



# CSIS 429 Operating Systems

## Lecture 5: Address Translation

September 21<sup>st</sup> 2020

# Textbook chapters

Read “Address Translation” and “Segmentation”

Intro	Virtualization		Concurrency	Persistence	Appendices
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# Review: Operating Systems virtualize CPUs

## Operating system scheduler

- Makes it look like each process has the CPU to itself

## Hard parts

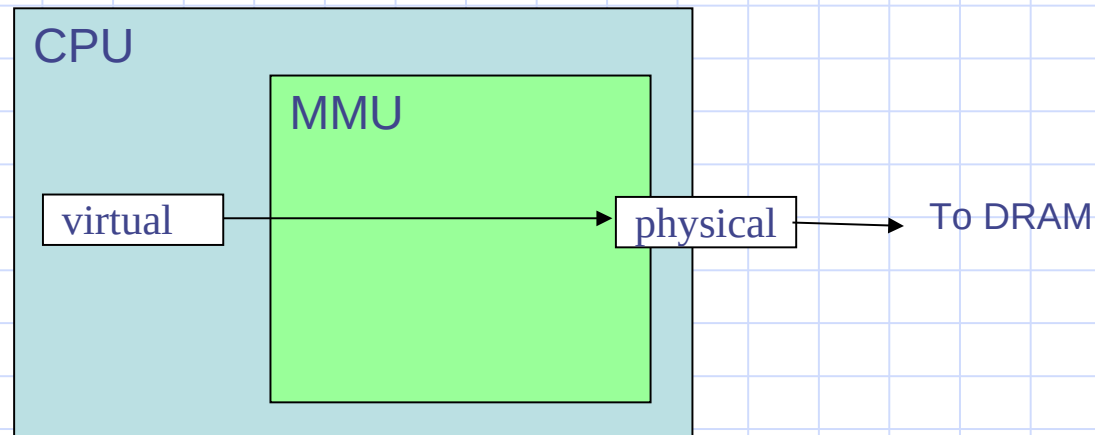
- How an OS does this:
  - ◆ context switch to save register state
  - ◆ monitoring each process and adjusting priorities
- Being fair to all running processes - MLFQ

# Review: Virtual Addresses

- Every address generated by a process is treated as a “virtual address” by the OS
- OS translates each virtual address to a DRAM address.
- The “crux” of the problem:
  - How can the OS build the abstraction of a private address space while actually having many processes use physical memory?
  - And doing so securely? And efficiently?

# Hardware-based Address Translation

Every address generated internally by the CPU is treated as a “virtual address” by the Memory Management Unit (MMU) – hardware managed by the OS.



MMU translates each virtual address to a DRAM address.

# Virtual vs. Physical Address Space

- ✓ The concept of a virtual *address space* that is bound to a separate *physical address space* is central to memory management.
  - *Virtual address* – generated by the CPU internally; also referred to as *logical address*.
  - *Physical address* – address output by the memory unit.
- Goal: create the illusion that the program has its own private memory. Behind the virtual reality is the ugly physical truth: there are many processes sharing memory!

# Simple Virtual Memory System

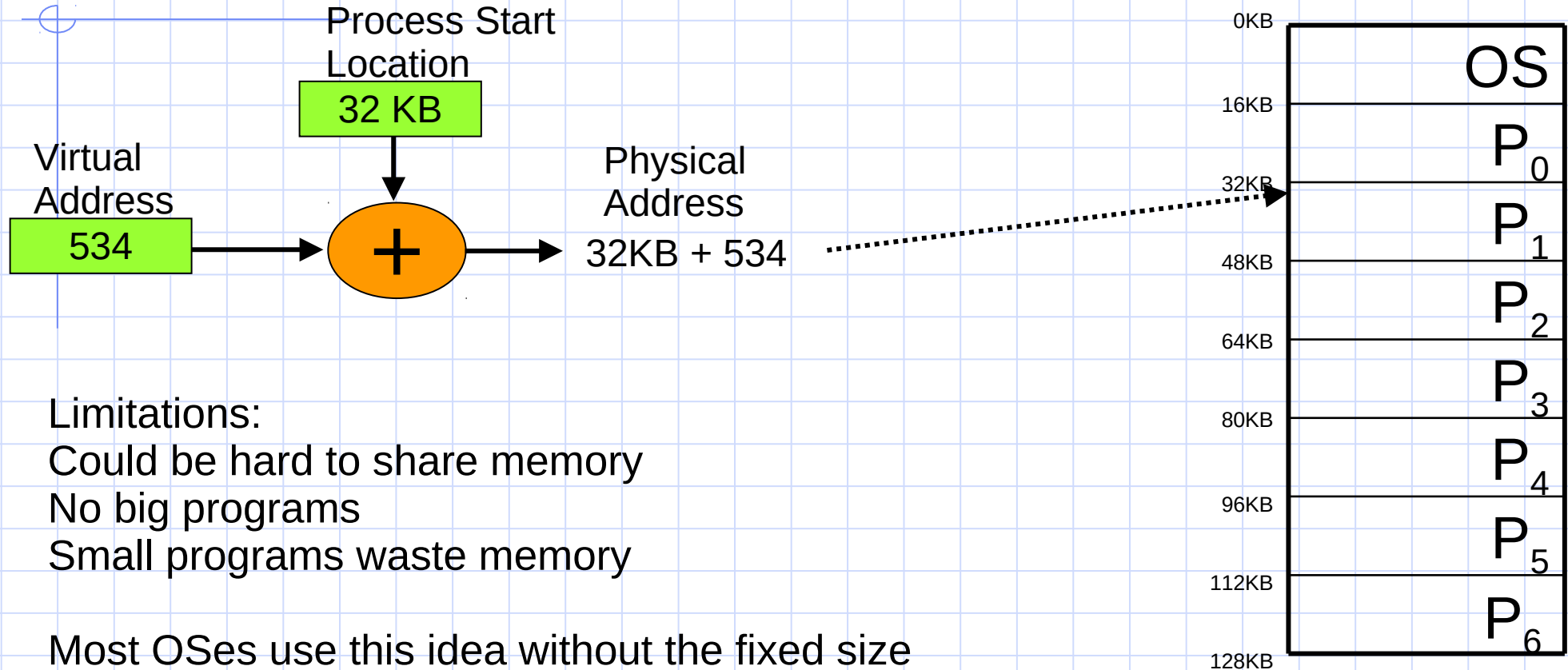
Assume:

