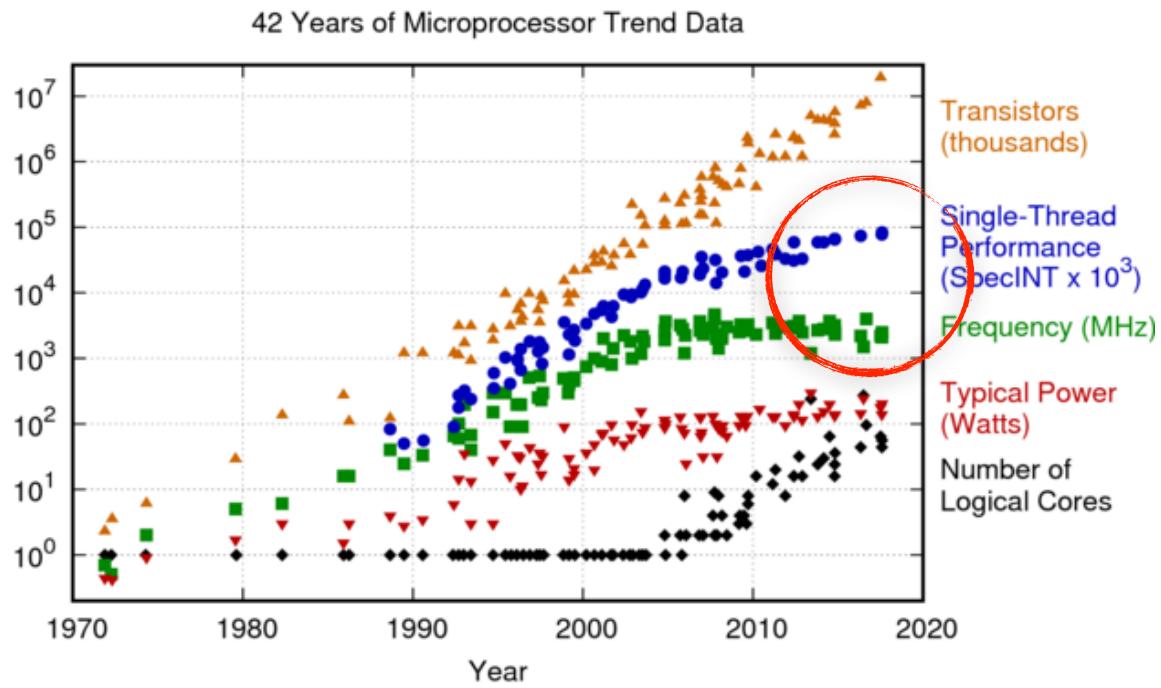
Non-functional properties depend on many parameters of memory, e.g.

