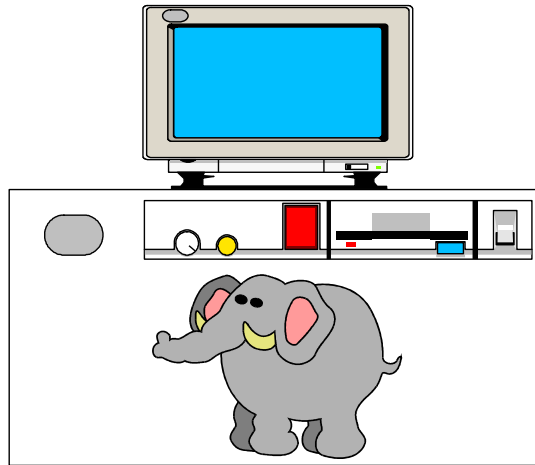


# *Virtual Memory Basics*



## ***Memory Management***

- **The Fifties:**
  - Absolute Addresses
  - Dynamic address translation
- **The Sixties:**
  - Paged memory systems and TLBs
  - Atlas' Demand paging
- **Modern Virtual Memory Systems**

## ***Types of Names for Memory Locations***



- **Machine language address**  
⇒ as specified in machine code
- **Virtual address**  
⇒ ISA specifies translation of machine code address into virtual address of program variable
- **Physical address**  
⇒ operating system specifies mapping of virtual address into name for a physical memory location

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Translation of machine code address into virtual address may involve a segment register.

Physical memory location => actual address signals going to DRAM chips.

## ***Absolute Addresses***

***EDSAC, early 50's***

**effective address = physical memory address**

**Only one program ran at a time, with unrestricted access to entire machine (RAM + I/O devices)**

**Addresses in a program depended upon where the program was to be loaded in memory**

**But it was more convenient for programmers to write location-independent subroutines**

***⇒ How could location independence be achieved?***

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Led to the development of loaders and linkers to statically relocate and link Programs.

## Dynamic Address Translation

### **Motivation:**

In the early machines, I/O operations were slow and each word transferred involved the CPU

