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Virtual Memory



Virtual Memory: Goals

■ Transparency

- Processes should not be aware that memory is shared
- Provides a convenient abstraction for programming (a large, contiguous space)

■ _____

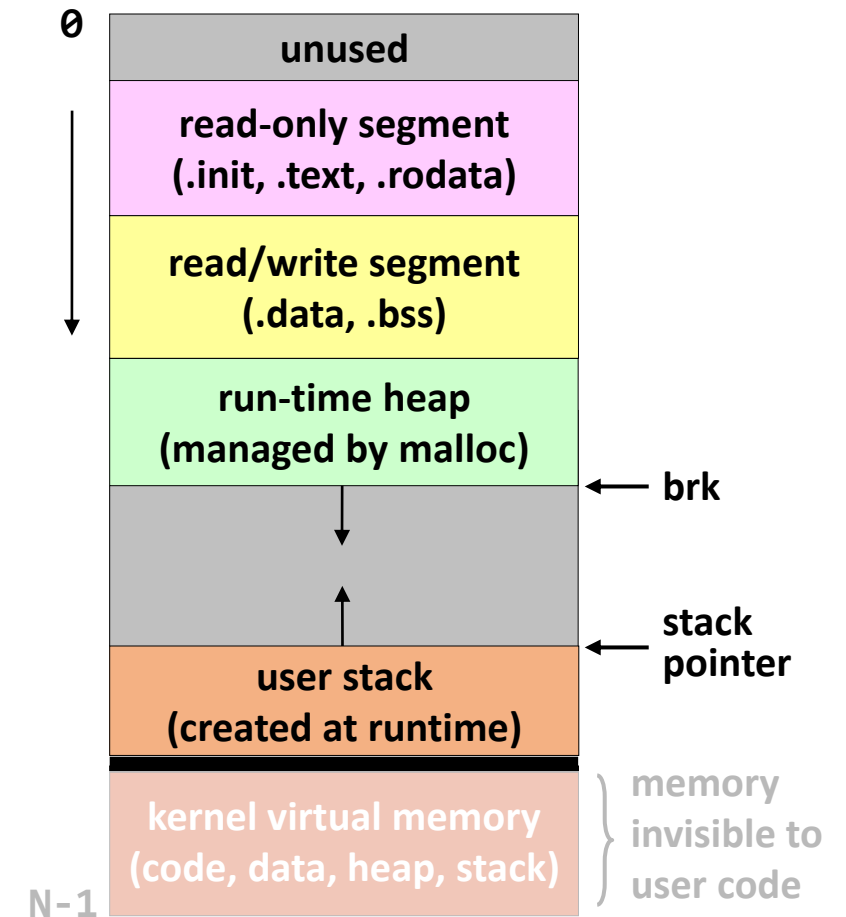
- Minimizes fragmentation due to variable-sized requests (space)
- Gets some hardware support (time)

■ Protection

- Protect processes and the OS from another process
- Isolation: a process can fail without affecting other processes
- Cooperating processes can share portions of memory

(Virtual) Address Space

- Process' abstract view of memory
 - OS provides illusion of private address space to each process
 - Contains all of the memory state of the process
- Static area
 - Allocated on `exec()`
 - Code & Data
- Dynamic area
 - Allocated at runtime
 - Can grow or shrink
 - Heap & Stack

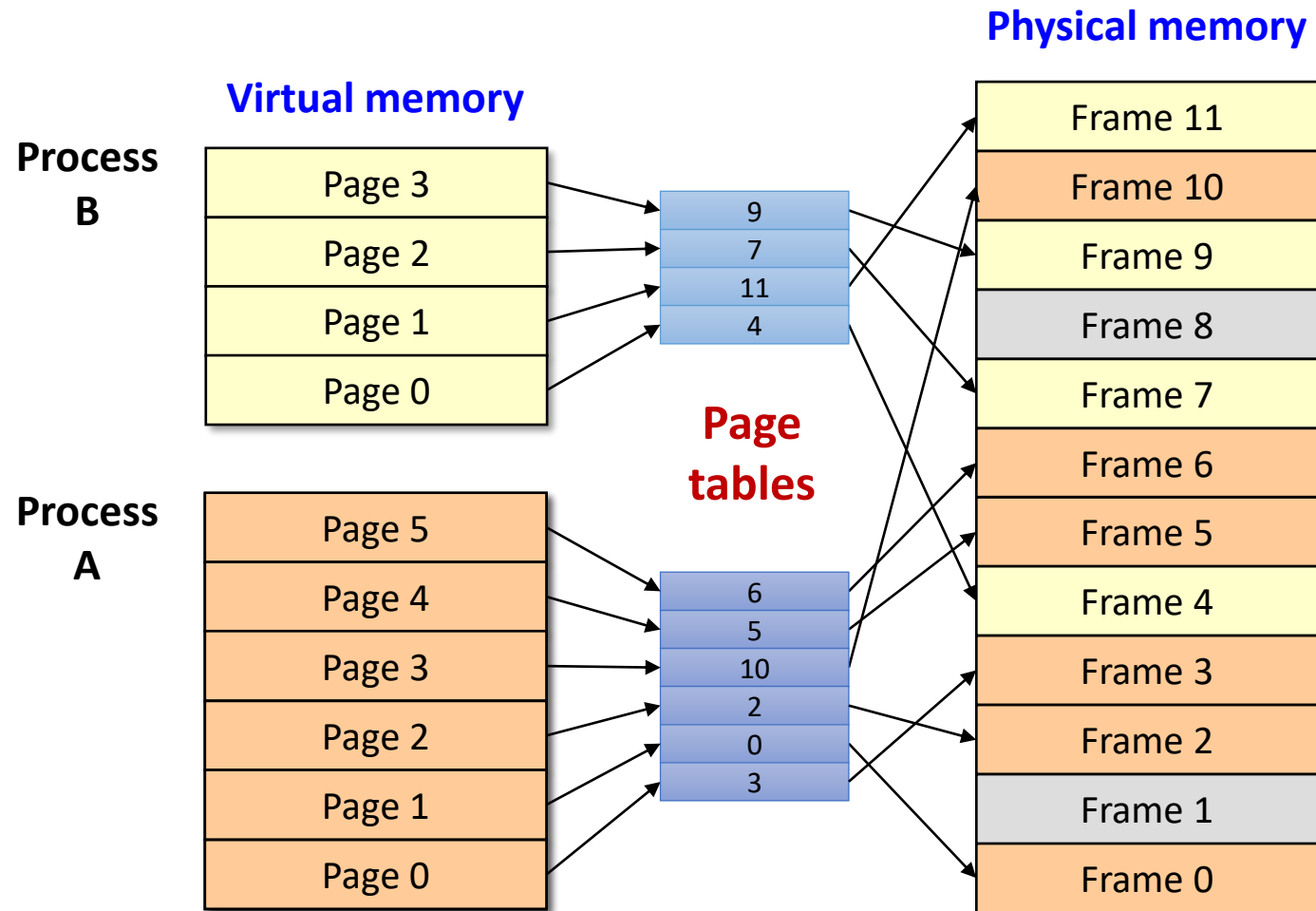


Paging

- Allows the physical address space of a process to be noncontiguous
 - Divide virtual memory into blocks of same size (**pages**)
 - Divide physical memory into fixed-size blocks (**frames**)
 - Page (or frame) size is power of 2 (typically 512B – 8KB)

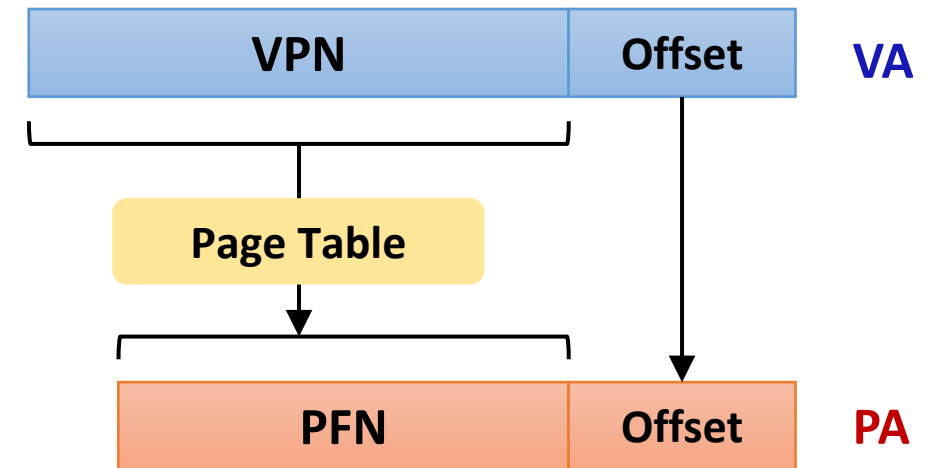
- Eases memory management
 - OS keeps track of all free frames
 - To run a program of size n pages, need to find n free frames and load the program
 - Set up a **page table** to translate virtual to physical addresses
 - No _____ fragmentation