- Cache architecture
- Memory type
- Alignment and aliasing of data



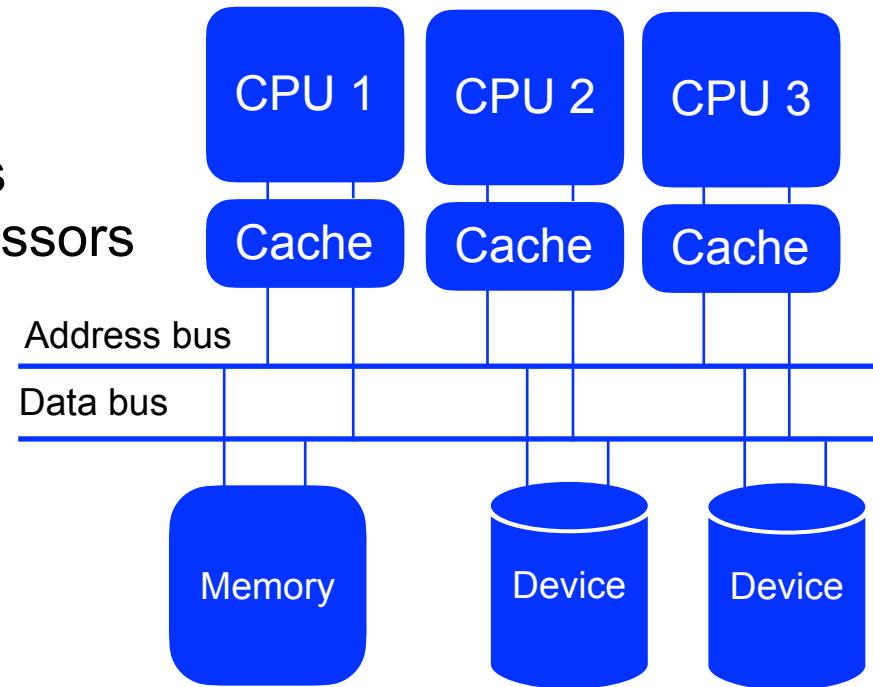
When one processor is not enough

- Moore's Law (1965) [4]:
 - observation that the ***number of transistors*** in a dense integrated circuit (IC) ***doubles about every two years***
 - Accordingly, increase in CPU speed due to smaller semiconductor structures
- This development is hitting physical limitations
 - CPU frequencies “stuck” at ~3 GHz
 - Energy consumption is additional limiting factor



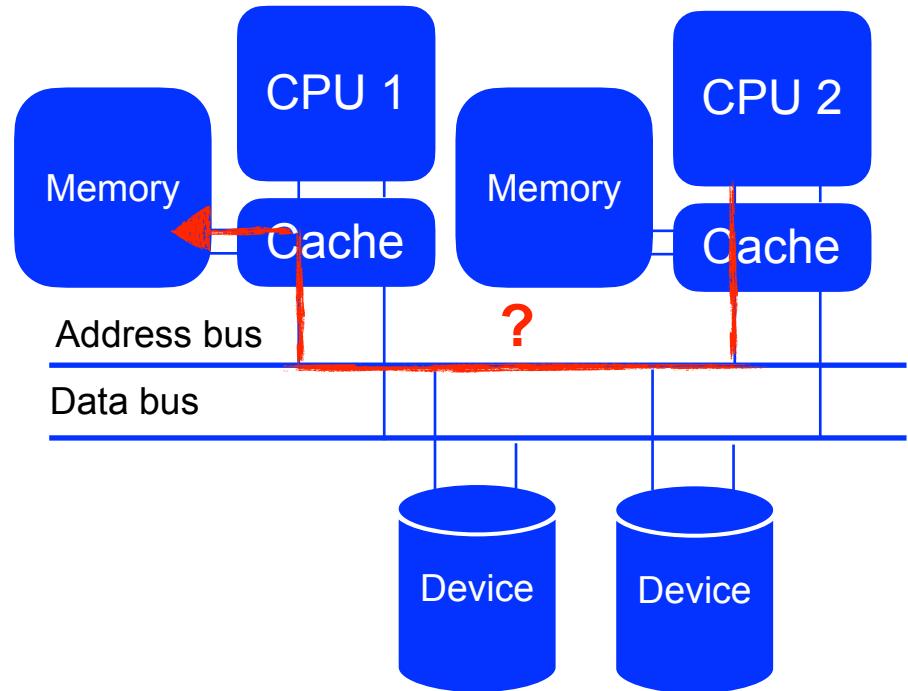
When one processor is not enough

- What can we do with all these transistors?
 - Bigger caches – energy hungry and prone to faults!
 - ***Put more processors on a chip!***
 - Earlier high-end systems already used multiple separate processor chips
- Old as well as new problems:
 - Memory **throughput** now has to satisfy demands of n processors
 - **Software** now has to support **execution on multiple processors!**
 - **Caches** need to be **coherent** so they hold the same copies of main memory data

