

TCSS 422: OPERATING SYSTEMS

Free Space Management, Introduction to Paging, Translation Lookaside Buffer

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School of Engineering and Technology
University of Washington - Tacoma

May 18, 2023

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1

FINAL EXAM SURVEY *NOW AVAILABLE IN CANVAS* CLOSES MONDAY MAY 22

- TCSS 422 Final is scheduled for:
Thursday June 8th 3:40-5:40pm
- This is one of the last time slots of the final exams week.
- Please indicate your preference for scheduling of the TCSS 422 Final Exam for Spring 2023:
 - A. Thursday June 1, 3:40 to 5:40 pm
 - B. Thursday June 8, 3:40 to 5:40 pm
 - C. No Preference
- Regardless of the selected date, the content and coverage on the Final Exam will remain the same.
- *(please disregard scoring as the quiz is worth 0 points.)*

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2

MIDTERM REVIEW SESSION

- RECORDING NOW AVAILABLE:
- Best viewed while looking at midterm paper
- Wednesday May 17, 6:30 pm
- Zoom / Live Stream / Recording
- Discussion and review of midterm exam problems
- Discussion of grading approach
- Details on partial credit
- Checking the grading

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3

ZOOM RECORDING ANALYTICS

- Spring Fever? Stay tuned, many new concepts post-midterm

Cummulative Views of TCSS 422 Zoom Recordings

Description	Cummulative Views
Lecture 1	50
Lecture 2	52
Lecture 3	40
Lecture 4	52
Lecture 5	45
Lecture 6	52
Lecture 7	42
Lecture 8	48
Lecture 9	40
Lecture 10	42
Scheduling	70
Lecture 11	60
Lecture 12	25
Lecture 13	18
Lecture 14	10
Midterm Review	5

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4

OBJECTIVES – 5/18

Questions from 5/16

Assignment 2 - June 2

Quiz 3 – Synchronized Array - June 2

Tutorial 2 – Pthread, locks, conditions tutorial -Fri May 26

Assignment 3 (as a Tutorial) to be posted...

Chapter 16: Segmentation

Chapter 17: Free Space Management

Chapter 18: Introduction to Paging

Chapter 19: Translation Lookaside Buffer (TLB)

TLB Algorithm, Hit-to-Miss Ratios

Chapter 20: Paging: Smaller Tables

Smaller Tables, Multi-level Page Tables, N-level Page Tables

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5

ONLINE DAILY FEEDBACK SURVEY

Daily Feedback Quiz in Canvas – Available After Each Class

Extra credit available for completing surveys **ON TIME**

Tuesday surveys: due by ~ Wed @ 11:59p

Thursday surveys: due ~ Mon @ 11:59p

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Spring 2021

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TCSS 422 - Online Daily Feedback Survey - 4/1

Available until Apr 5 at 11:59pm | Due Apr 5 at 10pm | -/1 pts

Quiz 0 - Background survey

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6

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Quiz Instructions

Question 1

0.5 pts

On a scale of 1 to 10, please classify your perspective on material covered in today's class:

12345678910

Mostly Review To MeEqual New and ReviewMostly New to Me

Question 2

0.5 pts

Please rate the pace of today's class:

12345678910

SlowJust RightFast

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7

MATERIAL / PACE

Please classify your perspective on material covered in today's class (40 respondents):

1-mostly review, 5-equal new/review, 10-mostly new

Average – 6.78 (↓ - previous 7.22)

Please rate the pace of today's class:

1-slow, 5-just right, 10-fast

Average – 5.98 (↑ - previous 5.72)

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8

FEEDBACK FROM 5/16

- For base bound memory allocation when does the OS decide what the base and bounds should be?
 - Base and bounds registers were used in early computer systems to track location of memory segments for the code, stack, heap, etc.
 - Today they may not be used at all:
 - On most modern operating systems (e.g. FreeBSD, Linux or Windows) use a memory model that points nearly all segment registers to the same place (and use paging instead)

From:
https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/X86_Assembly/X86_Architecture#Segment_Registers

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9

FEEDBACK - 2

- What if the amount of memory needed is really large or really small?
 - A modern system will manage memory using paging which enables code, heap, and stack storage to exceed a single segment through the use of memory paging
 - Chapter 18

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10

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- **Assignment 2 - June 2**
- Quiz 3 – Synchronized Array - June 2
- Tutorial 2 – Pthread, locks, conditions tutorial -Fri May 26
- Assignment 3 (as a Tutorial) to be posted...
- Chapter 16: Segmentation
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 - Smaller Tables. Multi-level Page Tables. N-level Page Tables

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11

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12

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13

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14

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15

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?

The diagram illustrates memory layout inefficiencies. It shows a vertical stack of memory segments: Program Code (0KB to 3KB), Heap (4KB to 6KB), a large free space (6KB to 14KB), and Stack (14KB to 16KB). Arrows indicate the growth of the Heap and Stack towards each other, leaving a significant gap of unused memory.

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17

MULTIPLE SEGMENTS

■ Memory segmentation

■ Manage the address space as (3) separate segments

- Each is a contiguous address space
- Provides 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:

0KB

Operating System

16KB

(not in use)

Stack

(not in use)

32KB

Code

Heap

48KB

(not in use)

64KB

Physical Memory

Much smaller

↓

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

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19

ADDRESS TRANSLATION: CODE SEGMENT

$$\text{physical address} = \text{offset} + \text{base}$$

Code segment - physically starts at 32KB (base)

Starts at "0" in virtual address space

Segment	Base	Size	
Code			16KB

0KB

100 Instruction

2KB Program

4KB

Virtual Address Space

Physical Address Space

(not in use)

Bounds check:

Is virtual address within 2KB address space?

or 32868 desired address

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20

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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)

Segment	Base	Size
Heap	34K	2K

4KB
4200 data
6KB
Heap
Address Space

(not in use) 32KB
Code 34KB
Heap 36KB
(not in use)
Physical Memory

104 + 34K or 34920 is the desired physical address

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21

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)

