Memory Virtualization: Time Sharing, Base+Bounds, Segmentation

```
OSTEP Chapters 13, (14), 15, 16:
http://pages.cs.wisc.edu/~remzi/OSTEP/vm-intro.pdf
http://pages.cs.wisc.edu/~remzi/OSTEP/vm-api.pdf
http://pages.cs.wisc.edu/~remzi/OSTEP/vm-mechanism.pdf
http://pages.cs.wisc.edu/~remzi/OSTEP/vm-segmentation.pdf
```

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Virtualization

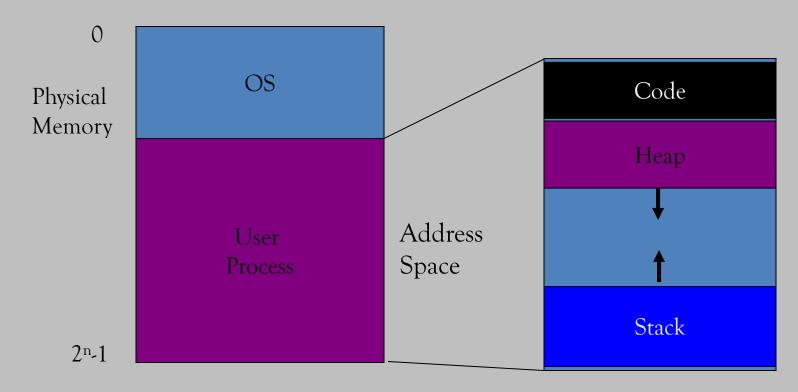
Virtual CPU: illusion of private CPU registers

Virtual RAM:

illusion of private memory

Motivation for Virtualization

Uniprogramming: One process runs at a time



Disadvantages:

- Only one process runs at a time
- Memory Virtualization: Foundations can destroy OS Memory Virtualization: Foundations

Memory Virtualization Goals

Transparency

- Processes are not aware that memory is shared
- Works regardless of number and/or location of processes

Protection

- Integrity: Cannot corrupt OS or other processes
- Privacy/confidentiality: Cannot read data of other processes

Efficiency

• Do not waste memory resources (minimize fragmentation)

Sharing

Cooperating processes can share portions of address space

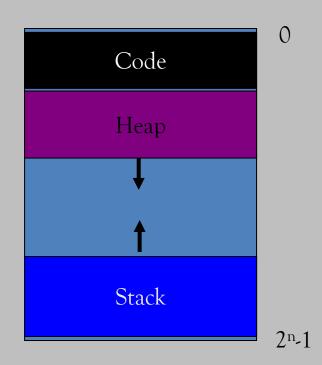
Abstraction: Address space

Address space:

Each process has set of addresses that map to bytes

Address space has static and dynamic components:

- Static: Code and global variables
- Dynamic: Stack and Heap



Motivation for dynamic memory

Why do processes need dynamic allocation of memory?

- Do not know amount of memory needed at compile time:
 often depends on program inputs
- Would have to statically allocate memory for the "worst case" → inefficient

Examples of dynamic memory allocation

Examples:

- Recursive procedures
- Complex data structures: lists, trees, hash maps, etc.

Two types of dynamic allocation:

- Stack
- Heap

Stack organization

Definition: Memory is freed in opposite order from allocation:

```
alloc(A);
alloc(B);
alloc(C);
free(C);
alloc(D);
free(B);
free(B);
```

Simple and efficient implementation: Pointer separates allocated and freed space

- Allocation: Decrement pointer
- Deallocation: Increment pointer

Where are stacks used?

OS uses stack for procedure call frames: local variables + parameters on the stack

```
main () {
    int A = 0;
    foo (A);
    printf("A: %d\n", A);
}

void foo (int Z) {
    int A = 2;
    Z = 5;
    printf("A: %d Z: %d\n", A, Z);
}
```

Heap organization

Definition: Allocate from any random location: malloc(), new()

- Heap memory consists of allocated areas and free areas (holes)
- Order of allocation and free is unpredictable

Advantage:

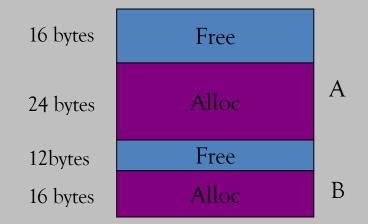
Works for all data structures

Disadvantages:

- Allocation more complex, can be slow
- Fragmentation

Divison of work: OS + library

OS gives big chunk of free memory to process;
 library manages individual allocations



Quiz: Match that address allocation

```
int x;
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
  int y;
  int *z = malloc(sizeof(int)););
}
```

Possible segments: static data, code, stack, heap

Address	Location
x	Static data
main	Code
У	Stack
z	Stack
*Z	Heap

Memory accesses

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
   int x;
   x = x + 3;
}
```

```
gcc —o exp exp.c
otool —tv exp
(or objdump under Linux)
```

```
movl -0x14(%rbp), %edi
addl $0x3, %edi
movl %edi, -0x14(%rbp)
(x86 Assembler)
%rbp is pointing to the base
of the current stack frame
```

Quiz: Memory accesses?

```
Initial:
%rip = 0x10 (PC)
%rbp = 0x200 (Basis des Stacks)

2a) Instruction fetch at address 0x10
2b) No memory access

0x10: movl
0x13: addl
0x19: movl
%edi, -0x14(%rbp)
3b) Store to address 0x10
1b) Load from address 0x200 + .0x14 = 0x1EC
2a) Instruction fetch from address 0x13
2b) No memory access
3a) Instruction fetch at address 0x19
3b) Store to address 0x1EC
```

How to virtualize memory?

Problem: How to run multiple processes simultaneously?

Challenge: Addresses are "hardcoded" into process binaries

Possible solutions for mechanisms:

- 1. Time sharing
- 2. Static relocation
