

Chapter 4

Page

• What is page?

Page

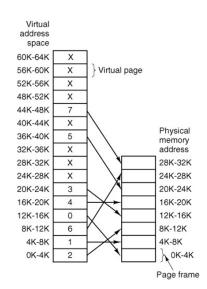
- What is page?
 - ▶ A page is a fixed-length contiguous block of virtual memory, described by a single entry in the page table.
 - ▶ It is the smallest (usually) unit of data for memory management in a virtual memory operating system.
 - ▶ In our case we will consider 4kb pages.

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 - In our case we will consider 4kb pages.
 - Check with getconf PAGESIZE.
- How is the mapping of a page between virtual address space and physical address space done?

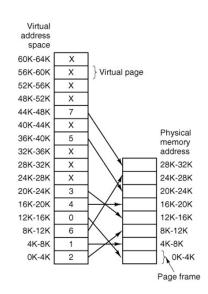
Single level paging

- To the right we have an example of a single layer paging system
- The X's indicate that the virtual page does not at present have a corresponding physical page.
 - If a program requires a virtual page marked with an X this causes a page fault.
 - The system must then allocate some physical memory to assign this virtual page to.
 - ★ But what if there is no space left?



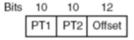
Single level paging

- The primary problems with a single level paging system is the size of the table.
 - Consider the linux process model with a virtual memory space of 128TB that would imply a table with 2⁽⁴⁷⁻¹²⁾ = 2³⁵ entries.
 - About 34 billion entries!
 - Assuming a 1GB of physical memory we would need to address 2⁽³⁰⁻¹²⁾ = 2¹⁸ physical 4k pages.
 - So we would need 18-bits plus 1 bit to indicate if the entry is valid or invalid.
 - ► Just this table will occupy $2^{35} * 19$ bits, which is about 81.6 GB.



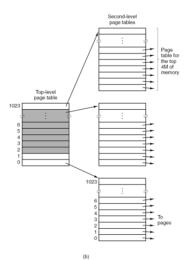
Multilevel Page Tables

- To get around the problem of having to store huge page tables in memory all the time, many computers use a multilevel page table.
- As a simple example consider we have a 32-bit virtual address (4GB) ,that is partitioned into a
 - ▶ 10-bit PT1 field
 - ▶ 10-bit PT2 field,
 - and a 12-bit Offset field (for the 4k pages).
- In general if we used PT1+PT2 together we would be working 2²⁰ pages
 - That's a lot of pages to keep in memory



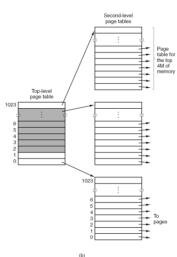
Multilevel Page Tables

- The top level page table corresponds to the first 10-bits.
 - which maps to 1024 page tables
- The second level page table corresponds to the second 10-bits
 - Which maps to the 1024 pages of size 4K
- The last remaining 12 bits are used as the offset to address the contents of the 4K page.



Multilevel Page Tables

- The secret to the multilevel page table method is to avoid keeping all the page tables in memory all the time.
 - In particular, those that are not needed should not be kept around.
- By marking elements of the top-level page table as absent we do not need to maintain (or store) all the second level page tables, saving substantially on space.



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Memory mapping pages and tables

- Linux uses 4 layer page tabling.
- Each page is $2^{12} = 4096$ bytes
- An address is 8 bytes (not all used)
- Each page table can hold $2^9 = 512$ addresses
- A 9 bit field is needed to index the mapping tables
- \bullet Current mapping uses 48 bits, so we are limited to 2^{48} bytes which is 256 TB

Logical memory address fields

63-48	47–39	38-30	29-21	20-12	11-0
unused	PML4 index	page directory	page directory	page table	page offset
		pointer	index	index	
		index			

- Bits 47-39 are used to index the PML4 table
- Bits 38-30 are used to index the selected page directory pointer table
- Bits 29-21 are used to index the selected page directory table
- Bits 20-12 are used to index the selected page table
- Bits 11-0 are the offset into the page (for 4 KB pages)

Large pages

- Using the first 3 existing levels of page tables, we can have large pages with $2^{21} = 2097152$ bytes.
- This is used by Linux for the kernel

CPU support for fast lookups

- A CPU uses a special cache called a "Translation Lookaside Buffer" or TLB to speed up memory translation
- A TLB operates much like a hash table
- Presented with a logical address, it produces the physical address or failure in about 1/2 a clock cycle
- The Intel Core i7 has 2 levels of TLBs
 - Level 1 holds 64 small page translations (or 32 big pages)
 - ▶ Level 2 holds 512 page translations
 - Large programs with small pages will experience TLB misses which can be satisfied fairly rapidly with normal cache
 - Very large programs can crawl