4KB
6KB
7KB
8KB
Heap
(not in use)
Address Space

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22

SEGMENT REGISTERS

- Used to dereference memory during translation

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

SegmentOffset

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

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

0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0

SegmentOffset

Segment	bits
Code	00
Heap	01
Stack	10
-	11

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23

SEGMENTATION DEREFERENCE

```
1 // get top 2 bits of 14-bit VA
2 Segment = (VirtualAddress & SEG_MASK) >> SEG_SHIFT
3 // now get offset
4 Offset = VirtualAddress & OFFSET_MASK
5 if (Offset >= Bounds[Segment])
6     RaiseException(PROTECTION_FAULT)
7 else
8     PhysAddr = Base[Segment] + Offset
9     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

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24

STACK SEGMENT

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

26KB

(not in use)

↑

Stack

28KB

(not in use)

Physical Memory

Segment Register(with Negative-Growth Support)

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

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25

SHARED CODE SEGMENTS

- Code sharing: enabled with HW support
- Supports storing shared libraries in memory only once
- DLL: dynamic linked library
- .so (linux): shared 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

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26

Consider a program with 2KB of code, a 1 KB stack, and a 2 KB heap. This program runs on a 64 KB computer that manages memory with 4 kb segments. If the computer is empty and segments were allocated as: code, stack, heap, how large can the heap grow to?

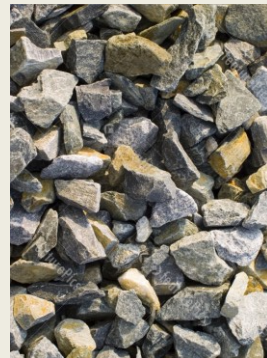
32 KB
56 KB
24 KB
4 KB
0 KB

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27

SEGMENTATION GRANULARITY

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



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28

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



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29

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?

Not compacted	
0KB	
8KB	Operating System
16KB	(not in use)
24KB	Allocated
32KB	(not in use)
40KB	Allocated
48KB	(not in use)
56KB	Allocated
64KB	

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30

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)

Compacted	
0KB	Operating System
8KB	
16KB	Allocated
24KB	
32KB	
40KB	
48KB	(not in use)
56KB	
64KB	

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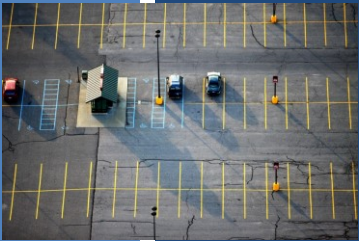
31

OBJECTIVES – 5/18

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32



CHAPTER 17: FREE SPACE MANAGEMENT

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33

OBJECTIVES – 5/18

■ Chapter 17: Free Space Management

- Fragmentation, Splitting, coalescing
- The Free List
- Memory Allocation Strategies

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34

FREE SPACE MANAGEMENT

- How should free space be managed, when satisfying variable-sized requests?
- What strategies can be used to minimize fragmentation?
- What are the time and space overheads of alternate approaches?

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35

FREE SPACE MANAGEMENT

- Management of memory using
 - Only fixed-sized units
 - Easy: keep a list
 - Memory request → return first free entry
 - Simple search
 - With variable sized units
 - More challenging
 - Results from variable sized malloc requests
 - Leads to fragmentation

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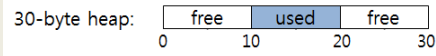
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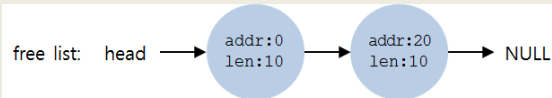
36

FRAGMENTATION

- Consider a 30-byte heap



- Request for 15-bytes



- Free space: 20 bytes
- No available contiguous chunk → return NULL

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37

FRAGMENTATION - 2

- External: OS can compact
 - Example: Client asks for 100 bytes: `malloc(100)`
 - OS: No 100 byte contiguous chunk is available: returns NULL
 - Memory is externally fragmented - - Compaction can fix!
- Internal: lost space – OS can't compact
 - OS returns memory units that are too large
 - Example: Client asks for 100 bytes: `malloc(100)`
 - OS: Returns 125 byte chunk
 - Fragmentation is *in* the allocated chunk
 - Memory is lost, and unaccounted for – can't compact

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38

ALLOCATION STRATEGY: SPLITTING

- Request for 1 byte of memory: `malloc(1)`

30-byte heap:

free	used	free
0	10	20
		30

free list: head →

addr:0
len:10

 →

addr:20
len:10

 → NULL

- OS locates a free chunk to satisfy request
- Splits chunk into two, returns first chunk

30-byte heap:

free	used	free
0	10	21
		30

free list: head →

addr:0
len:10

 →

addr:21
len:9

 → NULL

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39

ALLOCATION STRATEGY: COALESCING

- Consider 30-byte heap
- `Free()` frees all 10 bytes segments (list of 3-free 10-byte chunks)

head →

addr:10
len:10

 →

addr:0
len:10

 →

addr:20
len:10

 → NULL

- Request arrives: `malloc(30)`
- SPLIT DOES NOT WORK** - no contiguous 30-byte chunk exists!
- Coalescing regroups chunks into contiguous chunk

head →

addr:0
len:30

 → NULL

- Allocation can now proceed
- Coalescing is defragmentation of the free space list

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40

MEMORY HEADERS

- `free(void *ptr)`: Does not require a size parameter
- *How does the OS know how much memory to free?*
- Header block
 - Small descriptive block of memory at start of chunk

The diagram shows a memory layout. A pointer `ptr` points to the start of a memory region. This region is divided into two parts: a top header block and a bottom data region. A bracket on the right indicates the header is 'The header used by malloc library'. Another bracket on the right indicates the data region is 'The 20 bytes returned to caller'. The entire region is labeled 'An Allocated Region Plus Header'.

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41

MEMORY HEADERS - 2

The diagram shows a memory layout. A pointer `hptr` points to the start of a header block. The header block contains two fields: `size: 20` and `magic: 1234567`. A pointer `ptr` points to the start of the data region, which is the 20 bytes returned to the caller. The header and data region are collectively labeled 'Specific Contents Of The Header'. To the right, a code block defines the header structure:

```
typedef struct __header_t {
    int size;
    int magic;
} header_t;
```

 This is labeled 'A Simple Header'.

- Contains size
- Pointers: for faster memory access
- Magic number: integrity checking

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42

MEMORY HEADERS - 3

- Size of memory chunk is:
 - Header size + user malloc size
 - N bytes + sizeof(header)
- Easy to determine address of header

```
void free(void *ptr) {  
    header_t *hptr = (void *)ptr - sizeof(header_t);  
}
```

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43

WE WILL RETURN AT 4:50PM

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44

THE FREE LIST

■ Simple free list struct

```
typedef struct __node_t {  
    int size;  
    struct __node_t *next;  
} node_t;
```

■ Use mmap to create free list

■ 4kb heap, 4 byte header, one contiguous free chunk

```
// mmap() returns a pointer to a chunk of free space  
node_t *head = mmap(NULL, 4096, PROT_READ|PROT_WRITE,  
                    MAP_ANON|MAP_PRIVATE, -1, 0);  
head->size = 4096 - sizeof(node_t);  
head->next = NULL;
```

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45

FREE LIST - 2

■ Create and initialize free-list “heap”

