Memory Management

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.

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
  - About 100 times slower than a clock cycle
  - Modest capacity (e.g., 512 MB-8GB)

- Disk
  - About 100,000 times slower than main memory
  - Faster when accessing many bytes in a row
  - High capacity (e.g., 128GB – 1TB)
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) and off-chip (level-2 or 3)

An Example Memory Hierarchy

- Smaller, faster, and costlier (per byte) storage devices
  - L0: registers
  - L1: on-chip L1 cache (SRAM)
  - L2: off-chip L2 cache (SRAM)
  - L3: main memory (DRAM)
  - L4: local secondary storage (local disks)
  - L5: remote secondary storage (tapes, distributed file systems, Web servers)

- Larger, slower, and cheaper (per byte) storage devices
  - CPU registers hold words retrieved from L1 cache.
  - L1 cache holds cache lines retrieved from the L2 cache memory.
  - L2 cache holds cache lines retrieved from main memory.
  - Main memory holds disk blocks retrieved from local disks.
  - Local disks hold files retrieved from disks on remote network servers.
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.

- 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

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

```
sum = 0;
for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
  sum += a[i];
return sum;
```
Caching in a Memory Hierarchy

Level k:

0 1 2 3
4 9 10 3

Smaller, faster, more expensive device at level k caches a subset of the blocks from level k+1

Level k+1:

0 1 2 3
4 5 6 7
8 9 10 11
12 13 14 15

Larger, slower, cheaper storage device at level k+1 is partitioned into blocks.

Data copied between levels in block-sized transfer units.

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 words
  • L1/L2 cache: 32-byte blocks
  • Main memory: 4 KB pages
  • Disk: entire files
**Cache Hit and Miss**

- **Cache hit**
  - Program accesses a block available in the cache
  - Satisfy directly from cache
  - E.g., request for “10”

- **Cache miss**
  - Program accesses a block not available in the cache
  - Bring item into the cache
  - E.g., request for “13”

- Where to place the item?
- Which item to evict?

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**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

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

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 \(2^{32}-1\)

- Independent of
  - The actual size of the main memory
  - The presence of any other processes sharing the computer

- Key idea #1: separate “address” used by the program from “physical location” in physical memory
  - 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: select good page to swap out

• Goal: avoid thrashing
  • Continually swapping between memory and disk

Virtual Address for a byte

Made up of two parts:

• 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: $2^{20}$ virtual pages
  • 12-bit offset: bytes 0 to $2^{12}-1$
Virtual Memory for a Process

- Virtual Address Space
- Physical Address Space

Translate virtual page number to physical page number

- Virtual page number
- Offset in page

- Physical page number
- Offset in page

32-bit address

Page Table to Manage the Cache

- Current location of each virtual page
  - Physical page number in memory, or
  - Disk address (or null if unallocated)

- Example
  - Virt. Page 0: at location xx on disk
  - Virt. Page 1: at physical page 2 in memory
  - Virt. Page 3: not yet allocated

- Page “hit” handled by hardware
  - Compute the physical address
    - Map virtual page # to physical page #
    - Concatenate with offset in page
  - Read or write from main memory
    - Using the physical address

- Page “miss” triggers an exception…

- Page Table
  - Virtual pages
  - Physical pages

0 1 2 3 4 ...

27 4 1 10
“Miss” Triggers Page Fault

- Accessing page not in main memory

| V | Physical or disk address |
| 0 | xx |
| 1 | 2 |
| 0 | yy |
| 3 | null |
| 4 | 1 |
| ... |

`movl 0002104, %eax`

Virtual page #2 at location yy on disk!

OS Handles the Page Fault

- Bringing page in from disk
  - If needed, swap out old page (e.g., #4)
  - Bring in the new page (page #2)
  - Update the page table entries
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)

Sharing Physical Memory

Diagram showing the sharing of physical memory between two processes and the operating system.
Process ID and Page Table Entries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process ID</th>
<th>Page tables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3 4 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Page Tables in OS Memory...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process 1 Virtual Address Space</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OS V.A.S. Physical Address Space</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process 2 Virtual Address Space</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Physical Memory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>0 2 1 1 0 1 0 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 4 5 6 2 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Virtual offset in page
Page number
Measuring the Memory Usage

Virtual memory usage
Physical memory usage (*resident set size*)
CPU time used by this process so far

Unix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PID</th>
<th>PPID</th>
<th>VSZ</th>
<th>RSS</th>
<th>STAT</th>
<th>TIME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7264</td>
<td>7262</td>
<td>4716</td>
<td>1400</td>
<td>SN</td>
<td>0:00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7290</td>
<td>7264</td>
<td>15380</td>
<td>10940</td>
<td>SN</td>
<td>5:52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Windows

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())