Higher throughput if CPU and I/O of 2 or more programs were overlapped. **How?**

⇒ *multiprogramming*

### **Location independent programs:**

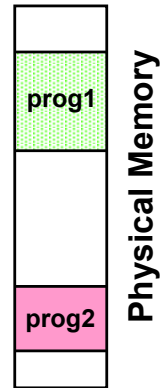
Programming and storage management ease

⇒ *need for a base register*

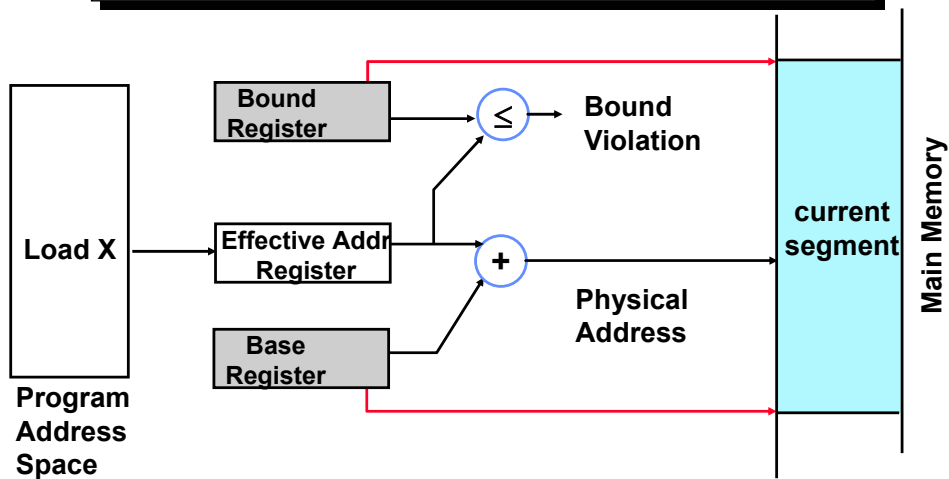
### **Protection:**

Independent programs should not affect each other inadvertently

⇒ *need for a bound register*



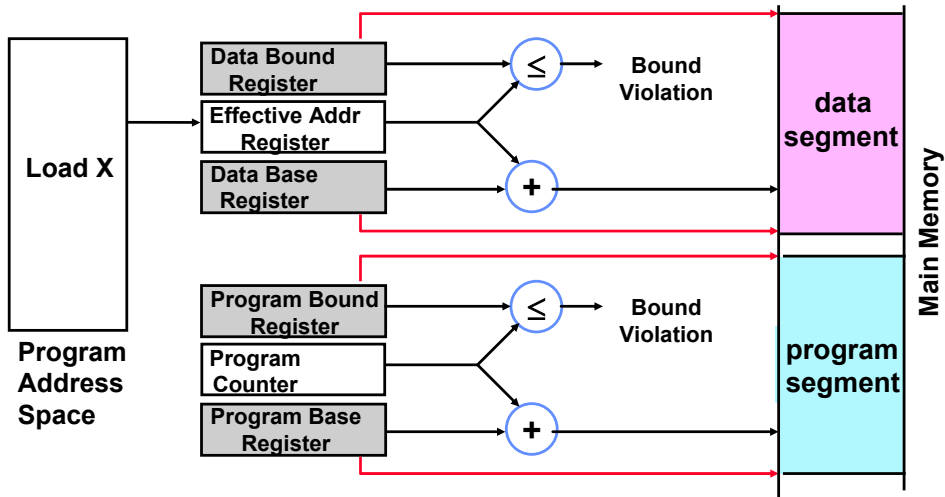
## Simple Base and Bound Translation



Base and bounds registers only visible/accessible when processor running in *kernel* (a.k.a *supervisor*) mode

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## Separate Areas for Program and Data



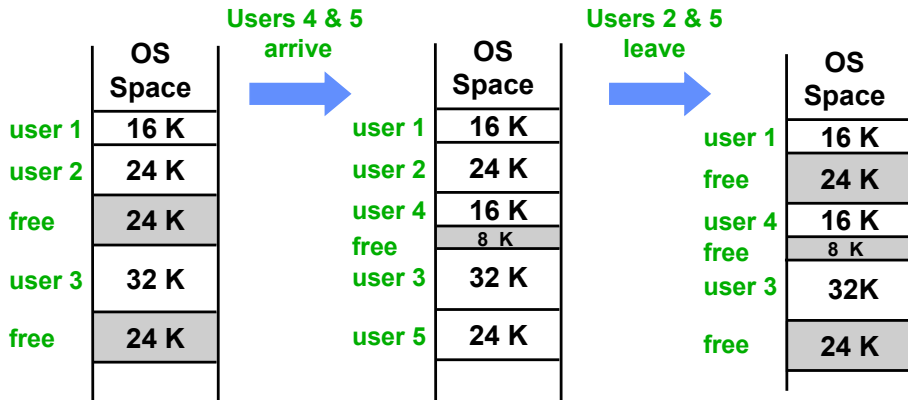
**What is an advantage of this separation?**

**Used today on Cray vector supercomputers**

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Permits sharing of program segments.

## Memory Fragmentation



As users come and go, the storage is “fragmented”. Therefore, at some stage programs have to be moved around to compact the storage.

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Called Burping the memory.



