TCSS 422: OPERATING SYSTEMS

Three Easy Pieces: Intro to Memory Virtualization

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May 9, 2018
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Institute of Technology, University of Washington - Tacoma

OBJECTIVES

- Assignment 2 – Matrix Task Processor
- Wrap up Concurrency Problems – Ch. 32
- Active reading quiz – to be posted…
- Memory Virtualization
- Address Spaces – Ch. 13
- Memory API – Ch. 14
- Address Translation – Ch. 15
- Segmentation – Ch. 15

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FEEDBACK – 5/7

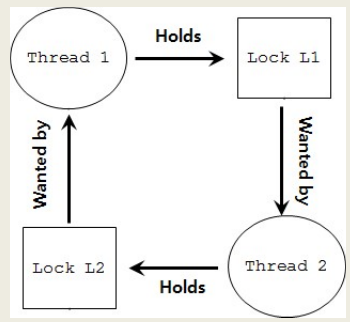
- Assignment 2 questions…

CHAPTER 32 – CONCURRENCY PROBLEMS

DEADLOCK BUGS

- **Presence of a cycle in code**
- *Two threads share a resource, prevent each other from accessing the resource → both programs BLOCK*
- Thread 1 acquires lock L1, waits for lock L2
- Thread 2 acquires lock L2, waits for lock L1

```
Thread 1:        Thread 2:
lock(L1);        lock(L2);
lock(L2);        lock(L1);
```



- Both threads can block, unless one manages to acquire both locks

CONDITIONS FOR DEADLOCK

- **Four conditions** are required for dead lock to occur

Condition	Description
Mutual Exclusion	Threads claim exclusive control of resources that they require.
Hold-and-wait	Threads hold resources allocated to them while waiting for additional resources
No preemption	Resources cannot be forcibly removed from threads that are holding them.
Circular wait	There exists a circular chain of threads such that each thread holds one more resources that are being requested by the next thread in the chain

PREVENTION – MUTUAL EXCLUSION

- Build wait-free data structures
  - Eliminate locks altogether
  - Build structures using CompareAndSwap atomic CPU (HW) instruction
- C pseudo code for CompareAndSwap (*as before*)
- Hardware executes this code atomically

```
int CompareAndSwap(int *address, int expected, int new){
    if(*address == expected){
            *address = new;
            return 1; // success
    }
    return 0;
}
```


PREVENTION – MUTUAL EXCLUSION - 2

- Leverage atomic increment for a counter

```
void AtomicIncrement(int *value, int amount){
    do{
            int old = *value;
    }while( CompareAndSwap(value, old, old+amount)==0);
}
```

- Compare and Swap tries over and over until successful
- CompareAndSwap is guaranteed to be atomic
- When it runs it is **ALWAYS** atomic (at HW level)

MUTUAL EXCLUSION: LIST INSERTION

- Consider list insertion

```c
void insert(int value){
    node_t * n = malloc(sizeof(node_t));
    assert( n != NULL );
    n->value = value ;
    n->next  = head;
    head     = n;
}
```


MUTUAL EXCLUSION – LIST INSERTION - 2

- Here we've added locks to the insert() list method
- As in a "Thread-safe" Linked List

```c
void insert(int value){
    node_t * n = malloc(sizeof(node_t));
    assert( n != NULL );
    n->value = value ;
    lock(listlock); // begin critical section
    n->next  = head;
    head     = n;
    unlock(listlock) ;  //end critical section
}
```

MUTUAL EXCLUSION – LIST INSERTION - 3

- Wait free (no lock) implementation

```
void insert(int value) {
     node_t *n = malloc(sizeof(node_t));
     assert(n != NULL);
     n->value = value;
     do {
             n->next = head;
     } while (CompareAndSwap(&head, n->next, n)==0);
}
```

- Leverage CompareAndSwap to ensure that we ***only*** assign the next node **IF** the next node is the circular head
  - Reasign next node to the node we're inserting

CONDITIONS FOR DEADLOCK

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PREVENTION LOCK – HOLD AND WAIT

- Problem: acquire all locks atomically
- Solution: use a “lock” “lock”… (*like a guard lock*)

```
lock(prevention);
lock(L1);
lock(L2);
…
unlock(prevention);
```

- Effective solution – guarantees no race conditions while acquiring L1, L2, etc.
- Order doesn’t matter for L1, L2
- Prevention (GLOBAL) lock decreases concurrency of code
  - Acts Lowers lock granularity
- Encapsulation: consider the Java Vector class…

