Memory Management

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References:
• Chapter 3, Modern Operating Systems, Andrew S. Tanenbaum
• https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Page_(computer_memory)
• https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Page_table
• https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Virtual_memory
Memory Management

• Ideally programmers want memory that is
  • large
  • fast
  • persistent (non-volatile)
Memory Hierarchy

- Registers & Cache
  - small amount of fast, expensive, volatile memory
- Main memory
  - some medium-speed, medium price, volatile/persistent memory
- Disk & Tape
  - Lots of slow, cheap, persistent, storage

Typical access time

- Faster:
  - Registers: 1 nsec
  - Cache: 2 nsec
  - Main memory: 10 nsec
  - Magnetic disk: 10 msec
  - Magnetic tape: 100 sec

Typical capacity

- Smaller:
  - <1 KB
  - 1 MB
  - 64-512 MB
  - 5-50 GB
  - 20-100 GB

- Slower: BIGGER
Basic Memory Management

"Mono-programming" without Swapping or Paging

Three simple ways of organizing memory
- an operating system with one user process
Multiprogramming with Fixed Partitions

- Fixed memory partitions
  (a) separate input queues of processes for each partition
  (b) single input queue
Physical Memory addressing

- Consider an instruction that reads from a memory location
  - load reg memory_address
- But programmer doesn’t know the memory_address where data will be stored when the process runs!
- Solution: Relocation
  - Programmer assumes a “relative” address, which is converted to a “physical” address by the OS+hardware when the process runs.
Relocation and Protection

- Problem: A programmer doesn’t know where a program will be loaded in memory
  - address locations of variables and code routines cannot be absolute
  - must keep a program out of other processes’ partitions
- Solution: Use base and limit values
- Relocation
  - Address locations in a program are relative.
  - They are added to a **base value** to map to physical addresses.
- Protection
  - Access to address locations larger than **limit value** results in an error
What if physical memory is not enough to hold all processes?
— Swapping

- Physical memory may not be enough to accommodate the needs of all processes
- Memory allocation changes as
  - processes come into memory
  - leave memory and are \textit{swapped out} to disk
  - Re-enter memory by getting \textit{swapped-in} from disk
- Shaded regions are unused memory
Virtual Memory

• Swapping the memory of an entire process is useful when the sum of memory needed by all processes is greater than the total RAM available in the system.

• But sometimes, a single process might require more memory than the total RAM in the system.

• In such cases swapping an entire process is not enough.

• Rather, we need to break up the memory space of a process into smaller equal-sized pieces, called PAGES.

• OS then decides which pages stay in memory and which get moved to disk.

• Virtual memory: means that each process gets an illusion that it has more memory than the physical RAM in the system.
Memory Management Unit (MMU)

- MMU is a hardware module that accompanies the CPU
- It translates the Virtual Address used by executing instructions to Physical Addresses in the main memory.
Size of address space (in bytes) as a function of address size (in bits)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of bits in address</th>
<th>Maximum address space size (bytes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>$2^0 = 1$ byte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$2^1 = 2$ bytes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$2^2 = 4$ bytes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>$2^{10} = 1024 = 1$KiB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>$2^{12} = 4$KiB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>$2^{16} = 64$ KiB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>$2^{32} = 4$GiB (Gibibytes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>$2^{64} = 16$ EiB (Exbibytes)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Page Table

- An array that stores the mapping from virtual page numbers to physical numbers.

- The OS maintains:
  - One page table per userspace process.
  - And usually another page table for kernel memory.
Translating 
Virtual address (VA) to physical address (PA)

Virtual Address Space  Physical RAM

Virtual Page Numbers (VPN)

2
1
0

Byte Address =
Page Number x Page Size +
Byte Offset in the page

VA = VPN x Page Size + Byte Offset

PA = PPN x Page Size + Byte Offset
Virtual Address Translation
For Small Address Space

Internal operation of MMU with 16 4 KB pages
Virtual Address Translation
For Large Address Space

- 32 bit address with 2 page table fields
- Two-level page tables
- PT too Big for MMU
  - Keep it in main memory
- But how does MMU know where to find PT?
  - Registers (CR2 on Intel)
Typical Page Table Entry (PTE)

- Page Frame number = physical page number for the virtual page represented by the PTE
- Referenced bit: Whether the page was accessed since last time the bit was reset.
- Modified bit: Also called “Dirty” bit. Whether the page was written to, since the last time the bit was reset.
- Protection bits: Whether the page is readable? writeable? executable? contains higher privilege code/data?
- Present/Absent bit: Whether the PTE contains a valid page frame number. Used for marking swapped/unallocated pages.
TLBs – Translation Lookaside Buffers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Virtual page</th>
<th>Modified</th>
<th>Protection</th>
<th>Page frame</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>RW</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>R X</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>RW</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>RW</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>R X</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>R X</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>860</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>RW</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>861</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>RW</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- TLB is a small cache that speeds up the translation of virtual addresses to physical addresses.
- TLB is part of the MMU hardware (comes with CPU)
- It is not a Data Cache or Instruction Cache. Those are separate.
- TLB simply caches translations from virtual page number to physical page number so that the MMU don’t have to access page-table in memory too often.
- On older x86 processors, TLB had to be “flushed” upon every context switch because there is no field in TLB to identify the process context.
  - Tagged TLB can reduce this overhead
Cold Start Penalty

• Cost of repopulating the TLB (and other caches) upon a context switch.

