

Lesson 6 Memory management

Content

1. Memory management - history
2. Segmentation
3. Paging and implementation
4. Page table
5. Segmentation with paging

Why memory?

- CPU can perform only instruction that is stored in internal memory and all its data are stored in internal memory too
- Memory architecture:
 - Harvard architecture – different memory for program and for data,
 - von Neumann - the same memory for both program and data
- **Physical address space** – physical address is address in internal computer memory
 - Size of physical address depends on CPU, on size of address bus
 - Real physical memory is often smaller than the size of the address space
 - Depends on how much money you can spend for memory.
- **Logical address space** – generated by CPU, also referred as virtual address space. It is stored in memory, on hard disk or doesn't exist if it was not used.
 - Size of the logical address space depends on CPU but not on address bus

How to use memory

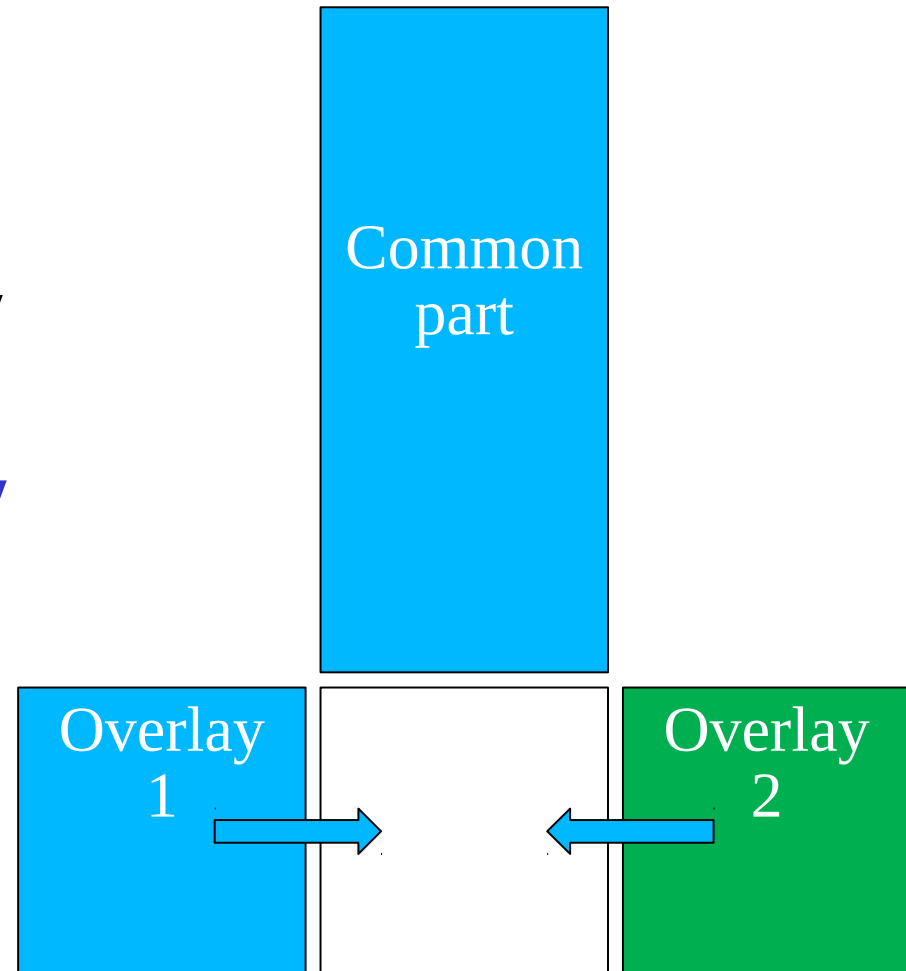
- Running program has to be placed into memory
- Program is transformed to structure that can be implemented by CPU by different steps
 - OS decides where the program will be and where the data for the program will be placed
 - Goal: **Bind address** of instructions and data to real address in address space
- Internal memory stores data and programs that are running or waiting
 - Long term memory is implemented by secondary memory (hard drive)
- Memory management is part of OS
 - Application has no access to control memory management
 - Privilege action
 - It is not safe to enable application to change memory management
 - It is not effective nor safe

History of memory management

- First computer has no memory management – direct access to memory
- Advantage of system without memory management
 - Fast access to memory
 - Simple implementation
 - Can run without operating system
- Disadvantage
 - Cannot control access to memory
 - Strong connection to CPU architecture
 - Limited by CPU architecture
- Usage
 - First computer
 - 8 bits computers (CPU Intel 8080, Z80, ...) - 8 bits data bus, 16 bits address bus, maximum 64 kB of memory
 - Control computers – embedded (only simple control computers)

First memory management - *Overlays*

- First solution, how to use more memory than the physical address space allows
 - Special instruction to switch part of the memory to access by address bus
- **Overlays** are defined by user and implemented by compiler
 - Minimal support from OS
 - It is not simple to divid data or program to overlays



Virtual memory

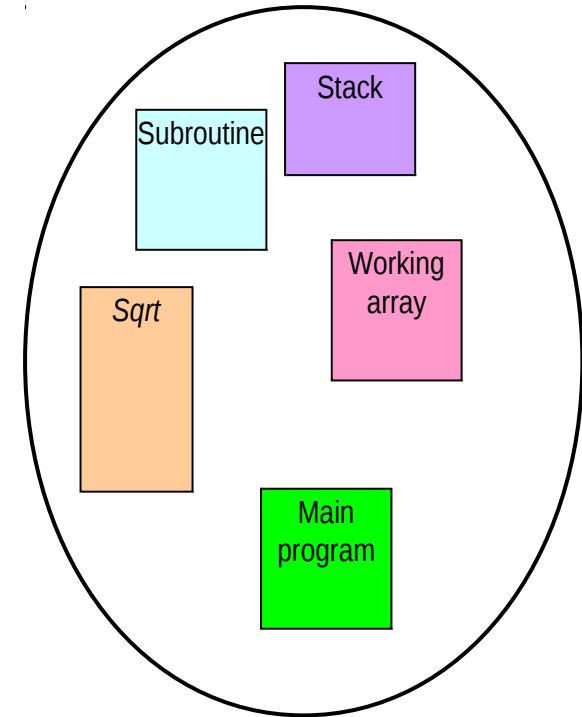
- Demand for bigger protected memory that is managed by somebody else (OS)
- Solution is virtual memory that is somehow mapped into real physical memory
- 1959-1962 first computer Atlas Computer from Manchesteru with virtual memory (size of the memory was 576 kB) implemented by paging
- 1961 - Burroughs creates computer B5000 that uses segment for virtual memory
- Intel
 - 1978 processor 8086 – first PC – simple segments
 - 1982 processor 80286 – protected mode – real segmentation
 - 1985 processor 80386 – full virtual memory with segmentation and paging