- 3. Dynamic relocation
- 4. Segmentation

1. Time sharing of memory

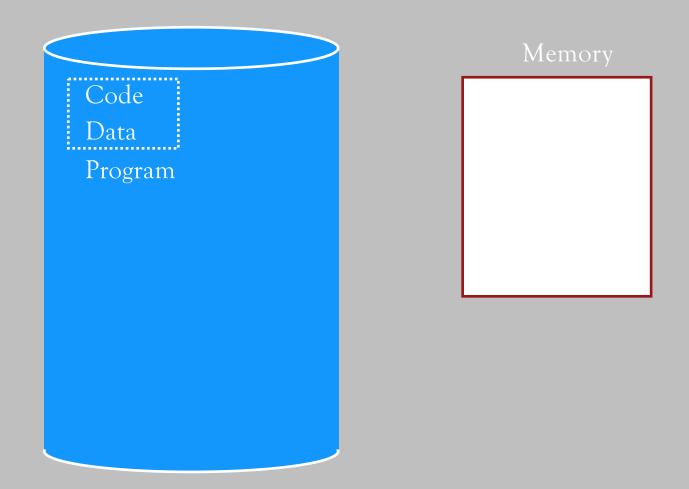
Try similar approach to how OS virtualizes CPU

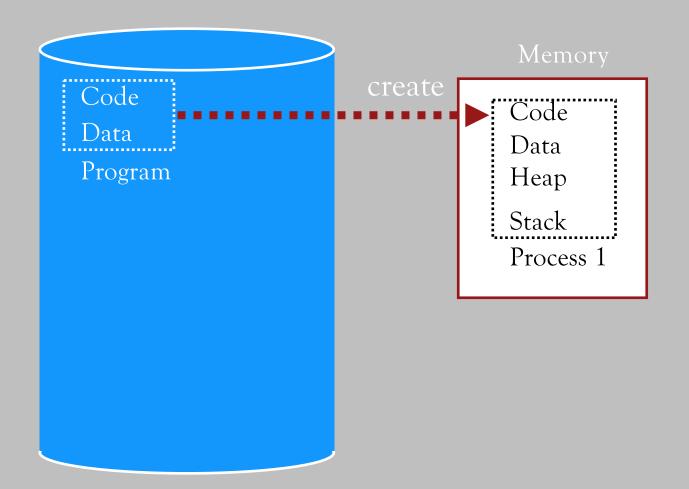
Observation: OS gives illusion of private CPUs by saving CPU registers to memory when a process isn't running

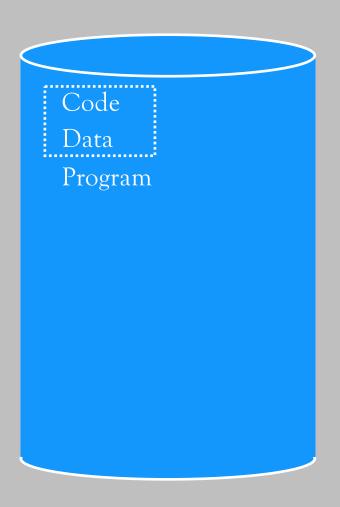
Approach:

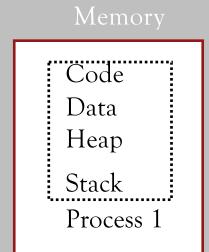
Save memory contents to disk when process isn't running

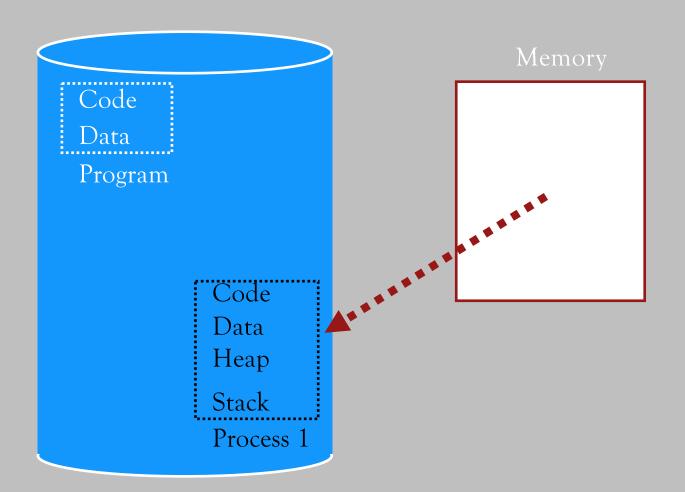
Example: Time sharing

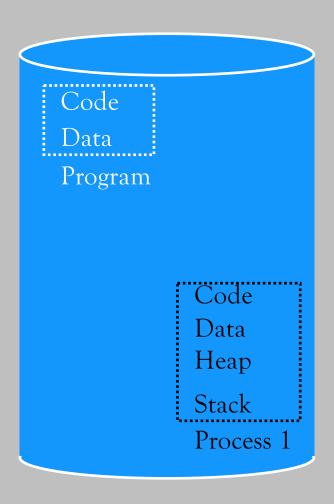


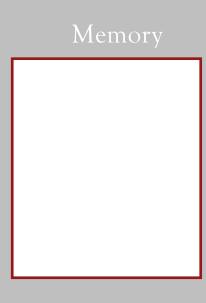


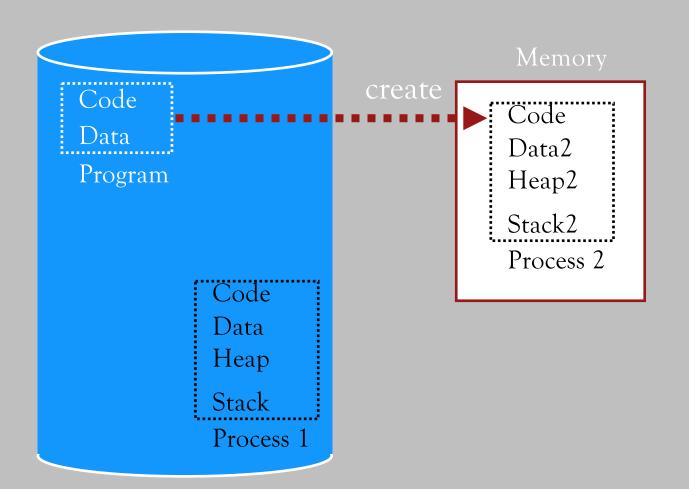


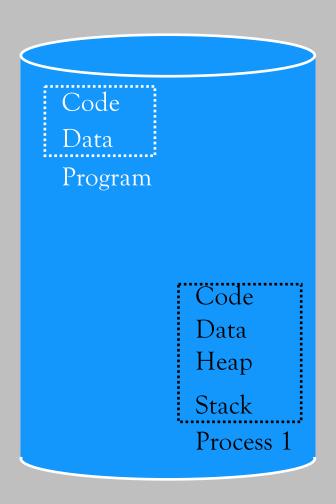


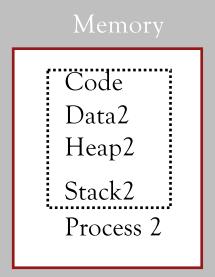