CONDITIONS FOR DEADLOCK

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PREVENTION – NO PREEMPTION

- When acquiring locks, don't BLOCK forever if unavailable…
- pthread_mutex_trylock() - try once
- pthread_mutex_timedlock() - try and wait awhile

```
top:
     lock(L1);
     if( tryLock(L2) == -1 ){
               unlock(L1);
               goto top;
     }
```

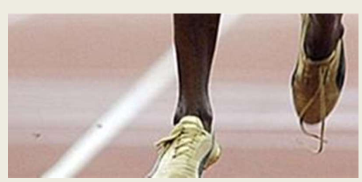
- Eliminates deadlocks

NO PREEMPTION – LIVELOCKS PROBLEM

- Can lead to livelock

```
top:
     lock(L1);
     if( tryLock(L2) == -1 ){
               unlock(L1);
               goto top;
     }
```

- Two threads execute code in parallel → always fail to obtain both locks
- Fix: add random delay
  - Allows one thread to win the livelock race!



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PREVENTION – CIRCULAR WAIT

- Provide total ordering of lock acquisition throughout code
  - Always acquire locks in same order
  - L1, L2, L3, …
  - Never mix: L2, L1, L3; L2, L3, L1; L3, L1, L2….
- Must carry out same ordering through entire program

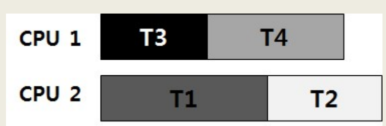
DEADLOCK AVOIDANCE VIA INTELLIGENT SCHEDULING

- Consider a smart scheduler
  - Scheduler knows which locks threads use
- Consider this scenario:
  - 4 Threads (T1, T2, T3, T4)
  - 2 Locks (L1, L2)
- Lock requirements of threads:

	T1	T2	T3	T4
L1	yes	yes	no	no
L2	yes	yes	yes	no

INTELLIGENT SCHEDULING - 2

- Scheduler produces schedule:

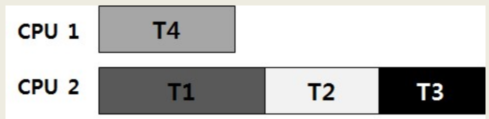


- No deadlock can occur
- Consider:

	T1	T2	T3	T4
L1	yes	yes	yes	no
L2	yes	yes	yes	no

INTELLIGENT SCHEDULING - 3

- Scheduler produces schedule



- Scheduler must be conservative and not take risks
- Slows down execution – many threads
- There has been limited use of these approaches given the difficulty having intimate lock knowledge about every thread

DETECT AND RECOVER

- Allow deadlock to occasionally occur and then take some action.
  - Example: When OS freezes, reboot…
- How often is this acceptable?
  - Once per year
  - Once per month
  - Once per day
  - *Consider the effort tradeoff of finding every deadlock bug*
- Many database systems employ deadlock detection and recovery techniques.

CHAPTER 13: ADDRESS SPACES

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OBJECTIVES – MEMORY VIRTUALIATION

- Chapter 13
  - Introduction to memory virtualization
  - The address space
  - Goals of OS memory virtualization
- Chapter 14
  - Memory API
  - Common memory errors
- Chapter 15
  - Address translation
  - Base and bounds
  - HW and OS Support
- Chapter 16
  - Memory segments, fragmentation

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MEMORY VIRTUALIZATION

- What is memory virtualization?
- This is not "virtual" memory,
  - Classic use of disk space as additional RAM
  - When available RAM was low
  - Less common recently

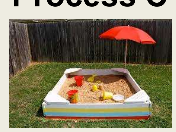
MEMORY VIRTUALIZATION - 2

- Presentation of system memory to each process
- Appears as if each process can access the entire machine's address space
- Each process's view of memory is isolated from others
- Everyone has their own sandbox

Process A

Process B

Process C

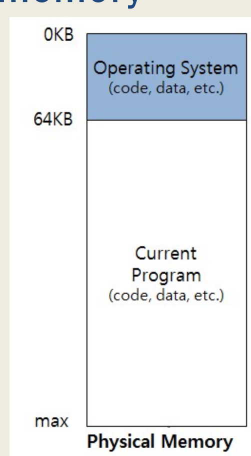


MOTIVATION FOR MEMORY VIRTUALIZATION

- Easier to program
  - Programs don't need to understand special memory models
- Abstraction enables sophisticated approaches to manage and share memory among processes
- Isolation
  - From other processes: easier to code
- Protection
  - From other processes
  - From programmer error (segmentation fault)