Paging Overview

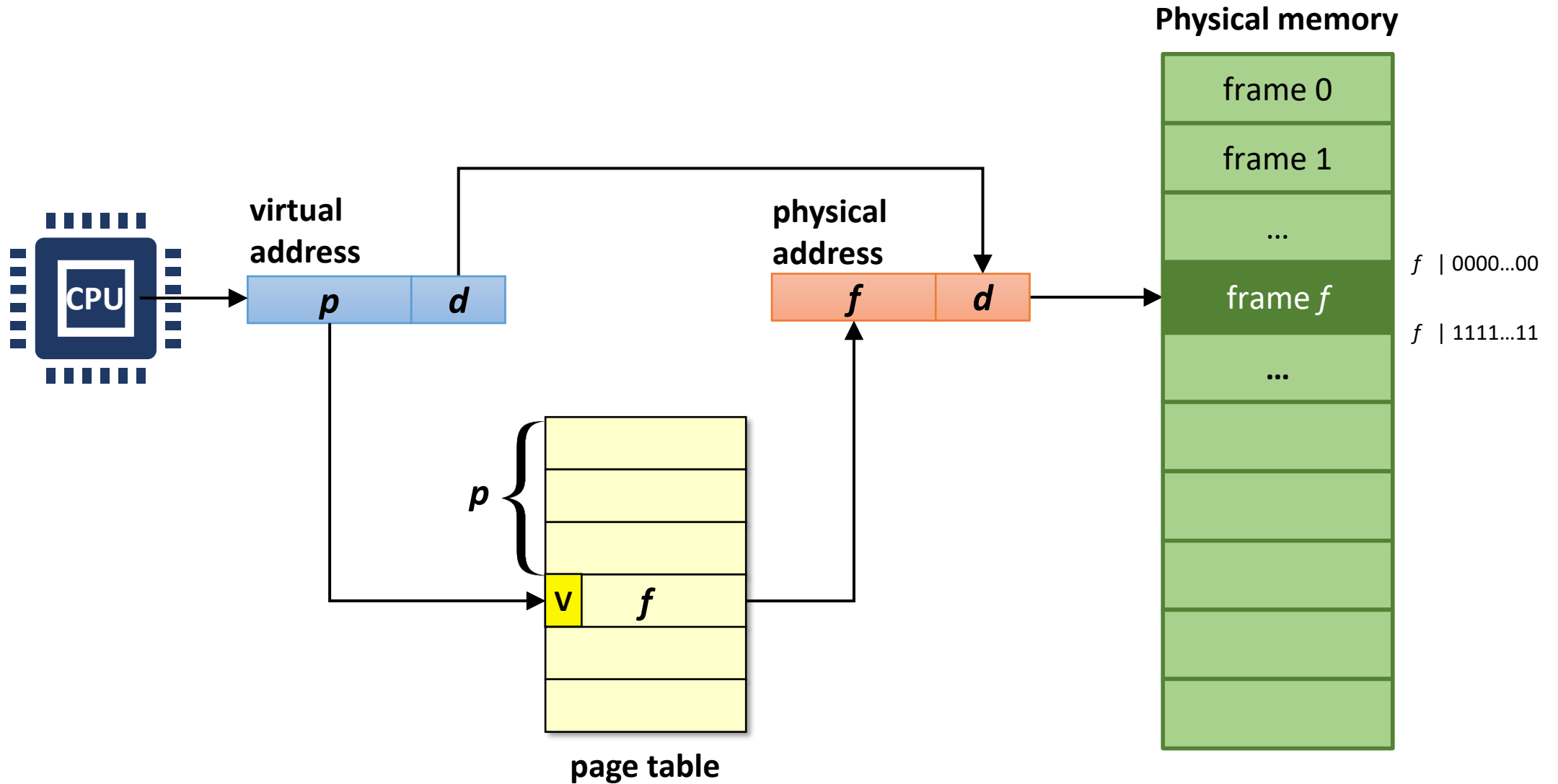


Address Translation (I)

- Translating virtual addresses
 - A virtual address has two parts:
<Virtual Page Number (VPN), Offset>
 - VPN is an index into the page table
 - Page table determines Page Frame Number (PFN)
 - Physical address is <PFN, Offset>
 - Usually, $|VPN| \geq |PFN|$
- Page tables
 - Managed by _____
 - Map VPN to PFN
 - One Page Table Entry (PTE) per page in virtual address space



Address Translation (2)



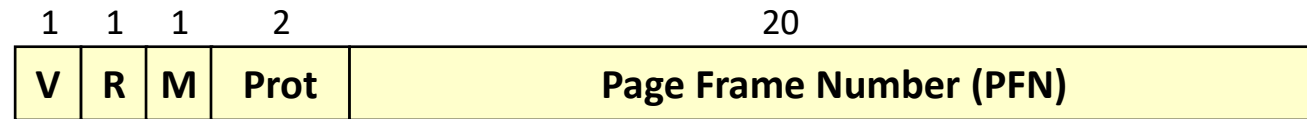
Protection

- **Separate page table for each process**
 - No way to access the physical memory of other processes
 - On context switch, an MMU register is set to point to the base address of the current page table (e.g., CR3 in x86, satp in RISC-V)

- **Page-level protection**
 - Memory protection is implemented by associating protection bits with each PTE
 - Valid / invalid bit
 - “Valid”: the page is in the process’ address space and in use
 - “Invalid”: the page is not allocated
 - Finer level of protection is possible for valid pages
 - Read-only, Read-write, or execute-only protections

PTE

■ Page Table Entry



- V (Valid) bit says whether or not the PTE can be used
 - It is checked each time a virtual address is used
- R (Reference) bit says whether the page has been accessed
 - It is set when a read or write to the page occurs
- M (Modify) bit says whether the page is dirty
 - It is set when a write to the page occurs
- Prot (Protection) bits control which operations are allowed
 - Read, Write, Execute, User/Kernel, etc.
- PFN (Page Frame Number) determines the physical frame

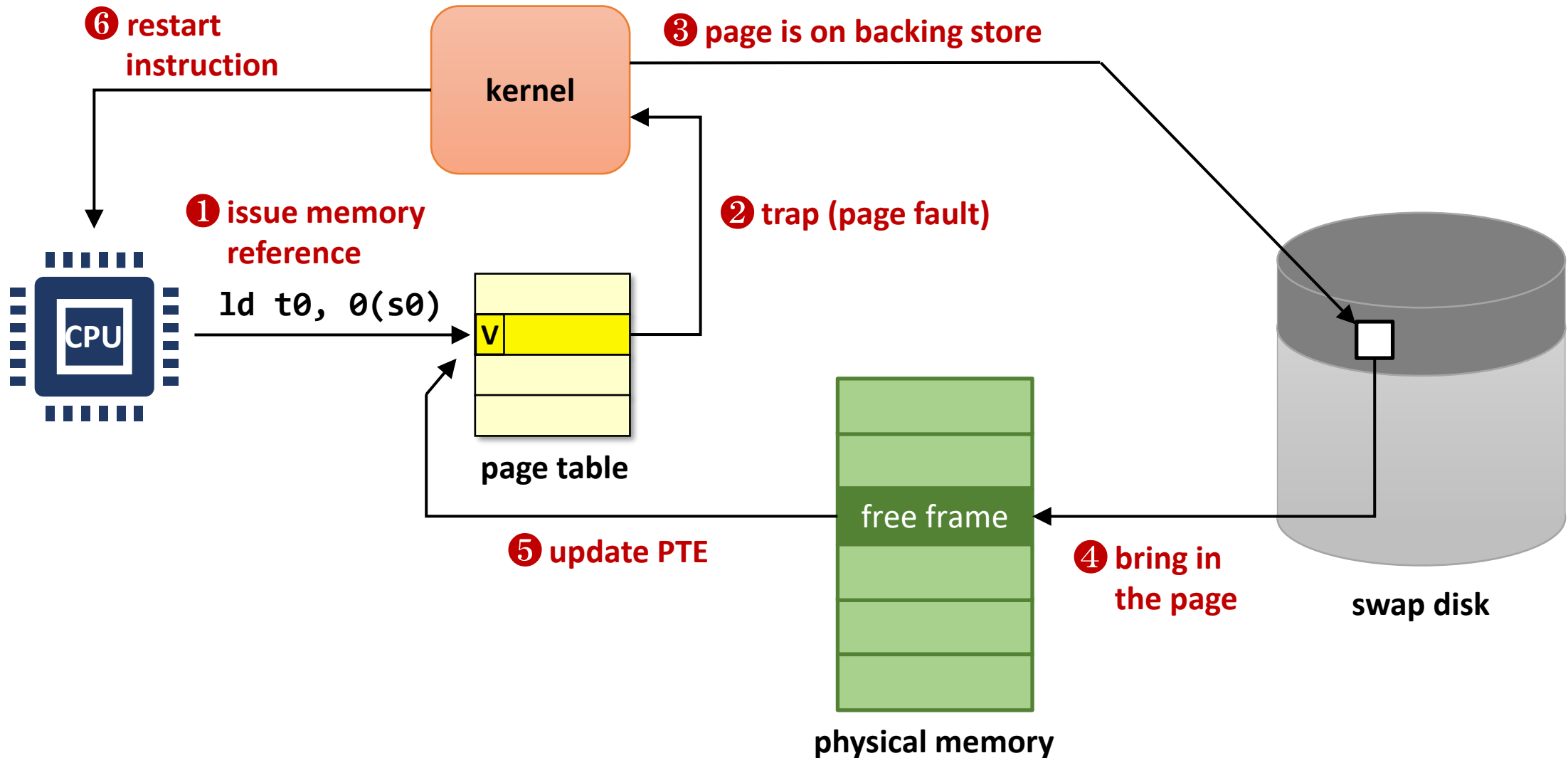
Demand Paging

- OS uses main memory as a (page) cache of all the data allocated by processes in the system
 - Bring a page into memory only when it is needed
 - Pages can be evicted from their physical memory frames
 - Evicted pages go to disk (only dirty pages are written)
 - Movement of pages is transparent to processes
- Benefits
 - _____
 - Less memory needed
 - Faster response
 - More processes