## Paged Memory Systems

Processor generated address can be interpreted as a pair **<page number,offset>**



A page table contains the physical address of the base of each page

0
1
2
3

Address Space of User-1

0	
1	
2	
3	

Page Table of User-1

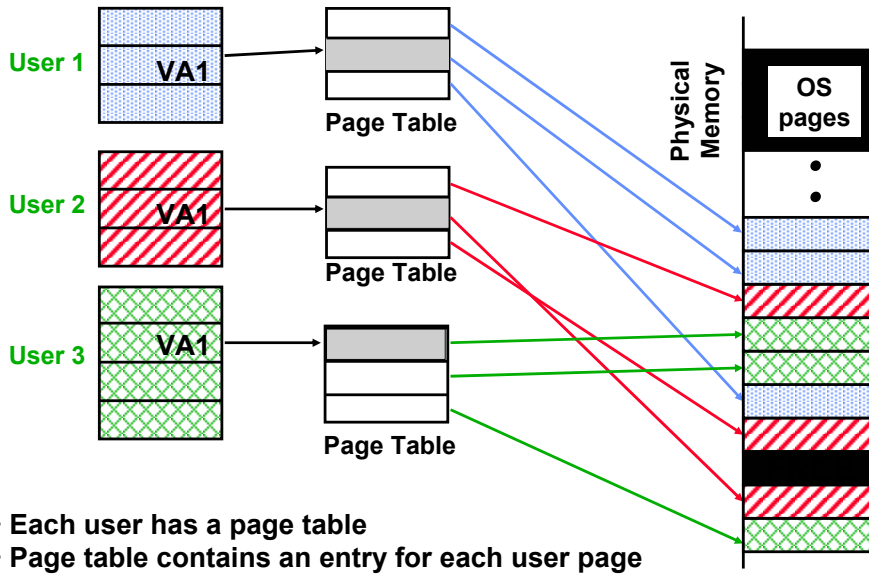
1
0
3
2

**What requirement does fixed-length pages plus indirection through page table relax?**

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Relaxes the contiguous allocation requirement.

## Private Address Space per User



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OS ensures that the page tables are disjoint.

## ***Where Should Page Tables Reside?***

Space required by the page tables is proportional to the address space, number of users, ...

⇒ Space requirement is large  
*too expensive to keep in registers*

***Special registers just for the current user:***

- ***What disadvantages does this have?***  
*may not be feasible for large page tables*

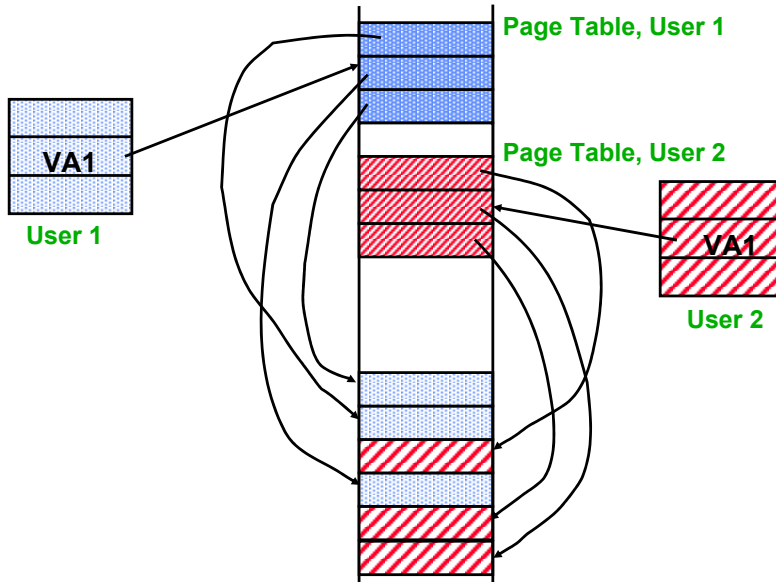
***Main memory:***

- needs one reference to retrieve the page base address and another to access the data word  
⇒ *doubles number of memory references!*

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Affects context-switching overhead, and needs new management instructions.