Simple segments – Intel 8086

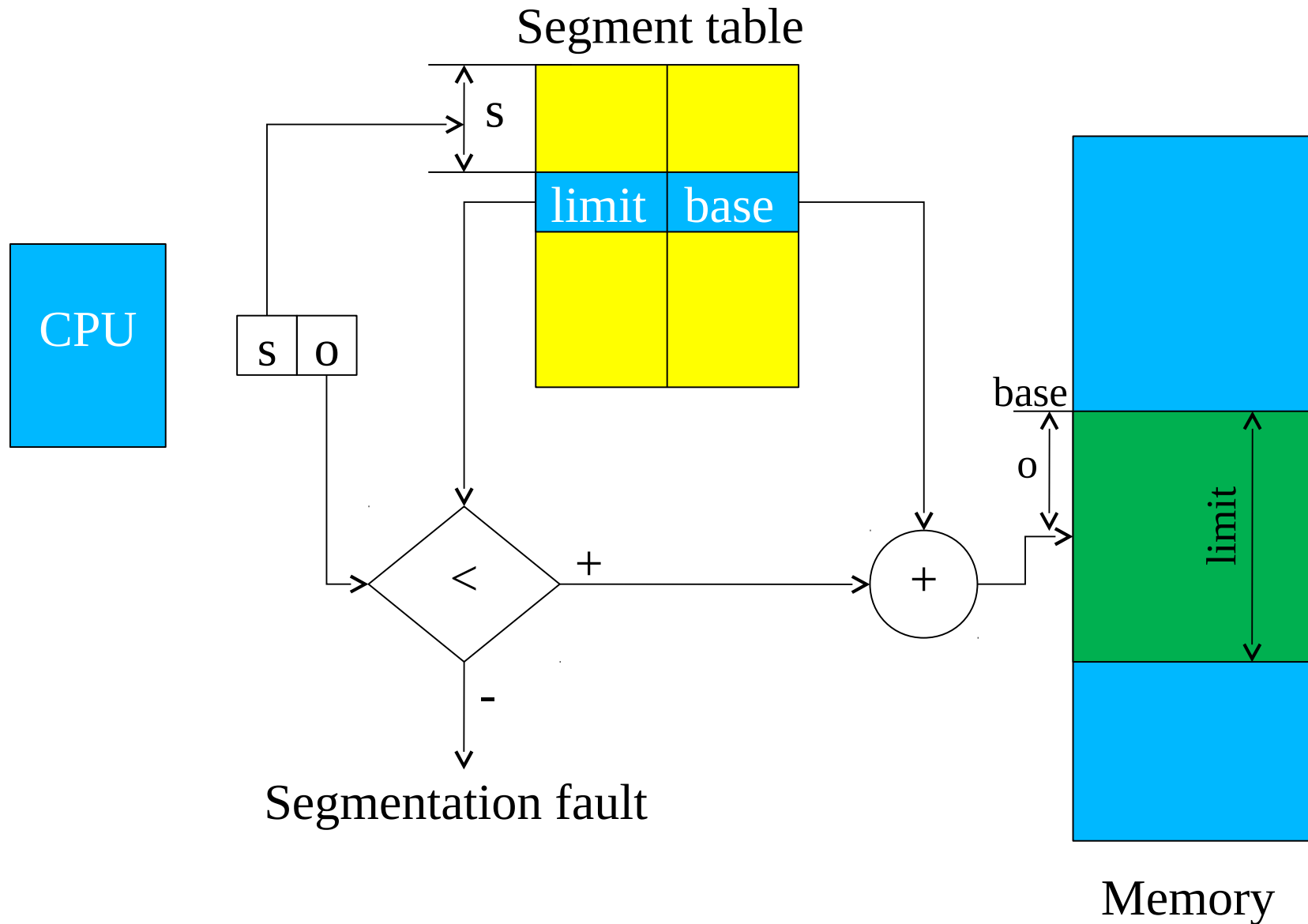
- Processor 8086 has 16 bits of data bus and 20 bits of address bus. 20 bits is problem. How to get 20 bits numbers?
- Solution is “simple” segments
- Address is composed with 16 bits address of segment and 16-bits address of offset inside of the segment.
- Physical address is computed as:
$$(\text{segment} \ll 4) + \text{offset}$$
- It is not real virtual memory, only system how to use bigger memory
- Two types of address
 - near pointer – contains only address inside of the segment, segment is defined by CPU register
 - far pointer – pointer between segments, contains segment description and offset

Segmentation – protected mode Intel 80286

- Support for user definition of logical address space
 - Program is set of segments
 - Each segment has it's own meaning: main program, function, data, library, variable, array, ...
- Basic goal – how to transform address (segment, offset) to physical address
- Segment table – ST
 - Function from 2-D (segment, offset) into 1-D (address)
 - One item in segment table:
 - **base** – location of segment in physical memory, **limit** – length of segment
 - **Segment-table base register (STBR)** – where is ST in memory
 - **Segment-table length register (STLR)** – ST size



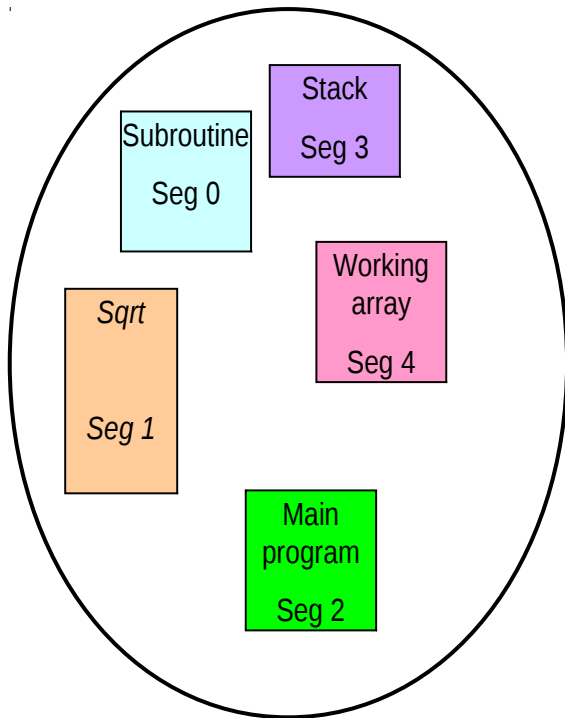
Hardware support for segmentation



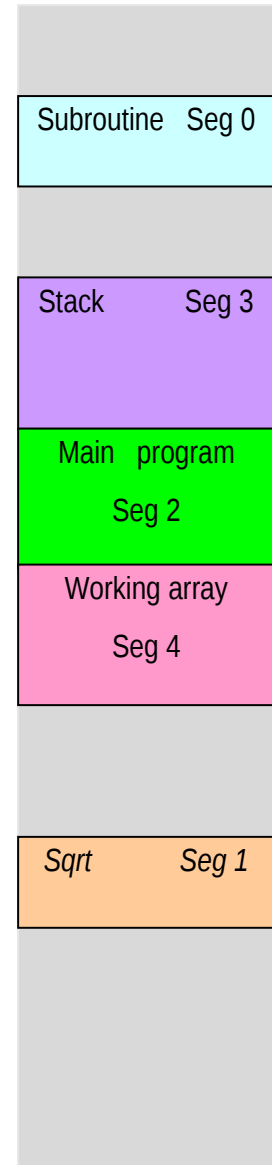
Segmentation

- **Advantage of the segmentation**
 - Segment has defined length
 - It is possible to detect access outside of the segment. It throws new type of error – segmentation fault
 - It is possible to set access for segment
 - OS has more privilege than user
 - User cannot affect OS
 - It is possible to move data in memory and user cannot detect this shift (change of the segment base is for user invisible)
- **Disadvantage of segmentation**
 - How to place segments into main memory. Segments have different length. Programs are move into memory and release memory.
 - Overhead to compute physical address from virtual address (one comparison, one addition)

