

Memory Management

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Goals of this Lecture



- Help you learn about:
 - The memory hierarchy
 - · Spatial and temporal locality of reference
 - · Caching, at multiple levels
 - Virtual memory
 - · ... and thereby ...
 - · How the hardware and OS give application pgms:
 - The illusion of a large contiguous address space
 - · Protection against each other

Virtual memory is one of the most important concepts in systems programming

Motivation for Memory Hierarchy



- · Faster storage technologies are more costly
 - · Cost more money per byte
 - · Have lower storage capacity
 - · Require more power and generate more heat
- The gap between processing and memory is widening
 - · Processors have been getting faster and faster
 - · Main memory speed is not improving as dramatically
- Well-written programs tend to exhibit good locality
 - · Across time: repeatedly referencing the same variables
 - · Across space: often accessing other variables located nearby

Want the *speed* of fast storage at the *cost* and *capacity* of slow storage. Key idea: memory hierarchy!

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Simple Three-Level Hierarchy



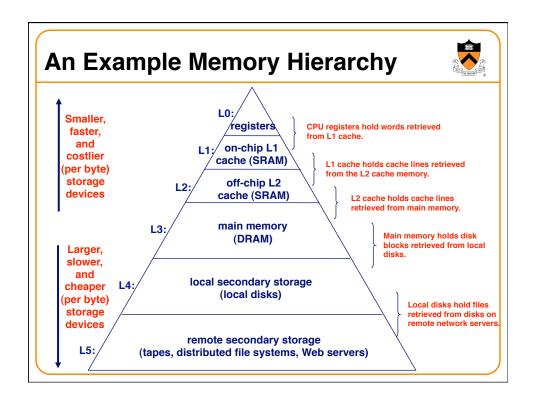
- Registers
 - · Usually reside directly on the processor chip
 - Essentially no latency, referenced directly in instructions
 - Low capacity (e.g., 32-512 bytes)
- Main memory
 - Around 100 times slower than a clock cycle
 - Constant access time for any memory location
 - Modest capacity (e.g., 512 MB-2GB)
- Disk
 - · Around 100,000 times slower than main memory
 - · Faster when accessing many bytes in a row
 - High capacity (e.g., 200 GB)



Widening Processor/Memory Gap



- Gap in speed increasing from 1986 to 2000
 - CPU speed improved ~55% per year
 - Main memory speed improved only ~10% per year
- Main memory as major performance bottleneck
 - Many programs stall waiting for reads and writes to finish
- Changes in the memory hierarchy
 - Increasing the number of registers
 - 8 integer registers in the x86 vs. 128 in the Itanium
 - Adding caches between registers and main memory
 - On-chip level-1 cache and off-chip level-2 cache



Locality of Reference



- Two kinds of locality
 - Temporal locality: recently referenced items are likely to be referenced in near future
 - **Spatial locality**: Items with nearby addresses tend to be referenced close together in time.

sum = 0;

return sum:

for (i = 0; i < n; i++)

sum += a[i];

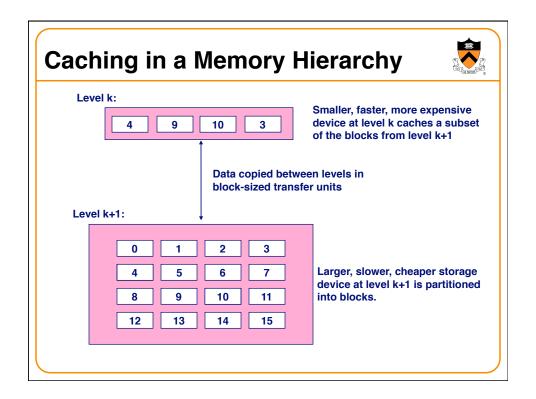
- Locality example
 - Program data
 - Temporal: the variable sum
 - Spatial: variable a[i+1] accessed soon after a[i]
 - Instructions
 - Temporal: cycle through the for-loop repeatedly
 - Spatial: reference instructions in sequence

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Locality Makes Caching Effective