## Page Tables in Physical Memory



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## ***A Problem in Early Sixties***

**There were many applications whose data could not fit in the main memory, e.g., Payroll**

*Paged memory system reduced fragmentation but still required the whole program to be resident in the main memory*

**Programmers moved the data back and forth from the secondary store by *overlaying* it repeatedly on the primary store**

*tricky programming!*

## Manual Overlays

Assuming an instruction can address all the storage on the drum

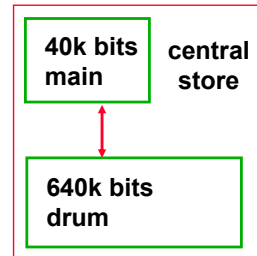
**Method 1** - programmer keeps track of addresses in the main memory and initiates an I/O transfer when required

**Method 2** - automatic initiation of I/O transfers by software address translation

*Brooker's interpretive coding, 1960*

**Method 1 problem ?**

**Method 2 problem ?**

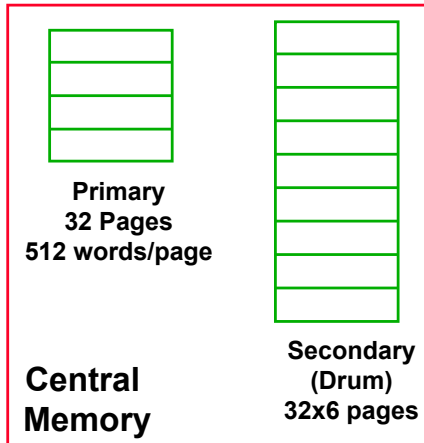


Ferranti Mercury  
1956

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British Firm Ferranti, did Mercury and then Atlas  
Method 1 too difficult for users  
Method 2 too slow.

## Demand Paging in Atlas (1962)



“A page from secondary storage is brought into the primary storage whenever it is (implicitly) demanded by the processor.”

*Tom Kilburn*

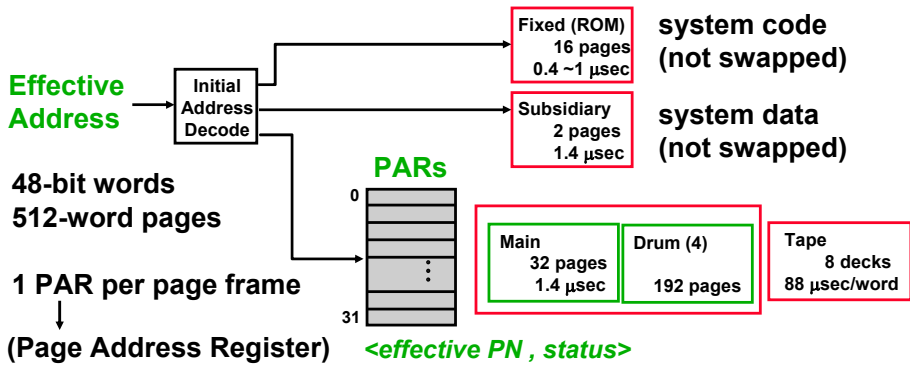
Primary memory as a *cache* for secondary memory

User sees 32 x 6 x 512 words of storage

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Single-level Store

## Hardware Organization of Atlas



**Compare the effective page address against all 32 PARs**

**match**           ⇒ **normal access**

**no match**       ⇒ **page fault**

the state of the partially executed instruction was saved

Atlas Autocode example here.



## ***Atlas Demand Paging Scheme***

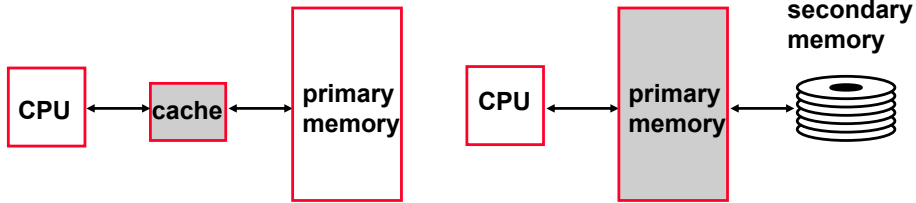
On a ***page fault***:

- input transfer into a free page is initiated
- the Page Address Register (PAR) is updated
- • if no free page is left, a ***page is selected to be replaced*** (based on usage)
- the replaced page is written on the drum
  - to minimize drum latency effect, the first empty page on the drum was selected
- the ***page table is updated*** to point to the new location of the page on the drum

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This was called the Supervisor program, which clearly foreshadowed the operating system.