Segmentation example



	limit	base
0	1000	1400
1400	6300	
2400	4300	
31100	3200	
41000	4700	



- It is not easy to place the segment into memory
 - Segments has different size
 - Memory fragmentation
 - Segment moving has big overhead (is not used)

Paging

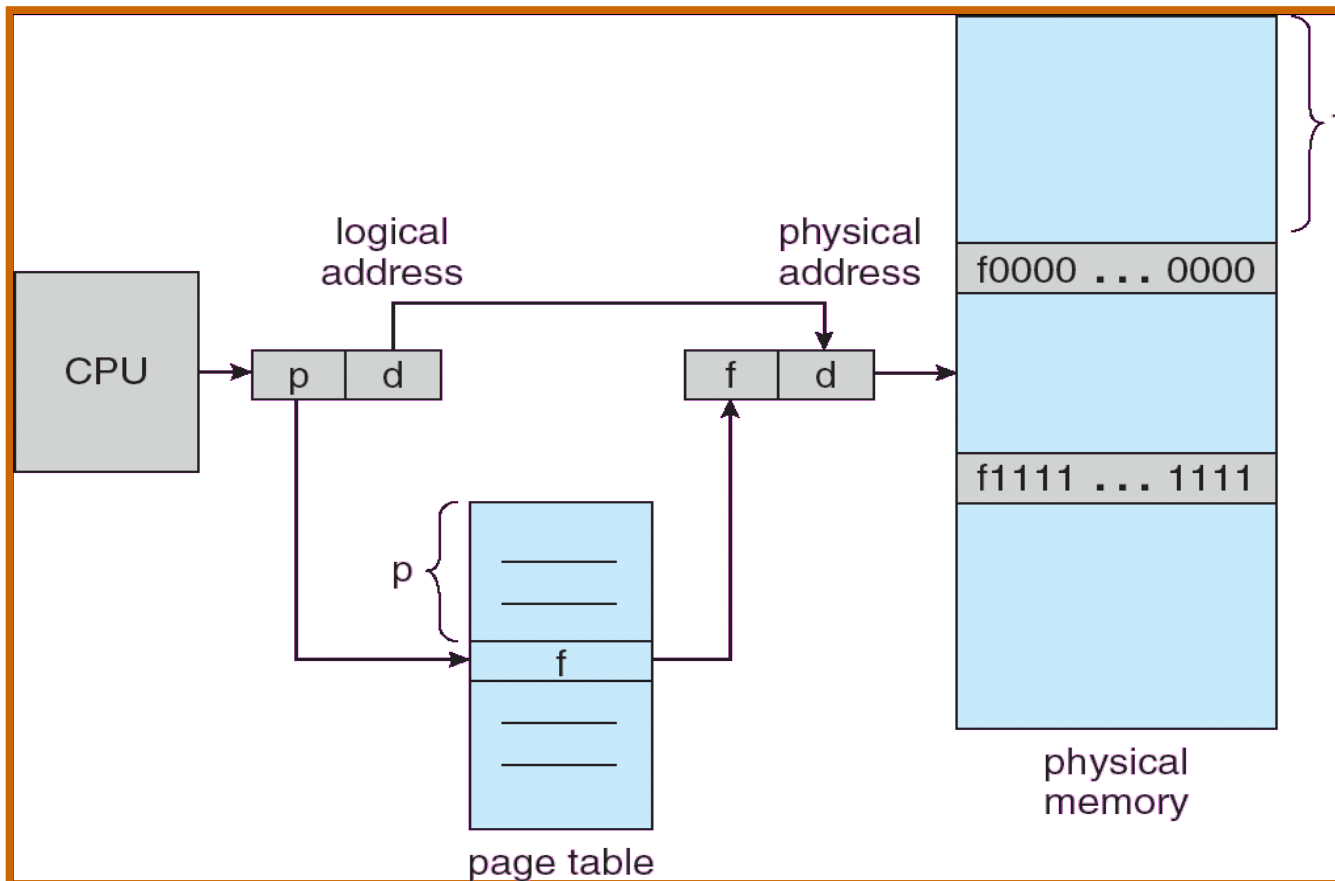
- Different solution for virtual memory implementation
- Paging remove the basic problem of segments – different size
- All pages has the same size that is defined by CPU architecture
- Fragmentation is only inside of the page (small overhead)

Paging

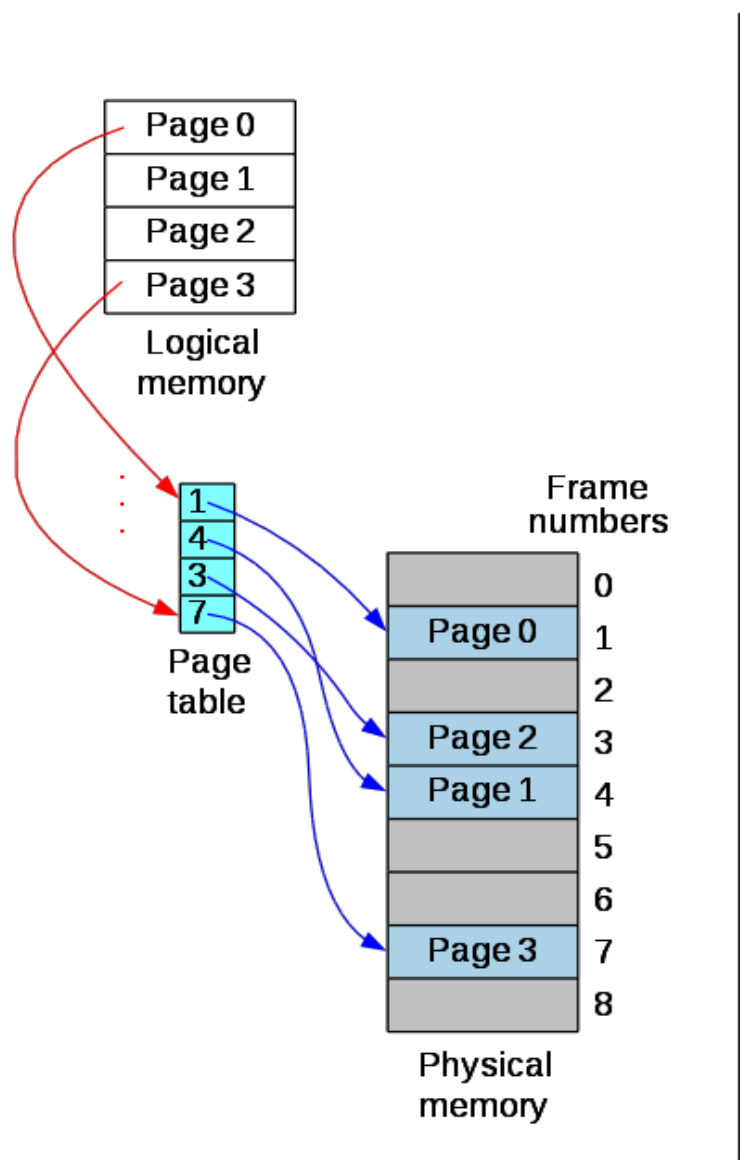
- Contiguous logical address space can be mapped to noncontiguous physical location
 - Each page has its own position in physical memory
- Divide physical memory into fixed-sized blocks called **frames**
 - The size is power of 2 between 512 B, 4 096 B, and 4MiB
- Dived logical memory into blocks with the same size as frames. These blocks are called **pages**
- OS keep track of all frames
- To run process of size **n pages** need to find **n free frames**, Transformation from logical address → physical address by
 - **$PT = Page Table$**