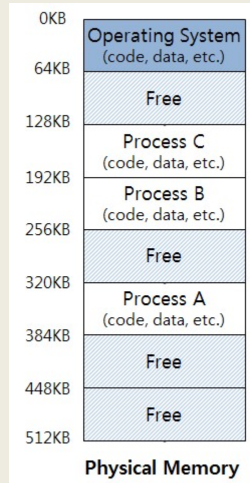
EARLY MEMORY MANAGEMENT

- Load one process at a time into memory
- Poor memory utilization
- Little abstraction



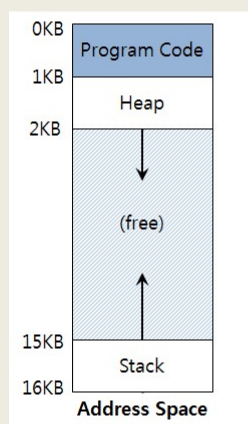
MULTIPROGRAMMING WITH SHARED MEMORY

- Later machines supported running multiple processes
- Swap out processes during I/O waits to increase system utilization and efficiency
- Swap entire memory of a process to disk for context switch
- Too slow, especially for large processes
- Solution→
  - Leave processes in memory
- Need to protect from errant memory accesses in a multiprocessing environment



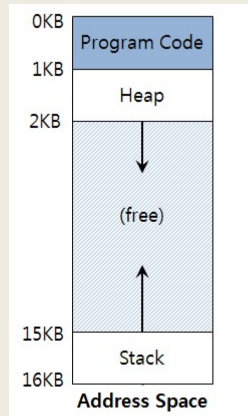
ADDRESS SPACE

- Easy-to-use abstraction of physical memory for a process
- Main elements:
  - Program code
  - Stack
  - Heap
- Example: 16KB address space



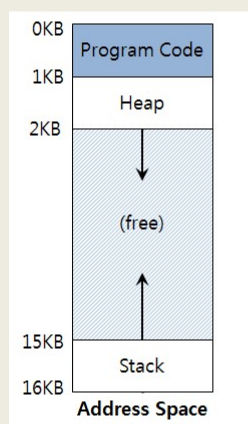
ADDRESS SPACE - 2

- Code
  - Program code
- Stack
  - Program counter (PC)
  - Local variables
  - Parameter variables
  - Return values (for functions)
- Heap
  - Dynamic storage
  - Malloc() new()



ADDRESS SPACE - 3

- Program code
  - Static size
- Heap and stack
  - Dynamic size
  - Grow and shrink during program execution
  - Placed at opposite ends
- Addresses are virtual
  - They must be physically mapped by the OS



VIRTUAL ADDRESSING

- Every address is virtual
  - OS translates virtual to physical addresses

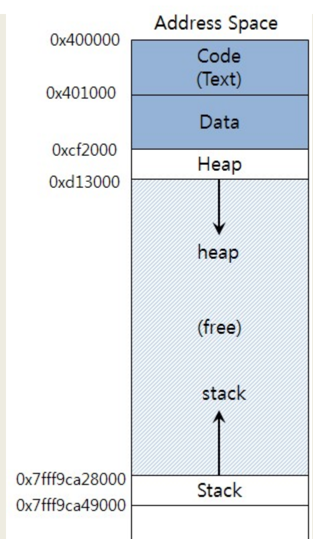
```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

int main(int argc, char *argv[]){

    printf("location of code  : %p\n", (void *) main);
    printf("location of heap  : %p\n", (void *) malloc(1));
    int x = 3;
    printf("location of stack : %p\n", (void *) &x);

    return x;
}
```

  - EXAMPLE: virtual.c

VIRTUAL ADDRESSING - 2

- Output from 64-bit Linux:

```
location of code: 0x400686
location of heap: 0x1129420
location of stack: 0x7ffe040d77e4
```



GOALS OF OS MEMORY VIRTUALIZATION

- Transparency
  - Memory shouldn't appear virtualized to the program
  - OS multiplexes memory among different jobs behind the scenes
- Protection
  - Isolation among processes
  - OS itself must be isolated
  - One program should not be able to affect another (or the OS)