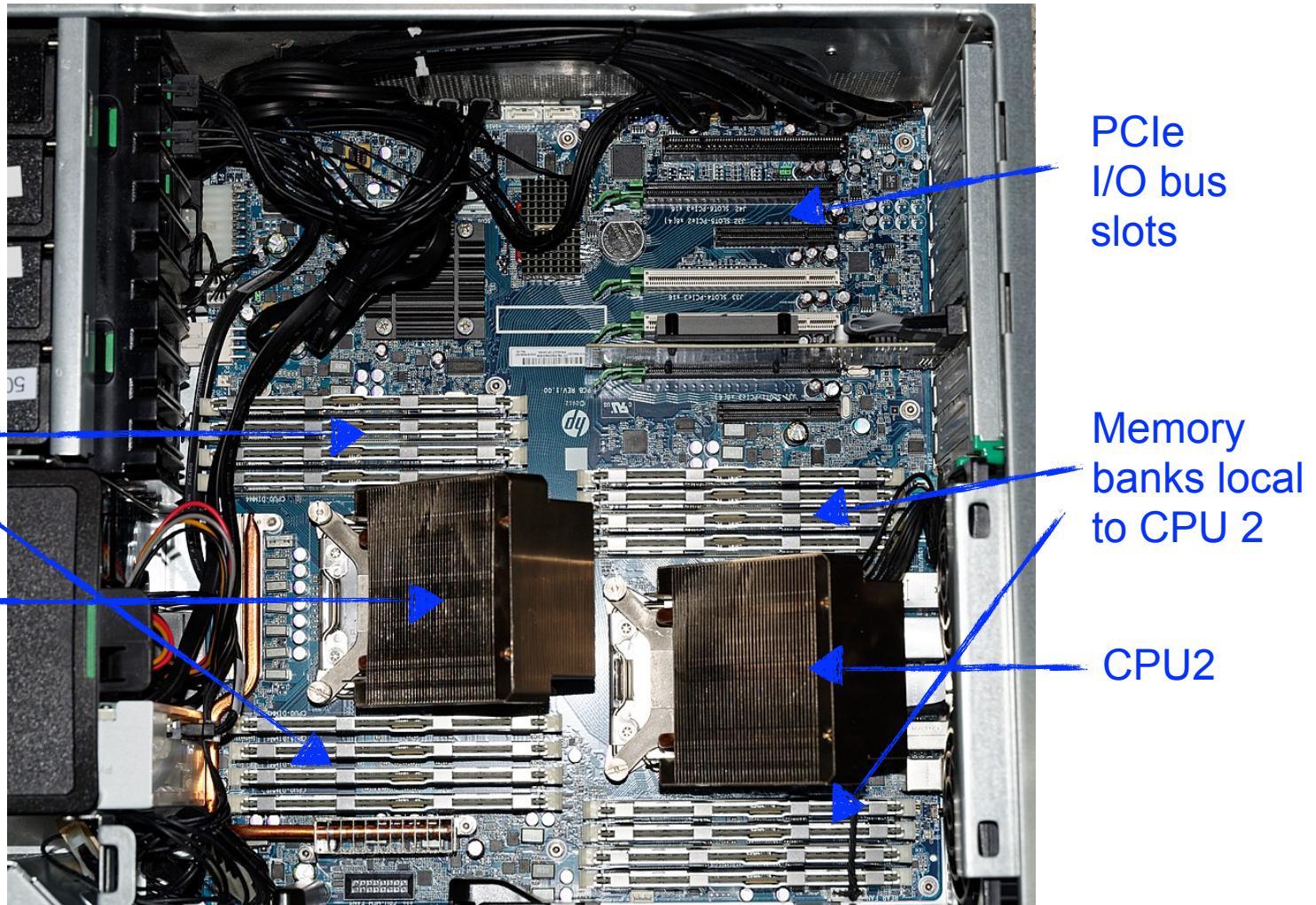


More processors, more memories

- Memory **throughput** now has to satisfy demands of n processors
 - Provide each processor with its own main memory!
 - **NUMA**
“non unified memory architecture”
- And new problems show up:
 - How to access data in another CPU’s memory?
 - Who decides which CPU is allowed to use the bus?
 - Is a common bus still efficient?