Address Translation Scheme

- Address generated by CPU is divided into:
 - *Page number (p)* – used as an index into a *page table* which contains base address of each page in physical memory
 - *Page offset (d)* – combined with base address to define the physical memory address that is sent to the memory unit



Paging Examples

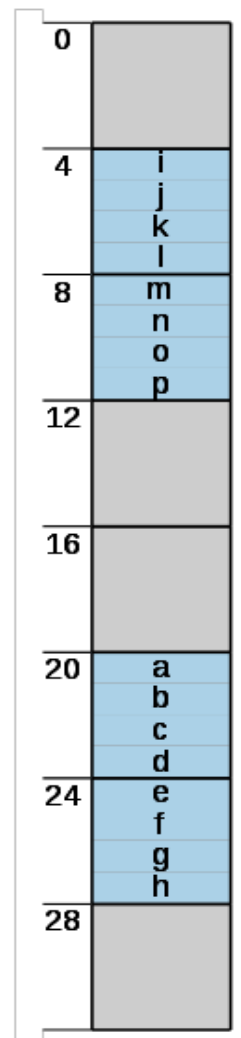


0	a
1	b
2	c
3	d
4	e
5	f
6	g
7	h
8	i
9	j
10	k
11	l
12	m
13	n
14	o
15	p

Logical memory

0	5
1	6
2	1
3	2

Page table



Physical memory

Implementation of Page Table

- Paging is implemented in hardware
- **Page table is kept in main memory**
- ***Page-table base register*** (PTBR) points to the page table
- ***Page-table length register*** (PTLR) indicates size of the page table
- In this scheme every data/instruction access requires two memory accesses. One for the page table and one for the data/instruction.
- The two memory access problem can be solved by the use of a special fast-lookup hardware cache called **associative memory** or **translation look-aside buffers (TLBs)**

Associative Memory

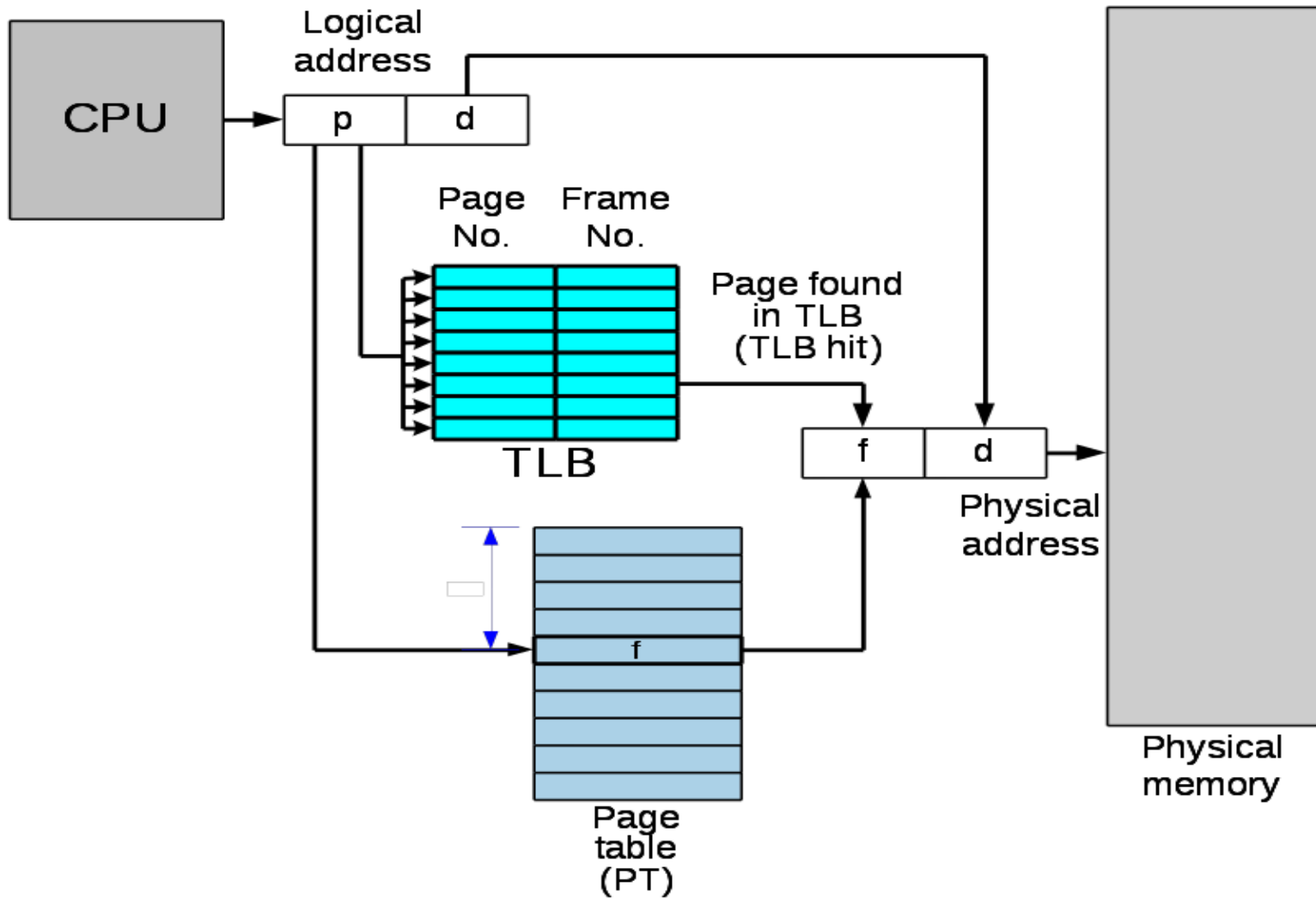
- Associative memory – parallel search – content-addressable memory
- Very fast search

TBL

Input address	Output address
100000	ABC000
100001	201000
300123	ABC001
100002	300300