- 1) User's address space is contiguous in physical memory
- 2) Programs can only use a small amount of memory, less than total physical memory
- 3) Each program is exactly the same size.

→ Physical memory is divided into 16 KB pieces

When a new process is loaded, assign it a new starting location

# Simple scheme for relocation



Limitations:

Could be hard to share memory

No big programs

Small programs waste memory

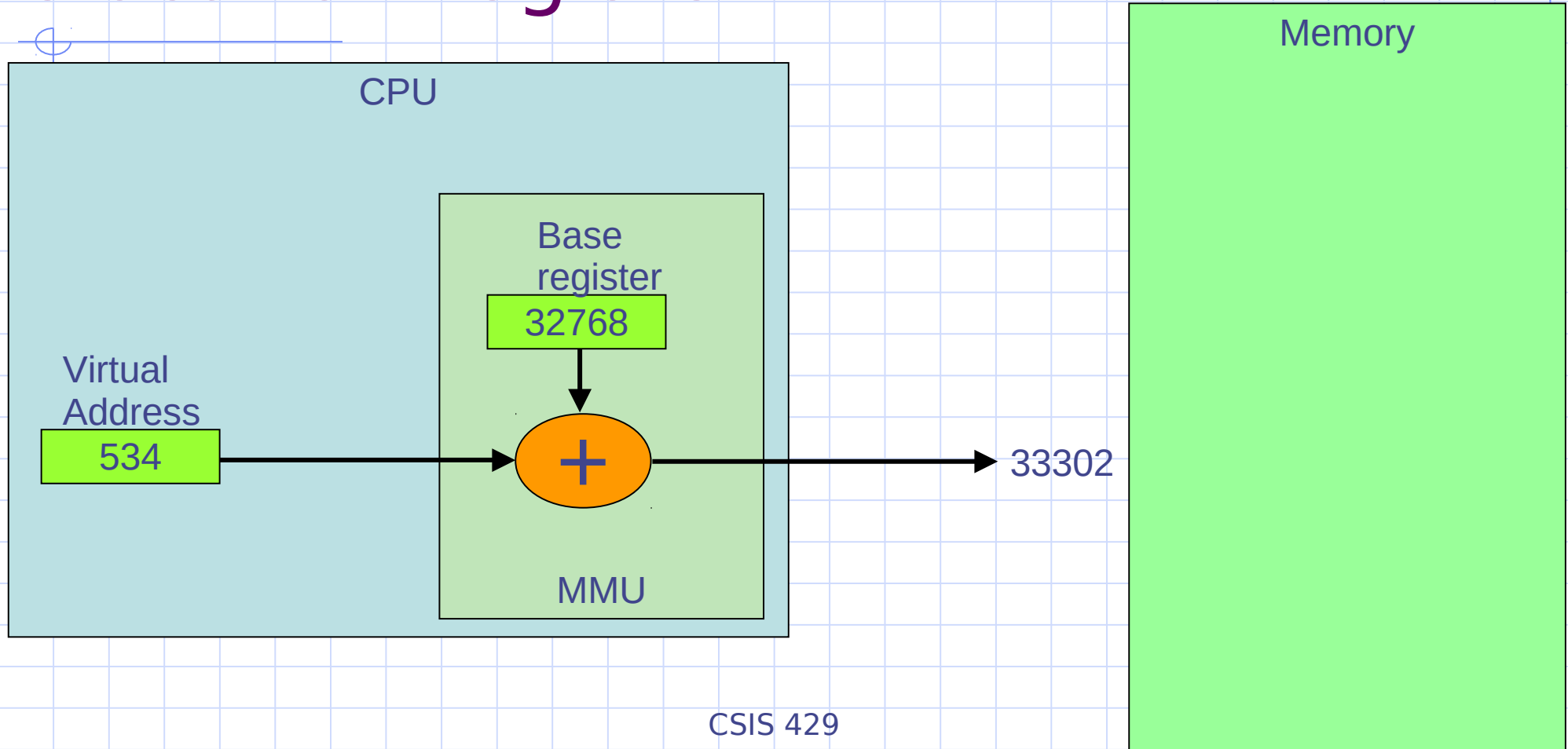
Most OSes use this idea without the fixed size