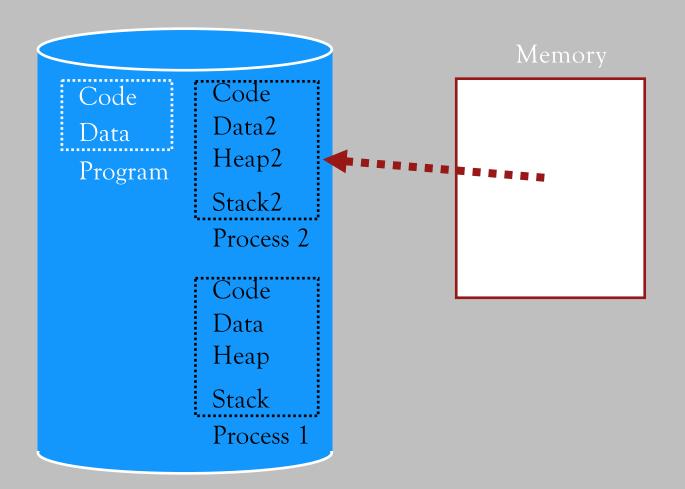


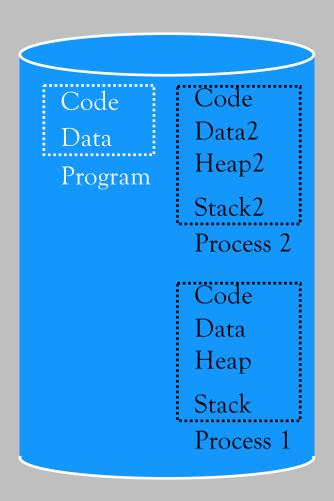


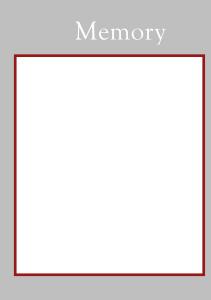


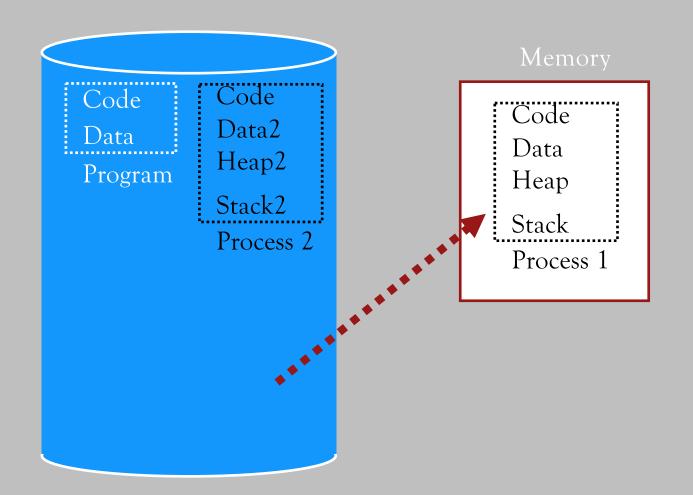


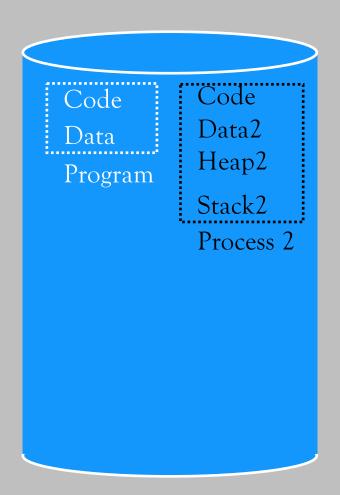


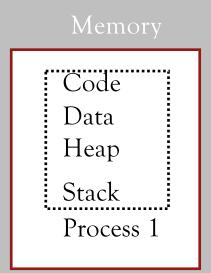












Problem?

Problems with time sharing memory

Problem:

Extremely poor performance, as copying expensive

Better alternative: space sharing

 Physical memory is divided across several processes

2. Static relocation

Idea: OS rewrites each program before loading it as a process in memory:

- Each rewrite for different process uses **different** addresses and pointers
- Change jumps, loads of static data

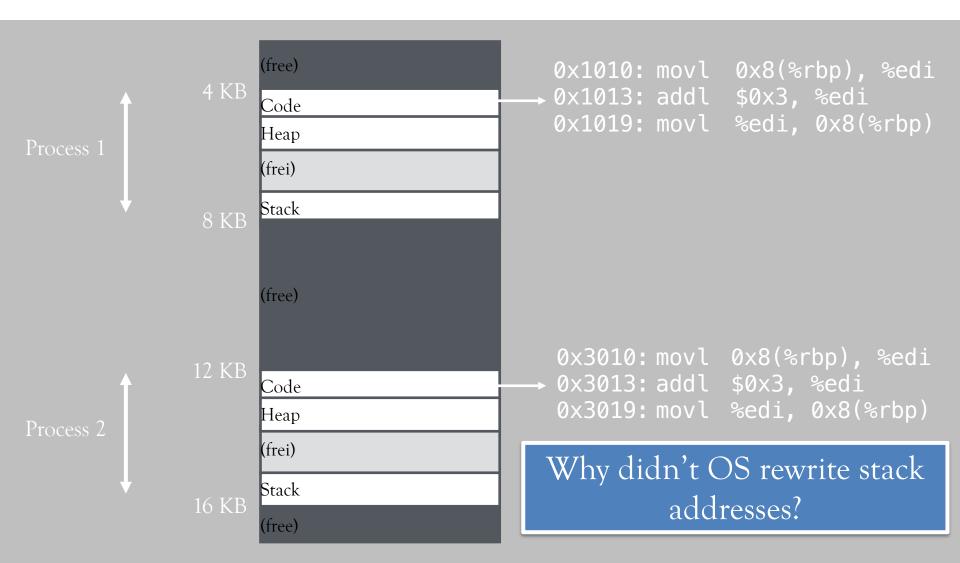
Example: Static relocation