- Address translation (A' , A'')
 - If A' is in associative register, get Frame
 - Otherwise the TBL has no effect, CPU need to look into page table
- **Small TBL can make big improvement**
 - Usually program need only small number of pages in limited time

Paging Hardware With TLB



Paging Properties

- Effective Access Time with TLB

- Associative Lookup = ϵ time unit
- Assume memory cycle time is $t = 100$ nanosecond
- Hit ratio – percentage of times that a page number is found in the associative registers; ration related to number of associative registers, Hit ratio = α
- **Effective Access Time (EAT)**

$$EAT = (t + \epsilon) \alpha + (2t + \epsilon)(1 - \alpha) = (2 - \alpha)t + \epsilon$$

Example for $t = 100$ ns

<i>PT</i> without <i>TLB</i>		<i>EAT</i> = 200 ns	Need two access to memory
$\epsilon = 20$ ns	$\alpha = 60$ %	<i>EAT</i> = 160 ns	<i>TLB</i> increase significantly access time
$\epsilon = 20$ ns	$\alpha = 80$ %	<i>EAT</i> = 140 ns	
$\epsilon = 20$ ns	$\alpha = 98$ %	<i>EAT</i> = 122 ns	

TLB

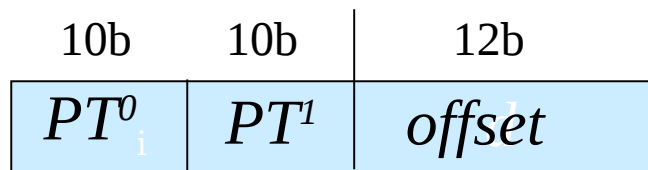
- Typical TLB
 - Size 8-4096 entries
 - Hit time 0.5-1 clock cycle
 - PT access time 10-100 clock cycles
 - Hit ration 99%-99.99%
- Problem with context switch
 - Another process needs another pages
 - With context switch invalidates TBL entries (free TLB)
- OS takes care about TLB
 - Remove old entries
 - Add new entries

Page table structure

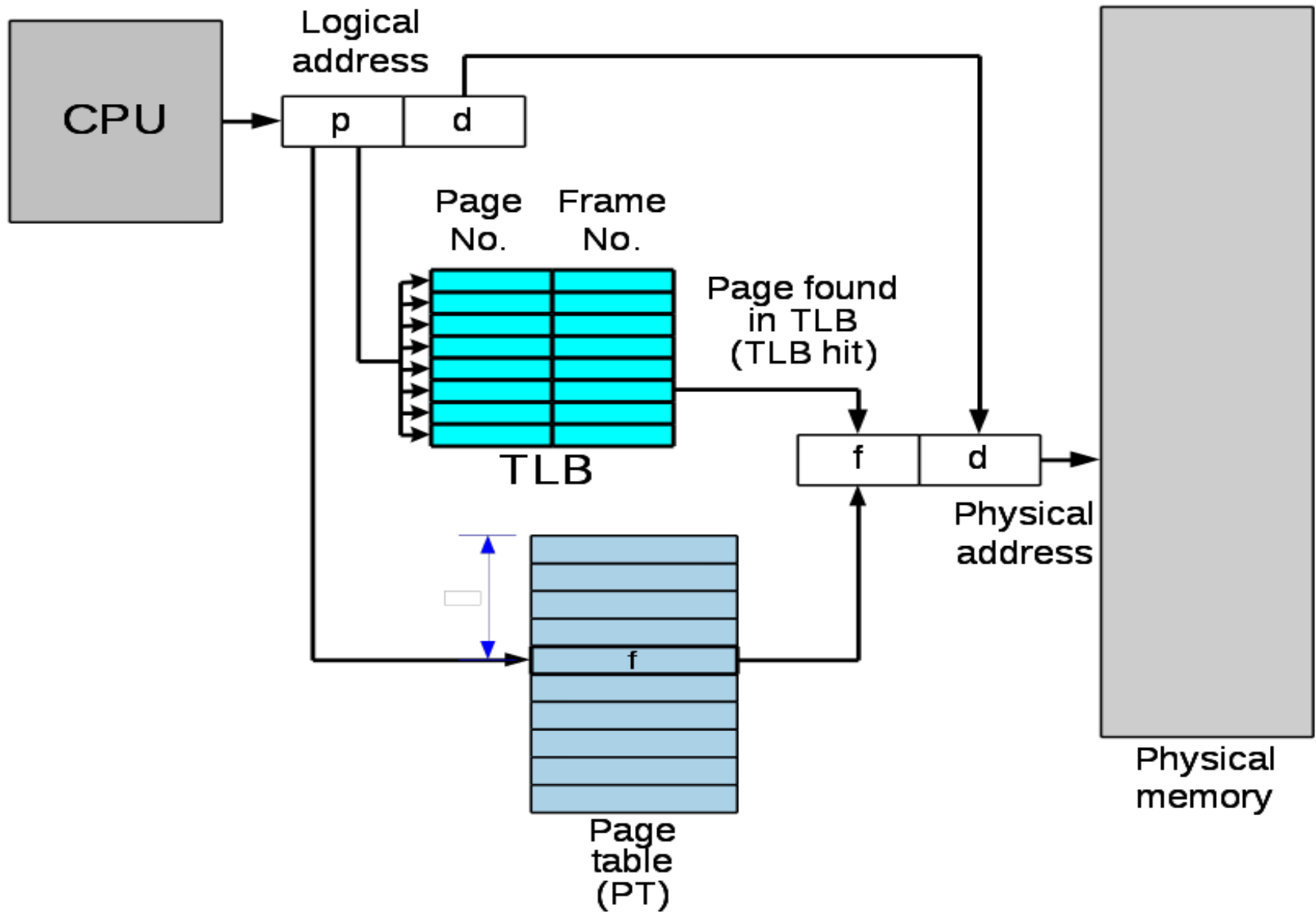
- Problem with PT size
 - Each process can have it's own PT
 - 32-bits logical address with page size 4 KB → PT has 4 MB
 - PT must be in memory
- Hierarchical PT
 - Translation is used by PT hierarchy
 - Usually 32-bits logical address has 2 level PT
 - PT^0 contains reference to PT^1
 - ,Real page table PT^1 can be paged need not to be in memory
- Hash PT
 - Address p is used by hash function $hash(p)$
- Inverted PT
 - One PT for all process
 - Items depend on physical memory size
 - Hash function has address p and process pid $hash(pid, p)$

Hierarchical Page Tables

- Break up the logical address space into multiple page tables
- A simple technique is a two-level page table
 - A logical address (on 32-bit machine with 4K page size) is divided into:
 - a page number consisting of 20 bits
 - a page offset consisting of 12 bits
 - Since the page table is paged, the page number is further divided into:
 - a 10-bit page number
 - a 10-bit page offset
 - Thus, a logical address is as follows:



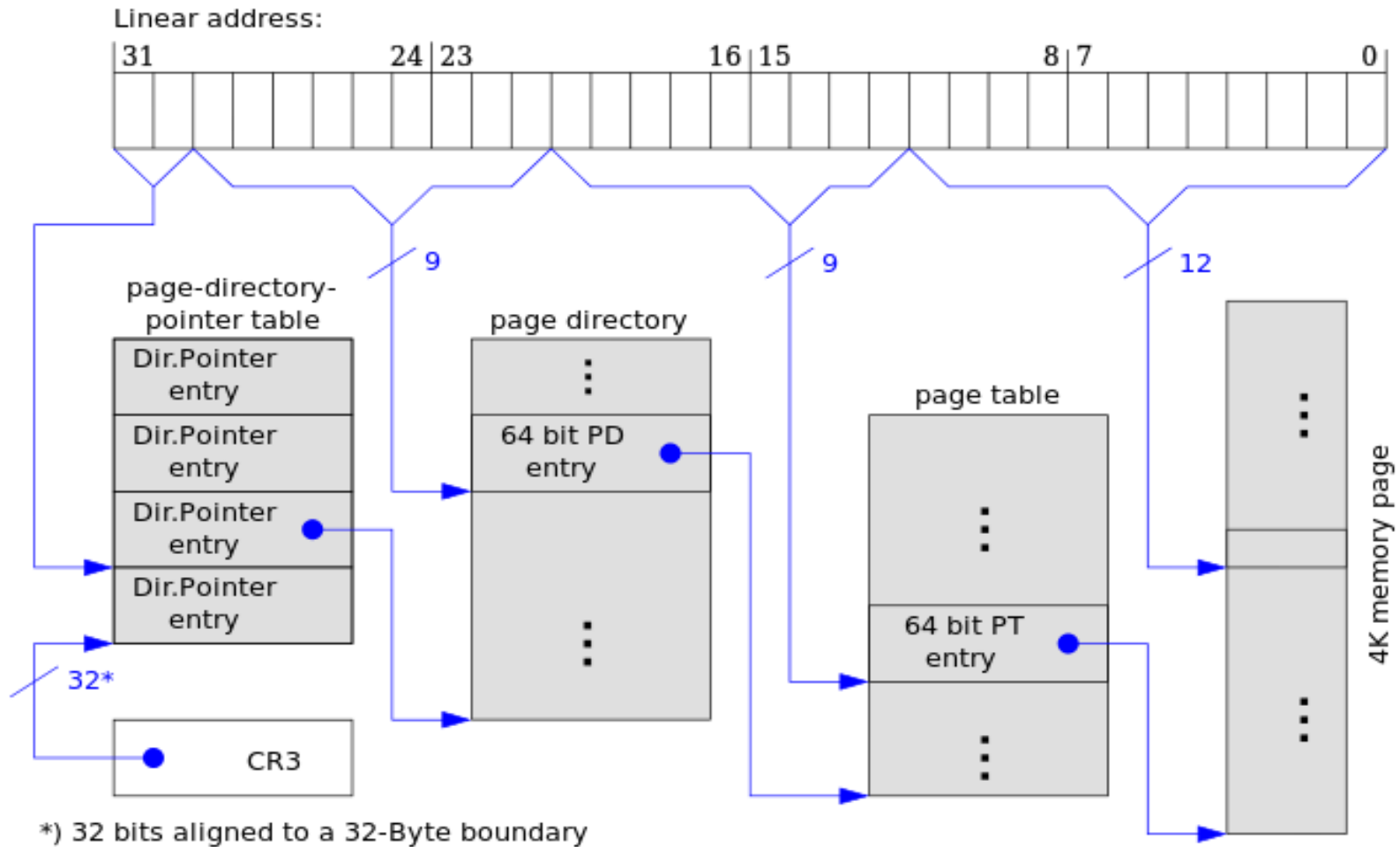
Two-Level Page-Table Scheme



PAE

- Price of 8GB RAM is low but you cannot use this memory with 32-bit system. Solution 64-bit system or PAE
- Physical Address Extension = PAE
- Using PAE you change 32-bit address space to 36-bit address space, it can address 64 GB RAM
- Change of page table:
 - Page table translate 20bits of page number to 24bits of frame number
 - Page table size is increased twice, because there was no space for additional 4 bits
 - Maximal linear size for one process is still 4GB
 - 2 processes can use 8GB
 - Intel change 2level page table into 3 level to keep smaller size of PT