Page Fault

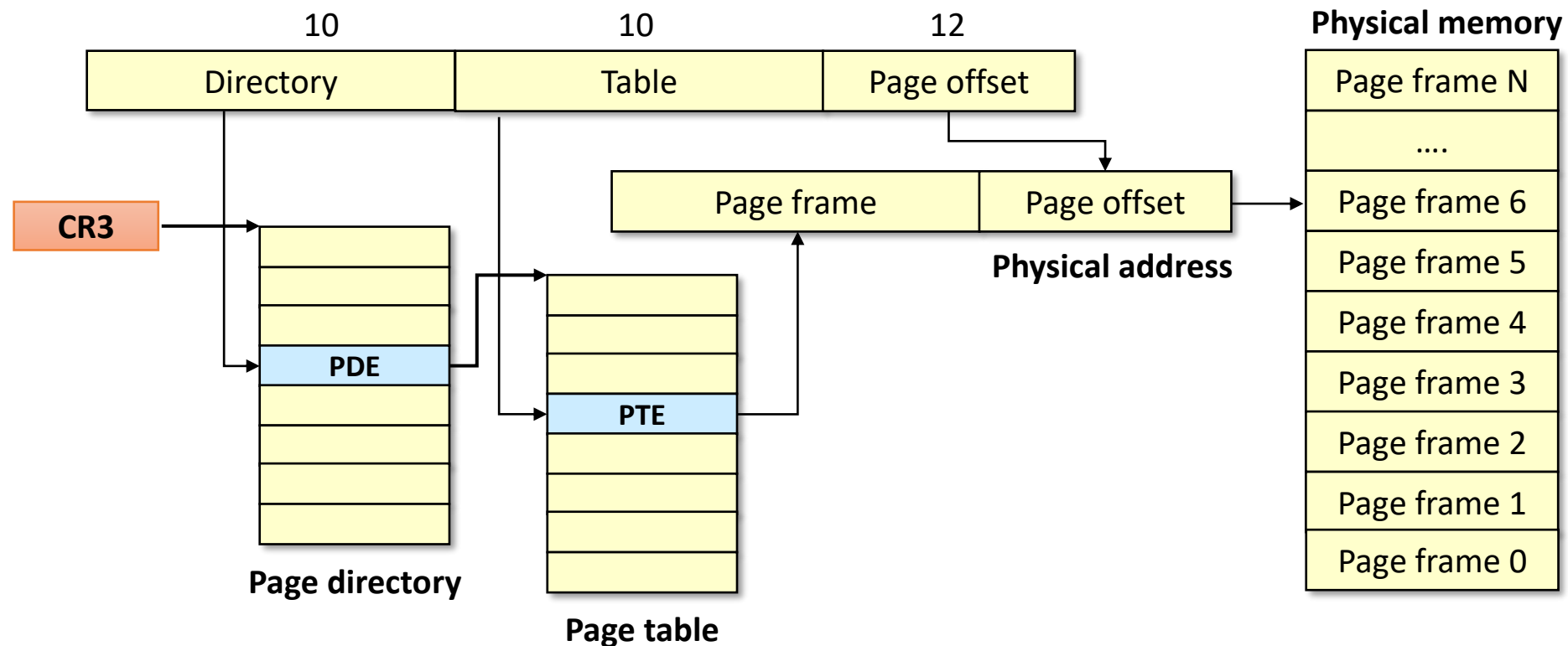
- An exception raised by CPU when accessing invalid PTE
- _____ page faults
 - The page is valid but not loaded into memory
 - OS maintains information on where to find the contents
 - Require disk I/Os
- _____ page faults
 - Page faults can be resolved without disk I/O
 - Used for lazy allocation (e.g., accesses to stack & heap pages)
 - Accesses to prefetched pages, etc.
- Invalid page faults
 - Segmentation violation: the page is not in use

Handling Page Faults



Multi-level Page Table: IA-32

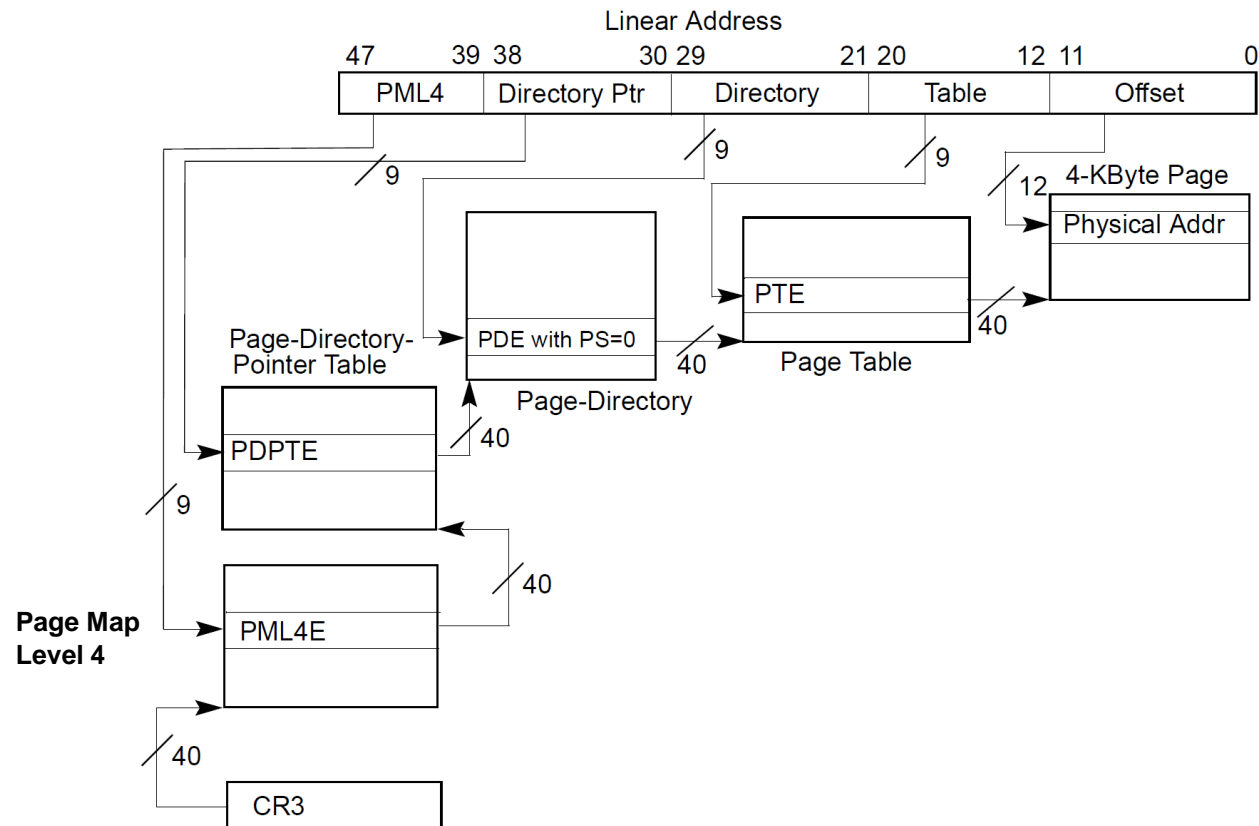
- 32-bit paging
 - 32-bit address space, 4KB pages, 4 bytes/PTE
 - Want every page table fit into a page