# Memory-Management Unit (MMU)

- ✓ Hardware device that maps virtual to physical address.
- ✓ In MMU, the Process Start Location value is in a “base register” and added to every address generated by a user process at the time it is sent to memory.
- ✓ The user program deals with *virtual* addresses; it never sees the *real* physical addresses.

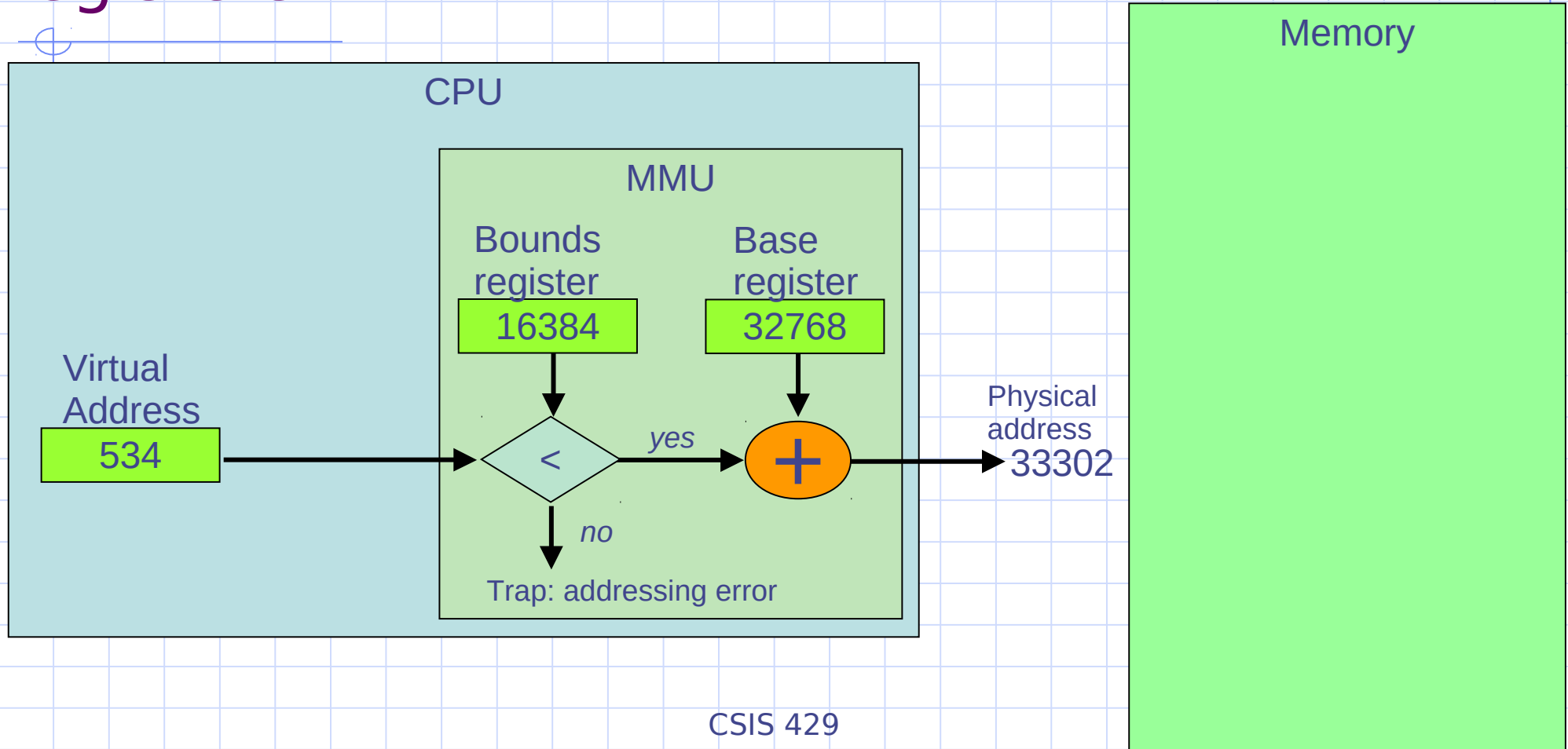
# Dynamic relocation using a relocation register



# Contiguous Allocation

- ✓ Main memory has two partitions:
  - Resident operating system, usually held in low memory with interrupt vector.
  - User processes in high memory.
- ✓ Single-partition allocation
  - Base-register scheme used to protect user processes from each other, and from changing operating-system code and data.
  - Base register contains value of smallest physical address; bounds register contains range of virtual addresses – each virtual address must be less than the bounds register.

