ECS518U - Operating Systems Week 6

Memory Management: Address Spaces & Paging

Tassos Tombros

Outline

- The problem that memory management tries to solve
 - Code relocation
 - Efficient memory use

Today

- Solutions
 - Segments
 - Pages
- Virtual memory
- Locality and page faults

Week 8

- OS **design** issues
 - Page replacement, ...
- Reading:
 - Stalling: Chapter 7 & Chapter 8 (8.1, 8.2)
 - Tanenbaum: Chapter 3

Things you will learn today

- Why is Memory Management necessary, what problems does it solve?
- Different address spaces
 - The logical address space
 - The physical address space
- Solutions to the Memory Management problem:
 - Fixed & Dynamic Partitioning
 - Segmentation
 - Paging

IMPORTANT: LOOKING AHEAD

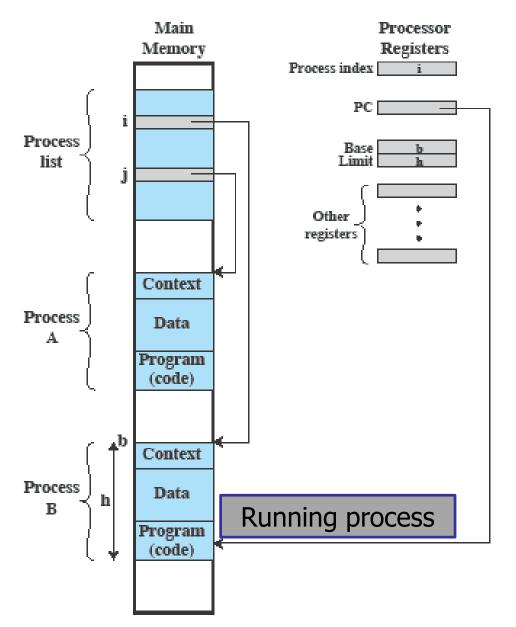
WEEK 7

- 1ST MCQ Test will be released
- WILL OPEN SATURDAY 24/02, morning
- Open for 36 hours
- Make use of the non-assessed ones that I put up every week for practice
 - Also to know how to save, restart, submit, etc.
- MATERIAL: All we have covered till end of Week 6

LECTURE WEEK 7

- Exam preparation (well, sort of)
- Anatomy of a good answer...
- Look at exam questions, look at what good and poor answers look like

From Week 2



- Many processes share the memory
- But where in memory are they?
- Are they actually nicely arranged in contiguous blocks like in the picture?
- The compiler we use for our programs needs to know where in memory to put program data
 - But it does not know, the picture proves it – why?
 - Because it can not possibly know how many other 'things' are running and where in memory they are

Memory Management Requirements

Why is memory management necessary?

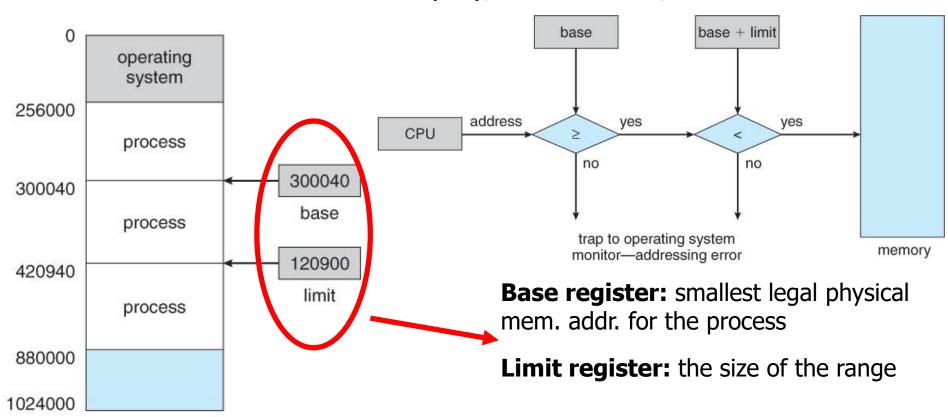
- The computer memory is shared by (many) processes
- But the compiler (and us) must produce code disregarding this fact – we can not know how many other processes are and where they are in memory
- Main **requirements** for memory management
 - Relocation (the ability to move the program from one place in memory to another)
 - Protection & sharing
 - Each process working in its own address space -(illusion)