Four-level Page Table

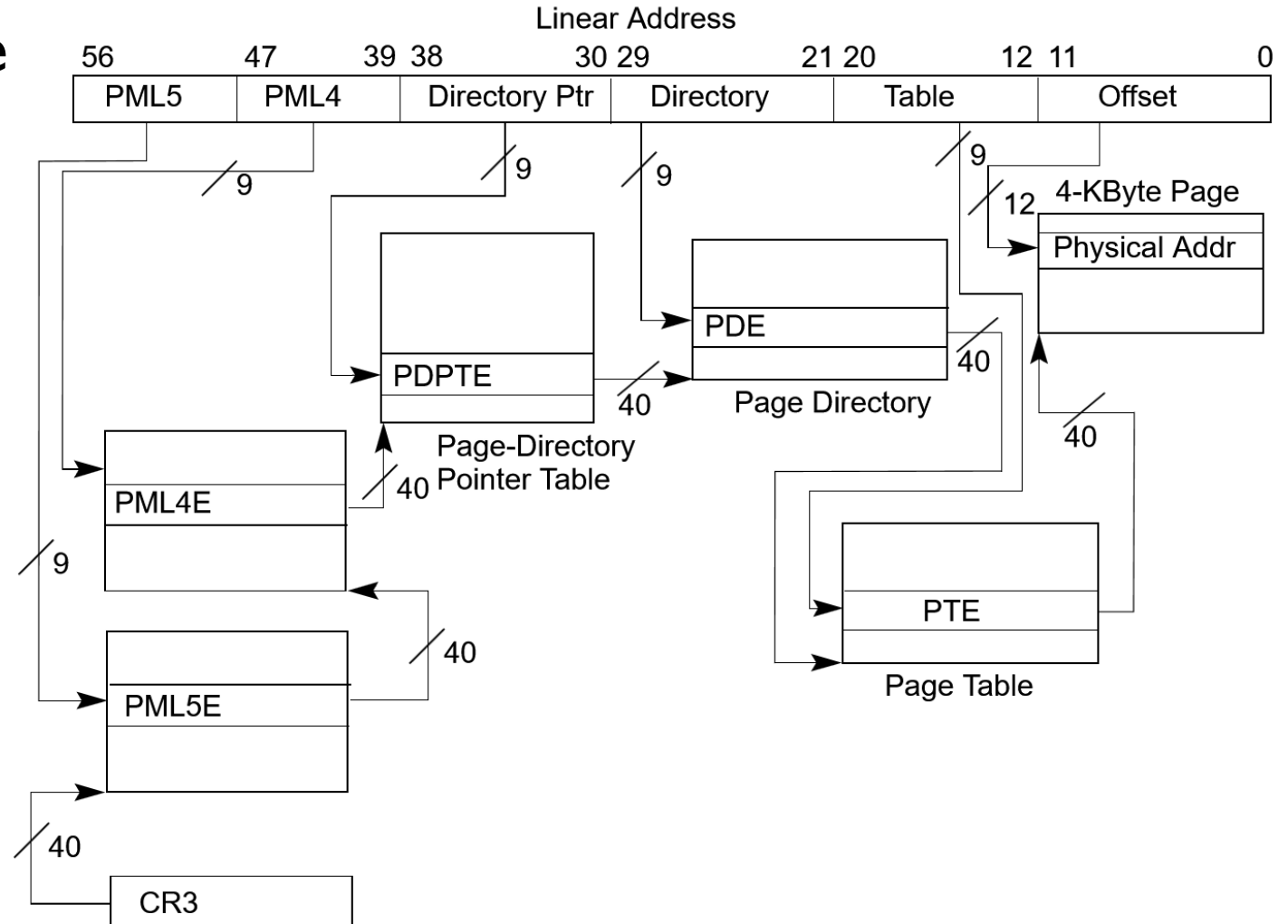
- IA-32e paging mode in Intel 64

- 48-bit “linear” address → _____ physical address (4KB page)



Five-level Page Table

- 57-bit virtual address space
- For Intel Xeon Scalable "Ice Lake" server processors and beyond
- Supported by Linux since 4.14
- Enabled by default since 5.5



TLB

- Translation _____ Buffer
 - A hardware cache of popular virtual-to-physical address translations
 - Essential component which makes virtual memory possible
- TLB exploits locality
 - **Temporal locality**: an instruction or data item that has been recently accessed will likely be re-accessed soon
 - Instructions and data accesses in loops, ...
 - _____ **locality**: if a program accesses memory at address x , it will likely soon access memory near x
 - Code execution, array traversal, stack accesses, ...

TLB Organization

- TLB is implemented in hardware
 - Processes only use a handful of pages at a time
 - 16~256 entries in TLB is typical
 - Usually fully associative
 - All entries looked up in parallel
 - But may be set associative to reduce latency
 - Replacement policy: LRU (Least Recently Used)
 - TLB actually caches the whole PTEs, not just PFNs

Valid	Tag (VPN)	Value (PTE)					
1	0x1000	V	R	M	Prot	PFN	0x1234
1	0x2400	V	R	M	Prot	PFN	0x8800
0	-	-					

Handling TLB Misses

- Software-managed TLB



- Hardware-managed TLB

- CPU knows where page tables are in memory
 - e.g., CR3 (or PDBR) register in IA-32 / Intel 64, satp in RISC-V
- _____ maintains page tables
- CPU “walks” the page table and fills TLB
- Page tables have to be in hardware-defined format

TLB on Context Switch

- **Flush TLB on each context switch**
 - TLB is flushed automatically when PTBR is changed in a hardware-managed TLB
 - Some architectures support the pinning of pages into TLB
 - For pages that are globally-shared among processes (e.g., kernel pages)
 - MIPS, Intel, etc.
- **Track which entries are for which process**
 - Tag each TLB entry with an ASID (Address Space ID)
 - A privileged register holds the ASID of the current process
 - MIPS / ARMv7-A support 8-bit ASID
 - ARMv8-A supports 8-bit/16-bit ASID
 - Intel 64 supports 12-bit PCID (Process Context ID) – Since Westmere (2010)

TLB on Multi-core

■ TLB coherence

- Page-table changes may leave stale entries in the TLBs
- Flushing the local TLB is not enough
- Unlike memory caches, TLBs of different cores are not maintained coherent by hardware
- TLB coherence should be restored by the OS

■ TLB

- The initiating core sends an IPI (Inter-Processor Interrupt) to the remote cores
- The remote cores invalidate their TLBs (may need to flush the entire TLB)
- The IPI may take several hundreds of cycles

TLB Performance

- TLB is the source of many performance problems
 - Performance metric: hit rate, lookup latency, ...
- Increase TLB _____ (= # TLB entries * Page size)
 - Use **superpages**: e.g., 2MB, 1GB page support in x86_64
 - Increase the TLB size
- Use multi-level TLBs
 - e.g., Intel Haswell (4KB pages): L1 ITLB 128 entries (4-way), L1 DTLB 64-entries (4-way), L2 STLB 1024 entries (8-way)
- Change your algorithms and data structures to be TLB-friendly

Paging: Pros

- No external fragmentation
- Fast to allocate and free
 - A list or bitmap for free page frames
 - Allocation: no need to find contiguous free space
 - Free: no need to coalesce with adjacent free space
- Easy to “page out” portions of memory to disk
 - Page size is chosen to be a multiple of disk block sizes
 - Use valid bit to detect reference to “paged-out” pages
 - Can run process when some pages are on disk
- Easy to protect and share pages

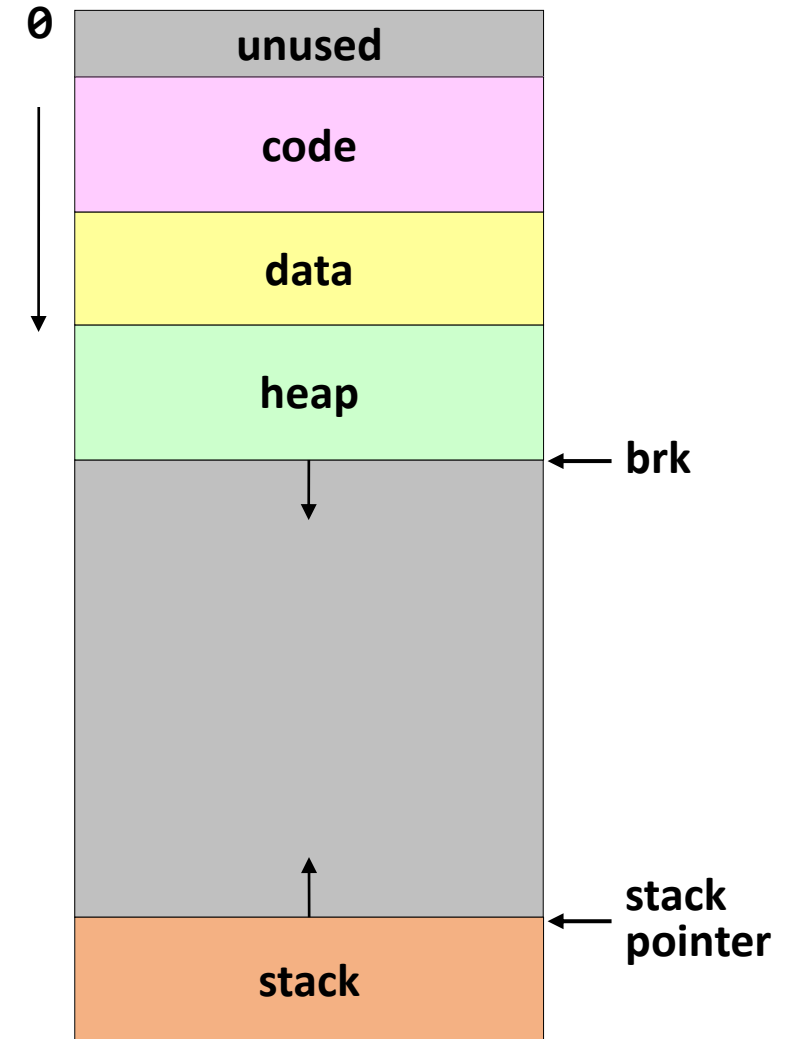
Paging: Cons

- **Internal fragmentation**
 - Wasted memory grows with larger pages
- **Memory reference overhead**
 - Page table stored in memory
 - Address translation increases latency
 - Solution: get hardware support (TLBs)
- **Storage needed for page tables**
 - Needs one PTE for each page in virtual address space
 - 32-bit virtual address space with 4KB pages: 4MB per page table
 - Page table for each process
 - Solution: use multi-level page table