# Hardware Support for Base and Bounds Registers

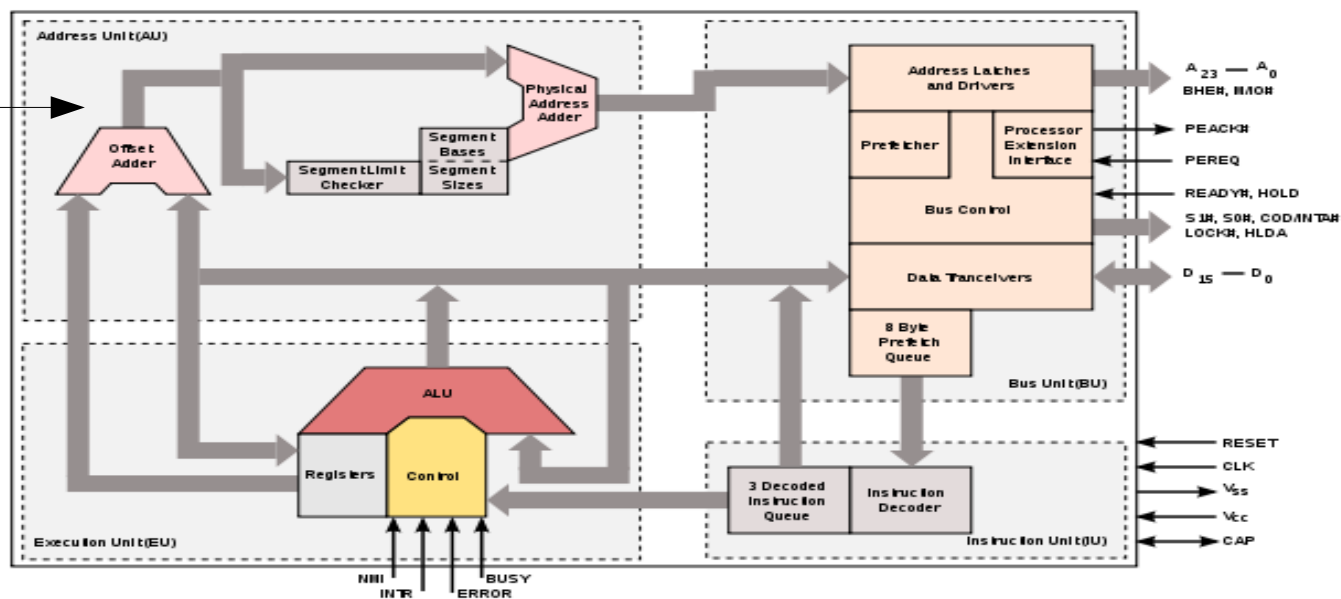


# Intel 80286 CPU - MMU

- The Intel 80286 had memory management and protection for segments.

The Address Unit had  
basic MMU hardware –  
adders and comparators

Intel 80286 architecture

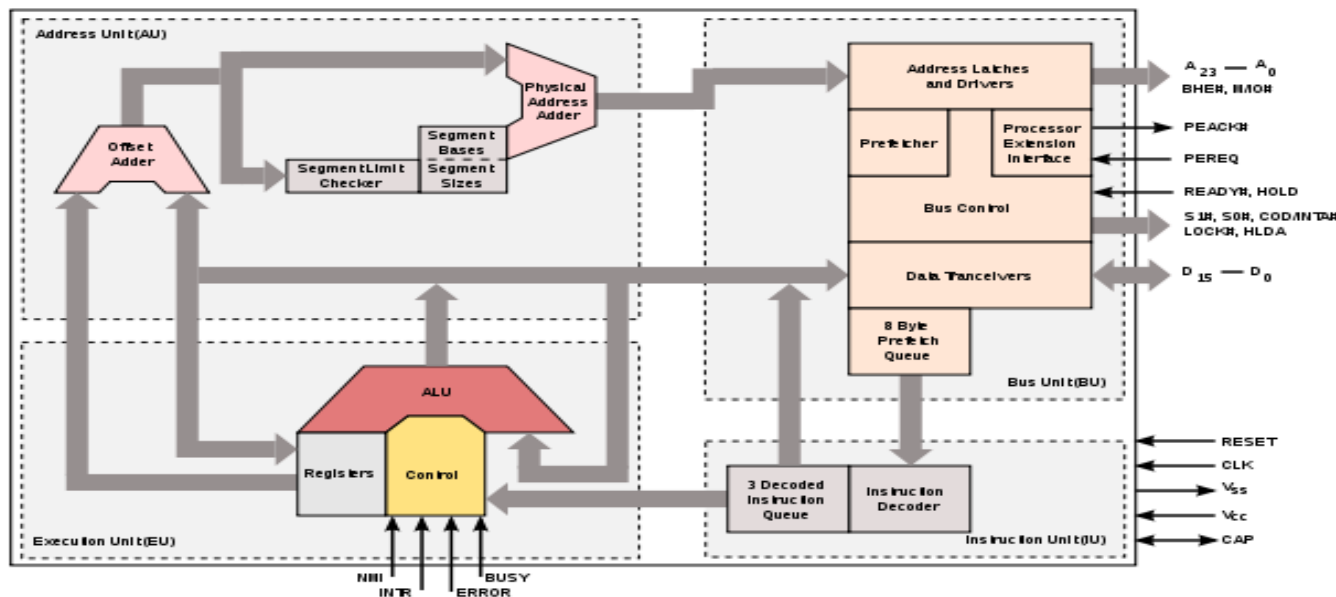


# Intel 80286 CPU

CPU with 16-bit data and 24-bit addressing.