```
// mmap() returns a pointer to a chunk of free space  
node_t *head = mmap(NULL, 4096, PROT_READ|PROT_WRITE,  
                    MAP_ANON|MAP_PRIVATE, -1, 0);  
head->size = 4096 - sizeof(node_t);  
head->next = NULL;
```

■ Heap layout:

head →

size: 4088

next: 0

...

[virtual address: 16KB]
header: size field

header: next field(NULL is 0)

the rest of the 4KB chunk

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46

FREE LIST: MALLOC() CALL

- Consider a request for a 100 bytes: `malloc(100)`
- Header block requires 8 bytes
 - 4 bytes for size, 4 bytes for magic number
- Split the heap – header goes with each block

A 4KB Heap With One Free Chunk

head →

size:	4088
next:	0
...	

the rest of the 4KB chunk

A Heap : After One Allocation

ptr →

size:	100
magic:	1234567
First block is used	

the 100 bytes now allocated

head →

size:	3980
next:	0
...	

the free 3980 byte chunk

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47

FREE LIST: FREE() CALL

- Addresses of chunks
- Start=16384
 - + 108 (end of 1st chunk)
 - + 108 (end of 2nd chunk)
 - + 108 (end of 3rd chunk)
 - = 16708

8 bytes header

virtual address: 16KB

...

100 bytes still allocated

...

100 bytes still allocated

Free this block

100 bytes still allocated (but about to be freed)

...

100 bytes still allocated

head →

size:	3764
next:	0
...	

The free 3764-byte chunk

Free Space With Three Chunks Allocated

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48

FREE LIST:
FREE() CHUNK #2

- Free(sptr)
- Our 3 chunks start at 16 KB (@ 16,384 bytes)
- Free chunk #2 - sptr
- Sptr = 16500
 - addr – sizeof(node_t)
- Actual start of chunk #2
 - 16492

[virtual address: 16KB]

size: 100
magic: 1234567

...

100 bytes still allocated

head

size: 100
next: 16708

Block Now Free

(now a free chunk of memory)

size: 100
magic: 1234567

...

100 bytes still allocated

size: 3764
next: 0

The free 3764-byte chunk

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49

FREE LIST- FREE ALL CHUNKS

- Now free remaining chunks:
- Free(16392)
- Free(16608)
- Walk back 8 bytes for actual start of chunk
- External fragmentation
- Free chunk pointers out of order
- Coalescing of next pointers is needed

[virtual address: 16KB]

size: 100
next: 16492

...

(now free)

size: 100
next: 16708

(now free)

head

size: 100
next: 16384

(now free)

size: 3764
next: 0

The free 3764-byte chunk

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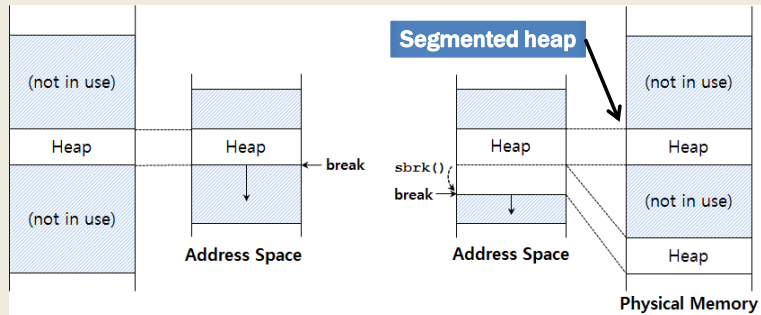
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50

GROWING THE HEAP

- Start with small sized heap
- Request more memory when full
- `sbrk()`, `brk()`



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51

MEMORY ALLOCATION STRATEGIES

- **Best fit**
 - Traverse free list
 - Identify all candidate free chunks
 - Note which is smallest (has best fit)
 - When splitting, “leftover” pieces are small (and potentially less useful -- fragmented)
- **Worst fit**
 - Traverse free list
 - Identify largest free chunk
 - Split largest free chunk, leaving a still large free chunk

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52

EXAMPLES

Allocation request for 15 bytes

head → 10 → 30 → 20 → NULL

Result of Best Fit

head → 10 → 30 → 5 → NULL

Result of Worst Fit

head → 10 → 15 → 20 → NULL

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53

MEMORY ALLOCATION STRATEGIES - 2

First fit

- Start search at beginning of free list
- Find first chunk large enough for request
- Split chunk, returning a “fit” chunk, saving the remainder
- Avoids full free list traversal of best and worst fit

Next fit

- Similar to first fit, but start search at last search location
- Maintain a pointer that “cycles” through the list
- Helps balance chunk distribution vs. first fit
- Find first chunk, that is large enough for the request, and split
- Avoids full free list traversal

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Which memory allocation strategy is more likely to distribute free chunks closer together which could help when coalescing the free space list?

Best Fit

Worst Fit

First Fit

None of the above

All of the above

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SEGREGATED LISTS

- For popular sized requests
e.g. for kernel objects such as locks, inodes, etc.
- Manage as segregated free lists
- Provide object caches: stores pre-initialized objects
- How much memory should be dedicated for specialized requests (object caches)?
- If a given cache is low in memory, can request “*slabs*” of memory from the general allocator for caches.
- General allocator will reclaim slabs when not used

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56

BUDDY ALLOCATION

- Binary buddy allocation
 - Divides free space by two to find a block that is big enough to accommodate the request; the next split is too small...
- Consider a 7KB request

64 KB

32 KB 32 KB

16 KB 16 KB

8 KB 8 KB

64KB free space for 7KB request

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57

BUDDY ALLOCATION - 2

- Buddy allocation: suffers from internal fragmentation
- Allocated fragments, typically too large
- Coalescing is simple
 - Two adjacent blocks are promoted up

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58

A computer system manages program memory using three separate segments for code, stack, and the heap. The codesize of a program is 1KB but the minimal segment available is 16KB. This is an example of:

- External fragmentation
- Binary buddy allocation
- Internal fragmentation
- Coalescing
- Splitting

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A request is made to store 1 byte. For this scenario, which memory allocation strategy will always locate memory the fastest?

- Best fit
- Worst fit
- Next fit
- None of the above
- All of the above

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OBJECTIVES – 5/18

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61

CHAPTER 18:
INTRODUCTION TO
PAGING



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62

PAGING

- Split up address space of process into fixed sized pieces called **pages**
- Alternative to variable sized pieces (Segmentation) which suffers from significant fragmentation
- Physical memory is split up into an array of fixed-size slots called **page frames**.