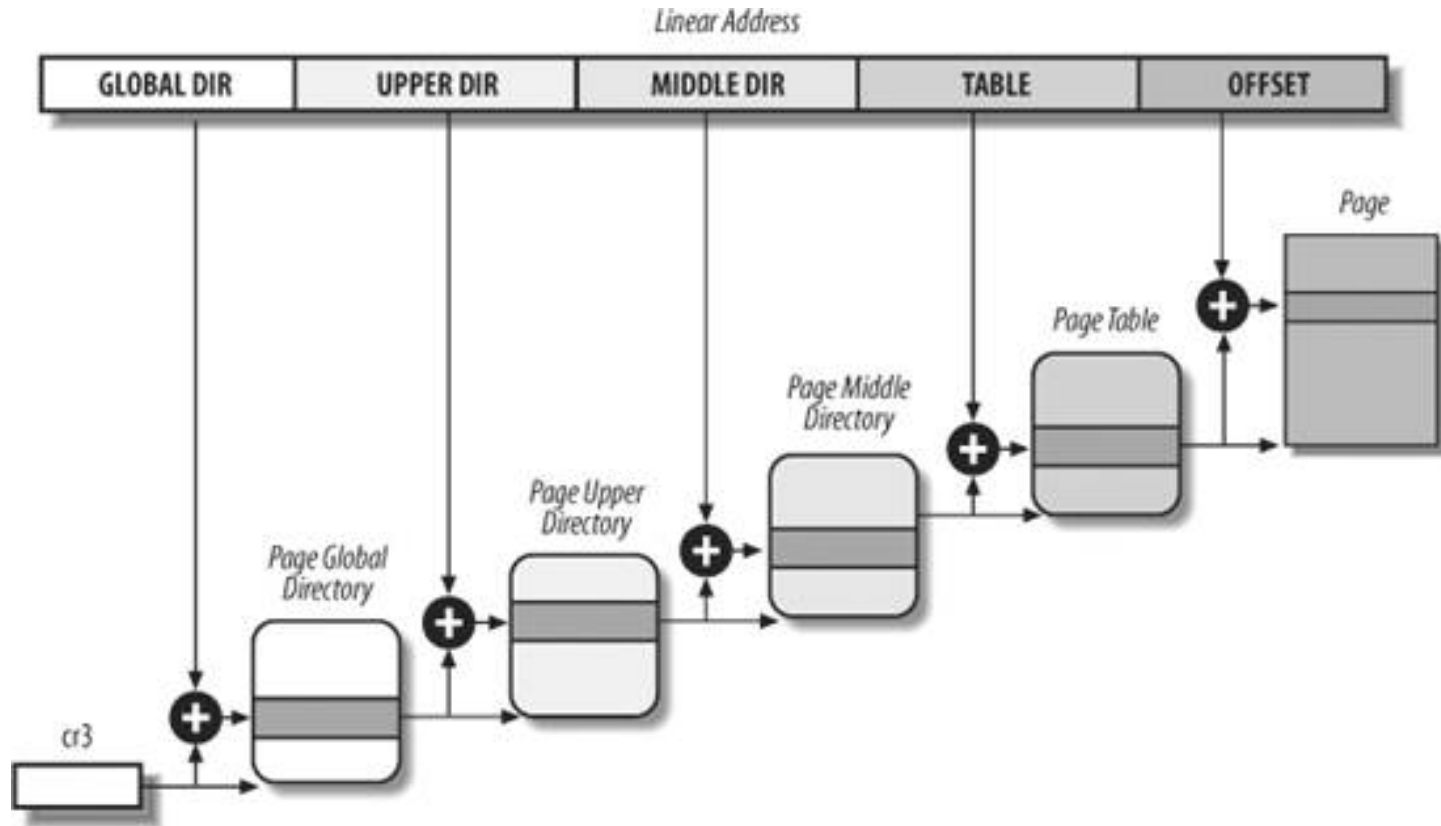
PAE Intel



Hierarchical PT

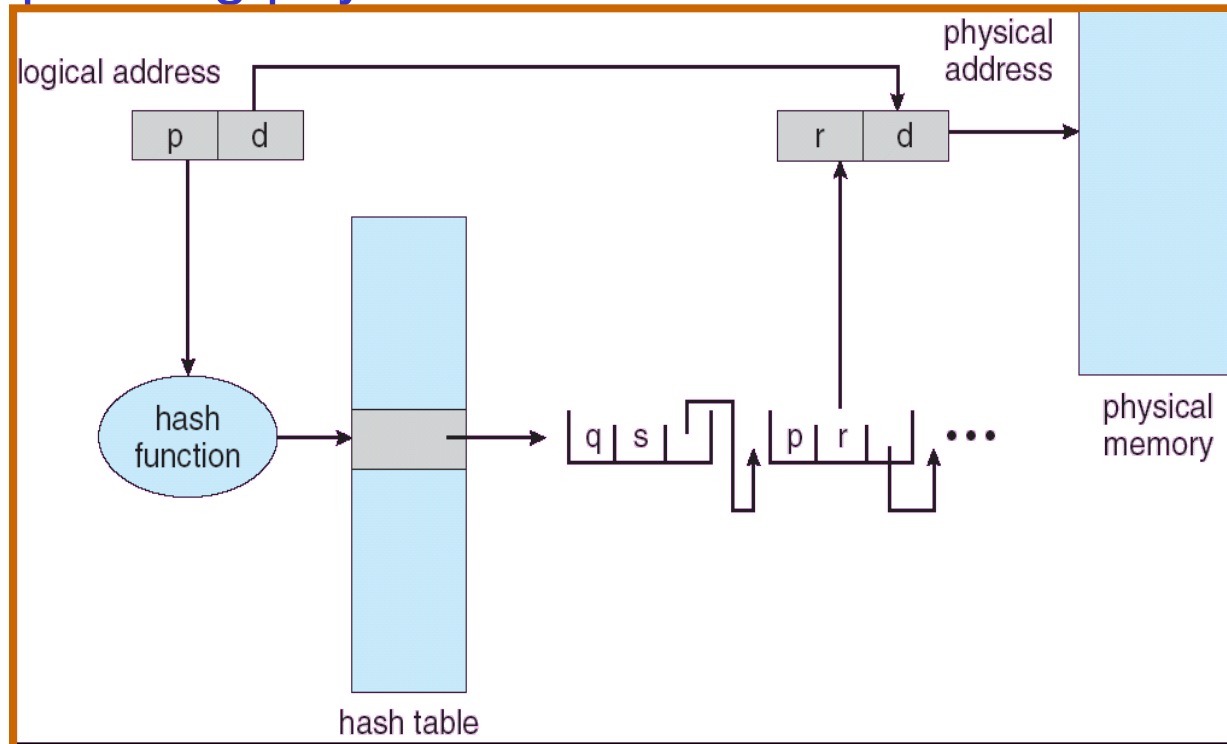
- 64-bits address space with page size 4 KB
 - 52 bits page number → 4 Peta (4096 Tera) Byte PT
- It is problem for hierarchical PT too:
 - Each level brings new delay and overhead, 7 levels will be very slow
- UltraSparc – 64 bits ~ 7 level → wrong
- Linux – 64 bits (Windows similar)
 - Trick: logical address uses only 48 bits, other bits are ignored
 - Logical address space has only 256 TiB
 - 4 level by 9 bits of address
 - 12 bits offset inside page
 - It is useful solution

Intel x64 paging mode



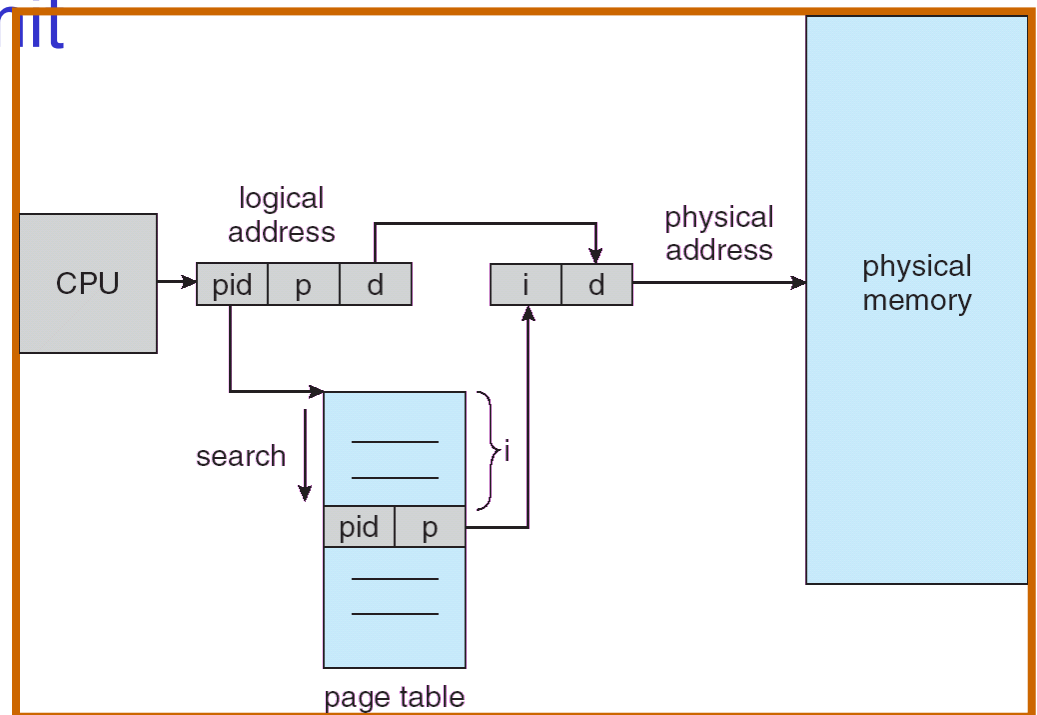
Hashed Page Tables

- Common in address spaces > 32 bits
- The virtual page number is hashed into a page table. This page table contains a chain of elements hashing to the same location.
- Virtual page numbers are compared in this chain searching for a match. If a match is found, the corresponding physical frame is extracted.