Floating-point operations were done in a co-processor, the 80287.

Intel 80286 architecture



# Example user program fragment

```
void func(int y) {  
    int x = y;  
    x = x + 3; // translate to assembly
```

In assembly language:

Address of **x** is stored in the  
**ebx** register

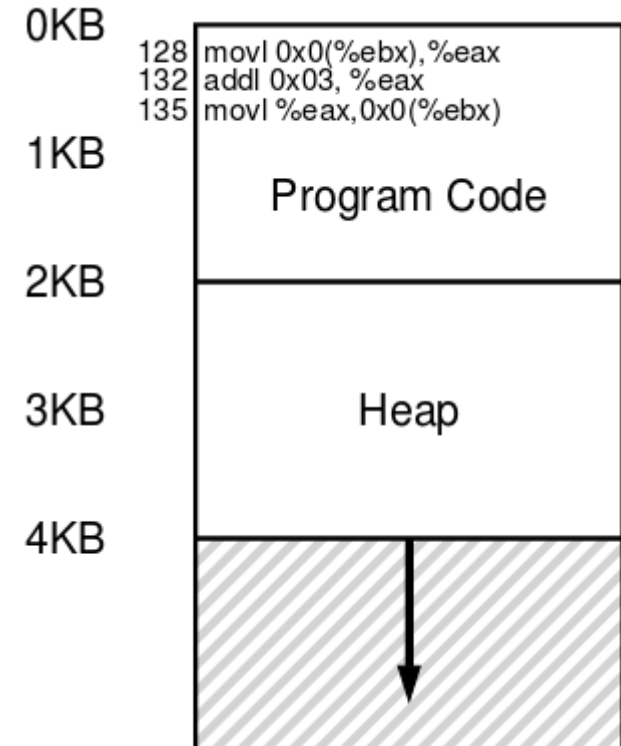
```
128: movl 0x0(%ebx), %eax ; load (ebx+0) into eax  
132: addl $0x03, %eax ; add 3 to eax  
135: movl %eax, 0x0(%ebx) ; store eax to mem
```