- Each process has a **page table** which translates virtual addresses to physical addresses

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63

ADVANTAGES OF PAGING

- Flexibility
 - Abstracts the process address space into pages
 - No need to track direction of HEAP / STACK growth
 - *Just add more pages...*
 - No need to store unused space
 - *As with segments...*
- Simplicity
 - Pages and page frames are the same size
 - Easy to allocate and keep a free list of pages

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64

PAGING: EXAMPLE

Page Table:
VP0 → PF3
VP1 → PF7
VP2 → PF5
VP3 → PF2

- Consider a 128 byte (2^7) address space with 16-byte (2^4) pages
- Consider a 64-byte (2^6) program address space

0 (page 0 of the address space)
16 (page 1)
32 (page 2)
48 (page 3)
64

A Simple 64-byte Address Space

0 reserved for OS page frame 0 of physical memory
16 (unused) page frame 1
32 page 3 of AS page frame 2
48 page 0 of AS page frame 3
64 (unused) page frame 4
80 page 2 of AS page frame 5
96 (unused) page frame 6
112 page 1 of AS page frame 7
128

64-Byte Address Space Placed In Physical Memory

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65

PAGING: ADDRESS TRANSLATION

- PAGE: Has two address components
 - VPN: Virtual Page Number (serves as the page ID)
 - Offset: Offset within a Page (indexes any byte in the page)

VPNoffset

Va5	Va4	Va3	Va2	Va1	Va0
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

Example:
Page Size: 16-bytes (2^4),
Program Address Space: 64-bytes (2^6)

VPNoffset

0	1	0	1	0	1
---	---	---	---	---	---

Here program can have just four pages...

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EXAMPLE:
PAGING ADDRESS TRANSLATION

- Consider a 64-byte (2^6) program address space (4 pages $\rightarrow 2^2$)
- Stored in 128-byte (2^7) physical memory (8 frames $\rightarrow 2^3$)
- Offset is preserved
 - 4 bits indexes any byte
 - Page size is 16 bytes (2^4)
- Page table translates a Virtual Page Number (VPN) to a Physical Frame Number (PFN)

Page Table:
VP0 \rightarrow PF3
VP1 \rightarrow PF7
VP2 \rightarrow PF5
VP3 \rightarrow PF2

Virtual Address	VPN	offset
0 1 0 1	0 1	0 1 0 1
↓		
Address Translation		
↓		
Physical Address	PFN	offset
1 1 1 0 1 0 1	1 1 1 0 1 0 1	

67

PAGING DESIGN QUESTIONS

- (1) Where are page tables stored?
- (2) What are the typical contents of the page table?
- (3) How big are page tables?
- (4) Does paging make the system too slow?

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68

(1) WHERE ARE PAGE TABLES STORED?

- Example:
 - Consider a 32-bit process address space ($4\text{GB}=2^{32}$ bytes)
 - With 4 KB pages ($4\text{KB}=2^{12}$ bytes)
 - 20 bits for VPN (2^{20} pages)
 - 12 bits for the page offset (2^{12} unique bytes in a page)
- Page tables for each process are stored in RAM
 - Support potential storage of 2^{20} translations
= 1,048,576 pages per process
 - Each page has a page table entry size of 4 bytes

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69

PAGE TABLE EXAMPLE

- With 2^{20} slots in our page table for a single process
- Each slot (i.e. entry) dereferences a VPN
- Each entry provides a physical frame number
- Each entry requires 4 bytes (32 bits)
 - 20 for the PFN on a 4GB system with 4KB pages
 - 12 for the offset which is preserved
 - (note we have no status bits, so this is unrealistically small)
- How much memory is required to store the page table for 1 process?
 - Hint: # of entries x space per entry
 - 4,194,304 bytes (or 4MB) to index one process

VPN ₀
VPN ₁
VPN ₂
...
...
VPN ₁₀₄₈₅₇₆

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70

NOW FOR AN ENTIRE OS

- If 4 MB is required to store one process
- Consider how much memory is required for an entire OS?
 - With for example 100 processes...
- Page table memory requirement is now 4MB x 100 = 400MB
- If computer has 4GB memory (maximum for 32-bits), the page table consumes 10% of memory

400 MB / 4000 GB

- Is this efficient?

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71

(2) WHAT'S ACTUALLY IN THE PAGE TABLE

- Page table is data structure used to map virtual page numbers (VPN) to the physical address (Physical Frame Number PFN)
 - Linear page table → simple array
- Page-table entry
 - 32 bits for capturing state

31	30	29	28	27	26	25	24	23	22	21	20	19	18	17	16	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
PFN																							G	PAT	D	A	PCD	PWT	U/S	R/W	P

An x86 Page Table Entry(PTE)

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72

PAGE TABLE ENTRY

- ▣ P: present
- ▣ R/W: read/write bit
- ▣ U/S: supervisor
- ▣ A: accessed bit
- ▣ D: dirty bit
- ▣ PFN: the page frame number

31	30	29	28	27	26	25	24	23	22	21	20	19	18	17	16	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
PFN																							G	PAT	D	A	PCD	PWT	U/S	R/W	P

An x86 Page Table Entry(PTE)

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73

PAGE TABLE ENTRY - 2

- Common flags:
 - **Valid Bit:** Indicating whether the particular translation is valid.
 - **Protection Bit:** Indicating whether the page could be read from, written to, or executed from
 - **Present Bit:** Indicating whether this page is in physical memory or on disk(swapped out)
 - **Dirty Bit:** Indicating whether the page has been modified since it was brought into memory
 - **Reference Bit(Accessed Bit):** Indicating that a page has been accessed

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74

(3) HOW BIG ARE PAGE TABLES?

- Page tables are too big to store on the CPU
- Page tables are stored using physical memory
- Paging supports efficiently storing a sparsely populated address space
 - Reduced memory requirement
Compared to base and bounds, and segments

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75

(4) DOES PAGING MAKE THE SYSTEM TOO SLOW?

- Translation
- **Issue #1:** Starting location of the page table is needed
 - HW Support: Page-table base register
 - stores active process
 - Facilitates translation
- **Issue #2:** Each memory address translation for paging requires an extra memory reference
 - HW Support: TLBs (Chapter 19)

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Page Table:
VP0 → PF3
VP1 → PF7
VP2 → PF5
VP3 → PF2

Stored in RAM →

76

PAGING MEMORY ACCESS