```
0x1010: movl  0x8(%rbp), %edi
0x1013: addl  $0x3, %edi
0x1019: movl  %edi,  0x8(%rbp)

• 0x10: movl  0x8(%rbp), %edi
• 0x13: addl  $0x3, %edi
• 0x19: movl  %edi,  0x8(%rbp)

0x3010: movl  0x8(%rbp), %edi
0x3013: addl  $0x3, %edi
0x3019: movl  %edi,  0x8(%rbp)
```

Example: Static relocation



Static relocation: Disadvantages

No protection:

Process can destroy (and spy on) OS or other processes

Cannot move address space after it has been placed

→ possible fragmentation

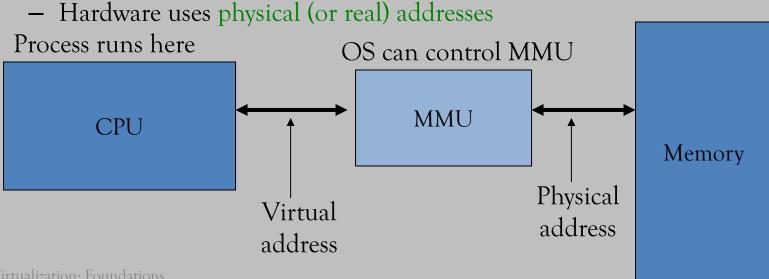
3. Dynamic relocation

Goals:

- 1. Allow **relocation** of processes even **after** they have been started
- 2. Protection or processes from one another

3. Dynamic relocation

- Requires hardware support: Memory Management Unit (MMU)
- MMU dynamically changes process address at every memory access
 - Process generates virtual (or logical) address (in their address space)



Hardware support for dynamic relocation

Two operating modes:

- Kernel (protected, privileged) mode: reserved for OS
 - Can manipulate contents of MMU
 - Allows OS to access all of physical memory
- User mode: for user processes
 - MMU translates virtual addresses to physical addresses

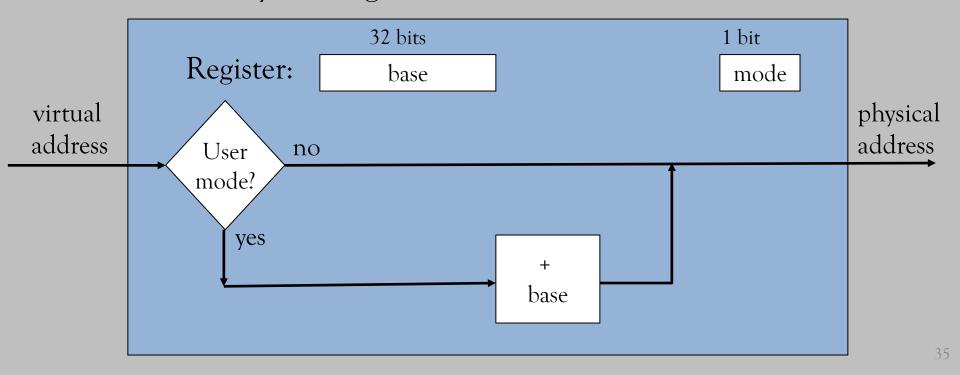
Minimal MMU contains base register for translation

• base: start location for address space

Implementation of dynamic relocation: Base register

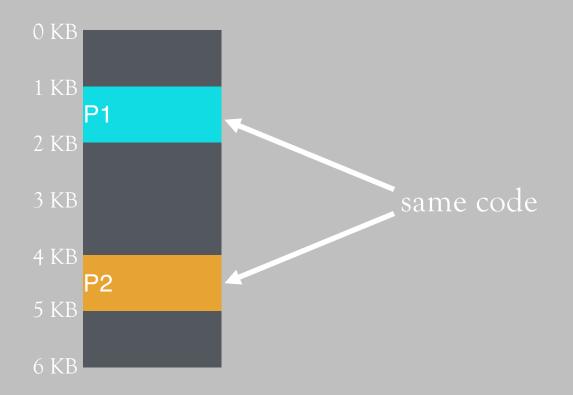
MMU sums value of base register onto virtual addresses to obtain physical addresses

Memory Management Unit



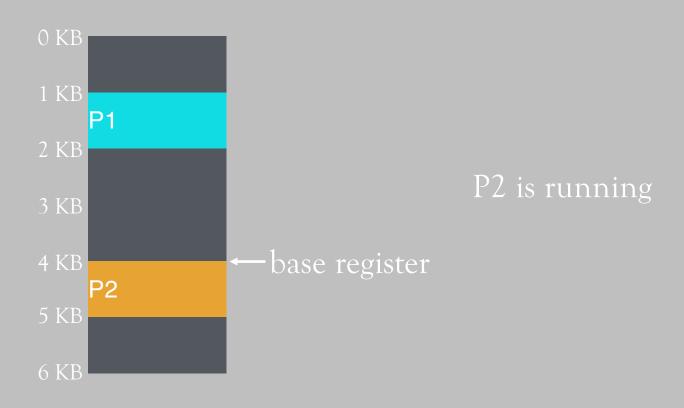
Dynamic relocation with base register

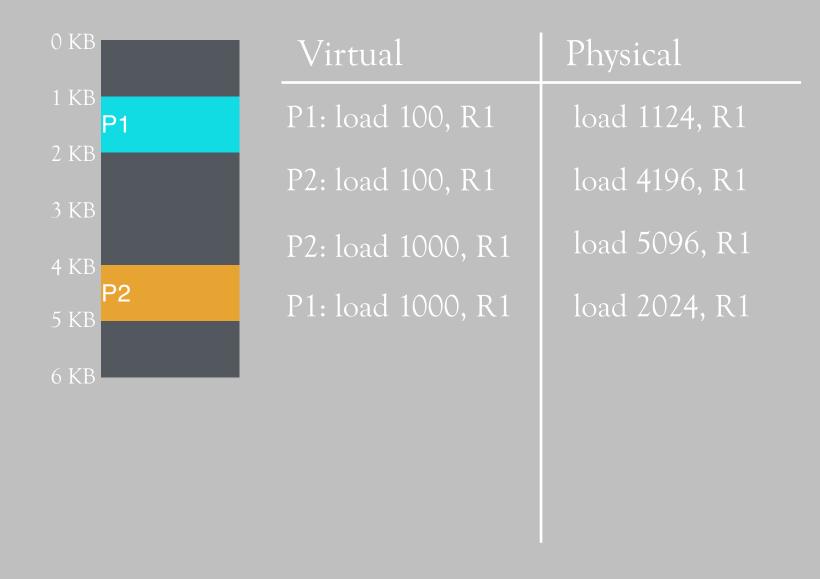
OS writes **correct value** to **base register** upon each context switch



Example: Dynamic relocation







Quiz: Who controls the base register?