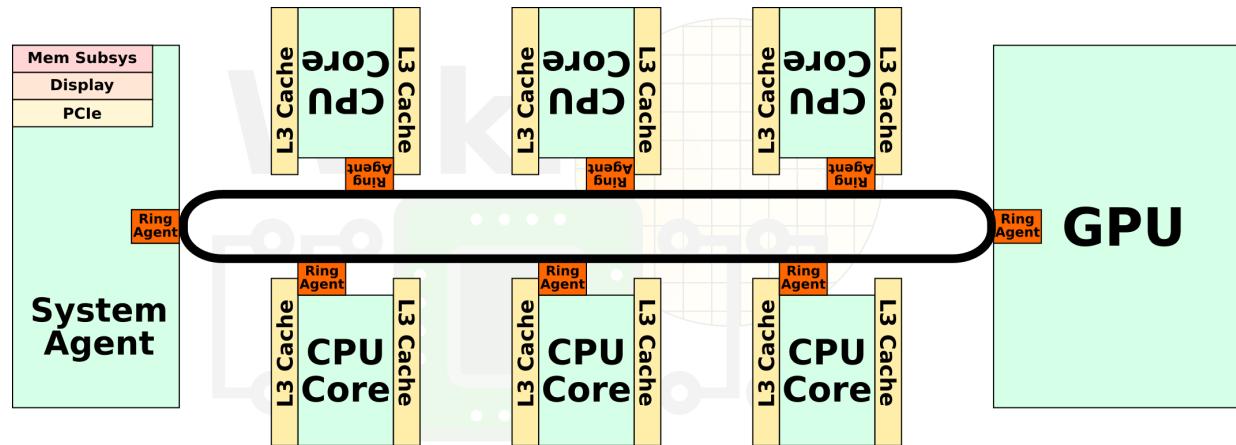
A NUMA system board



[HP Z820 mainboard from Wikimedia by [Jud McCranie](#) CC BY-SA 4.0]

On-chip communication

- Use high-speed networks instead of conventional buses
 - Using ideas from computer networking
 - On-chip network can achieve high throughput and low latencies
- Example: on-chip ring network connecting 6 CPUs, a system controller (“agent”) and a GPU

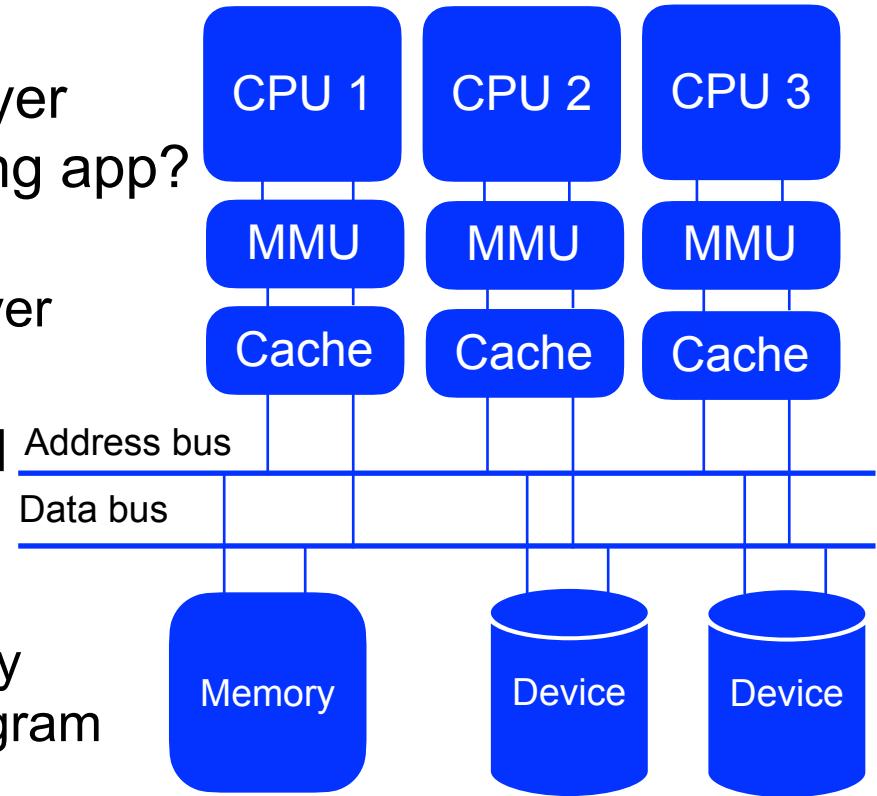


Heterogeneous systems: GPGPUs

- In modern computers, not only CPUs can execute code
- **GPGPUs** (general purpose graphics processing units)
 - Massively parallel processors for typical parallel tasks
 - 3D graphics, signal processing, machine learning, bitcoin mining...
 - Few features for protection, security...
- Traditionally, GPUs were accessible to a single program only (in Unix: “X window server”) for drawing
 - Other programs had to ask the X server for services
- In modern systems, multiple programs want direct access to the GPGPU
 - How can the OS multiplex the GPGPU *safely* and *securely*?