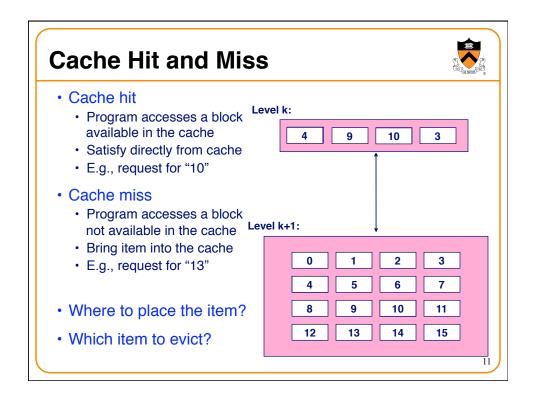
- Cache
 - Smaller, faster storage device that acts as a staging area
 - ... for a *subset* of the data in a larger, slower device
- Caching and the memory hierarchy
 - Storage device at level k is a cache for level k+1
 - Registers as cache of L1/L2 cache and main memory
 - Main memory as a cache for the disk
 - · Disk as a cache of files from remote storage
- Locality of access is the key
 - Most accesses satisfied by first few (faster) levels
 - Very few accesses go to the last few (slower) levels



Cache Block Sizes



- Fixed vs. variable size
- Fixed-sized blocks are easier to manage (common case)
 - Variable-sized blocks make more efficient use of storage
- Block size
 - Depends on access times at the level k+1 device
 - Larger block sizes further down in the hierarchy
 - E.g., disk seek times are slow, so disk pages are larger
- Examples
 - CPU registers: 4-byte wordsL1/L2 cache: 32-byte blocks
 - · Main memory: 4 KB pages
 - · Disk: entire files



Three Kinds of Cache Misses



- Cold (compulsory) miss
 - · Cold misses occur because the block hasn't been accessed before
 - · E.g., first time a segment of code is executed
 - · E.g., first time a particular array is referenced
- Capacity miss
 - · Set of active cache blocks (the "working set") is larger than cache
 - E.g., manipulating a 1200-byte array within a 1000-byte cache
- Conflict miss
 - · Some caches limit the locations where a block can be stored
 - E.g., block i must be placed in cache location (i mod 4)
 - · Conflicts occur when multiple blocks map to the same location(s)
 - E.g., referencing blocks 0, 8, 0, 8, 0, 8, ... would miss every time

Cache Replacement



- Evicting a block from the cache
 - · New block must be brought into the cache
 - · Must choose a "victim" to evict
- Optimal eviction policy
 - Evict a block that is never accessed again
 - · Evict the block accessed the furthest in the future
 - · Impossible to implement without knowledge of the future
- · Using the past to predict the future
 - · Evict the "least recently used" (LRU) block
 - · Assuming it is not likely to be used again soon
- · But, LRU is often expensive to implement
 - · Need to keep track of access times
 - · So, simpler approximations of LRU are used

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Who Manages the Cache?



- Registers
 - · Cache of L1/L2 cache and main memory
 - · Managed explicitly by the compiler
 - · By determining which data are brought in and out of registers
 - · Using relatively sophisticated code-analysis techniques
- L1/L2 cache
 - · Cache of main memory
 - · Managed by the hardware
 - Using relatively simple mechanisms (e.g., "i mod 4")
- Main memory
 - · Cache of the disk
 - · Managed (in modern times) by the operating system
 - Using relatively sophisticated mechanisms (e.g., LRU-like)
 - · Since reading from disk is extremely time consuming

Manual Allocation: Segmentation



- In the olden days (aka "before the mid 1950s")
 - · Programmers incorporated storage allocation in their programs
 - · ... whenever the total information exceeded main memory
- Segmentation
 - · Programmers would divide their programs into "segments"
 - Which would "overlay" (i.e., replace) one another in main memory
- Advantages
 - · Programmers are intimately familiar with their code
 - · And can optimize the layout of information in main memory
- Disadvantages
 - · Immensely tedious and error-prone
 - · Compromises the portability of the code

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Automatic Allocation: Virtual Memory



- Give programmer the illusion of a very large memory
 - · Large: 4 GB of memory with 32-bit addresses
 - Uniform: contiguous memory locations, from 0 to 2³²-1
- Independent of
 - · The actual size of the main memory
 - · The presence of any other processes sharing the computer
- Key idea #1: separate "address" from "physical location"
 - · Virtual addresses: generated by the program
 - · Memory locations: determined by the hardware and OS
- Key idea #2: caching
 - · Swap virtual pages between main memory and the disk

One of the greatest ideas in computer systems!