What entity does translation of addresses?

(a) user process, (b) OS, or (c) HW

Which entity modifies the base register?

(a) user process, (b) OS, or (c) HW

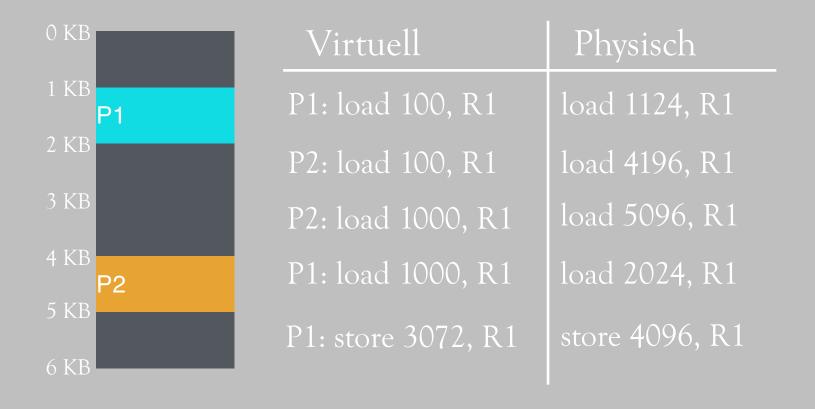
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Can P1 modify data of P2?

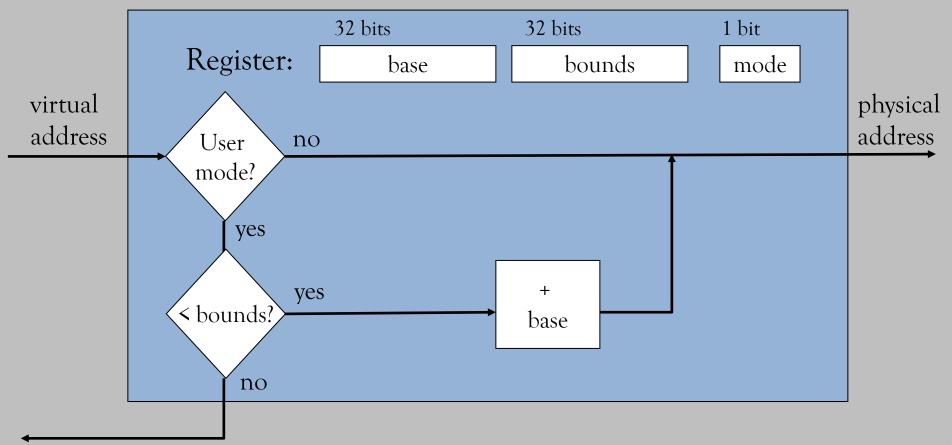
Dynamic relocation with base + bounds

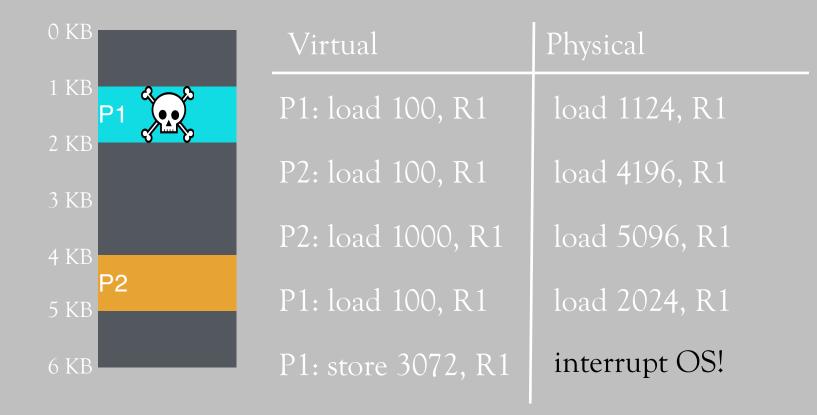
Idea: Limit address space with a "bounds register"

- Base register: smallest physical address
- Bounds register:
 Size of the process's virtual address space
- OS kills process if process loads/stores beyond bounds

Implementation of base + bounds

Memory Management Unit





Extension of OS for dynamic relocation

Add fields for base and bounds of address space in process control blocks (PCB)

Context switch (in kernel mode):

- 1. Load base and bounds values of new process from PCB into MMU registers
- 2. Switch to user mode and jump to new process

Precondition for security:

User processes are unable to modify base and bounds registers

→ Ensured by execution in user mode

Advantages of dynamic relocation

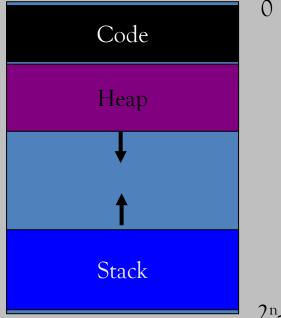
- 1. Supports dynamic relocation of processes at runtime
- 2. Provides protection across address spaces

- Simple and cheap to implement: few registers, little logic in MMU
- Fast: Add and compare can be performed in parallel

Disadvantages of dynamic relocation

- Each process must be allocated **contiguously** in physical memory
 - Internal fragmentation
 - External fragmentation

 No partial sharing: Cannot share limited parts of address space



2n_1

4. Segmentation

Divide address space into logical segments: Code, Stack, Heap

Each segment can independently:

- be placed in physical memory
- grow and shrink
- be protected (separate read/write/execute protection bits)