Security

- ...there's another important non-functional property!
- Multiple programs running simultaneously
 - e.g. a online banking application and a video player
- How can be avoid the video player accessing memory of the banking app?
 - e.g. your account number and password, which the video player could share online!
- Restrict access to non permitted memory ranges
 - The memory management unit (MMU) only makes memory ranges visible to a running program “belonging” to it



The MMU

- Idea: **intercept** “virtual” addresses generated by the CPU
 - MMU checks for “allowed” addresses
 - It translates allowed addresses to “physical” addresses in main memory using a **translation table**
- Problem: translation table for each single address would be large
 - Split memory into **pages** of identical size (power of 2)
 - Apply the same translation to all addresses in the page: **page table**
- MMUs were originally separate ICs sitting between CPU and RAM
 - Or even realised using discrete components (e.g. in the Sun 1 [8])
 - Higher integration due to Moore’s Law → fit on CPU chip now!



Motorola
68451 MMU
chip (1982) [7]

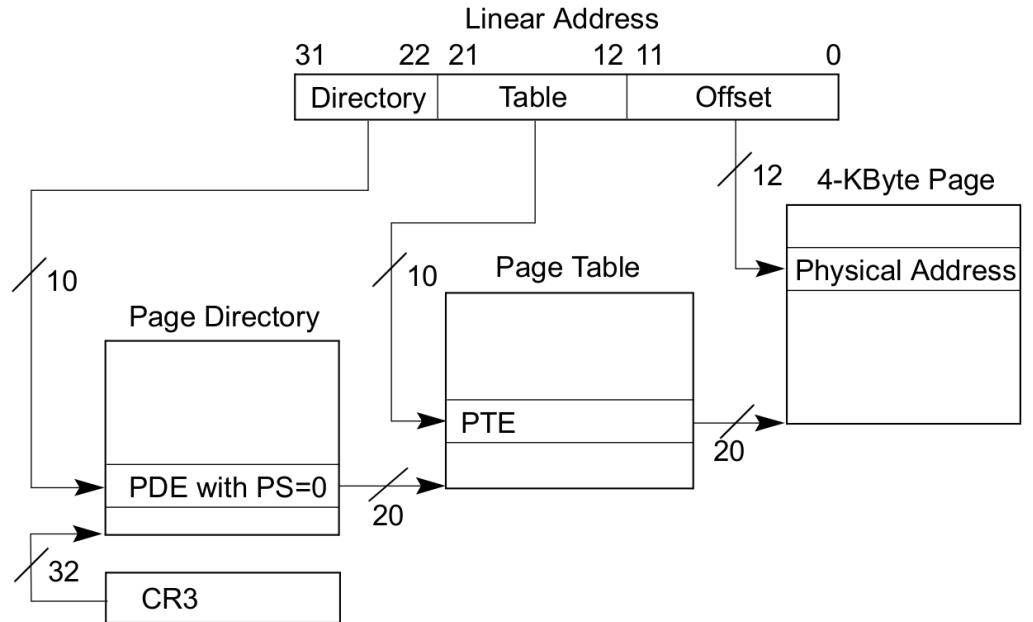
[Wikimedia by David Monniaux,
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Page table structure

- Split memory into **pages** of identical size (power of 2)
- Apply the same translation to all addresses in the page: **page table**
- Find a compromise **page size** allowing flexibility and efficiency
 - Typically several kB: $4 \text{ kB} = 2^{12}$ bytes (x86), 16 kB (Apple M1)
- 32 bit CPU (2^{32} addr.): 4 kB pages $\rightarrow 2^{32}/2^{12} = 2^{20}$ pages \sim 1 million!
 - Use **sparse multi-level** page tables \rightarrow reduce page table size

For 32 bit x86:

- Page size:
 - $2^{12} = 4096$ bytes
- Page table:
 - 2^{10} page entries
- Page directory:
 - 2^{10} page tables

