## Operating Systems Introduction to Virtualizing Memory

Hongliang Liang, BUPT

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## OS: managing shared resources

Sharing resources over time: Physical processors

The main topic of past lectures

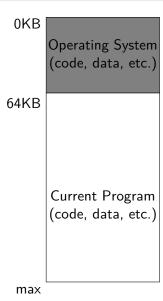
Sharing resources over space: Memory

- The main topic of upcoming lectures
- There is never enough memory
- "640 KB ought to be enough for anyone."

## Background

- Program must be brought (from disk) into memory and placed within a process for it to be run
- Main memory and registers are only storage CPU can access directly
- Memory unit only sees a stream of addresses + read or write requests
- Register access in one CPU clock cycle (or less)
- Main memory acesses take many cycles, causing a stall
- Cache (on the CPU chip) sits between main memory and CPU registers
- Protection of memory is required to ensure correct operation

## Memory in early operating systems



## Multiprogramming and time sharing

We need to accommodate multiple processes now

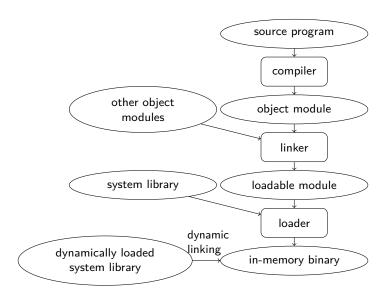
- Multiprogramming: multiple batch jobs run at the same time
- Time sharing: Multiple users using interactive processes at the same time

The important question is how?

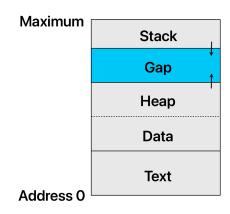
## Binding of Instructions and Data to Memory

- Address binding of instructions and data to memory addresses can happen at three different stages
- Compile time: If memory location known a priori, absolute code can be generated; must recompile code if starting location changes
- Load time: Must generate relocatable code if memory location is not known at compile time
- Execution time: Binding delayed until run time if the process can be moved during its execution from one memory segment to another
  - Need hardware support for address maps (e.g., base and limit registers)

## Multistep Processing of a User Program



## Address space in a process: revisited



Why do we need dynamic memory?

## Why do we need dynamic memory?

- The amount of required memory may be task dependent
- Input size may be unknown at compile time
- Conservative pre-allocation would be wasteful
- Recursive functions (invocation frames)

#### Excursion: procedure invocation frames

Calling a function allocates an invocation frame to store all local variables and the necessary context to return to the callee.

```
int called(int a, int b) {
  int tmp = a * b;
  return tmp / 42;
}
void main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
  int tmp = called(argc, argc);
}
```

What data is stored in the invocation frame of called?

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- Slot for int tmp
- Slots for the parameters a, b
- Slot for the return code pointer
- Order in most ABIs: b, a, RIP, tmp

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The compiler creates the necessary code, according to the ABI.

#### Stack for procedure invocation frames

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- Stores calling context and sequence of active parent frames
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What happens to the data when function returns?

 Data from previous function lingers, overwritten when the next function initializes its data

## Quiz: scopes, stack, and persistence

```
int a = 2;
int called(int b) {
  int c = a * b;
 printf("a: %d b: %d c: %d\n", a, b, c);
 a = 5;
 return c;
int main(int argc, char* argv) {
  int b = 2, c = 3:
  printf("a: %d b: %d c: %d\n", a, b, c);
  b = called(c):
  printf("a: %d b: %d c: %d\n", a, b, c);
 return 0;
```

#### Answer:

a: 2 b: 2 c: 3 a: 2 b: 3 c: 6 a: 5 b: 6 c: 3

## Dynamic data structure: heap

A heap of randomly allocated memory objects with *statically unknown size* and *statically unknown allocation patterns*. The size and lifetime of each allocated object is unknown.

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How would you manage such a data structure?

## Heap: straw man implementation

```
char storage[4096], *heap = storage;
char *alloc(size_t len) {
  char *tmp = heap;
  heap = heap + len;
  return tmp;
}

void free(char *ptr) {}
```

- Advantage: simple
- Disadvantage: no reuse, will run out of memory

#### Heap: free list

Idea: abstract heap into list of free blocks.

- Keep track of free space, program handles allocated space
- Keep a list of all available memory objects and their size

#### Implementation:

- alloc: take a free block, split, put remainder back on free list
- free: add block to free list

## Heap and OS interaction

- The OS hands the process a large chunk of memory to store heap objects
- A runtime library (the libc) manages this chunk
- Memory allocators aim for performance, reliability, or security

#### Quiz: where is it?

```
int g;
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
  int foo;
  char *c = (char*)malloc(argc*sizeof(int));
  free(c);
}
```

Possible storage locations: stack, heap, globals, code

#### Quiz: where is it?

Globals: gCode: main

```
int g;
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
   int foo;
   char *c = (char*)malloc(argc*sizeof(int));
   free(c);
}

Possible storage locations: stack, heap, globals, code
   • Stack: argc, argv, foo, c
   • Heap: *c
```

#### Address space: an abstraction

- The user process uses virtual addresses in its own address space
- The virtual memory system in the OS is responsible for virtualizing physical memory and provides the abstraction of address spaces to user processes
- But how can the OS build this abstraction of a private, potentially large address space for multiple processes on top of a single, physical memory?

## Goals of virtualizing memory

Before we introduce more ideas, let's first think about our goals

- Transparency
- Efficiency
- Protection

How to do?

## Address Translation

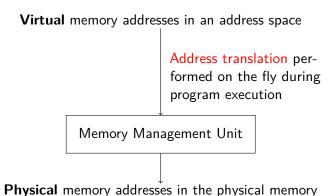
#### Translating addresses at run time

Transforms each memory address (instruction fetch, load, store)

- From the virtual address provided by the instruction to its corresponding physical address
- This is to be performed at every memory reference since we need transparency
- But we also need efficiency!

Hardware Support: Memory Management Unit (MMU) — as part of the CPU

#### What does the MMU do?



# The OS has to get involved to set up the hardware

#### Three assumptions to get started

- A user process's address space must be placed contiguously in physical memory
- The size of the address space is less than the size of the physical memory
- Each address space is exactly the same size

## Dynamic Relocation

- MMU has one base and one bounds (or limit) register
- Base register converts each virtual address to a physical address by adding an offset — relocation
- Bounds (limit) register keeps memory references within bounds
   protection
- OS assigns each process a separate base and limit register value when a process is started

#### Dynamic relocation: Base and bounds registers

Address Exception

No

Limit register for process i

Yes

base register for process i

Address translation performed on the fly during program execution

Physical memory addresses in the physical memory

When a process is created, how can the OS find space in the physical memory for its new address space?

Given our assumptions: fixed size and less than physical memory

## Simple idea: maintain a free list

0KB	
64KB	Operating System (code, data, etc.)
•	(free)
128KB	Process C (code, data, etc.)
192KB	Process B (code, data, etc.)
256KB	(free)
320KB	Process A (code, data, etc.)
384KB	(free)
448KB	(free)
512KB	

#### The work that the OS must do

When a process is created

• Find a free entry in the free list and mark it as used

When a process is terminated (killed or exits gracefully)

• Returns its memory back to the free list

During a context switch

 Save and restore the base-and-bounds registers in the Process Control Block (PCB)