• Immediately after a context switch, all (or many) of TLB entries are invalidated.
  • On some x86 processors, TLB has to be “flushed” upon every context switch because there is no field in TLB to identify the process context.
  • Every memory access by the newly scheduled process may results in a TLB miss.

• MMU must then walk the page-table in main memory to repopulate the missing TLB entry, which takes longer than a cache hit.
Tagged TLB

- A “tag” in each TLB entry identifies the process/thread context to which the TLB entry belongs.
- Thus TLB entries for more than one execution context can be stored simultaneously in the TLB.
  - TLB lookup hardware matches the tag in addition to the virtual page number.
- With tags, context switch no longer requires a complete TLB flush.
  - Reduces cold-start penalty.
Two types of memory translation architectures

- **Architected Page Tables**
  - Page table interface defined by ISA and understood by memory translation hardware
  - E.g. x86 architecture
  - MMU handles TLB miss (in hardware)
  - OS handles page faults (in software)
  - ISA specifies page table format

- **Architected TLBs**
  - TLB interface defined by ISA and understood by MMU
  - E.g. alpha architecture
  - TLB miss handled by OS (in software)
  - ISA does not specify page table format
Impact of Page Size on Page tables

Small page size

• Advantages
  • less internal fragmentation
  • page-in/page-out less expensive

• Disadvantages
  • process that needs more pages has larger page table
  • Smaller “TLB Coverage” (next slide)
TLB Coverage

- Max amount of memory mapped by TLB
  - Max amount of memory that can be accessed without TLB misses

- TLB Coverage = N x P bytes
  - N = Number of entries in TLB
  - P = Page size in bytes
  - N is fixed by hardware constraints
  - So, to increase TLB Coverage, we must increase P.

- Consider these extreme examples
  - Suppose P = 1 byte
    - TLB Coverage = N bytes only
  - Suppose P = 2^64 bytes (on a 64-bit ISA)
    - TLB Coverage = N x 2^64 bytes
    - TLB can perform translations for N processes without any TLB misses!

- Of course, both examples above are impractical and meant to illustrate the tradeoffs.

- But what if P is something reasonable, but greater than the standard 4KB?

- This brings us next to superpages.
Superpages

- Memory pages of larger sizes than standard pages
  - supported by most modern CPUs

- Superpage size = power of 2 x the base page size

- Only one TLB entry per superpage
  - But multiple (identical) page-table entries, one per base page

- Constraints:
  - contiguous (physically and virtually)
  - aligned (physically and virtually)
  - uniform protection attributes
  - one reference bit, one dirty bit
A superpage TLB

- Base page entry (size=1)
- Superpage entry (size=4)

Virtual memory

Physical memory

Virtual address

Physical address

TLB
• 32 bit address
  • 4KiB page: 12 bit offset and 20 bit page number
  • 8KiB page: 13 bit offset and 19 bit page number
  • 64KiB page: 16 bit offset and 16 bit page number
Quiz

• Consider a machine that has a 32-bit virtual address space and 8KiByte page size.

1. What is the total size (in bytes) of the virtual address space for each process?

2. How many bits in a 32-bit address are needed to determine the page number of the address?

3. How many bits in a 32-bit address represent the byte offset into a page?

4. How many page-table entries are present in the page table?
Quiz Answers

• Consider a machine that has a 32-bit virtual address space and 8KiByte page size.

1. Total size (in bytes) of the virtual address space for each process = \(2^{32} = 4 \times 1024 \times 1024 \times 1024 \text{ bytes} = 4 \text{ GiB}\)

2. Number of pages in virtual address space = \(\frac{4 \text{ GiB}}{8 \text{ KiB}} = 512 \times 1024 = 2^9 \times 2^{10} = 2^{19}\)
   • So the number of bits in a 32-bit address are needed to determine the page number of the address = \(\log_2(4 \text{ GiB}/8 \text{ KiB}) = \log_2(2^{19}) = 19\) bits

3. How many bits in a 32-bit address represent the byte offset into a page?
   • \(\log_2(8 \text{ KiB}) = \log_2(2^{13}) = 13\) bits
   • Also, \(32 - 19 = 13\) bits

4. How many page-table entries are present in the page table?
   • Number of PTEs = Number of pages in virtual address = \(\frac{4 \text{ GiB}}{8 \text{ KiB}} = 2^{19}\) pages
References

• Chapter 3: Modern Operating Systems, Andrew S. Tanenbaum

• X86 architecture

• Memory segment
  http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Memory_segment

• Memory model
  http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Memory_model

• IA-32 Intel Architecture Software Developer’s Manual, Volume 1: Basic Architecture