Req. 1: Relocation

- Where is the program in memory?
 - the programmer does not know, the compiler does not know
 - it may move around after it is loaded, will def. move around if you stop it and run it later
 - what if you run two instances of the same program? where will they be?
- We need to be able to relocate a program in memory
- What really are variables?
 - References to memory locations
- **How** is this simple instruction executed x = x + 1?
 - In a series of LOAD and STORE assembly instructions

Req. 2: Protection and Sharing

- No use of memory locations in another process
 - Accessing memory that the program is not allowed to causes a **trap** (check the term from week 2) – switch into kernel mode for OS to act
- But there are cases where we may want to allow several processes to access the same portion of memory
 - Inter-Process Communication (IPC), shared libraries, ...



Addresses: 2 types (for now)

Logical

- Reference to a memory location independent of the current use of memory
- Instructions issued by CPU reference logical addresses
 (pointers, arguments to LOAD/STORE, etc.)
 the memory

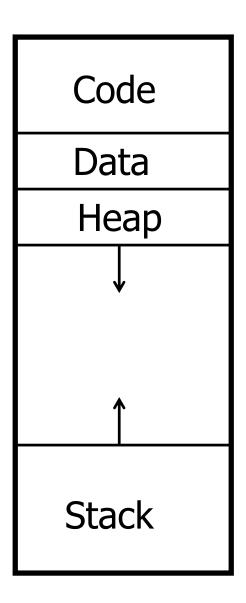
you paid

for

- Physical or Absolute
 - The actual location in memory
 - Used by CPU
 - Easy to remember: physical memory
- Address translation
 - Change the address: logical ———— physical

Logical Address Space

- Logical Address space is the set of addresses available to a program
- Possible addresses
 - 16 bits = Not enough any more
 - 32-bits = 4GBytes
 - 64-bits = (A LOT!!!)
- Recall these different segments from Week 2?

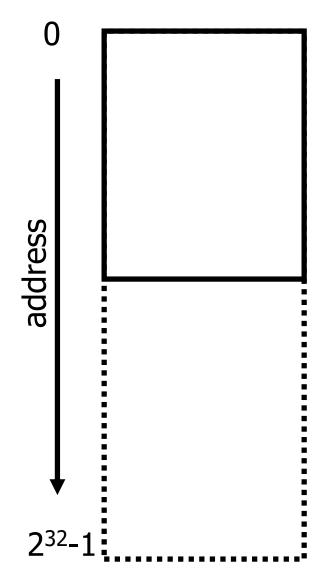


Physical (Real) Memory

- The memory we paid for
- Real memory is always less than logical address space
 - Memory mapped I/O
 - OS data
 - Simply can not afford 2⁶⁴ memory

Address space abstraction:

- Process has its own address space
- Can you imagine how it would be without this abstraction?



e.g.: 4GB of physical memory

An old Solution – Partition Memory

Fixed Partitioning

- Divide memory into contiguous 'blocks' at boot time
- Partitions don't change what happens if your program grows? (you run out of space)
- Internal fragmentation (we have reserved some memory for a process which we are not fully using)
- Hardware requirement: base register (loaded by OS at context switch)
 - physical address = logical address + base register

Dynamic Partitioning

- Create partitions as programs are loaded
- External fragmentation (unused memory broken-up into small regions that are unusable), but no internal fragmentation
- Hardware requirement: base and limit register
 - physical address = logical address + base register
 - protection: if (physical address > (base+limit)) then TRAP!!!!