Memory Mapping

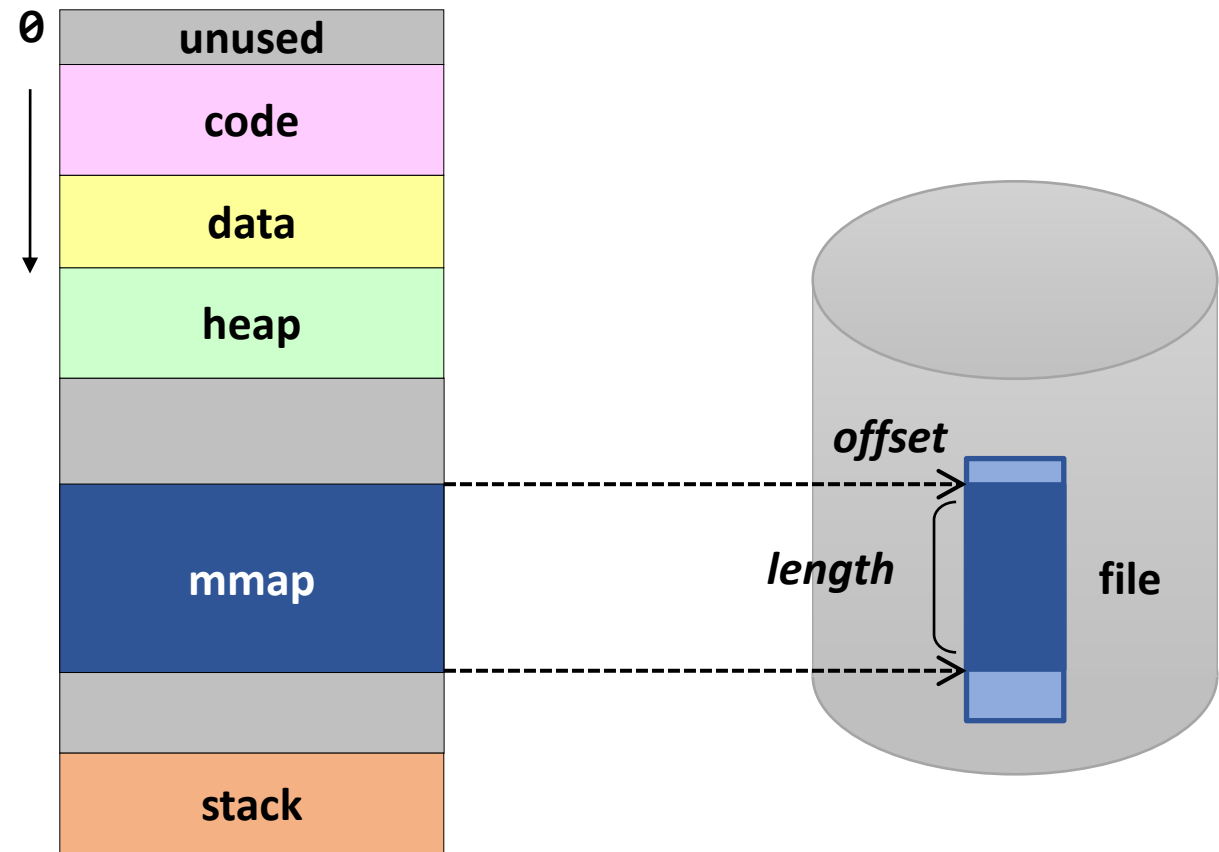
Virtual Memory Area

- Virtual address space is a resource
 - Every memory area should be allocated in the virtual address space
 - If you run out of the virtual address space, you can not access any more memory (even if you have space in the physical memory)
- Some of memory areas are backed by files and some aren't



Memory Mapping

- A dynamically allocated virtual memory area that has a backing store
 - File
 - Shared memory
 - _____
 - None
(Anonymous mapping)



File vs. Anonymous Mapping

- **File mapping (memory-mapped file)**
 - Backing store: regular file
 - Maps a memory region to a file region
 - The content of the file can be read from or written to using load/store instructions

- **Anonymous mapping**
 - Virtual address space not backed by a file
 - Maps a memory region to a memory area filled with 0
 - Zero-page mapping

Shared vs. Private Mapping

- Several processes can map the same backing store in their own virtual address space
- Shared mapping
 - Modifications to shared pages are visible to all involved processes
- Private mapping
 - Modifications are not visible to other processes
 - Copy-on-write

	File mapping	Anonymous mapping
Private	Private file mapping	Private anonymous mapping
Shared	Shared file mapping	Shared anonymous mapping

mmap()

```
void *mmap(void *addr, size_t length, int prot, int flags,  
           int fd, off_t offset);
```

- **Creates a new mapping in the virtual address space of the calling process**
 - **addr**: the starting address for the new mapping (should be aligned to page boundary)
 - If NULL, the kernel chooses the address
 - Otherwise, the kernel takes it as a hint about where to place the mapping
 - **length**: the length of the mapping
 - **prot**: protection info. (PROT_EXEC, PROT_READ, PROT_WRITE, PROT_NONE)
 - **flags**: mapping flags (MAP_PRIVATE, MAP_SHARED, MAP_ANONYMOUS, ...)
 - **fd, offset**: file descriptor & file offset (used for file mapping)

Memory-Mapped File: Example

- Allows processes to perform file I/O using memory references
 - Instead of `open()`, `read()`, `write()`, `close()`, etc.
 - Map a file to a virtual memory region

```
#include <sys/mman.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <unistd.h>

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int fd = open("/bin/ls", O_RDONLY);
    char *p = (char *) mmap(0, 4096, PROT_READ, MAP_SHARED, fd, 0);
    printf("0x%02x 0x%02x 0x%02x 0x%02x\n", *p, *(p+1), *(p+2), *(p+3));
    close(fd);
}
```

Memory-Mapped File

■ Implementation

- Initially, all pages in mapped region are marked as invalid
- OS reads a page from file whenever invalid page is accessed
- PTEs map virtual addresses to page frames holding file data
- $\langle \text{Virtual address base} + n \rangle$ refers to $\text{offset} + n$ in file

■ Writes to the memory-mapped area

- If `MAP_SHARED`,
OS writes to a page and it is written to the file when evicted from physical memory
- If `MAP_PRIVATE`,
OS creates a private copy and then write data to the page (a.k.a. Copy-On-Write).
File is not modified.

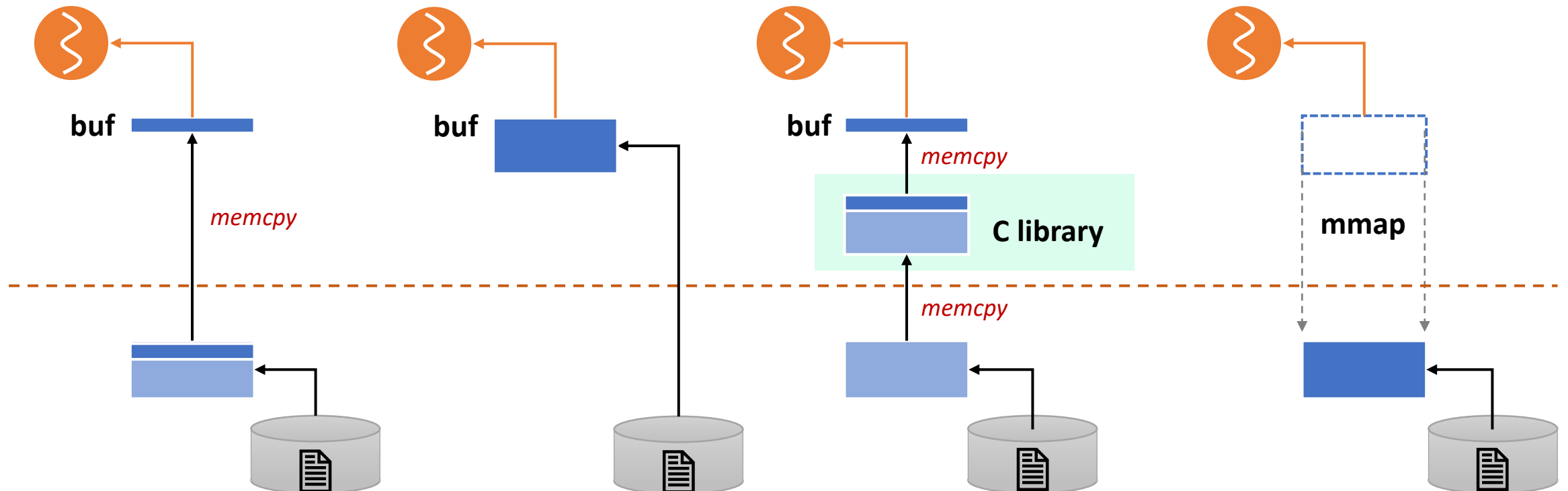
File I/O Comparisons

```
char buf[1024];  
int fd = open("a",...);  
read(fd, buf, 1024);
```

```
char buf[4096];  
int fd = open("a",...,  
             O_DIRECT);  
read(fd, buf, 4096);
```

```
char buf[1024];  
FILE *fp = fopen("a","r");  
fgets(buf, 1024, fp);
```

```
int fd = open("a",...);  
char *p = mmap(0,.., fd, 0);
```



Summary: Memory-Mapped File

■ Pros

- Uniform access for files and memory (just use pointers)
- _____
- Several processes can map the same file allowing the pages in memory to be shared

■ Cons

- Process has less control over data movement
- Does not generalize to streamed I/O (pipes, sockets, etc.)