GOALS - 2

- Efficiency
  - Time
    - Performance: virtualization must be fast
  - Space
    - Virtualization must not waste space
    - Consider data structures for organizing memory
    - Hardware support TLB: Translation Lookaside Buffer
- *Goals considered when evaluating memory virtualization schemes*

CHAPTER 14: THE MEMORY API

MALLOC

```
#include <stdlib.h>

void* malloc(size_t size)
```

- Allocates memory on the heap
- size_t   unsigned integer (must be +)
- size   size of memory allocation in bytes

- Returns
- SUCCESS: A void * to a memory address
- FAIL: NULL

- sizeof() often used to ask the system how large a given datatype or struct is

SIZEOF()

- Not safe to assume data type sizes using different compilers, systems
- Dynamic array of 10 ints
- Static array of 10 ints

```
int *x = malloc(10 * sizeof(int));
printf("%d\n", sizeof(x));
```

```
4
```

```
int x[10];
printf("%d\n", sizeof(x));
```

```
40
```


FREE()

```
#include <stdlib.h>

void free(void* ptr)
```

- Free memory allocated with malloc()
- Provide: (void *) ptr to malloc'd memory
- Returns: nothing

```
#include<stdio.h>

int * set_magic_number_a()
{
  int a =53247;
  return &a;
}

void set_magic_number_b()
{
  int b = 11111;
}

int main()
{
  int * x = NULL;
  x = set_magic_number_a();
  printf("The magic number is=%d\n“,*x);
  set_magic_number_b();
  printf(“The magic number is=%d\n“,*x);
  return 0;
}
```

What will this code do?

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```
#include<stdio.h>

int * set_magic_number_a()
{
  int a =53247;
  return &a;
}

void set_magic_number_b()
{
  int b = 11111;
}

int main()
{
  int * x = NULL;
  x = set_magic_number_a();
  printf("The magic number is=%d\n“,*x);
  set_magic_number_b();
  printf("The magic number is=%d\n“,*x);
  return 0;
}
```

What will this code do?

Output:

```
$ ./pointer_error
The magic number is=53247
The magic number is=11111
```

We have not changed *x but the value has changed!!

Why?

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DANGLING POINTER (1/2)

- Dangling pointers arise when a variable referred (a) goes "out of scope", and it's memory is destroyed/overwritten (by b) without modifying the value of the pointer (*x).

- The pointer still points to the original memory location of the deallocated memory (a),
which has now been reclaimed for (b).

DANGLING POINTER (2/2)

- Fortunately in the case, a compiler warning is generated:

```
$ g++ -o pointer_error -std=c++0x pointer_error.cpp

pointer_error.cpp: In function ‘int*
set_magic_number_a()’:
pointer_error.cpp:6:7: warning: address of local
variable ‘a’ returned [enabled by default]
```

- This is a common mistake - - -
accidentally referring to addresses that have gone "out of scope"

CALLOC()

```
#include <stdlib.h>

void *calloc(size_t num, size_t size)
```

- Allocate "C"lear memory on the heap
- Calloc wipes memory in advance of use…
- `size_t num` : number of blocks to allocate
- `size_t size` : size of each block(in bytes)

- Calloc() prevents…

```
char *dest = malloc(20);
printf("dest string=%s\n", dest);

dest string=��F
```


REALLOC()

```
#include <stdlib.h>

void *realloc(void *ptr, size_t size)
```

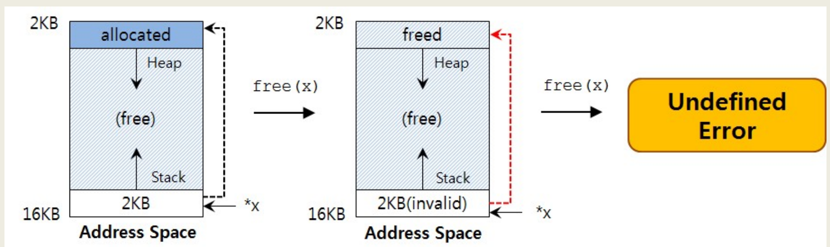
- Resize an existing memory allocation
- Returned pointer may be same address, or a new address
  - New if memory allocation must move
- `void *ptr`: Pointer to memory block allocated with malloc, calloc, or realloc
- `size_t size`: New size for the memory block(in bytes)

- EXAMPLE: realloc.c
- EXAMPLE: nom.c

DOUBLE FREE