Dynamic Partitioning Example

OS (8M)

P2 (14M)

Empty (6M)

P4 (8M)

Empty (4M)

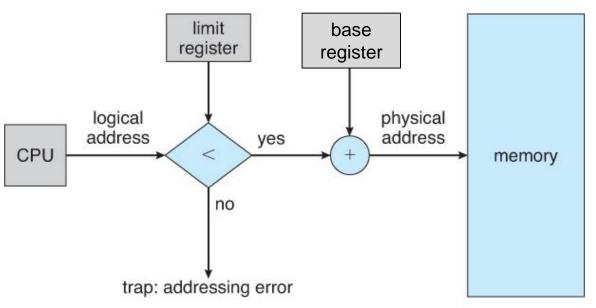
P3 (18M)

Empty (6M)

- External Fragmentation
- Memory external to all processes is fragmented
 - In this scenario, a new process requiring 7M of memory would not fit, even if the total free memory available is much over 7M
 - We would need to compact the memory to make the free space contiguous – this has a high overhead

Concept link: (fragmentation in disks)

Protection and relocation in dynamic partitioning



- protection against
 user programs
 accessing areas that
 they should not
- programs can be relocated to different memory addresses as needed

Uses base and limit registers

- base: the 'starting point' of the process in physical memory
- limit: the 'size' of the process

Key Concepts - Checkpoint

1. Relocation

Code can be moved from one location in memory to another

2. Fragmentation

- A problem to avoid: unusable chucks of memory
- Internal and external

3. Logical versus physical addresses

- Logical: from the compiler, as seen by the CPU
- Physical: the memory we paid for

4. Address translation

- Change logical addresses to physical
- One method of relocation

Better Solutions: Pages and Segments

Segmentation

- Divide program into segments
 - Each segment is contiguous
 - Some external fragmentation

Paging

- Divide memory into equal-size pages
- Load program into available pages
 - Pages do not need to be consecutive
- Some internal fragmentation

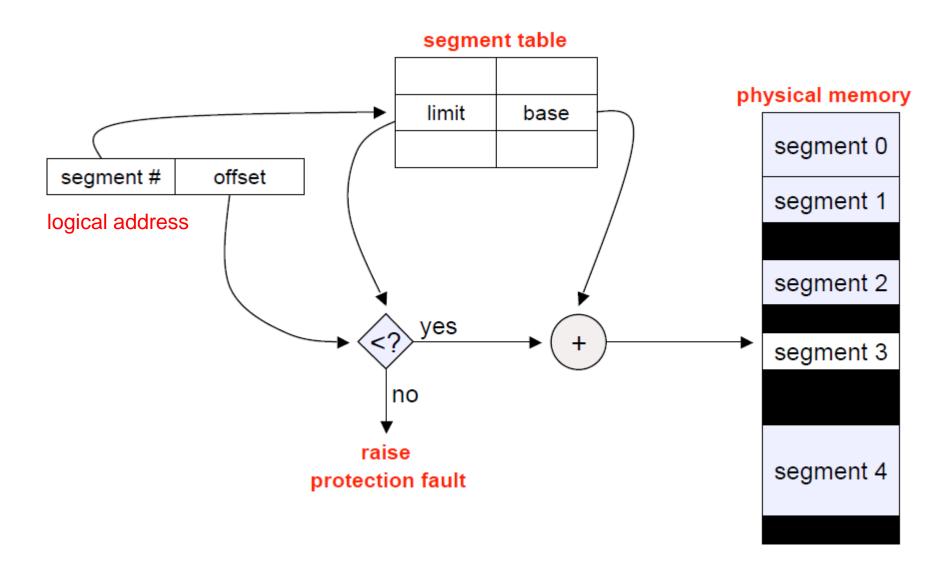
• Virtual memory (Week 8)

"when our programs need more memory than we paid for..."

Segmentation

- A program can be subdivided into segments
 - Segments may vary in length
 - There is a maximum segment length
- Why do we do that?
 - e.g. we want to separate the code from the data
 - Code is read-only, data can be r+w
 - Because code is read-only we can also safely share it if we want amongst many processes
- Addressing consists of two parts
 - a segment number and
 - an offset
- Segment table for a process

Segment look-ups



Segmentation Pros and Cons

Pros

- Protection, as we can set segments for
 - Data: read and write
 - Code: read only
 - Shared
- No internal fragmentation