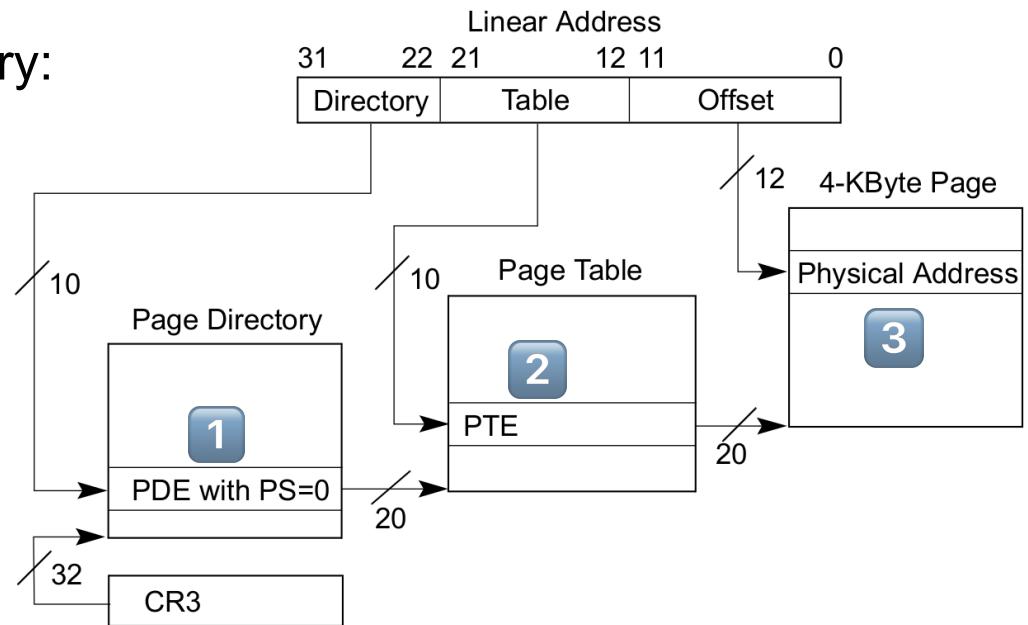


The memory translation process

- The MMU splits the virtual (or “linear”) address coming from the CPU into three parts:
 - 10 bits (31–22) page directory entry (PDE) number
 - 10 bits (21–12) page directory entry (PTE) number
 - 12 bits (11–0) page offset inside the references page (untranslated)

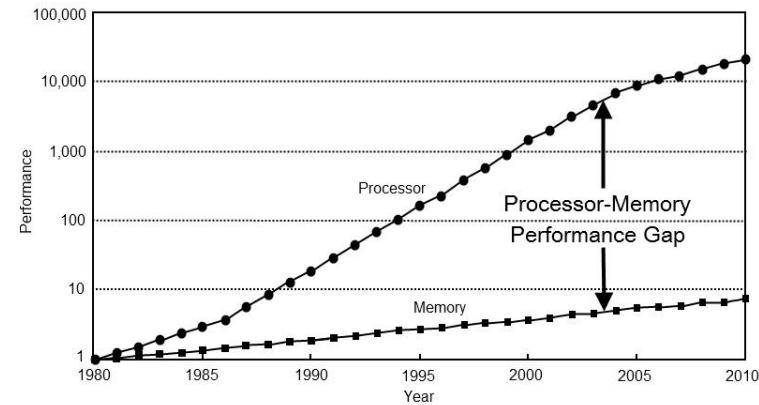
Translation process:

1. Read PDE entry from directory:
→ address of one page table
2. Read PTE entry from table:
→ physical base address
of memory page
3. Add offset from original
virtual address (bits 11–0)
to obtain the complete
physical memory address



Speeding up translation

- Where is the page table stored?
 - Can be several MB in size
→ doesn't fit on the CPU chip!
 - Page directory and page tables are **in main memory!**
- Using virtual memory address translation requires **three main memory accesses!**
 - Same idea as with regular slow memory access: use **cache!**
- The MMU uses a special cache on the CPU chip:
the Translation Lookaside Buffer (TLB)
 - Caches commonly (most often? most recently?) used PTEs
 - The locality principle at work again
- More details on this in an upcoming lecture...



What about the operating system?

- New hardware capabilities have to be used efficiently
- The operating system has to manage and multiplex the related resources
 - The **OS has to adapt** to new hardware capabilities!
 - It has to provide **code** for all new capabilities
 - These often **interact** with other parts of the system, making the overall OS more complex
- A modern OS also has to ensure adherence to non-functional requirements (security, energy, real-time, ...)
 - The OS has to do more bookkeeping and statistics
 - Some of the non-functional properties contradict each other
 - Unexpected problems may show up (Meltdown, Spectre [5,6])
- Finally, the OS itself has to be efficient!

References

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