Chapter 5

Register basics

- Computer main memory has a latency of about 80 nanoseconds
- A 3.3 GHz CPU uses approximately 0.3 nsecs per cycle
- Memory latency is about 240 cycles
- The Core i7 has 3 levels of cache with different latencies
 - ▶ Level 3 about 48 nsec latency or about 150 cycles
 - ▶ Level 2 about 10 nsec latency or about 39 cycles
 - ▶ Level 1 about 4 nsec latency or about 12 cycles
- There is a need for even faster memory
- This ultra-fast "memory" is the CPU's registers
- Some register-register instructions complete in 1 cycle

x86-64 registers

- CPUs running in x86-64 mode have 16 general purpose registers
- There are also 16 floating point registers (XMM0-XMM15)
- There is also a floating point register stack which we ignore
- The general purpose registers hold 64 bits
- The floating point registers can be either 128 or 256 bits
 - ► The CPU can use them to do 1 32 bit or 1 64 bit floating point operation in an instruction
 - ► The CPU can also use these to do packed operations on multiple integer or floating point values in an instruction
 - "Single Instruction Multiple Data" SIMD
- The CPU has a 64 bit instruction pointer register rip
 - contains the address of the next instruction to execute.
- There is a 64 bit flags register, rflags, holding status values like whether the last comparison was positive, zero or negative

General purpose registers

- These registers evolved from 16 bit CPUs to 32 bit mode and finally 64 bit mode
- Each advance has maintained compatibility with the old instructions
- The old register names still work
- The old collection was 8 registers which were not entirely general purpose
- The 64 bit collection added 8 completely general purpose 64 bit registers named r8 - r15

The 64 bit registers evolved from the original 8

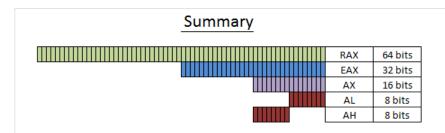
- Software uses the "r" names for 64 bit use, the "e" names for 32 bit use and the original names for 16 bit use
- rax general purpose, accumulator
 - ▶ rax uses all 64 bits
 - eax uses the low 32 bits
 - ax uses the low 16 bits
- rbx, ebx, bx general purpose
- rcx, ecx, cx general purpose, count register
- rdx, edx, dx general purpose
- rdi, edi, di general purpose, destination index
- rsi, esi, si general purpose, source index
- rbp, ebp, bp general purpose, stack frame base pointer
- rsp, esp, sp stack pointer, rsp is used to push and pop

The original 8 registers as bytes

- Kept from the 16 bit mode
 - al is the low byte of ax, ah is the high byte
 - ▶ bx can be used as bl and bh
 - cx can be used as cl and ch
 - ▶ dx can be used as dl and dh
- New to x86-64
 - dil for low byte of rdi
 - sil for low byte of rsi
 - bpl for low byte of rbp
 - spl for low byte of rsp
- There is no special direct way to access any "higher" bytes of registers

Visual summary

Break down of a 64-bit register.



The 8 new general purpose registers as smaller registers

- Here the naming convention changes
- Appending "d" to a register accesses its low double word r8d
 - ▶ double word = 4 bytes = 32 bits.
- Appending "w" to a register accesses its low word r12w
 - ► single word = 2 bytes = 16 bits.
- Appending "b" to a register accesses its low byte r15b

Moving a constant into a register

- Moving is fundamental
- yasm uses the mnemonic mov for all sorts of moves
- The generated code from gcc uses mnemonics like movq
 - ▶ gcc uses AT&T syntax by default
- Most instructions can use 1, 2 or 4 byte immediate fields
- mov can use an 8 byte immediate value.

```
mov rax, 0x0123456789abcdef; can move 8 byte immediates mov rax, 0 mov eax, 5; the upper half is set to 0 mov r8w, 16; affects only low word
```

Moving a value from memory into a register

```
segment .data
       dq
             175
а
b
       dq 4097
       db 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8
d
       dd 0xfffffff
   segment .text
          rax, a
   mov
   mov rbx, [a]
   mov rcx. [c]
          edx, [d]
   mov
```

- Using simply a places the address of a into rax
- Using [a] places the value of a into rbx

A program to add 2 numbers from memory

```
segment .data
       dq
               175
а
b
               4097
       dq
   segment .text
   global main
main:
           rax, [a]; mov a into rax
   mov
           rax, [b]; add b to rax
   add
   xor
           rax, rax
   ret
```

Move with sign extend or zero extend

- If you move a double word into a double word register (e.g. eax), the upper half is zeroed out
- If you move a 32 bit immediate into a 64 bit register it is sign extended
- Sometimes you might wish to load a smaller value from memory and fill the rest of the register with zeroes
- Or you may wish to sign extend a small value from memory
- For movsx and movzx you need a size qualifier for the memory operand

```
movsx rax, byte [data] ; move byte, sign extend
movzx rbx, word [sum] ; move word, zero extend
movsxd rcx, dword [count] ; move dword, sign extend
```

Moving values from a register into memory

Simply use the memory reference as the first operand

```
mov [a], rax; move a quad word to a
mov [b], ebx; move a double word to b
mov [c], r8w; move a word to c
mov [d], r15b; move a byte to d
```

Moving data from one register to another

• Use 2 register operands

```
mov rax, rbx ; move rbx to rax
mov eax, ecx ; move ecx to eax, zero filled
mov cl, al ; move al to cl, leave rest of
; unchanged
```