```

1.  // Extract the VPN from the virtual address
2.  VPN = (VirtualAddress & VPN_MASK) >> SHIFT
3.
4.  // Form the address of the page-table entry (PTE)
5.  PTEAddr = PTBR + (VPN * sizeof(PTE))
6.
7.  // Fetch the PTE
8.  PTE = AccessMemory(PTEAddr)
9.
10. // Check if process can access the page
11. if (PTE.Valid == False)
12.     RaiseException(SEGMENTATION_FAULT)
13. else if (CanAccess(PTE.ProtectBits) == False)
14.     RaiseException(PROTECTION_FAULT)
15. else
16.     // Access is OK: form physical address and fetch it
17.     offset = VirtualAddress & OFFSET_MASK
18.     PhysAddr = (PTE.PFN << PFN_SHIFT) | offset
19.     Register = AccessMemory(PhysAddr)

```

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77

COUNTING MEMORY ACCESSSES

■ Example: Use this Array initialization Code

```

int array[1000];
...
for (i = 0; i < 1000; i++)
    array[i] = 0;

```

■ Assembly equivalent:

```

0x1024 movl $0x0, (%edi,%eax,4)
0x1028 incl %eax
0x102c cmpl $0x03e8,%eax
0x1030 jne 0x1024

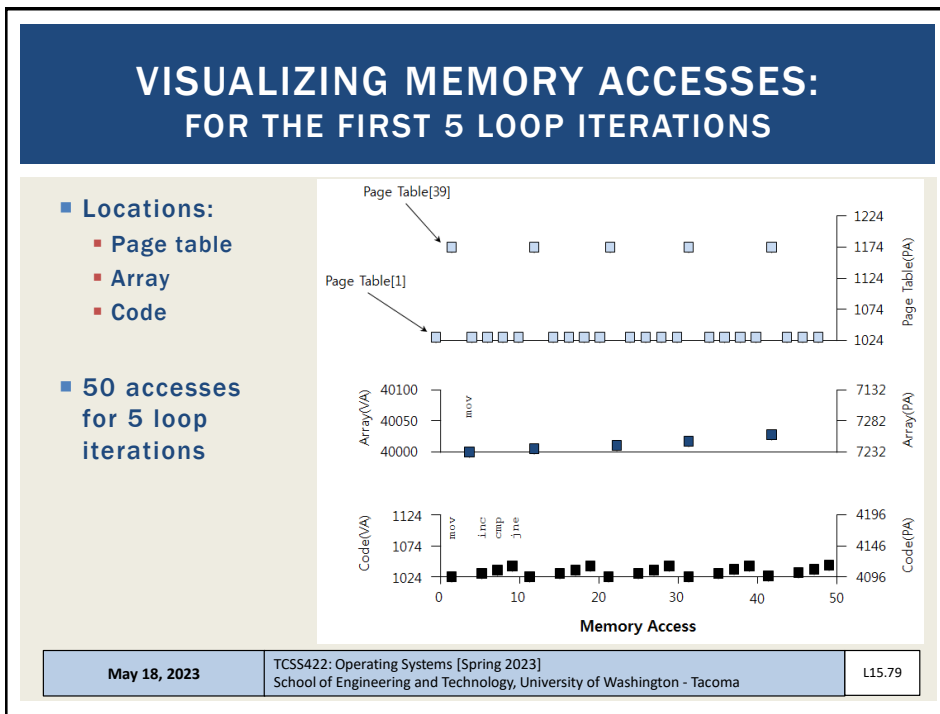
```

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78



79

Consider a 4GB Computer with 4KB (4096 byte) pages. How many pages would fit into physical memory?

$2^{32} / 2^{20} = 2^{12}$ pages

$2^{32} / 2^{12} = 2^{20}$ pages

$2^{32} / 2^{16} = 2^{16}$ pages

$2^{32} / 2^8 = 2^{24}$ pages

None of the above

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For the 4GB computer example, how many bits are required for the VPN?

- 24 VPN bits (indexes
 2^{24} locations)
- 16 VPN bits (indexes
 2^{16} locations)
- 20 VPN bits (indexes
 2^{20} locations)
- 12 VPN bits (indexes
 2^{12} locations)
- None of the above

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For the 4GB computer example, how many bits are available for page status bits?

- 32 - 12 VPN bits
= 20 status bits
- 32 - 24 VPN bits
= 8 status bits
- 32 - 16 VPN bits
= 16 status bits
- 32 - 20 VPN bits
= 12 status bits
- None of the above

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For the 4GB computer, how much space does this page table require? (number of page table entries x size of page table entry)

2^{20} entries x 4b = 4 MB

2^{12} entries x 4b = 16 KB

2^{16} entries x 4b = 256 KB

2^{24} entries x 4b = 64 MB

None of the above

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For the 4GB computer, how many page tables (for user processes) would fill the entire 4GB of memory?

4 GB / 16 KB = 65,536

4 GB / 64 MB = 256

4GB / 256 KB = 16,384

4GB / 4MB = 1,024

None of the above

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PAGING SYSTEM EXAMPLE

- Consider a 4GB Computer:
 - With a 4096-byte page size (4KB)
 - How many pages would fit in physical memory?
- Now consider a page table:
 - For the page table entry, how many bits are required for the VPN?
 - If we assume the use of 4-byte (32 bit) page table entries, how many bits are available for status bits?
 - How much space does this page table require?
of page table entries x size of page table entry
 - How many page tables (for user processes) would fill the entire 4GB of memory?

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85

OBJECTIVES – 5/18


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86



CHAPTER 19: TRANSLATION LOOKASIDE BUFFER (TLB)

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87

TRANSLATION LOOKASIDE BUFFER

- Legacy name...
- Better name, “Address Translation Cache”
- TLB is an on CPU cache of address translations
 - virtual → physical memory

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88

TRANSLATION LOOKASIDE BUFFER - 2

■ Goal:
Reduce access
to the page
tables

■ Example:
50 RAM accesses
for first 5 for-loop
iterations

■ Move lookups
from RAM to TLB
by caching page
table entries

The top graph shows Page Table access (PA) on the y-axis (1024 to 1224) against Memory Access (0 to 50). It highlights two specific entries: Page Table[1] at access 0 and Page Table[39] at access 39. The middle graph shows Array access (VA) on the y-axis (40000 to 40100) against Memory Access (0 to 50), with labels 'mov' at accesses 0, 10, 20, 30, and 40. The bottom graph shows Code access (VA) on the y-axis (1024 to 1124) against Memory Access (0 to 50), with labels 'mov', 'inc', 'cmp', and 'jne' at various points.

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89

TRANSLATION LOOKASIDE BUFFER (TLB)

■ Part of the CPU's Memory Management Unit (MMU)

■ Address translation cache

The diagram illustrates the address translation process. A CPU provides a Logical Address. This address undergoes a TLB Lookup in the MMU. If it's a TLB Hit, the Physical Address is retrieved directly from the MMU's TLB. If it's a TLB Miss, the MMU consults the Page Table (which contains all v to p entries) to find the Physical Address. This Physical Address is then used to access Physical Memory, which is organized into pages (Page 0, Page 1, Page 2, ..., Page n).

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90

TRANSLATION LOOKASIDE BUFFER (TLB)

- Part of the CPU's Memory Management Unit (MMU)
- Address translation cache

The TLB is an address translation cache
Different than L1, L2, L3 CPU memory caches

The diagram illustrates the address translation process. A CPU box is connected to a TLB box (labeled 'TLB' and 'MMU'). The TLB is connected to a Page Table box (labeled 'Page Table' and 'all v to p entries'). The Page Table is connected to a stack of boxes representing physical memory (labeled 'Page 0', 'Page 1', 'Page 2', '...', 'Page n'). The entire process is labeled 'Address Translation with MMU' and 'Physical Memory'.

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91

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 - **TLB Algorithm** Hit-to-Miss Ratios
- Chapter 20: Paging: Smaller Tables
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92

TLB BASIC ALGORITHM

- For: array based page table
- Hardware managed TLB

```
1: VPN = (VirtualAddress & VPN_MASK ) >> SHIFT
2: (Success , TlbEntry) = TLB_Lookup(VPN)
3: if(Success == True){ // TLB Hit
4:   if(CanAccess(TlbEntry.ProtectBits) == True ){
5:     Offset = VirtualAddress & OFFSET_MASK
6:     PhysAddr = (TlbEntry.PFN << SHIFT) | Offset
7:     AccessMemory( PhysAddr )
8:   }else RaiseException( PROTECTION_ERROR)
```

Generate the physical address to access memory

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93

TLB BASIC ALGORITHM - 2