Inverted Page Table

- One entry for each real page of memory
- Entry consists of the virtual address of the page stored in that real memory location, with information about the process that owns that page
- Decreases memory needed to store each page table, but increases time needed to search the table when a page reference occurs
- Use hash table to limit the search to one – or at most a few – page-table entries



Shared Pages

- **Shared code**
 - One copy of read-only (reentrant) code shared among processes (i.e., text editors, compilers, window systems).
 - Shared code must appear in same location in the logical address space of all processes
- **Private code and data**
 - Each process keeps a separate copy of the code and data
 - The pages for the private code and data can appear anywhere in the logical address space

Segmentation with paging

- Combination of both methods
- Keeps advantages of segmentation, mainly precise limitation of memory space
- Simplifies placing of segments into virtual memory. Memory fragmentation is limited to page size.
- Segmentation table ST can contain
 - address of page table for this segment PT
 - Or linear address this address is used as virtual address for paging

Segmentation with paging

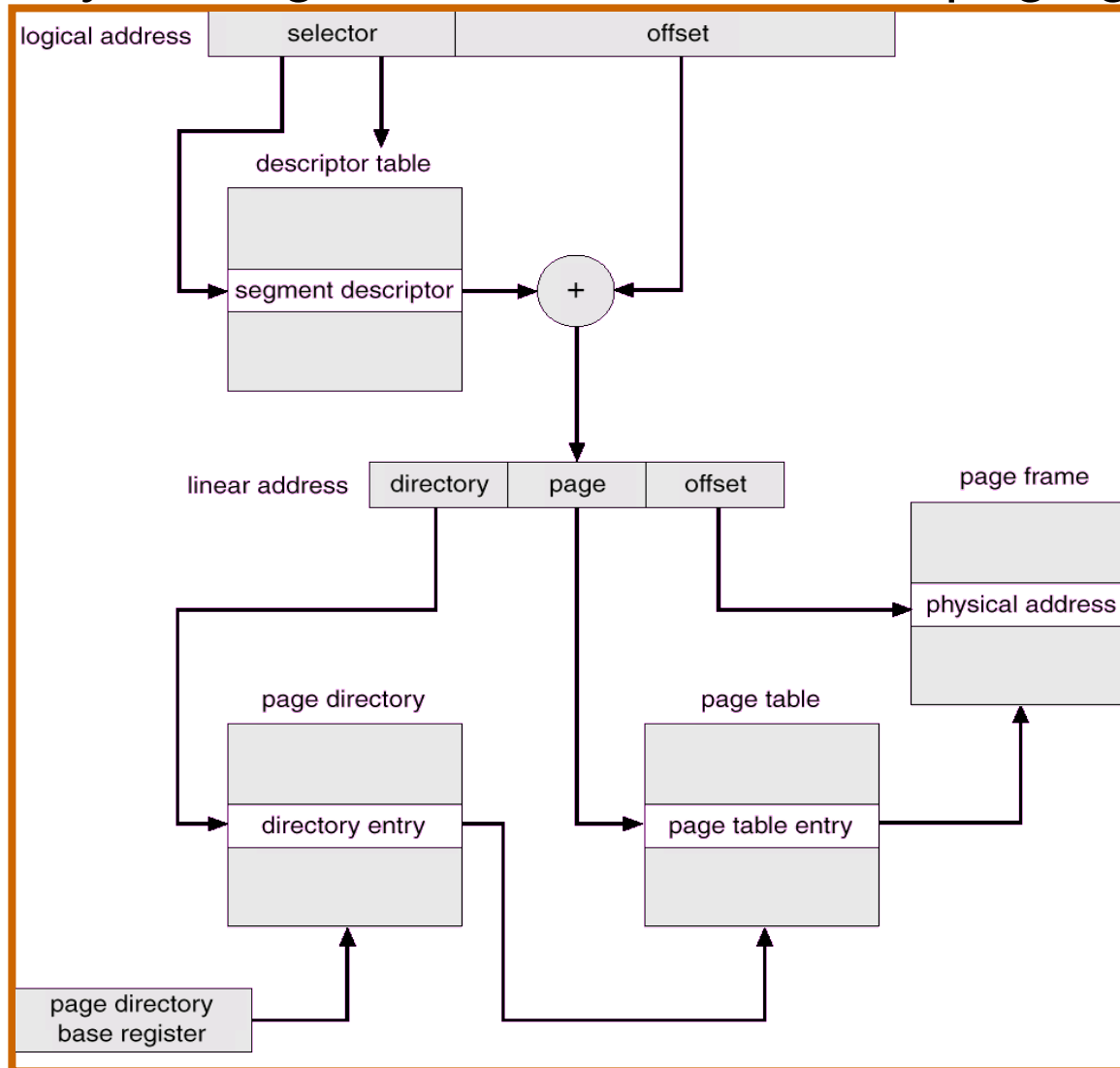
- Segmentation with paging is supported by architecture IA-32 (e.g. INTEL-Pentium)
- IA-32 transformation from logical address space to physical address space with different modes:
 - **logical linear space** (4 GB), transformation identity
 - Used only by drivers and OS
 - **logical linear space** (4 GB), paging,
 - 1024 oblastí à 4 MB, délka stránky 4 KB, 1024 tabulek stránek, každá tabulka stránek má 1024 řádků
 - Používají implementace UNIX na INTEL-Pentium
 - **logical 2D address (segemnt, offset)**, segmentation
 - $2^{16} = 16384$ of segments each 4 GB ~ 64 TB
 - **logical 2D address (segemnt, offset)**, segmentatation with paging
 - Segments select part of linear space, this linear space uses paging
 - Used by windows and linux

Segmentation with paging IA-32

- 16 K of segments with maximal size 4 GB for each segment
- 2 logic subspaces (descriptor TI = 0 / 1)
 - 8 K private segments – Local Description Table, LDT
 - 8 K shared segments – Global Description Table, GDT
- Logic address = (segment descriptor, offset)
 - offset = 32-bits address with paging
 - Segment descriptor
 - 13 bits segment number,
 - 1 bit *descriptorTI*,
 - 2 bits Privilege levels : OS kernel, ... , application
 - Rights for *r/w/e* at page level
- Linear address space inside segment with hierarchical page table with 2 levels
 - Page size 4 KB, offset inside page 12 bits,
 - Page number 2x10 bits

Segmentation with Paging – Intel 386

- IA32 architecture uses segmentation with paging for memory management with a two-level paging scheme



Linux on Intel 80x86

- Uses minimal segmentation to keep memory management implementation more portable
- Uses 6 segments:
 - Kernel code
 - Kernel data
 - User code (shared by all user processes, using logical addresses)
 - User data (likewise shared)
 - Task-state (per-process hardware context)
 - LDT
- Uses 2 protection levels:
 - Kernel mode
 - User mode