Making Good Use of Memory and Disk



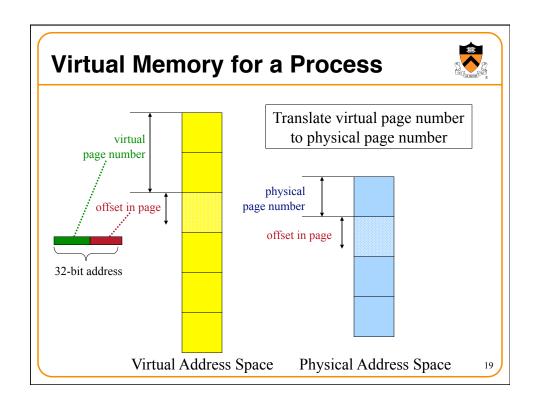
- Good use of the disk
 - Read and write data in large "pages"
 - · ... to amortize the cost of "seeking" on the disk
 - E.g., page size of 4 KB
- Good use of main memory
 - · Even though the address space is large
 - · ... programs usually access only small portions at a time
 - Keep the "working set" in main memory
 - Demand paging: only bring in a page when needed
 - · Page replacement: selecting good page to swap out
- · Goal: avoid thrashing
 - Continually swapping between memory and disk

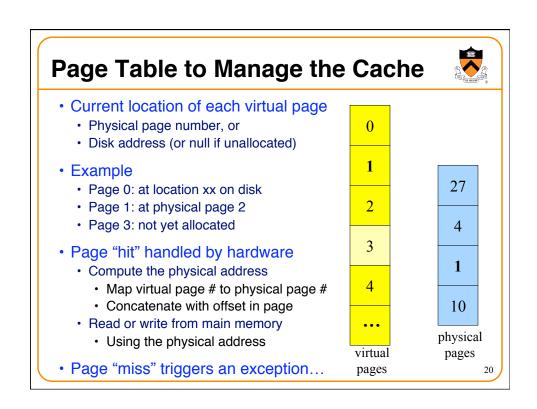
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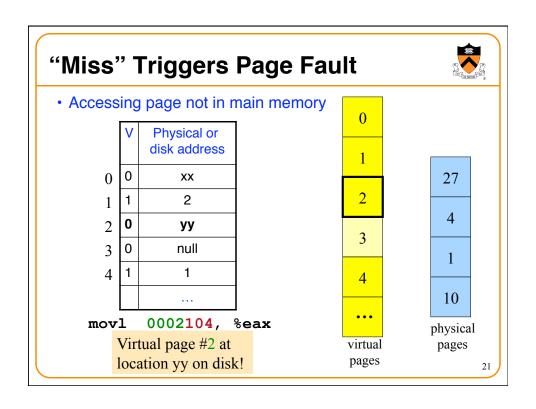
Virtual Address for a Process

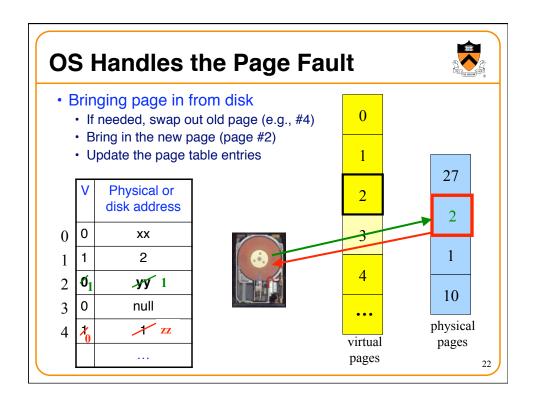


- Virtual page number
 - Number of the page in the virtual address space
 - Extracted from the upper bits of the (virtual) address
 - ... and then mapped to a physical page number
- Offset in a page
 - Number of the byte within the page
 - Extracted from the lower bits of the (virtual) address
 - ... and then used as offset from start of physical page
- Example: 4 KB pages
 - 20-bit page number: 2²⁰ virtual pages
 - 12-bit offset: bytes 0 to 212-1