```
int *x = (int *)malloc(sizeof(int)); // allocated
free(x); // free memory
free(x); // free repeatedly
```

- Can't deallocate twice
- Second call core dumps



SYSTEM CALLS

- brk(), sbrk()
- Used to change data segment size (the end of the heap)
- Don't use these
- Mmap(), munmap()
- Can be used to create an extra independent "heap" of memory for a user program
- See man page

CHAPTER 15: ADDRESS TRANSLATION

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OBJECTIVES

- Address translation
- Base and bounds
- HW and OS Support
- Memory segments
- Memory fragmentation

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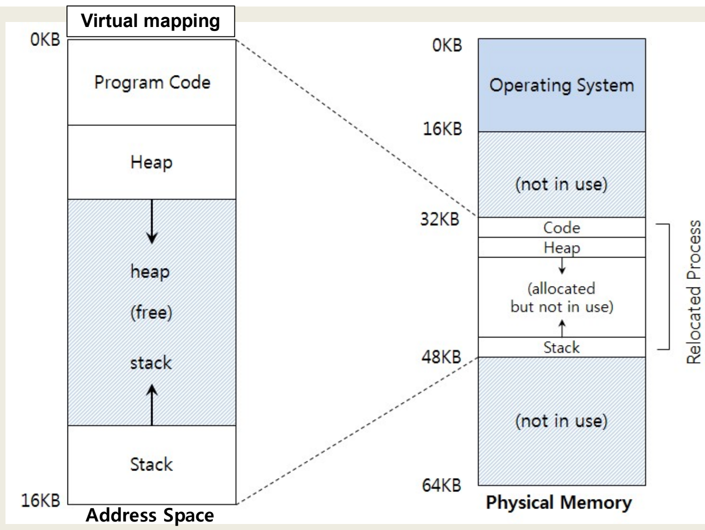
ADDRESS TRANSLATION

- 64KB Address space example
- Translation: mapping virtual to physical



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BASE AND BOUNDS

- Dynamic relocation
- Two registers base & bounds: **on the CPU**
- OS places program in memory
- Sets base register

$$physical\ address = virtual\ address + base$$

- Bounds register
  - Stores size of program address space (16KB)
- OS verifies that every address:

$$0 \leq virtual\ address < bounds$$

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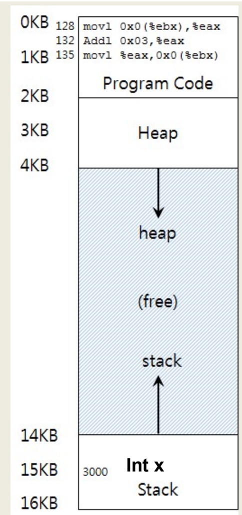
INSTRUCTION EXAMPLE