Segmented addressing

How does process designate a particular segment?

- Use part of virtual address:
 - most-significant bits select segment
 - other bits encode offset within segment

Segmentation: Implementation

MMU contains segment table (per process):

- Each segment has own base and bounds, protection bits
- Example: 14-bit virtual address, 4 segments
 - How many segment bits?
 - − How many for offset?

Segment	Base	Bounds	R W
0	0x2000	0x6ff	1 0
1	0x0000	0x4ff	1 1
2	0x3000	0xfff	1 1
3	0x0000	0x000	0 0

Quiz: Address translations with segmentation

Segment	Base	Bounds	R W
0	0x2000	0x6ff	1 0
1	$0 \times 0 \times 0 \times 0$	0x4ff	1 1
2	0x3 <u>000</u>	0xfff	1 1
3	$0 \times 0 \times 0 \times 0$	0x000	0 0

Translate logical addresses (in hex) to physical addresses?

 $0 \times 0 \times 240$: 0×2240

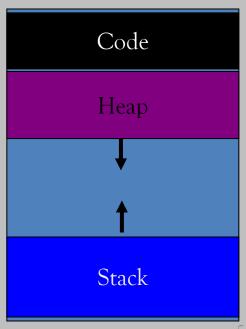
0x1108: 0x0788

0x265c: 0x365c

0x3002:

Advantages of segmentation

- Enables "sparse" allocation of address space:
 - Stack and heap grow independently of each other
 → no internal fragmentation
 - Heap: If no data on free list, dynamic memory allocator (in library) requests more from OS (e.g., UNIX malloc calls sbrk())
 - Stack: OS recognizes references outside legal segment, extends stack implicitly
- Different protection for different segments:
 - E.g. read-only status for code
- Enables sharing of selected segments
- Supports dynamic relocation of each segment



Disadvantages of segmentation

Each segment must be allocated **contiguously** in memory

- → External fragmentation of the physical memory
- → Paging as solution next lecture

Conclusion

- HW + OS work together to virtualize memory
 - Memory Management Unit supports fast address translation in HW
 - OS only involved upon context switches or errors