Cons

- Segment contiguous in memory (not flexible)
- External fragmentation

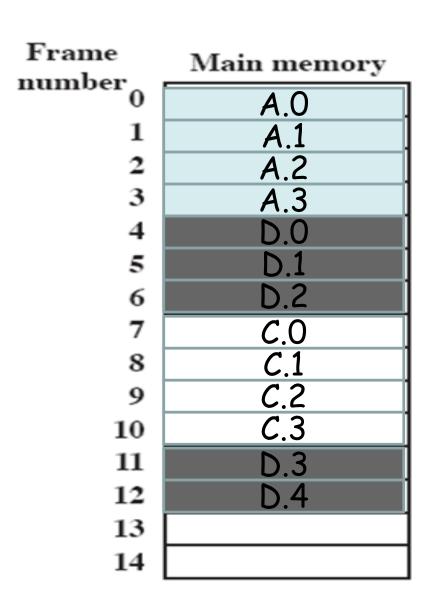
Looking ahead: Labs 6 & 7

- The next 2 labs use SystemTap
- Allows to look into the kernel, we need to be 'root' so we run them using vminstance in ITL
- Lab 6 (week 8): Not assessed, looking at CPU burst lengths (scheduling)
 - Helps you learn to use system tap and prepare for the assessed lab
- Lab 7 (week 9): Assessed, looking at memory management (paging, page faults, etc.)
- Good (?) news: not a single line of code to write
- It requires (allows) you to link what you observe in the lab with what we say in the lectures

Paging: Frames and Pages

- Fixed size memory frames (refers to physical address)
- Process has memory pages (same size as frames) refers to logical address
- We need to allocate a frame to each page that our process is using
 - any page (from any process) can be placed into any available frame
- Allows processes' physical memory to be discontinuous
- Advantage (in terms of efficient use of memory)
 - No external fragmentation
 - Internal fragmentation ok if page size (and so also frame size) is small

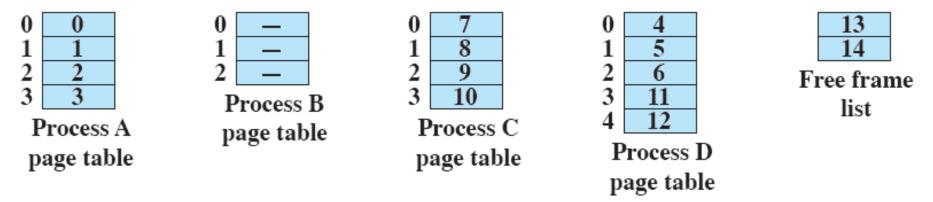
Page size trade-off



- The example shows that we avoid external fragmentation and that we allow for processes to grow (in pages)
- Page size is a trade-off
 - Too large: we risk to have a fair amount of internal fragmentation
 - Too small: We end up with too many pages and we need to store data in memory for them (page table)
 - Current typical size: 4KB but trend is to increase it as memory becomes cheaper (we can afford to store more stuff)

The Page Table

- Each process needs a map to show where its pages are (i.e. in which frame)
 - map logical → physical address
- We use a structure called a Page Table for each process
 - it is indexed by the page number



- Protection: each process only has access to its allocated frames
- Sharing: we can allow sharing on a page level

Page Table Entries

Each process has a page table:

	0	Page flags	Frame number
Page Number	1		
	2		
	3		
	4		
	5		
	6		

Flags:

- Is page in memory? (or it is on disk?)
- Has it changed?
- Protection: read only?
- Shared?

Page Table Entries: Example (Intel x86)

Page Frame Number (Physical Page Number)	Free (OS)	0	L	D	A	PCD	PWT	U	W	P	
31-12	11-9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	-

P: Present (same as "valid" bit in other architectures)

W: Writeable

U: User accessible

PWT: Page write transparent: external cache write-through

PCD: Page cache disabled (page cannot be cached)

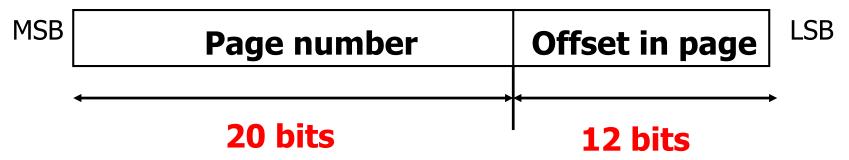
A: Accessed: page has been accessed recently

D: Dirty (PTE only): page has been modified recently

L: L=1⇒4MB page (directory only, for 2-level page tables). Bottom 22 bits of logical address serve as offset