## Caching vs. Demand Paging



### Caching

cache entry  
cache block (~32 bytes)  
cache miss (1% to 20%)  
cache hit (~1 cycle)  
cache miss (~10 cycles)  
a miss is handled  
in *hardware*

### Demand paging

page-frame  
page (~4K bytes)  
page miss (<0.001%)  
page hit (~100 cycles)  
page miss (~5M cycles)  
a miss is handled  
mostly in *software*

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## Modern Virtual Memory Systems

illusion of a large, private, uniform store

### Protection & Privacy

- several users, each with their private address space and one or more shared address spaces

page table  $\equiv$  name space

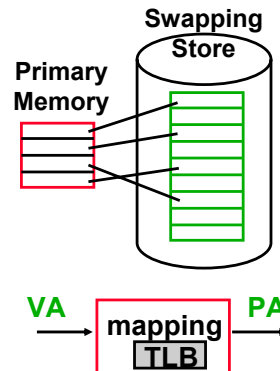


### Demand Paging

- ability to run a program larger than than the primary memory

$\Rightarrow$  **What is another big benefit ?**

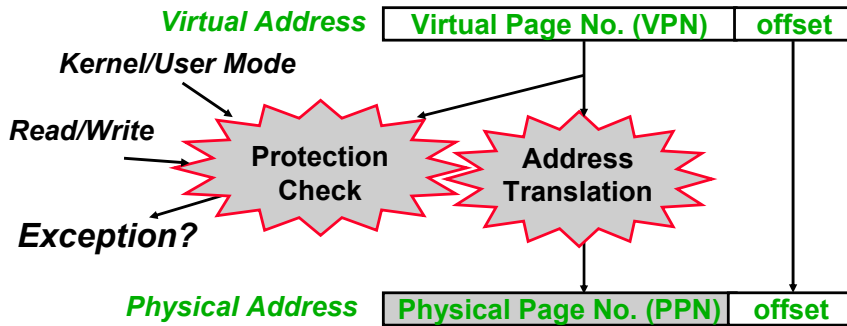
**The price is address translation on each memory reference**



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Portability on machines with different memory configurations.

## Address Translation and Protection



- Every instruction and data access needs address translation and protection checks

*A good VM design needs to be fast (~ one cycle) and space efficient*

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# Linear Page Table

Virtual address 

VPN	Offset
-----	--------

Data Pages

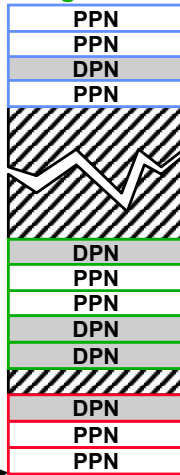
- Page Table Entry (PTE) contains:
- PPN (physical page number) of memory-resident page,
  - DPN (disk page number) of page swapped to disk, or
  - non-existent page
  - Status bits for protection and usage

OS changes page table base register to point to base of page table for active user process

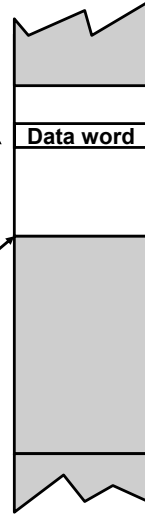
PT Base Register

VPN

Page Table



Offset



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## ***Size of Linear Page Table***

**With 32-bit addresses, 4-KB pages, and 4-byte PTEs:**

- ⇒  $2^{20}$  PTEs, i.e, 4 MB page table per user
- ⇒ 4 GB of swap needed to back up full virtual address space

**Larger pages?**

- more internal fragmentation (don't use all memory in page)
- larger page fault penalty (more time to read from disk)