Shared Memory: Example

- Allows (unrelated) processes to share data using direct memory reference

```
#include <sys/mman.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <fcntl.h>
#include <unistd.h>

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int fd = shm_open("/shm1", O_CREAT | O_EXCL | O_RDWR, 0600);
    ftruncate(fd, 4096);        // set shmem size
    int *p = (int *) mmap(0, 4096, PROT_READ | PROT_WRITE, MAP_SHARED, fd, 0);
    for (int i = 0; i < 1024; i++) p[i] = i;
    close(fd);
}
```

Shared Memory

■ Implementation

- Have PTEs in both tables map to the same physical frame
- Each PTE can have different protection values
- Must update both PTEs when page becomes invalid

■ Mapping shared memory in the virtual address space

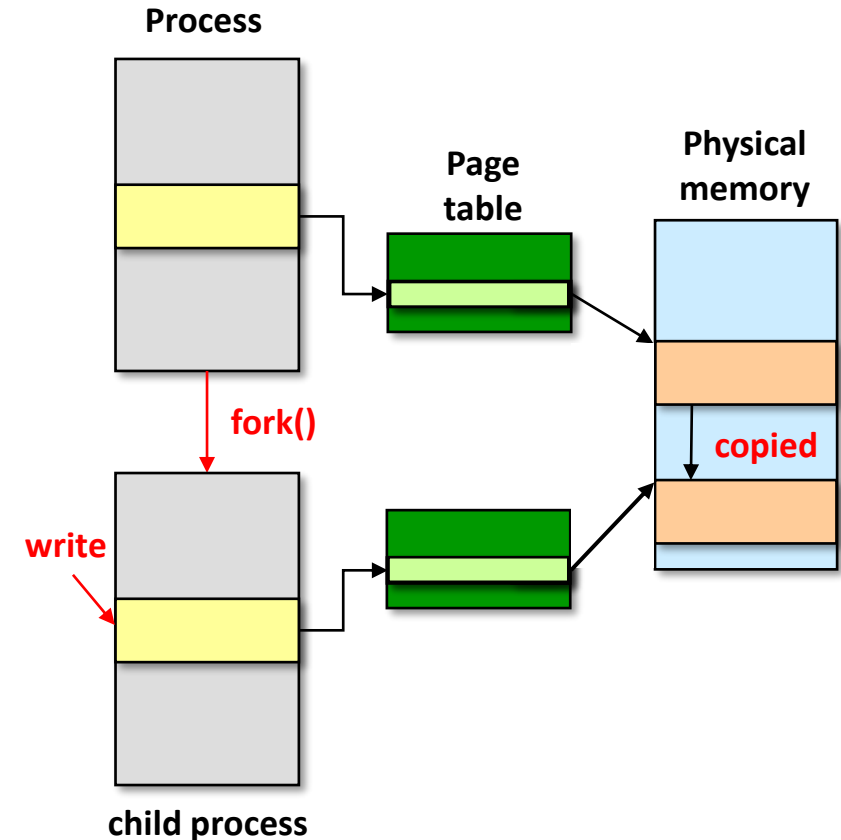
- At the different address: flexible (no address space conflicts), but pointers inside the shared memory are invalid
- At the same address: less flexible, but shared pointers are valid

Copy-on-Write

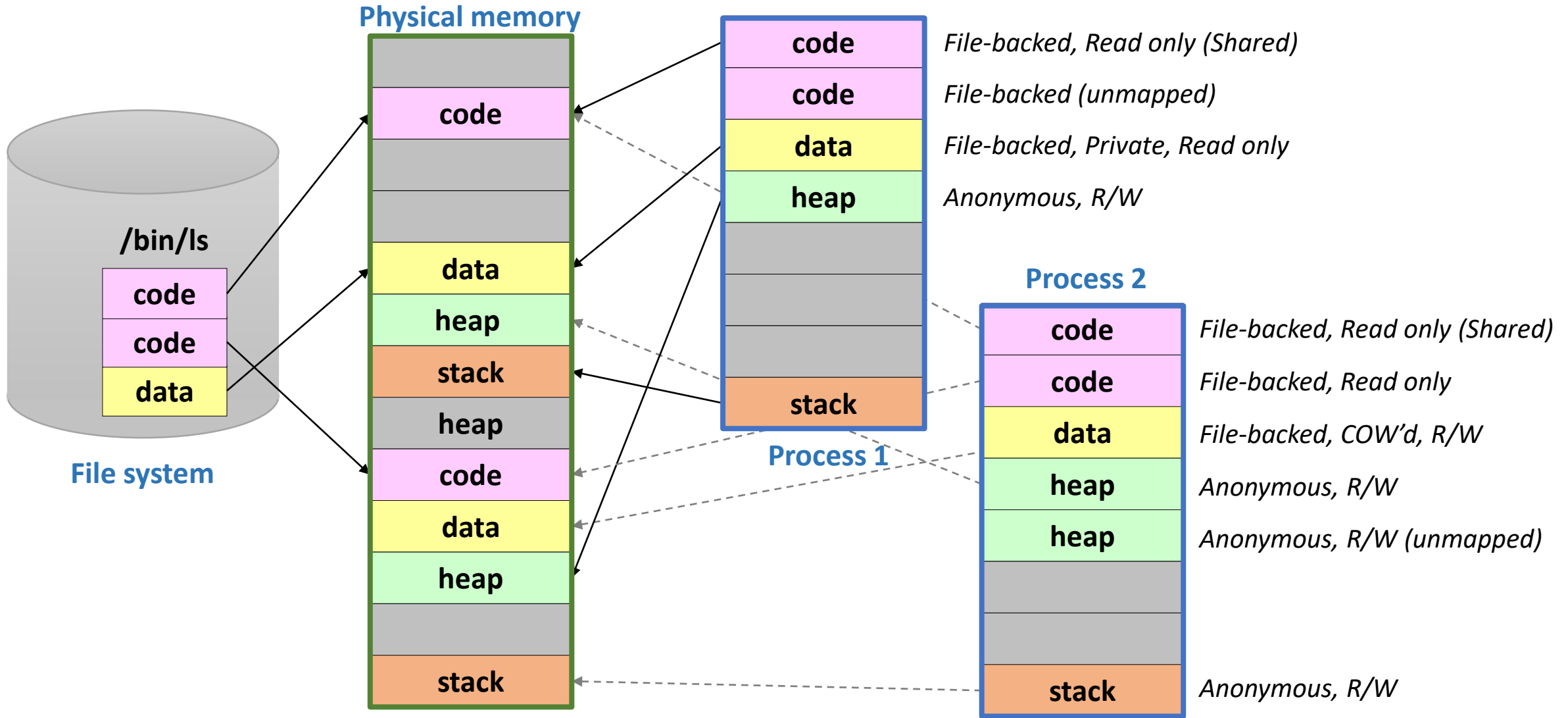
- Defers memory copies as long as possible, hoping to avoid them altogether
- **Implementation**
 - Instead of copying pages, create shared mappings to the same page frames in physical memory
 - Shared pages are protected as read-only
 - When data is written to these pages, OS allocates new space in physical memory and directs the write to it
- **Usage**
 - `fork()`
 - Allocating data and heap pages, etc.

Copy-on-Write during fork()

- COW ensures that both processes do not see each other's changes
 - Instead of copying all pages, create shared mappings of parent pages in the child address space
 - Shared pages are protected as read-only
 - Reads happen as usual
 - Writes generate a protection fault and OS copies the page, changes page mapping, and restarts write instruction
- Efficient when the child process calls `exec()` immediately after `fork()`



Summary



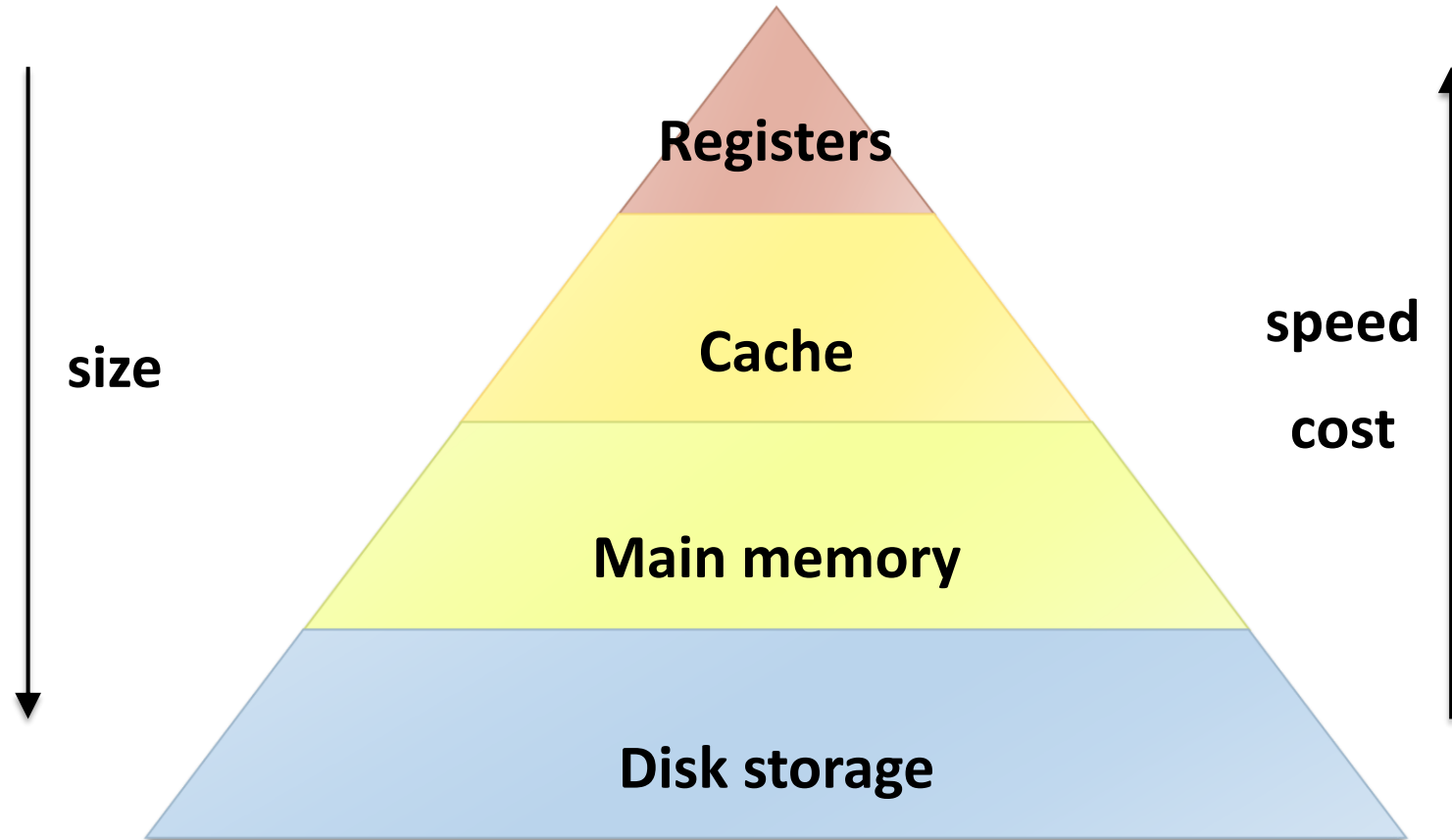
Swapping

Swapping

- Support processes when not enough physical memory
 - User program should be independent of the amount of physical memory
 - Single process with very large address space
 - Multiple processes with combined address spaces
- Consider physical memory as a _____ for disks
 - Leverage locality of reference within processes
 - Process only uses small amount of address space at a moment
 - Only small amount of address space must be resident in physical memory
 - Store the rest of them to disk