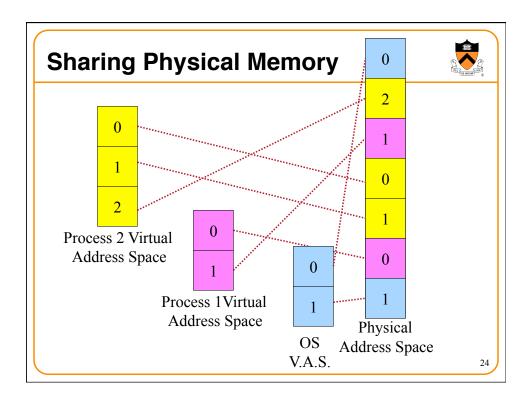


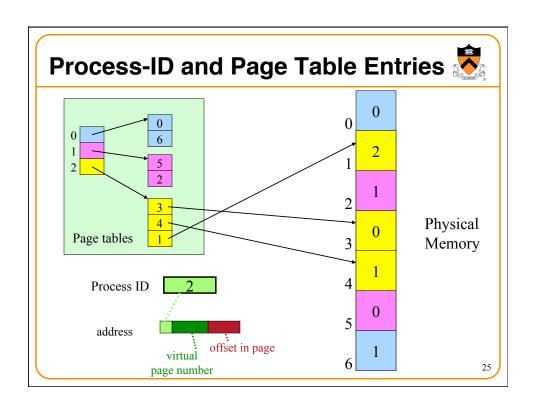


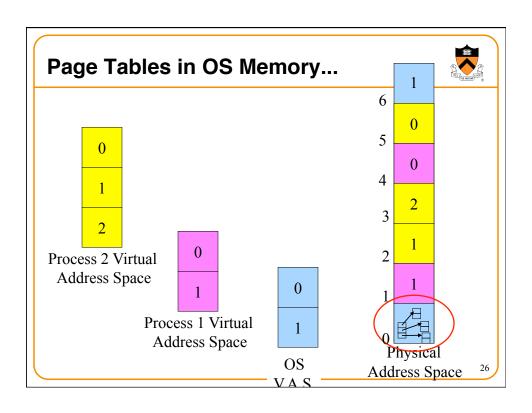
VM as a Tool for Memory Protection

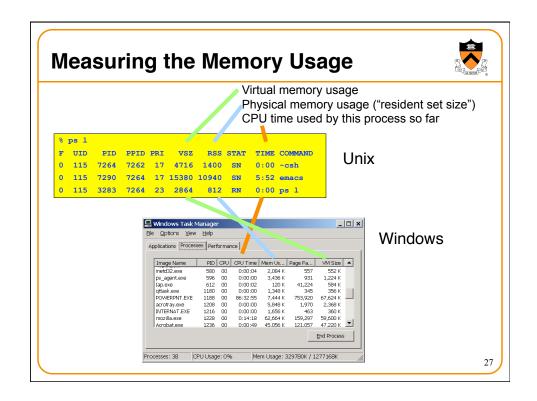


- Memory protection
 - · Prevent process from unauthorized reading or writing of memory
- User process should not be able to
 - · Modify the read-only text section in its own address space
 - Read or write operating-system code and data structures
 - · Read or write the private memory of other processes
- Hardware support
 - Permission bits in page-table entries (e.g., read-only)
 - Separate identifier for each process (i.e., process-id)
 - Switching between unprivileged mode (for user processes) and privileged mode (for the operating system)









VM as a Tool for Memory Management



- Simplifying linking
 - Same memory layout for each process
 - E.g., text section always starts at 0x08048000
 - E.g., stack always grows down from 0x0bfffffff
 - · Linker can be independent of physical location of code
- Simplifying sharing
 - · User processes can share some code and data
 - E.g., single physical copy of stdio library code (like printf)
 - · Mapped in to the virtual address space of each process
- Simplifying memory allocation
 - · User processes can request additional memory from the heap
 - E.g., using malloc() to allocate, and free() to deallocate
 - OS allocates contiguous virtual pages...
 - · ... and scatters them anywhere in physical memory

Summary



- Memory hierarchy
 - · Memory devices of different speed, size, and cost
 - Registers, on-chip cache, off-chip cache, main memory, disk, tape
 - · Locality of memory accesses making caching effective
- Virtual memory
 - · Separate virtual address space for each process
 - · Provides caching, memory protection, and memory management
 - Implemented via cooperation of the address-translation hardware and the OS (when page faults occur)

• In **Dynamic Memory Management** lectures:

- · Dynamic memory allocation on the heap
- Management by user-space software (e.g., malloc() and free())