

Homework 4

Virtual Memory and I/O

1. Suppose we have a machine with a 2^{32} (32 bit) virtual address space, a maximum of 2^{32} bytes of physical memory, and a page size of 2^{12} bytes. Assume a single-level page table to begin.
 - a. Draw a virtual address, splitting it into the virtual page number and the virtual page offset. Note how many bits are used for each.
 - b. Draw a plausible page table entry, showing the length in bits of each of the fields. How many of your entries fit on a page?
 - c. Assume virtual addresses from $0x10000000$ to $0x1000ffff$ and from $0x70000000$ to $0x7000ffff$ are in use. How much space does your page table occupy?
 - d. Describe a plausible 2-level page table approach for this system and repeat a-c assuming that approach.
2. The `fork()` system call is used to create a new process that is a duplicate of the process that makes the system call. The created process (the child) and the original process (the parent) have the same memory content. However, their memory is **not** shared: when the child modifies its memory, these changes do not affect the memory of the parent, and vice versa. Here is an example:

```
int val = 0;
int ret = fork();
if (ret > 0) {
    // the parent
    val = 1;
} else if (ret == 0) {
    // the child
    val = 2;
    execl("/bin/ls", "/bin/ls", NULL);
} else {
    // ret < 0, fork() failed.
    exit(1);
}
```

Here, if `fork()` succeeds, the parent and the child will each hold an individual copy of the variable `val`. Note the parent sets `val` to 1 while the child sets `val` to 2. Each of the processes will see only its own change to `val` – these modifications will **not** interfere with each other. Notice this is very different from the `pthread_create()` function you are using in the SETILab.

A naïve implementation of `fork()` would simply allocate memory for the child, create a page table for it, and then copy all the memory contents of the parent process to the child process. Copying a process's memory is very expensive, which would make the `fork()` system call take a long time. However, Linux's implementation of `fork()` is extremely quick because it avoids this expense - its *immediate cost* is just the creation of the child process's page table. Its *long term cost* is that the first write to any page by the parent or the child will take longer than under the naïve implementation.

- A. Can you describe how such a low overhead procedure could be implemented using virtual memory mechanisms? You may want to re-read the section on copy-on-write in your textbook.
- B. It is a common case that the child process will call `execl()` to load and run a new program very soon after the `fork()` function call, like the above example does. `execl()` discards all current memory content in the process and its page table. Thus, even the fast mechanism in Linux (part A of this problem) is slower than it could be. `vfork()` is system call that can optimize this case

- even further. A `vfork()` is similar to a `fork()`, but after a `vfork()`, the child should not write any memory before it calls `exec()`. If it does, the results are specified as being *undefined*.¹ How may `vfork()` be implemented?
3. Your book talks about mark-and-sweep garbage collection. A completely different approach is known as stop-and-copy garbage collection. In this approach, the heap memory is divided in half into the “working memory” and the “free memory”. The program always uses just the working memory. When the program runs out of memory, it stops and garbage collection is invoked. As the garbage collector traverses the graph of nodes reachable from the root nodes (i.e., the non-garbage), it copies each reachable node to the free memory, placing the nodes sequentially in the free memory in the order in which they are traversed. By means of mechanisms that are not important here, each node is copied only once, and all the pointers between the reachable nodes are updated appropriately. Then, the garbage collector simply starts treating the free memory as the working memory and vice versa, essentially throwing away all the unreachable nodes en masse. One often finds that stop-and-copy greatly increases cache hit rates, especially for pointer-based data structures such as lists, trees, and graphs. Why?
 4. Traceroute (`/bin/traceroute`) lets you trace the route which your packets take from source to destination. Ping (`/usr/bin/ping`) lets you measure the round-trip latency to a host. Dig (`/usr/bin/dig`) and whois (installed on some systems, also available via the web) let you find detailed information about DNS names. Try these commands out. (a) Pick three of your favorite web sites, or other destinations, and then run dig, whois, ping, and traceroute on them. Hand in the results. (b) Try to find a destination site that you think is very close to you, and one that you think is very far from you. Run traceroute and ping to them. How close are they, really? (Consider the speed of light). (c) determine the bandwidth and latency of your network connection. You can do this by searching for “speed test” in google. Document this.
 5. The `read()` and `write()` system calls are designed for byte streams. You can also use them with packet-oriented communication, for example with UDP (the Unreliable Datagram Protocol). In UDP, each `write()` call sends a packet. However, packets have a minimum and a maximum size (they cannot be either “too small” or “too big”). If a `write()` is too small or too large, this not an error. Instead, the system sends a packet containing some or all of the data being written. What is in the packet if the `write()` is too small or too large?

¹If you see the term “undefined” in a specification or manual, be aware that it is the committee-speak way of saying “all hell may break loose if you do this.”