**What about 64-bit virtual address space???**

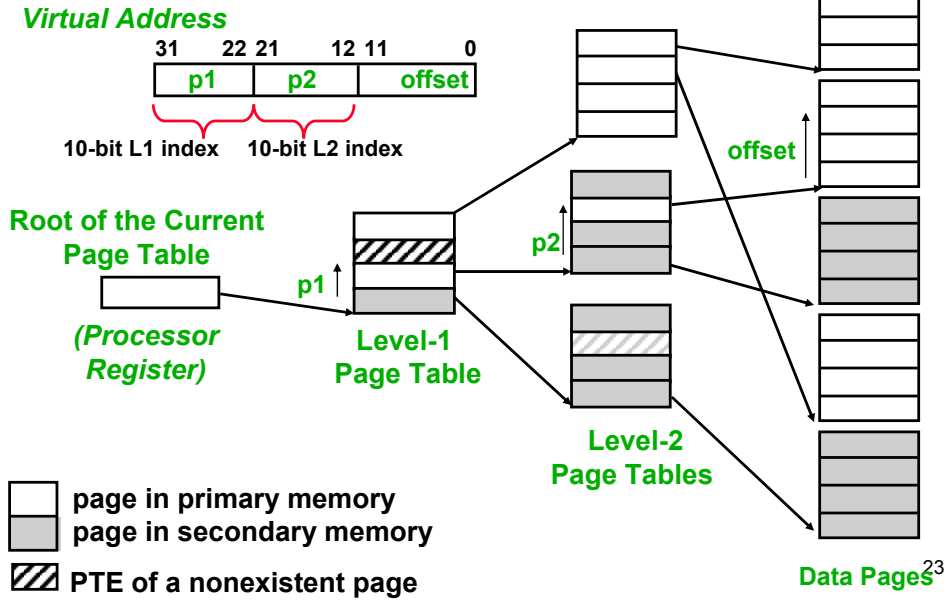
- Even 1MB pages would require  $2^{44}$  8-byte PTEs (35 TB!)

***What is the “saving grace” ?***

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Virtual address space is large but only a small fraction of the pages are populated. So we can use a sparse representation of the table.

# Hierarchical Page Table



## Translation Lookaside Buffers

Address translation is very expensive!

In a two-level page table, each reference becomes

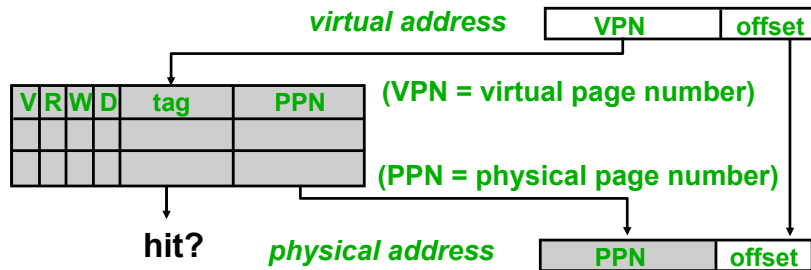
the best case is \_\_\_\_\_ ?

the worst case is \_\_\_\_\_ ?

Solution: **Cache translations in TLB**

TLB hit  $\Rightarrow$  Single Cycle Translation

TLB miss  $\Rightarrow$  Page Table Walk to refill



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3 memory references

2 page faults (disk accesses) + ..



## **TLB Designs**

Typically 32-128 entries

Usually fully associative

- Each entry maps a large page, hence less spatial locality across pages → more likely that two entries conflict
- Sometimes larger TLBs are 4-8 way set-associative

Random or FIFO replacement policy

Typically only one page mapping per entry

No process information in TLB ⇒ ?

**TLB Reach: Size of largest virtual address space that can be simultaneously mapped by TLB**

Example: 64 TLB entries, 4KB pages, one page per entry

TLB Reach = \_\_\_\_\_?