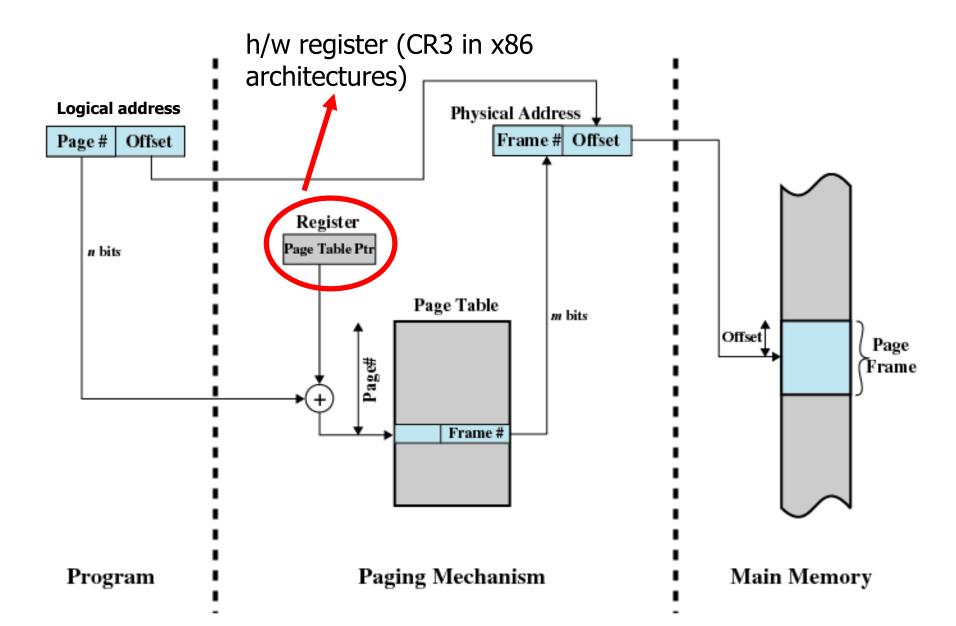
Page Sizes and Logical Addresses

- A logical address for paging is split into:
 - Page number most significant bits
 - Offset address within page
- The actual split (e.g. 20/12) is architecture dependent

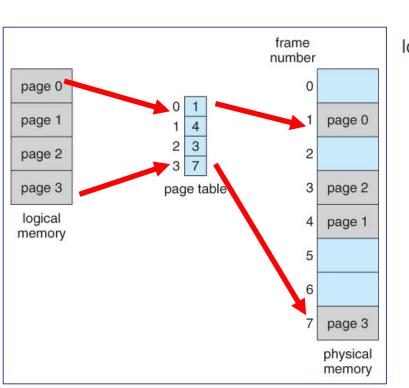


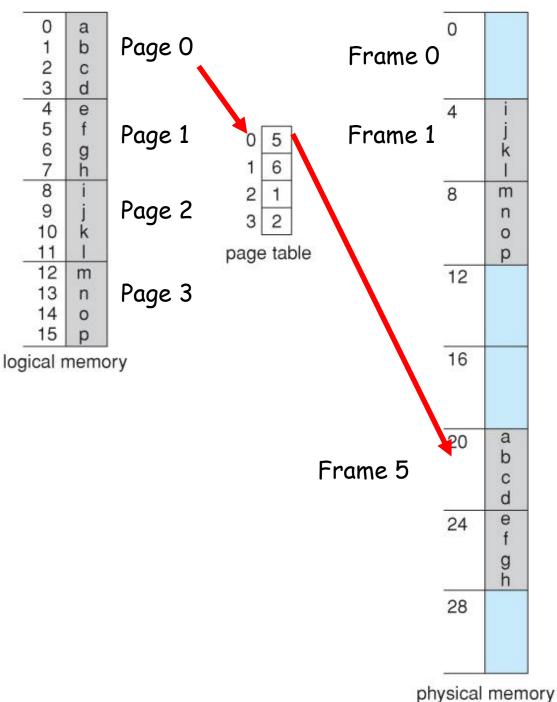
- From this we know:
 - Page size: $2^{12} = 4KB$ (same as frame size)
 - Number of pages: $2^{20} = 1$ million pages
 - Size of page table for each process, for 4bytes (=32 bits, as shown in previous slide) per Page Table Entry? 4MB