```
11: else{ //TLB Miss
12:   PTEAddr = PTBR + (VPN * sizeof(PTE))
13:   PTE = AccessMemory(PTEAddr)
14:   (...) // Check for, and raise exceptions...
15:
16:   TLB_Insert( VPN , PTE.PFN , PTE.ProtectBits)
17:   RetryInstruction ()
18: }
19: }
```

Retry the instruction... (requery the TLB)

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TLB – ADDRESS TRANSLATION CACHE

- Key detail:
- For a TLB miss, we first access the page table in RAM to populate the TLB... we then requery the TLB
- All address translations go through the TLB

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95

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96

TLB EXAMPLE

```
0:  int sum = 0 ;
1:  for( i=0; i<10; i++){
2:      sum+=a[i];
3:  }
```

- Example:
- Program address space: 256-byte
 - Addressable using 8 total bits (2^8)
 - 4 bits for the VPN (16 total pages)
- Page size: 16 bytes
 - Offset is addressable using 4-bits
- Store an array: of (10) 4-byte integers

	00	04	08	12	16
VPN = 00					
VPN = 01					
VPN = 03					
VPN = 04					
VPN = 05					
VPN = 06		a[0]	a[1]	a[2]	
VPN = 07	a[3]	a[4]	a[5]	a[6]	
VPN = 08	a[7]	a[8]	a[9]		
VPN = 09					
VPN = 10					
VPN = 11					
VPN = 12					
VPN = 13					
VPN = 14					
VPN = 15					

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L15.97

97

TLB EXAMPLE - 2

```
0:  int sum = 0 ;
1:  for( i=0; i<10; i++){
2:      sum+=a[i];
3:  }
```

- Consider the code above:
- Initially the TLB does not know where a[] is
- Consider the accesses:
 - a[0], a[1], a[2], a[3], a[4], a[5], a[6], a[7], a[8], a[9]
- How many pages are accessed?
- What happens when accessing a page not in the TLB?

	00	04	08	12	16
VPN = 00					
VPN = 01					
VPN = 03					
VPN = 04					
VPN = 05					
VPN = 06		a[0]	a[1]	a[2]	
VPN = 07	a[3]	a[4]	a[5]	a[6]	
VPN = 08	a[7]	a[8]	a[9]		
VPN = 09					
VPN = 10					
VPN = 11					
VPN = 12					
VPN = 13					
VPN = 14					
VPN = 15					

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98

TLB EXAMPLE - 3

```
0:  int sum = 0 ;
1:  for( i=0; i<10; i++){
2:      sum+=a[i];
3:  }
```

- For the accesses: a[0], a[1], a[2], a[3], a[4], a[5], a[6], a[7], a[8], a[9]
- How many are hits?
- How many are misses?
- What is the hit rate? (%)
 - 70% (3 misses one for each VP, 7 hits)

	00	04	08	12	16
VPN = 00					
VPN = 01					
VPN = 03					
VPN = 04					
VPN = 05					
VPN = 06		a[0]	a[1]	a[2]	
VPN = 07	a[3]	a[4]	a[5]	a[6]	
VPN = 08	a[7]	a[8]	a[9]		
VPN = 09					
VPN = 10					
VPN = 11					
VPN = 12					
VPN = 13					
VPN = 14					
VPN = 15					

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99

TLB EXAMPLE - 4