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## ***Handling A TLB Miss***

### **Software (MIPS, Alpha)**

TLB miss causes an exception and the operating system walks the page tables and reloads TLB  
*privileged “untranslated” addressing mode used for walk*

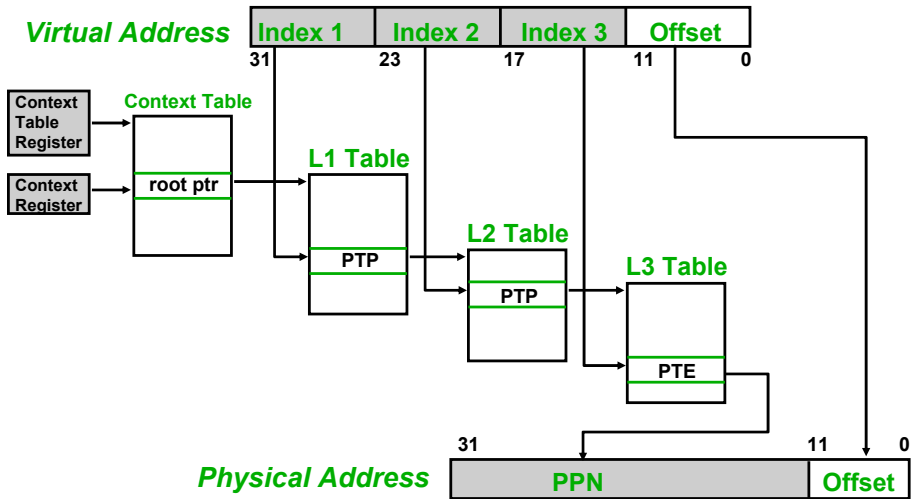
### **Hardware (SPARC v8, x86, PowerPC)**

A memory management unit (MMU) walks the page tables and reloads the TLB

If a missing (data or PT) page is encountered during the TLB reloading, MMU gives up and signals a Page-Fault exception for the original instruction

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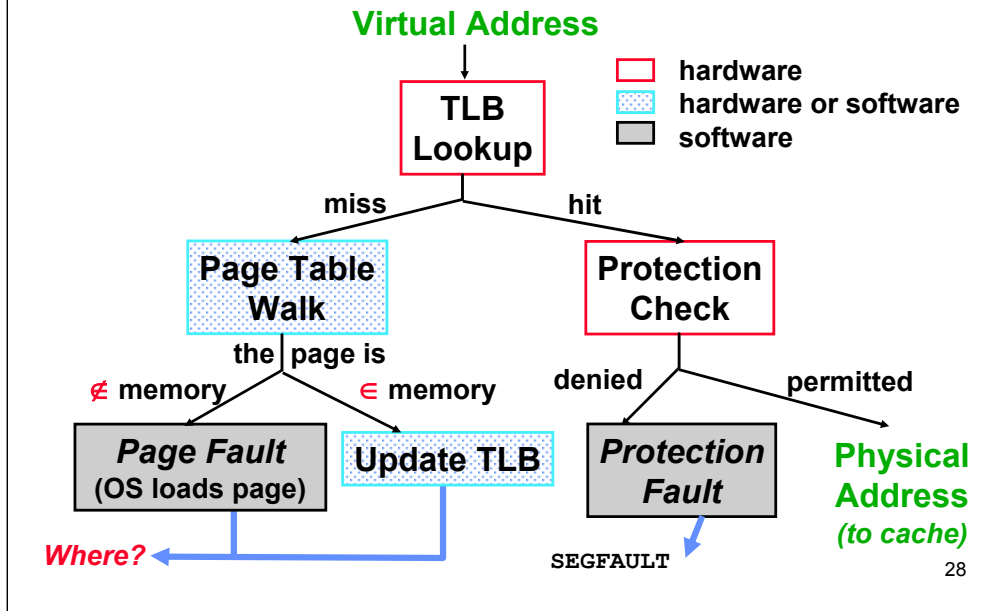
## Hierarchical Page Table Walk: SPARC v8



**MMU does this table walk in hardware on a TLB miss**

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## Address Translation: putting it all together



Need to restart instruction.  
Soft and hard page faults.