```
128 : movl 0x0(%ebx), %eax
```

- Base = 32768
- Bounds =16384
- Fetch instruction at 128 (virt addr) ↑
  - Phy addr = virt addr + base reg
  - 32896 = 128 + 32768 (base)
- Execute instruction
  - Load from address (var x is @ 15kb=15360)
  - 48128 = 15360 + 32768 (base) -- found x…
- Bounds register: terminate process if
  - ACCESS VIOLATION: Virtual address > bounds reg

$$physical\ address = virtual\ address + base$$



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MEMORY MANAGEMENT UNIT

- MMU
  - Portion of the CPU dedicated to address translation
  - Contains base & bounds registers
- Base & Bounds Example:
  - Consider address translation
  - 4 KB (4096 bytes) address space, loaded at 16 KB physical location

	Virtual Address	Physical Address
	0	16384
	1024	17408
	3000	19384
FAULT	4400	20784 (out of bounds)

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DYNAMIC RELOCATION OF PROGRAMS

- Hardware requirements:

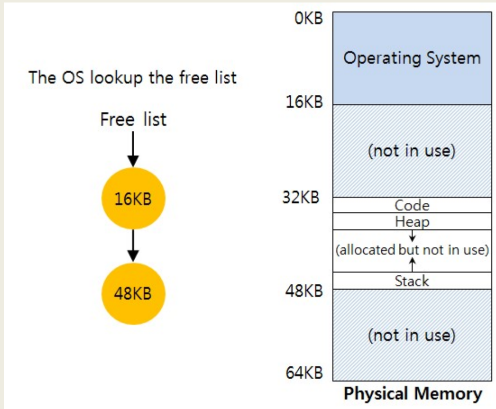
Requirements	HW support
Privileged mode	CPU modes: kernel, user
Base / bounds registers	Registers to support address translation
Translate virtual addr; check if in bounds	Translation circuitry, check limits
Privileged instruction(s) to update base / bounds regs	Instructions for modifying base/bound registers
Privileged instruction(s) to register exception handlers	Set code pointers to OS code to handle faults
Ability to raise exceptions	For out-of-bounds memory access, or attempts to access privileged instr.

OS SUPPORT FOR MEMORY VIRTUALIZATION

- For base and bounds OS support required
  - When process starts running
    - Allocate address space in physical memory
  - When a process is terminated
    - Reclaiming memory for use
  - When context switch occurs
    - Saving and storing the base-bounds pair
  - Exception handlers
    - Function pointers set at OS boot time

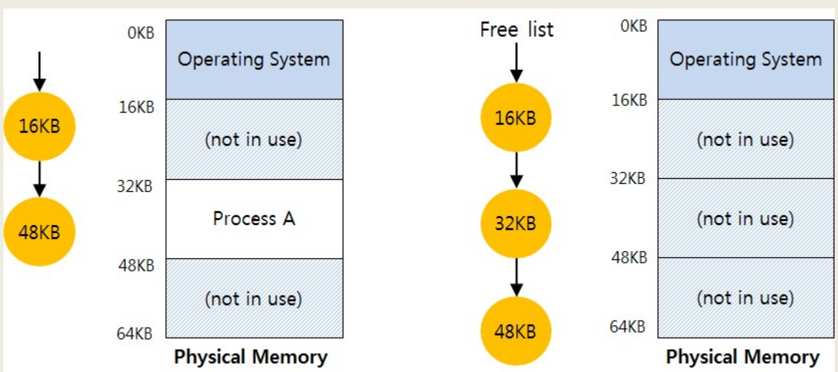
OS: WHEN PROCESS STARTS RUNNING

- OS searches for free space for new process
  - Free list: data structure that tracks available memory slots



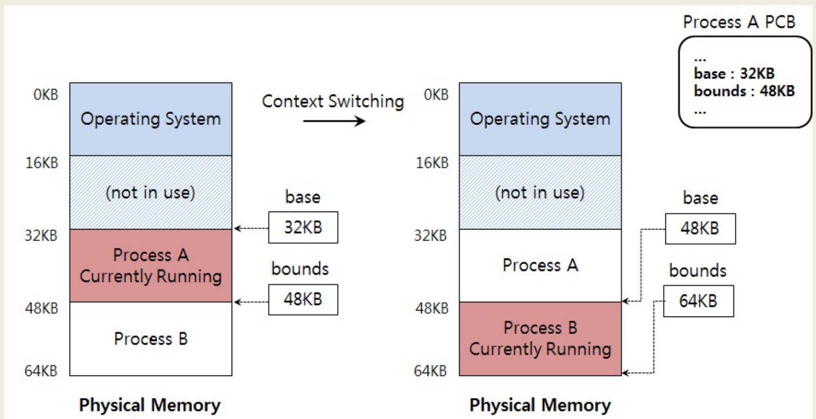
OS: WHEN PROCESS IS TERMINATED

- OS places memory back on the free list



OS: WHEN CONTEXT SWITCH OCCURS

- OS must save base and bounds registers
  - Saved to the Process Control Block PCB (task_struct in Linux)



DYNAMIC RELOCATION

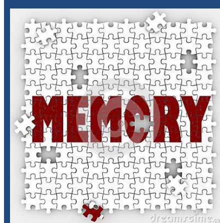
- OS can move process data when not running