```
0:  int sum = 0 ;
1:  for( i=0; i<10; i++){
2:      sum+=a[i];
3:  }
```

- What factors affect the hit/miss rate?
 - Page size
 - Data/Access locality (how is data accessed?)
 - Sequential array access vs. random array access
 - Temporal locality
 - Size of the TLB cache (how much history can you store?)

	00	04	08	12	16
VPN = 00					
VPN = 01					
VPN = 03					
VPN = 04					
VPN = 05					
VPN = 06		a[0]	a[1]	a[2]	
VPN = 07	a[3]	a[4]	a[5]	a[6]	
VPN = 08	a[7]	a[8]	a[9]		
VPN = 09					
VPN = 10					
VPN = 11					
VPN = 12					
VPN = 13					
VPN = 14					
VPN = 15					

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100

OBJECTIVES – 5/18

- Questions from 5/16
- Assignment 2 - June 2
- Quiz 3 – Synchronized Array - June 2
- Tutorial 2 – Pthread, locks, conditions tutorial -Fri May 26
- Assignment 3 (as a Tutorial) to be posted...
- Chapter 16: Segmentation
- Chapter 17: Free Space Management
- Chapter 18: Introduction to Paging
- Chapter 19: Translation Lookaside Buffer (TLB)
 - TLB Algorithm, Hit-to-Miss Ratios
- Chapter 20: Paging: Smaller Tables
- Smaller Tables. Multi-level Page Tables. N-level Page Tables

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101

CHAPTER 20:
PAGING:
SMALLER TABLES

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102

LINEAR PAGE TABLES

- Consider array-based page tables:
 - Each process has its own page table
 - 32-bit process address space (up to 4GB)
 - With 4 KB pages
 - 20 bits for VPN
 - 12 bits for the page offset

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103

LINEAR PAGE TABLES - 2

- Page tables stored in RAM
- Support potential storage of 2^{20} translations
= 1,048,576 pages per process @ 4 bytes/page
- Page table size 4MB / process

$$\text{Page table size} = \frac{2^{32}}{2^{12}} * 4\text{Byte} = 4\text{MByte}$$

- Consider 100+ OS processes
 - Requires 400+ MB of RAM to store process information

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104

LINEAR PAGE TABLES - 2

- Page tables stored in RAM
- Support potential storage of 2^{20} translations
= 1,048,576 pages per process @ 4 bytes/page
- Page table size 4MB / process

Page tables are too big and
consume too much memory.

Need Solutions ...

- Consider 100+ OS processes
 - Requires 400+ MB of RAM to store process information

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105

OBJECTIVES – 5/18

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- Chapter 20: Paging: Smaller Tables
 - **Smaller Tables**, Multi-level Page Tables, N-level Page Tables

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106

PAGING: USE LARGER PAGES

- **Larger pages** = 16KB = 2^{14}
- 32-bit address space: 2^{32}
- 2^{18} = 262,144 pages

$$\frac{2^{32}}{2^{14}} * 4 = 1MB \text{ per page table}$$

- Memory requirement cut to $\frac{1}{4}$
- However pages are huge
- Internal fragmentation results
- 16KB page(s) allocated for small programs with only a few variables

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107

PAGE TABLES: WASTED SPACE

- **Process: 16KB Address Space w/ 1KB pages**

code

heap

stack

0

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

Allocate

A 16KB Address Space with 1KB Pages

PFN	valid	prot	present	dirty
10	1	r-x	1	0
-	0	-	-	-
-	0	-	-	-
-	0	-	-	-
15	1	rw-	1	1
...
-	0	-	-	-
3	1	rw-	1	1
23	1	rw-	1	1

A Page Table For 16KB Address Space

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108

L15.109

L15.110

L15.55

MULTI-LEVEL PAGE TABLES

- Consider a page table:
- 32-bit addressing, 4KB pages
- 2²⁰ page table entries
- Even if memory is sparsely populated the *per process* page table requires:

Page table size = $\frac{2^{32}}{2^{12}} * 4Byte = 4MByte$

- Often most of the 4MB *per process* page table is empty
- Page table must be placed in 4MB contiguous block of RAM
- MUST SAVE MEMORY!

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111

MULTI-LEVEL PAGE TABLES - 2

- Add level of indirection, the “page directory”

Linear Page Table

PBTR201

valid	prot	PFN
1	rx	12
1	rx	13
0	-	-
1	rw	100
0	-	-
0	-	-
0	-	-
0	-	-
0	-	-
1	rw	86
1	rw	15

PFN201

Multi-level Page Table

PBTR200

valid	PFN
1	201
0	-
0	-
1	203

PFN200

The Page Directory

valid

prot

PFN

1	rx	12
1	rx	13
0	-	-
1	rw	100

PFN201

[Page 1 of PT: Not Allocated]

0	-	-
0	-	-
1	rw	86
1	rw	15

PFN204

Linear (Left) And Multi-Level (Right) Page Tables

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112

MULTI-LEVEL PAGE TABLES - 2

■ Add level of indirection, the “page directory”

Linear Page Table

PBTR201

PFN203

0	-	-
0	-	-
1	rw	86
1	rw	15

Multi-level Page Table

PBTR200

PFN204

0	-	-
0	-	-
1	rw	86
1	rw	15

Two level page table:
2²⁰ pages addressed with
two level-indexing
(page directory index, page table index)

Linear (Left) And Multi-Level (Right) Page Tables

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113

MULTI-LEVEL PAGE TABLES - 3

■ Advantages

■ Only allocates page table space in proportion to the address space actually used

■ Can easily grab next free page to expand page table

■ Disadvantages

■ Multi-level page tables are an example of a time-space tradeoff

■ Sacrifice address translation time (now 2-level) for space

■ Complexity: multi-level schemes are more complex

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114

Slides by Wes J. Lloyd

L15.57

EXAMPLE

- 16KB address space, 64byte pages
- How large would a one-level page table need to be?
- 2^{14} (address space) / 2^6 (page size) = 2^8 = 256 (pages)

0000 0000
0000 0001
...
1111 1111

code
code
(free)
(free)
heap
heap
(free)
(free)
stack
stack

Flag	Detail
Address space	16 KB
Page size	64 byte
Virtual address	14 bit
VPN	8 bit
Offset	6 bit
Page table entry	2^8 (256)

A 16-KB Address Space With 64-byte Pages

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

Offset

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115

EXAMPLE - 2

- 256 total page table entries (64 bytes each)
- 1,024 bytes page table size, stored using 64-byte pages
= $(1024/64)$ = 16 page directory entries (PDEs)
- Each page directory entry (PDE) can hold 16 page table entries (PTEs) *e.g. lookups*
- 16 page directory entries (PDE) x 16 page table entries (PTE)
= 256 total PTEs
- Key idea: the page table is stored using pages too!**

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116

PAGE DIRECTORY INDEX

- Now, let's split the page table into two:
 - 8 bit VPN to map 256 pages
 - 4 bits for page directory index (PDI – 1st level page table)
 - 6 bits offset into 64-byte page

The diagram shows a 14-bit virtual address represented as a row of 14 boxes numbered 13 down to 0. Boxes 13, 12, 11, and 10 are orange and grouped under a bracket labeled 'Page Directory Index'. Boxes 10, 9, 8, 7, and 6 are orange and grouped under a bracket labeled 'VPN'. Boxes 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, and 0 are blue and grouped under a bracket labeled 'Offset'. A large bracket below the entire row is labeled '14-bits Virtual address'.

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117

PAGE TABLE INDEX

- 4 bits page directory index (PDI – 1st level)
- 4 bits page table index (PTI – 2nd level)

The diagram shows a 14-bit virtual address represented as a row of 14 boxes numbered 13 down to 0. Boxes 13, 12, 11, and 10 are orange and grouped under a bracket labeled 'Page Directory Index'. Boxes 9, 8, 7, and 6 are orange and grouped under a bracket labeled 'Page Table Index'. Boxes 10, 9, 8, 7, and 6 are orange and grouped under a bracket labeled 'VPN'. Boxes 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, and 0 are blue and grouped under a bracket labeled 'Offset'. A large bracket below the entire row is labeled '14-bits Virtual address'.

- To dereference one 64-byte memory page,
 - We need one page directory entry (PDE)
 - One page table Index (PTI) – can address 16 pages

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118

EXAMPLE - 3

- For this example, how much space is required to store as a single-level page table with any number of PTEs?
- 16KB address space, 64 byte pages
- 256 page frames, 4 byte page size
- 1,024 bytes required (*single level*)
- How much space is required for a two-level page table with only 4 page table entries (PTEs) ?
- Page directory = 16 entries x 4 bytes (1 x 64 byte page)
- Page table = 4 entries x 4 bytes (1 x 64 byte page)
- 128 bytes required (2 x 64 byte pages)
 - Savings = using just 12.5% the space !!!

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119

32-BIT EXAMPLE

- Consider: 32-bit address space, 4KB pages, 2^{20} pages
- Only 4 mapped pages
- Single level: 4 MB (we've done this before)
- Two level: (old VPN was 20 bits, split in half)
- Page directory = 2^{10} entries x 4 bytes = 1 x 4 KB page
- Page table = 4 entries x 4 bytes (mapped to 1 4KB page)
- 8KB (8,192 bytes) required
- Savings = using just .78 % the space !!!
- 100 sparse processes now require < 1MB for page tables

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120

OBJECTIVES – 5/18

- Questions from 5/16
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121

MORE THAN TWO LEVELS

- Consider: page size is $2^9 = 512$ bytes
- Page size 512 bytes / Page entry size 4 bytes
- VPN is 21 bits

Flag	Detail
Virtual address	30 bit
Page size	512 byte
VPN	21 bit
Offset	9 bit

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122

MORE THAN TWO LEVELS - 2

- Page table entries per page = $512 / 4 = 128$
- 7 bytes – for page table index (PTI)

Flag	Detail
Virtual address	30 bit
Page size	512 byte
VPN	21 bit
Offset	9 bit
Page entry per page	128 PTEs

$\log_2 128 = 7$

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123

MORE THAN TWO LEVELS - 3

- To map 1 GB address space (2^{30} =1GB RAM, 512-byte pages)
- $2^{14} = 16,384$ page directory entries (PDEs) are required
- When using 2^7 (128 entry) page tables...
- Page size = 512 bytes / 4 bytes per addr

Flag	Detail
Virtual address	30 bit
Page size	512 byte
VPN	21 bit
Offset	9 bit
Page entry per page	128 PTEs

$\log_2 128 = 7$

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124

MORE THAN TWO LEVELS - 3

- To map 1 GB address space (2^{30} =1GB RAM, 512-byte pages)
- $2^{14} = 16,384$ page directory entries (PDEs) are required
- When using 2^7 (128 entry) page tables...
- Page size = 512 bytes / 4 bytes per addr

Can't Store Page Directory with 16K pages, using 512 bytes pages.
Pages only dereference 128 addresses
(512 bytes / 32 bytes)

Virtual address	30 bit
Page size	512 byte
VPN	21 bit
Offset	9 bit
Page entry per page	128 PTEs → $\log_2 128 = 7$

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125

MORE THAN TWO LEVELS - 3

- To map 1 GB address space (2^{30} =1GB RAM, 512-byte pages)
- $2^{14} = 16,384$ page directory entries (PDEs) are required
- When using 2^7 (128 entry) page tables...
- Page size = 512 bytes / 4 bytes per addr

Need three level page table:
Page directory 0 (PD Index 0)
Page directory 1 (PD Index 1)
Page Table Index

Virtual address	30 bit
Page size	512 byte
VPN	21 bit
Offset	9 bit
Page entry per page	128 PTEs → $\log_2 128 = 7$

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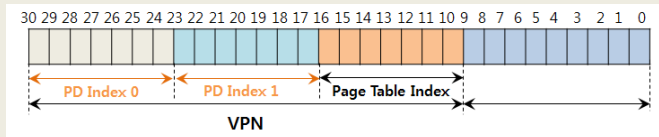
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126

MORE THAN TWO LEVELS - 4

- We can now address 1GB with “fine grained” 512 byte pages
- Using multiple levels of indirection



- Consider the implications for address translation!
- How much space is required for a virtual address space with 4 entries on a 512-byte page? (let's say 4 32-bit integers)
- PD0 1 page, PD1 1 page, PT 1 page = 1,536 bytes
- Memory Usage = $1,536 \text{ (3-level)} / 8,388,608 \text{ (1-level)} = .0183\% !!!$

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127

ADDRESS TRANSLATION CODE