Memory Hierarchy

- Each layer acts as “backing store” for layer above



Numbers Everyone Show Know

L1 cache reference	0.5 ns
Branch mispredict	5 ns
L2 cache reference	7 ns
Mutex lock/unlock	100 ns
Main memory reference	100 ns
Compress 1K bytes with Zippy	10,000 ns
Send 2K bytes over 1 Gbps network	20,000 ns
Read 1 MB sequentially from memory	250,000 ns
Round trip within same datacenter	500,000 ns
Disk seek	10,000,000 ns
Read 1 MB sequentially from network	10,000,000 ns
Read 1 MB sequentially from disk	30,000,000 ns
Send packet CA → Netherlands → CA	150,000,000 ns

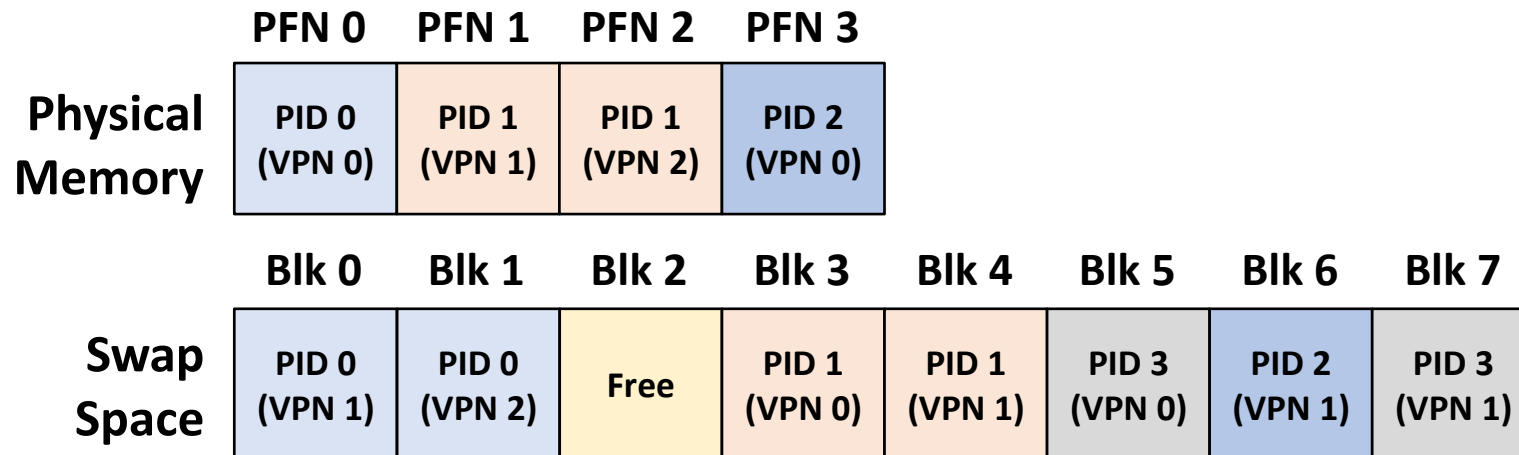
How to Swap

- - Programmers manually move pieces of code or data in and out of memory as they were needed
 - No special support needed from OS
- **Process-level swapping**
 - A process is swapped temporarily out of memory to a backing store
 - It's brought back into memory later for continued execution
- **Page-level swapping**
 - Swap pages out of memory to a backing store (*swap-out* or *page-out*)
 - Swap pages into memory from the backing store (*swap-in* or *page-in*)

Where to Swap

■ Swap space

- Disk space reserved for moving pages back and forth
- The size of the swap space determines the maximum number of memory pages that can be in use
- Block size is same as the page size
- Can be a dedicated partition or a file in the file system



When to Swap

- Proactively based on thresholds
 - OS wants to keep a small portion of memory free
 - Two threshold values: *HW* (high watermark) and *LW* (low watermark)
 - A background thread called swap daemon (or page daemon) is responsible for freeing memory (e.g., `kswapd` in Linux)
 - If ($\# \text{ free pages} < LW$), the swap daemon starts to evict pages from physical memory
 - If ($\# \text{ free pages} > HW$), the swap daemon goes to sleep
 - What if the allocation speed is faster than reclamation speed?

What to Swap

- What happens to each type of page frame on low mem?
 - Kernel code → Not swapped
 - Kernel data → ??
 - Page tables for user processes → Not swapped
 - Kernel stack for user processes → ??
 - User code pages → Dropped
 - User data pages → ??
 - User heap/stack pages → Swapped
 - Files mmap'ed to user processes → ??
 - Page cache pages → Dropped or go to file system
- Page replacement policy chooses the pages to evict

Page Replacement

- Which page in physical memory should be selected as a victim?
 - Write out the victim page to disk if modified (dirty bit set)
 - If the victim page is clean, just discard
 - The original version is either in the file system or in the swap space
 - Why not use direct-mapped or set-associative design similar to CPU caches?
- Goal: minimize the page fault rate (miss rate)
 - The miss penalty (cost of disk access) is so high ($> \times 100,000$)
 - A tiny miss rate quickly dominates the overall AMAT (Average Memory Access Time)

OPT (or MIN)

- Belady's optimal replacement policy (1966)
 - Replace the page that will not be used for the longest time in the future
 - Shows the lowest fault rate for any page reference stream
 - Problem: have to predict the future
 - Not practical, but good for comparison

Reference: 1 2 3 4 1 2 5 1 2 3 4 5

<i>PF rate</i> = 7 / 12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	3
		2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	4	4
			3	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5
	Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss	Hit	Hit	Miss	Hit	Hit	Miss	Miss	Hit

FIFO

■ First-In First-Out

- Replace the page that has been in memory the longest
- Why might this be good?
 - Maybe, the one brought in the longest ago is not being used
- Why might this be bad?
 - Maybe, it's not the case
 - Some pages may always be needed
- Obvious and simple to implement
- Fair: all pages receive equal residency
- FIFO suffers from “Belady’s anomaly”
 - The fault rate might increase when the algorithm is given more memory

FIFO: Belady's Anomaly

Reference: 1 2 3 4 1 2 5 1 2 3 4 5

PF rate = 9 / 12

1	1	1	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5
	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	3
		3	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	4	4
Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss	Hit	Hit	Miss	Miss	Hit

Reference: 1 2 3 4 1 2 5 1 2 3 4 5

PF rate = 10 / 12

1	1	1	1	1	1	5	5	5	5	4	4
	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	5
		3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	2
			4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3
Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss	Hit	Hit	Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss

LRU

▪ Least Recently Used

- Replace the page that has not been used for the longest time in the **past**
- Use past to predict the future
 - cf. OPT wants to look at the future
- With locality, LRU approximates OPT
- “Stack” algorithm: does not suffer from Belady’s anomaly
- Harder to implement: must track which pages have been accessed
- Does not consider the frequency of page accesses
- Does not handle all workloads well

Stack Property

- Stack algorithms

- Policies that guarantee increasing memory size does not increase the number of page faults (e.g., OPT, LRU, etc.)
- Any page in memory with m frames is also in memory with $m+1$ frames



RANDOM

■ Another simple policy

- Simply picks a random page to replace under memory pressure
- Simple to implement: no bookkeeping needed
- Performance depends on the luck of the draw
- Outperforms FIFO and LRU for certain workloads