1. OS deschedules process from scheduler
2. OS copies address space from current to new location
3. OS updates PCB (base and bounds registers)
4. OS reschedules process

- When process runs new base register is restored to CPU

- **Process doesn't know it was even moved!**

CHAPTER 16: SEGMENTATION



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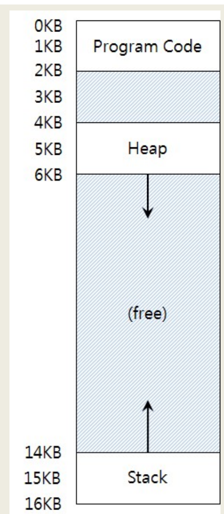
BASE AND BOUNDS INEFFICIENCIES

- Address space
  - Contains significant unused memory
  - Is relatively large
  - Preallocates space to handle stack/heap growth
- Large address spaces
  - Hard to fit in memory
- How can these issues be addressed?



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MULTIPLE SEGMENTS

- Memory segmentation
- Address space has (3) segments
  - Contiguous portions of address space
  - Logically separate segments for: code, stack, heap
- Each segment can placed separately
- Track base and bounds for each segment (registers)

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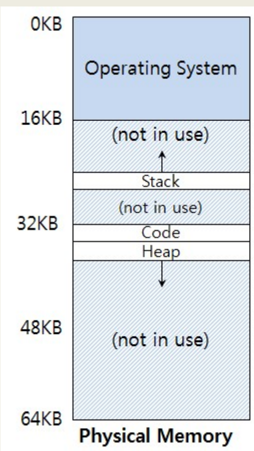
SEGMENTS IN MEMORY

- Consider 3 segments:



Much smaller

Segment	Base	Size
Code	32K	2K
Heap	34K	2K
Stack	28K	2K

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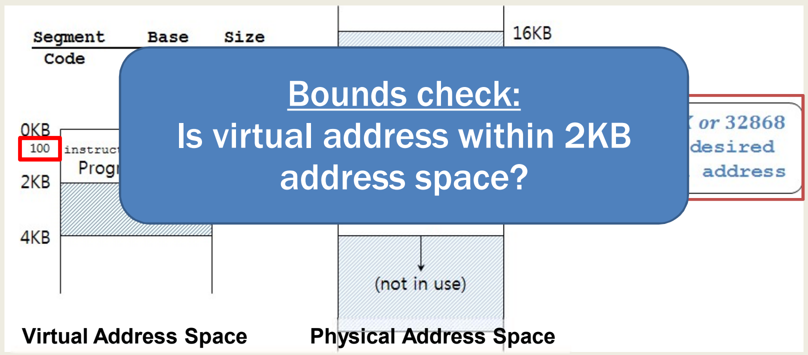
ADDRESS TRANSLATION: CODE SEGMENT

$$physical\ address = offset + base$$

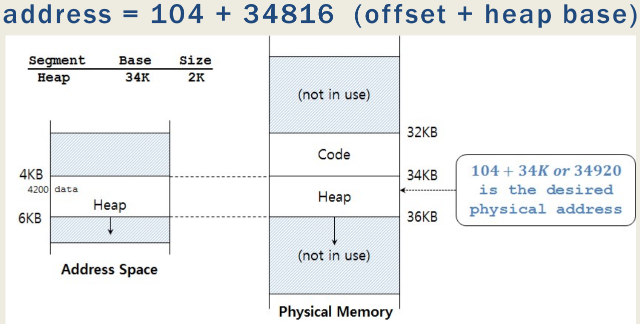
- Code segment - physically starts at 32KB (base)
- Starts at "0" in virtual address space



ADDRESS TRANSLATION: HEAP

Virtual address + base is not the correct physical address.

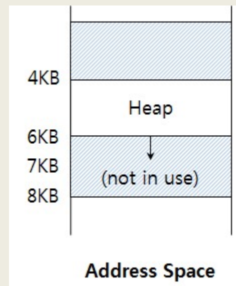
- Heap starts at virtual address 4096
- The data is at 4200
- Offset= 4200 – 4096 = 104 (virt addr – virt heap start)
- Physical address = 104 + 34816 (offset + heap base)



SEGMENTATION FAULT

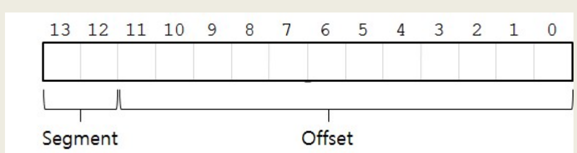
- Access beyond the address space
- Heap starts at virtual address: 4096
- Data pointer is to 7KB (7168)
- Is data pointer valid?

- Heap starts at 4096 + 2 KB seg size = 6144
- Offset= 7168 > 4096 + 2048 (6144)

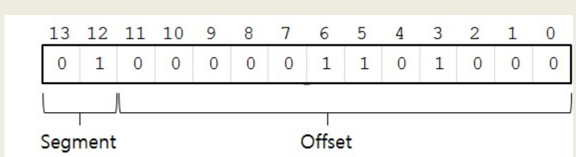


SEGMENT REGISTERS

- Used to dereference memory during translation



- First two bits identify segment type
- Remaining bits identify memory offset
- Example: virtual heap address 4200 (01000001101000)



Segment	bits
Code	00
Heap	01
Stack	10
-	11

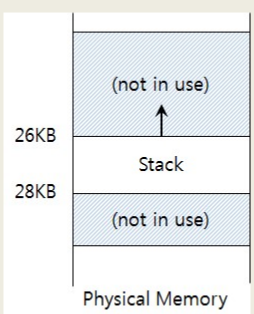
SEGMENTATION DEREFERENCE