```
// 5-level Linux page table address lookup
//
// Inputs:
// mm_struct - process's memory map struct
// vpage - virtual page address

// Define page struct pointers
pgd_t *pgd;
p4d_t *p4d;
pud_t *pud;
pmd_t *pmd;
pte_t *pte;
struct page *page;
```

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128

ADDRESS TRANSLATION - 2

```
pgd = pgd_offset(mm, vpage);
if (pgd_none(*pgd) || pgd_bad(*pgd))
    return 0;
p4d = p4d_offset(pgd, vpage);
if (p4d_none(*p4d) || p4d_bad(*p4d))
    return 0;
pud = pud_offset(p4d, vpage);
if (pud_none(*pud) || pud_bad(*pud))
    return 0;
pmd = pmd_offset(pud, vpage);
if (pmd_none(*pmd) || pmd_bad(*pmd))
    return 0;
if (!(pte = pte_offset_map(pmd, vpage)))
    return 0;
if (!(page = pte_page(*pte)))
    return 0;
physical_page_addr = page_to_phys(page);
pte_unmap(pte);
return physical_page_addr; // param to send back
```

pgd_offset():
Takes a vpage address and the mm_struct for the process, returns the PGD entry that covers the requested address...

p4d/pud/pmd_offset():
Takes a vpage address and the pgd/p4d/pud entry and returns the relevant p4d/pud/pmd.

pte_unmap()
release temporary kernel mapping for the page table entry


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129

INVERTED PAGE TABLES



- Keep a single page table for each physical page of memory
- Consider 4GB physical memory
- Using 4KB pages, page table requires 4MB to map all of RAM
- Page table stores
 - Which process uses each page
 - Which process virtual page (from process virtual address space) maps to the physical page
- All processes share the same page table for memory mapping, kernel must isolate all use of the shared structure
- Finding process memory pages requires search of 2^{20} pages
- Hash table: can index memory and speed lookups

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130

MULTI-LEVEL PAGE TABLE EXAMPLE

- Consider a 16 MB computer which indexes memory using 4KB pages
- (#1) For a single level page table, how many pages are required to index memory?
- (#2) How many bits are required for the VPN?
- (#3) Assuming each page table entry (PTE) can index any byte on a 4KB page, how many offset bits are required?
- (#4) Assuming there are 8 status bits, how many bytes are required for each page table entry?

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131

MULTI LEVEL PAGE TABLE EXAMPLE - 2

- (#5) How many bytes (or KB) are required for a single level page table?
- Let's assume a simple HelloWorld.c program.
- HelloWorld.c requires virtual address translation for 4 pages:
 - 1 – code page 1 – stack page
 - 1 – heap page 1 – data segment page
- (#6) Assuming a two-level page table scheme, how many bits are required for the Page Directory Index (PDI)?
- (#7) How many bits are required for the Page Table Index (PTI)?

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132

MULTI LEVEL PAGE TABLE EXAMPLE - 3

- Assume each page directory entry (PDE) and page table entry (PTE) requires 4 bytes:
 - 6 bits for the Page Directory Index (PDI)
 - 6 bits for the Page Table Index (PTI)
 - 12 offset bits
 - 8 status bits
- (#8)** How much **total** memory is required to index the HelloWorld.c program using a two-level page table when we only need to translate 4 total pages?
- HINT:** we need to allocate one Page Directory and one Page Table...
- HINT:** how many entries are in the PD and PT

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133

MULTI LEVEL PAGE TABLE EXAMPLE - 4

- (#9)** Using a single page directory entry (PDE) pointing to a single page table (PT), if all of the slots of the page table (PT) are in use, what is the total amount of memory a two-level page table scheme can address?
- (#10)** And finally, for this example, as a percentage (%), how much memory does the 2-level page table scheme consume compared to the 1-level scheme?
- HINT:** two-level memory use / one-level memory use

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134

ANSWERS

- #1 - 4096 pages
- #2 - 12 bits
- #3 - 12 bits
- #4 - 4 bytes
- #5 - $4096 \times 4 = 16,384$ bytes (16KB)
- #6 - 6 bits
- #7 - 6 bits
- #8 - 256 bytes for Page Directory (PD) (64 entries x 4 bytes)
256 bytes for Page Table (PT) **TOTAL = 512 bytes**
- #9 - 64 entries, where each entry maps a 4,096 byte page
With 12 offset bits, can address 262,144 bytes (256 KB)
- #10- $512/16384 = .03125 \rightarrow 3.125\%$


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135

QUESTIONS



136