# Example code

```
void func(int y) {  
    int x = y;  
    x = x + 3;  
}
```

In assembly language:

```
128: movl 0x0(%ebx), %eax  
132: addl $0x03, %eax  
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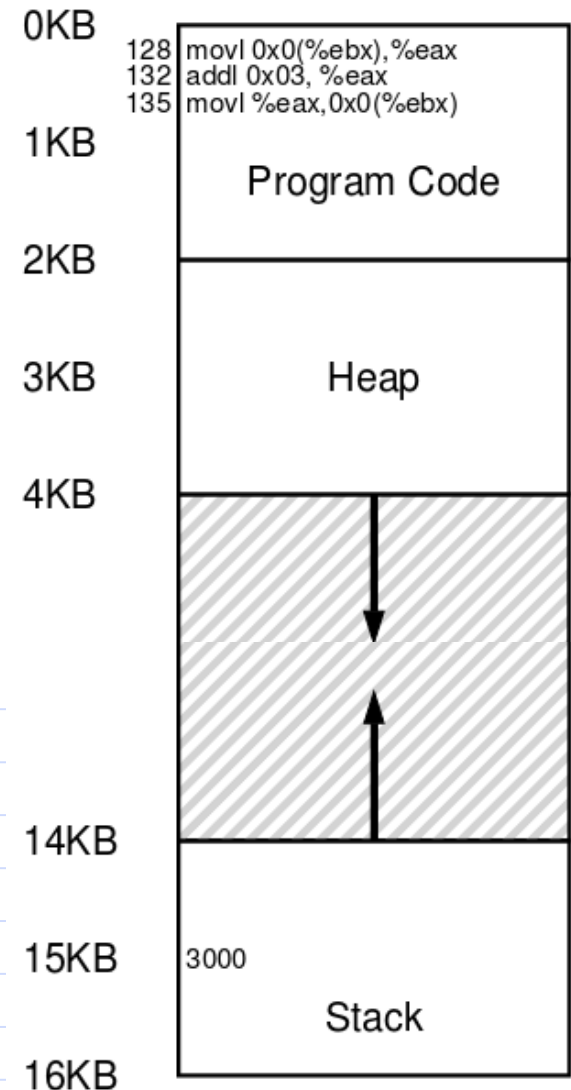


# Example code execution:

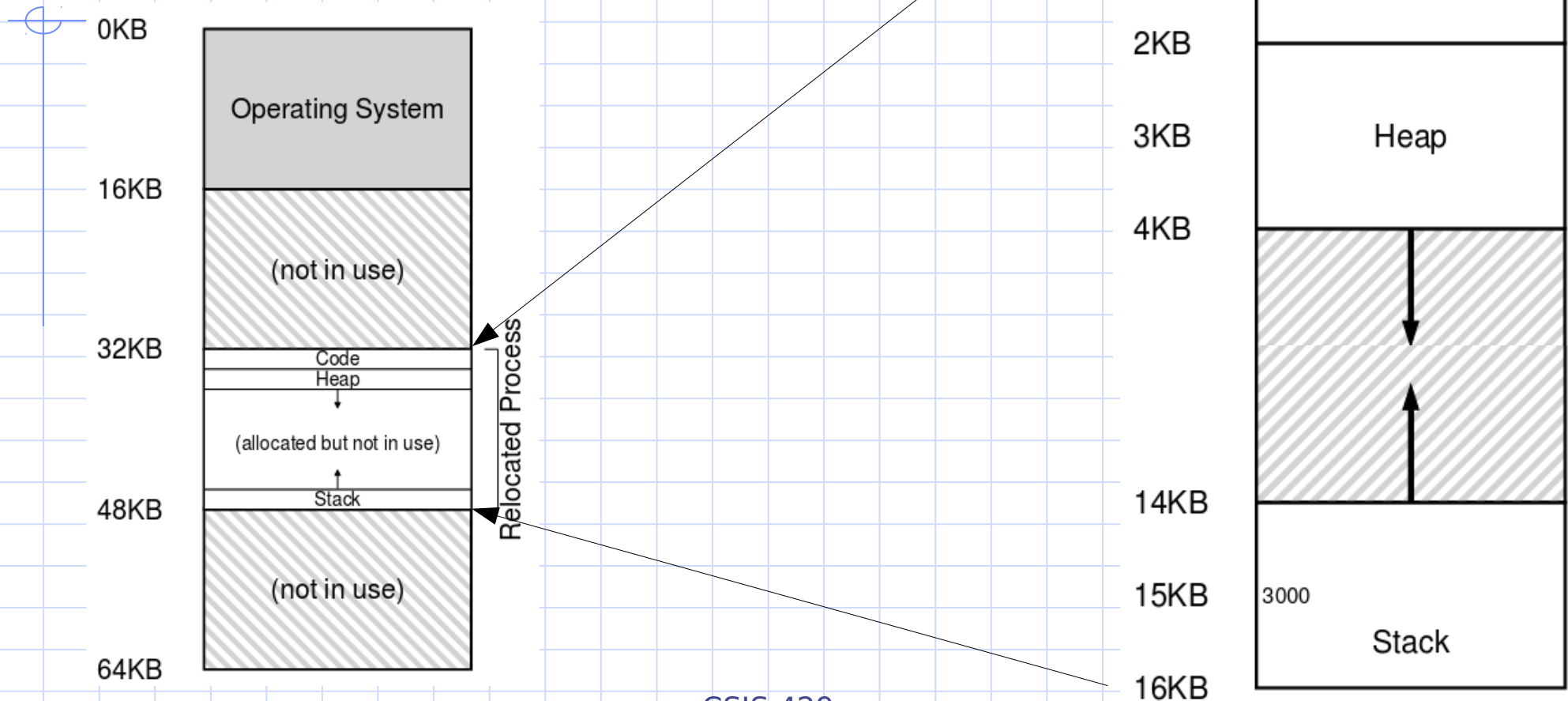
- ✓ Fetch instruction at 128-131
- ✓ Execute (load from addr 15KB)
- ✓ Fetch instruction at 132-134
- ✓ Execute (use ALU to add)
- ✓ Fetch instruction at 135-138
- ✓ Execute (store to addr 15KB)

Program thinks its address  
starts at 0 → addresses generated  
inside CPU

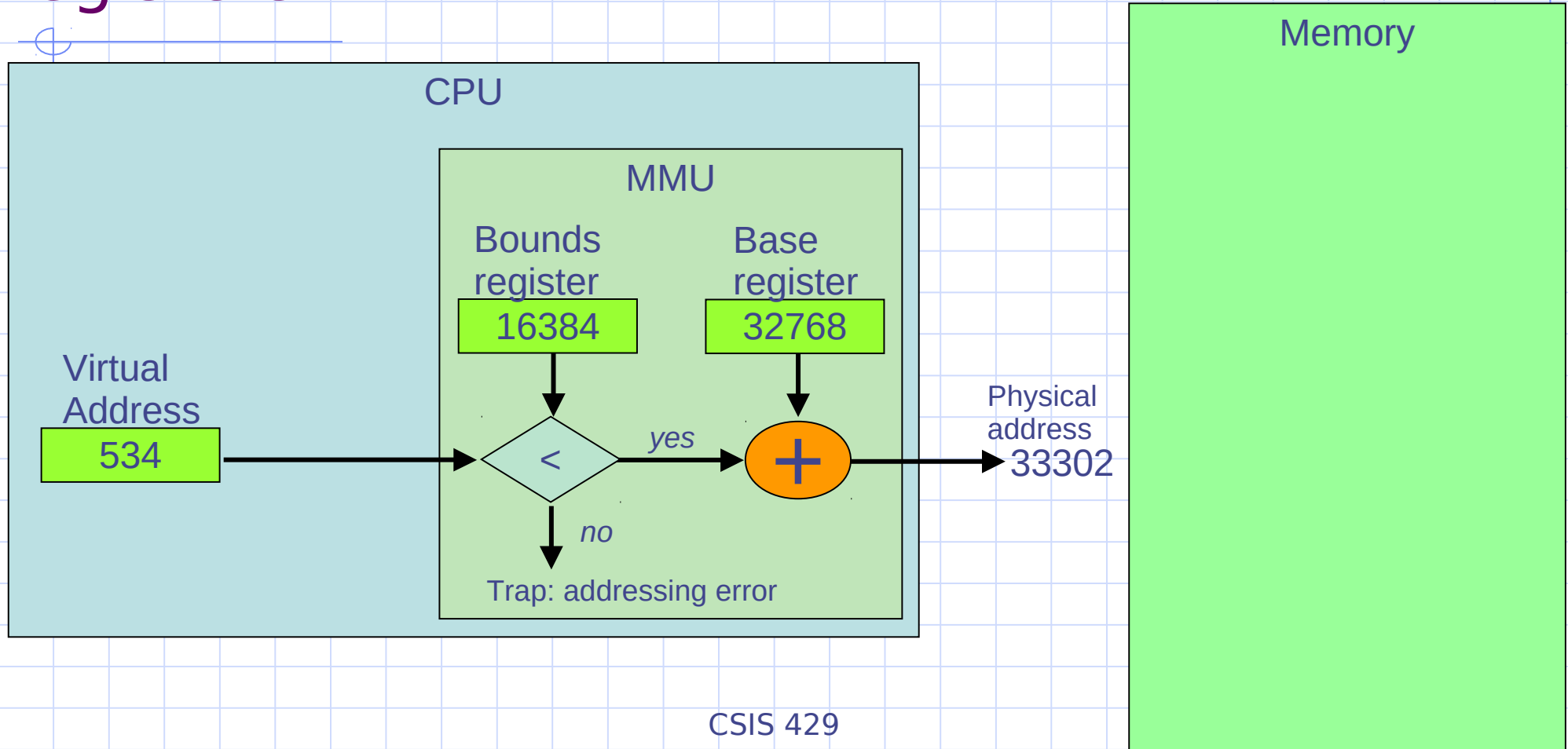
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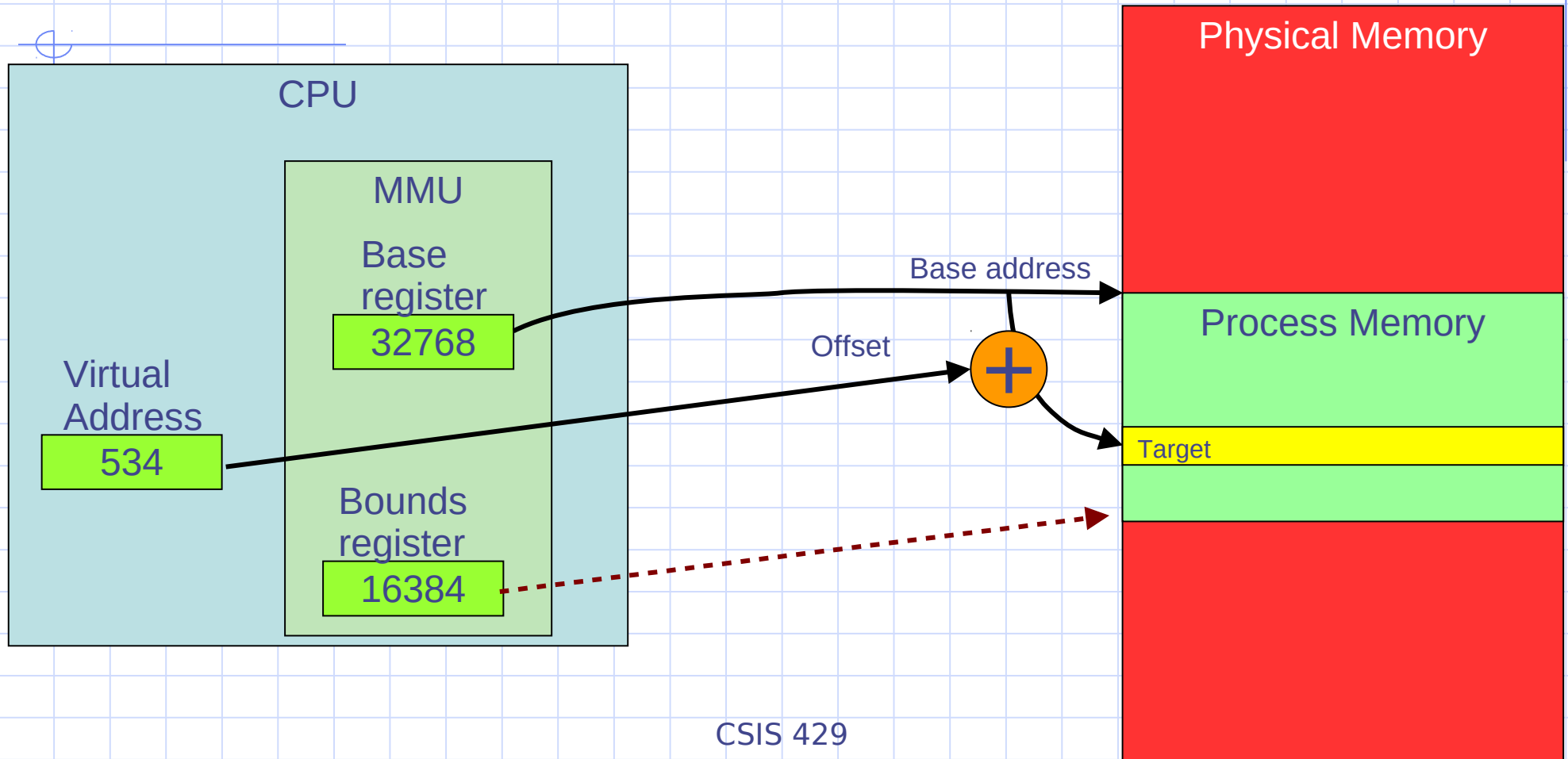