```
// get top 2 bits of 14-bit VA
Segment = (VirtualAddress & SEG_MASK) >> SEG_SHIFT
// now get offset
Offset = VirtualAddress & OFFSET_MASK
if (Offset >= Bounds[Segment])
     RaiseException(PROTECTION_FAULT)
else
     PhysAddr = Base[Segment] + Offset
     Register = AccessMemory(PhysAddr)
```

- VIRTUAL ADDRESS = 01000001101000 (on heap)
- SEG_MASK = 0x3000 (11000000000000)
- SEG_SHIFT = 01 → *heap* (mask gives us segment code)
- OFFSET_MASK = 0xFFF (00111111111111)
- OFFSET = 000001101000 = 104 (isolates segment offset)
- OFFSET < BOUNDS : 104 < 2048

STACK SEGMENT

- Stack grows backwards (FILO)
- Requires hardware support:
- Direction bit: tracks direction segment grows



Segment Register(with Negative-Growth Support)

Segment	Base	Size	Grows Positive?
Code	32K	2K	1
Heap	34K	2K	1
Stack	28K	2K	0

SHARED CODE SEGMENTS

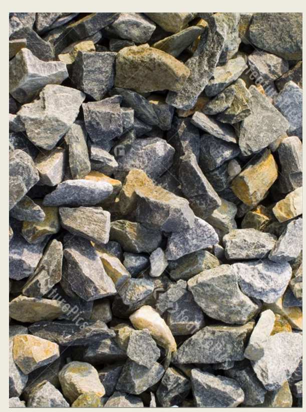
- Code sharing: enabled with HW support
- Supports storing shared libraries in memory only once
- DLL: dynamic linked library
- .so (linux): shraed object in Linux (under /usr/lib)
- Many programs can access them
- Protection bits: track permissions to segment

Segment Register Values(with Protection)

Segment	Base	Size	Grows Positive?	Protection
Code	32K	2K	1	Read-Execute
Heap	34K	2K	1	Read-Write
Stack	28K	2K	0	Read-Write

SEGMENTATION GRANULARITY

- Coarse-grained
- Manage memory as large purpose based segments:
  - Code segment
  - Heap segment
  - Stack segment

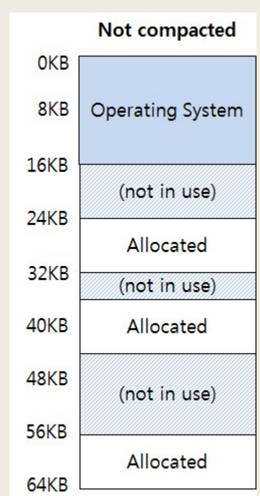


SEGMENTATION GRANULARITY - 2

- Fine-grained
- Manage memory as list of segments
- Code, heap, stack segments composed of multiple smaller segments
- Segment table
  - On early systems
  - Stored in memory
  - Tracked large number of segments

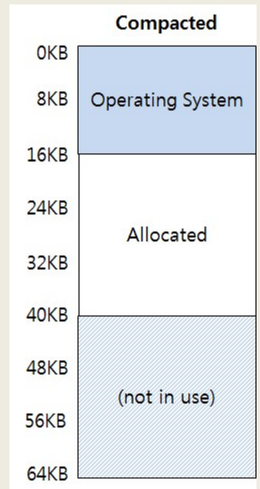
MEMORY FRAGMENTATION

- Consider how much free space?
- We'll say about 24 KB
- Request arrives to allocate a 20 KB heap segment
- Can we fulfil the request for 20 KB of contiguous memory?



COMPACTION

- Supports rearranging memory
- Can we fulfil the request for 20 KB of contiguous memory?
- **Drawback: Compaction is slow**
  - Rearranging memory is time consuming
  - 64KB is fast
  - 4GB+ … slow
- Algorithms:
  - Best fit: keep list of free spaces, allocate the most snug segment for the request
  - Others: worst fit, first fit… (in future chapters)



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QUESTIONS