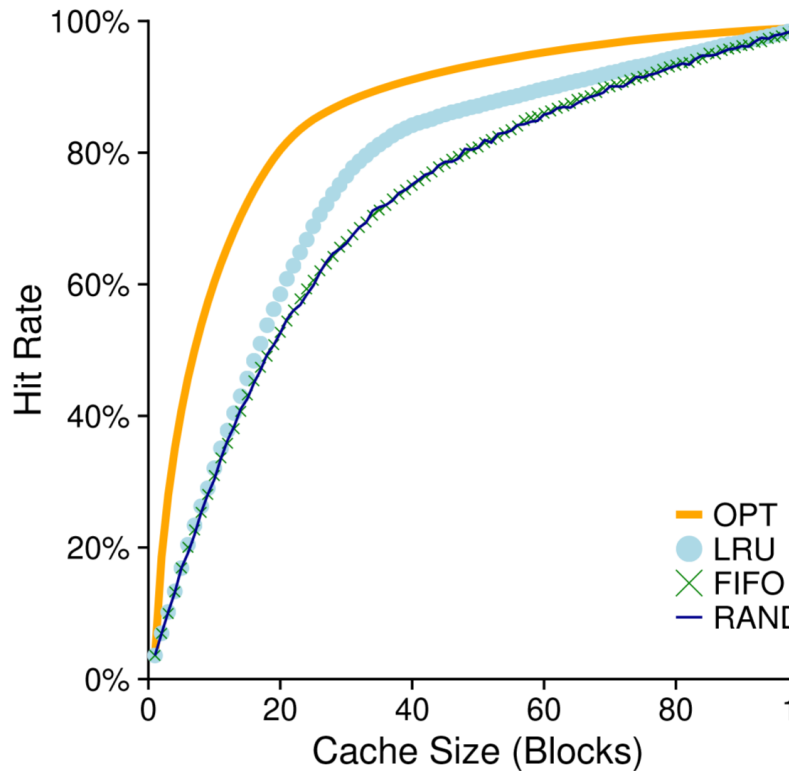
Reference: 1 2 3 4 1 2 5 1 2 3 4 5

PF rate
= 8 / 12

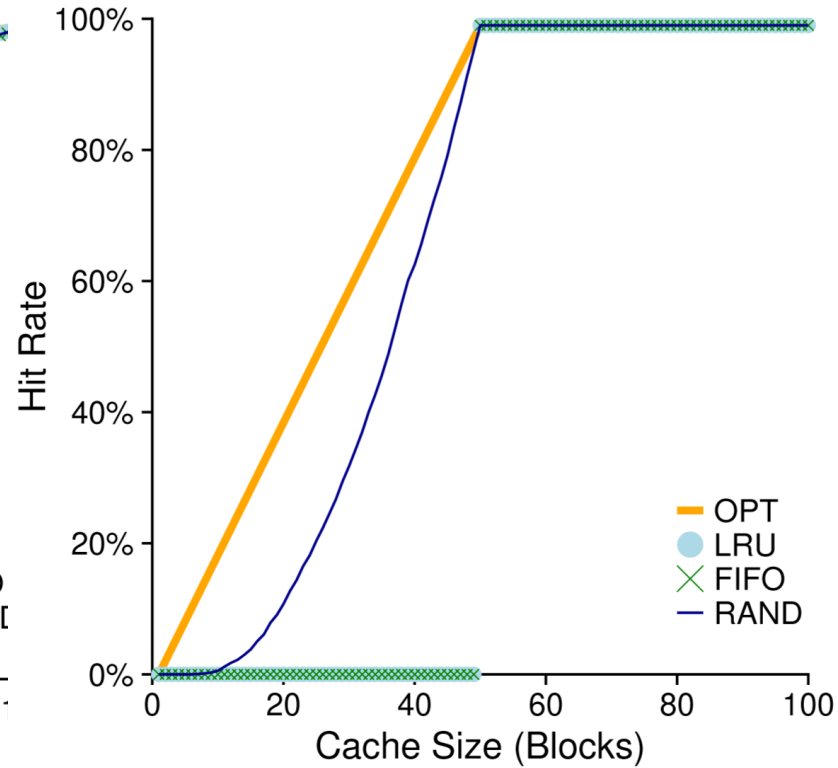
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	5
	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3
		3	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	4	4
Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss	Hit	Hit	Miss	Hit	Hit	Miss	Miss	Miss

Comparisons

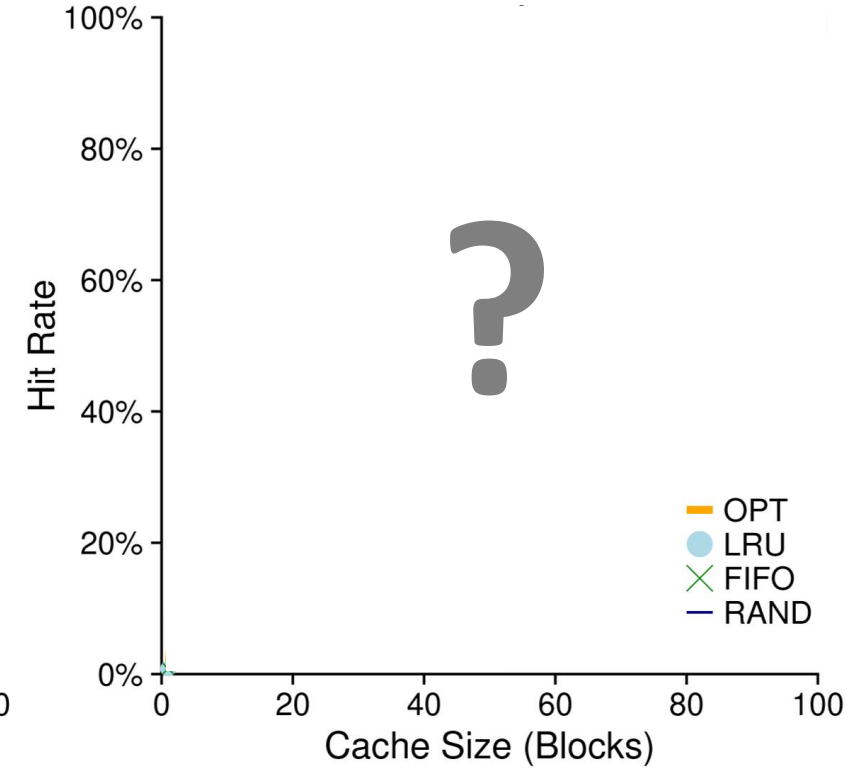
The 80-20 Workload



The Looping Workload (50 blocks)



The Random Workload



Implementing LRU

- **Software approach**
 - OS maintains ordered list of page frames by reference time
 - When page is referenced: move page to the front of the list
 - When need victim: pick the page in the back of the list
 - Slow on memory reference, fast on replacement
- **Hardware approach**

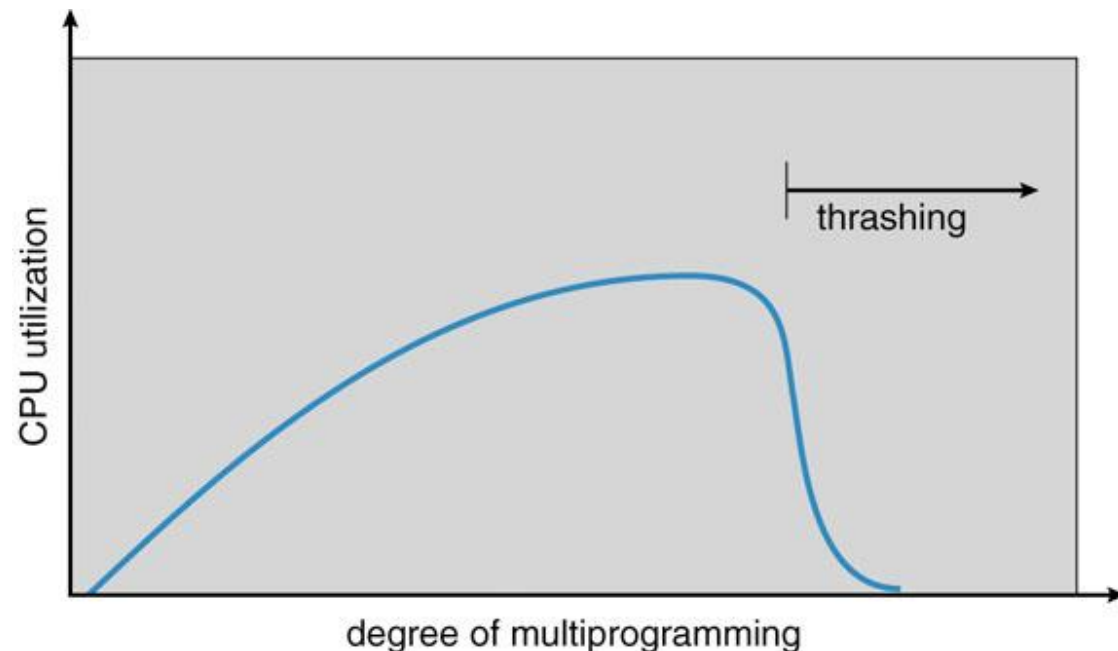


Replacement Algorithms

- I/O buffer cache replacement
 - "Page hit" is known to OS
 - Uses block I/O traces
 - LRU, LRU-2, 2Q, SEQ, LRFU, EELRU, MQ, LIRS, **ARC**, ...
- VM page replacement
 - "Page hit" is only known to hardware, not to OS
 - Hardware sets the Reference / Dirty bits in the PTE
 - LRU approximation
 - Uses memory reference traces
 - CLOCK, WSClock, GCLOCK, CAR, CLOCK-Pro, ...

Thrashing

- What happens when physical memory is not enough to hold all the “working sets” of processes
 - Working set: a set of pages that a process is using actively
 - Most of the time is spent by an OS paging data back and forth from disk
 - Possible solutions:
 - Kill processes
 - Buy more memory
- Android’s LMK
(Low Memory Killer)



Summary

- **VM mechanisms**
 - Physical and virtual addressing
 - Partitioning, segmentation, paging
 - Page table management, TLBs, etc.
- **VM policies**
 - Page replacement policy, page allocation policy
- **VM optimizations**
 - Demand paging, copy-on-write (space)
 - Multi-level page tables (space)
 - Efficient translation using TLBs (time)
 - Page replacement policy (time)