# Physical Memory:



# Hardware Support for Base and Bounds Registers



# Abstract view of Base and Bounds



# Managing processes w/ Base+Bounds:

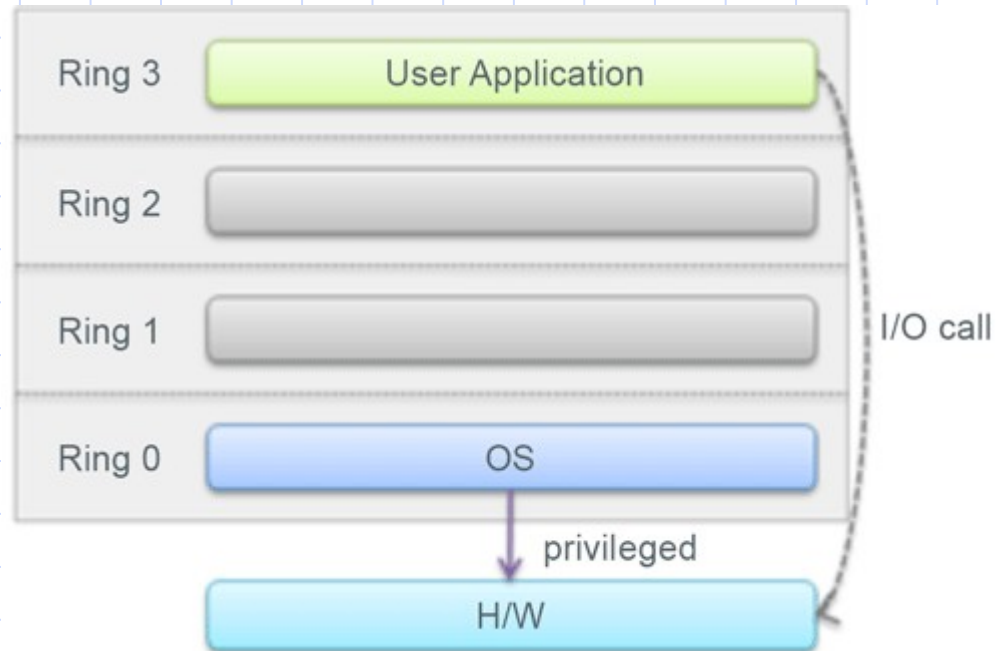
## Context switch

- ✓ Base and bounds registers are part of CPU state
- ✓ During context-switch:
  - ✓ Change to “privileged mode” in kernel
  - ✓ Save base, bounds registers of old process
  - ✓ Load base, bounds registers of new process
  - ✓ Change to user – non-privileged – mode and resume

What would happen if we did not change base, bounds during context switch?

# Intel x86 Hardware Access Rings

Intel x86 has 4 levels of hardware access authority: Ring 0 is most privileged and Ring 3 is “user space” - less privileged.



# Pros/Cons of Base+bounds:

## Advantages:

- ✓ Dynamic relocation is possible
- ✓ Processes are isolated – secure
- ✓ Inexpensive: 2 registers + some logic, ALU
- ✓ Fast: Compare, Add can be done in 2 clock cycles.

## Disadvantages:

- x Memory for each process has to be contiguous.
- x Must allocate memory that may not be used.
- x Sharing will need additional memory “segments” & logic
- x Process address space may be smaller than necessary

# Other OS issues with Dynamic Reloc.

OS will need to do other accounting:

- ✓ “Free list” to keep track of which parts of memory are available to be allocated to a new process
- ✓ When a process ends, put its memory into free list.
- ✓ When a process starts, find a block of memory and take it out of the free list.
- ✓ When all of memory has been allocated and a new process starts, OS could save the memory of an “inactive” process to disk and use that for the new process → swapping.