Address Translation I



Examples

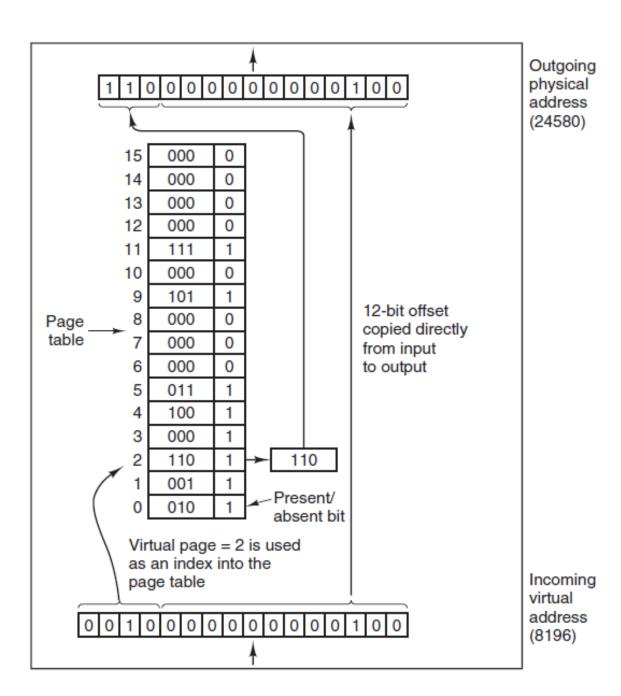




Example

What is great with 16-bit processors?

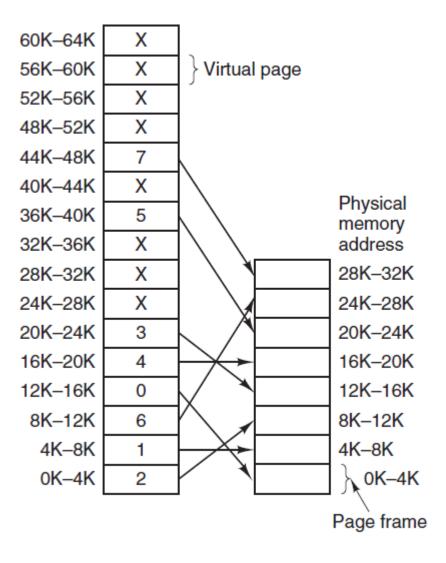
It's easy to follow translation examples in binary!!!



Paging Advantages

- Eliminates external fragmentation
- Easy to implement
- Easy to model protection
- Easy to model sharing
- Easy to allocate physical memory
 - Allocate a frame from list of free frames
- Leads naturally to Virtual Memory
 - It is not necessary to have the whole program 'memory resident'
 - We can take pages that we don't need off main memory to a page file somewhere (on disk)

Virtual Memory and Page Faults (link to next lecture)



- The **P** bit in the PTE of x86 keeps track of which pages are physically present in memory
- Pages marked with X are not memory resident, but kept on virtual memory (disk) – they have the P bit unset
- Requesting an unmapped page will cause the CPU to **trap** to the OS
- This trap is called a Page Fault
- Week 8: How we deal with Virtual Memory, page faults, strategies for caching, replacing pages, etc.

Some problems with Paging

P1: Page table is large

- 32 bit addresses & 4 KByte pages → 4 Mbyte per page table (assuming 4 bytes / entry)
- For Each Process!
- Much worse for 64bit addresses
- But... are all 1 million Page Table Entries (PTEs) needed?
 - No, sparse tables
- P2: Memory access is slow (in CPU terms...)
 - TWO memory look-ups for each memory access
 - One look-up into the page table, one more to access the data in memory
- Solutions to these & more, Week 8

Summary

- CPU generates instructions in logical space
- Hardware sees physical address space (the memory we paid for)
- OS provides the illusion (abstraction) of an address space owned by a process
- **Memory Management** provides support for translation, relocation, protection, sharing, etc.
- Solutions need to consider issues such as efficient use of memory (fragmentation), speed (access to main memory is slow compared to CPU speed), ...