Memory Management: From Absolute Addresses to Demand Paging

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Based on slides from Daniel Sanchez
Recap: Cache Organization

• Caches are small and fast memories that transparently retain recently accessed data

• Cache organizations
  – Direct-mapped
  – Set-associative
  – Fully associative

• Cache performance
  – $\text{AMAT} = \text{HitLatency} + \text{MissRate} \times \text{MissLatency}$
  – Minimizing AMAT requires balancing competing tradeoffs
Replacement Policy

Which block from a set should be evicted?

• Random

• Least Recently Used (LRU)
  • LRU cache state must be updated on every access
  • true implementation only feasible for small sets (2-way)
  • pseudo-LRU binary tree was often used for 4-8 way

• First In, First Out (FIFO) a.k.a. Round-Robin
  • used in highly associative caches

• Not Least Recently Used (NLRU)
  • FIFO with exception for most recently used block or blocks

• One-bit LRU
  • Each way represented by a bit. Set on use, replace first unused.
Multilevel Caches

- A memory cannot be large and fast
- Add level of cache to reduce miss penalty
  - Each level can have longer latency than level above
  - So, increase sizes of cache at each level

Metrics:

Local miss rate = misses in cache / accesses to cache
Global miss rate = misses in cache / CPU memory accesses
Misses per instruction = misses in cache / number of instructions
Inclusion Policy

• **Inclusive multilevel cache:**
  – Inner cache holds copies of data in outer cache
  – External access need only check outer cache
  – Most common case

• **Exclusive multilevel caches:**
  – Inner cache holds data not in outer cache
  – Swap lines between inner/outer caches on miss
  – Used in AMD Athlon with 64KB primary and 256KB secondary cache

• **Non-inclusive multilevel caches:**
  – Some cache lines duplicate in outer cache, and some do not
  – Intel Skylake L3

*Why choose one type or the other?*

  Exclusive: Outer cache retains more data
  Inclusive: Less traffic, easier coherence
Victim Cache is a small associative back up cache, added to a direct mapped cache, which holds recently evicted lines.

- First look up in direct-mapped cache.
- If miss, look in victim cache.
- If hit in victim cache, swap hit line with line now evicted from L1.
- If miss in victim cache, L1 victim -> VC, VC victim->?

+ Fast hit time of direct-mapped but with reduced conflict misses.
Memory Management

• The Fifties
  - Absolute Addresses
  - Dynamic address translation

• The Sixties
  - Atlas and Demand Paging
  - Paged memory systems and TLBs

• Modern Virtual Memory Systems
Names for Memory Locations

- **Machine language address**
  - as specified in machine code

- **Virtual address** *(sometimes called effective 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
Absolute Addresses

EDSAC, early 50’s

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?

Linker and/or loader modify addresses of subroutines and callers when building a program memory image
Multiprogramming

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
Base and bounds registers are visible/accessible only when processor is running in supervisor mode.
Separate Areas for Code and Data

What is an advantage of this separation?
(Scheme used on all Cray vector supercomputers prior to X1, 2002)
As users come and go, the storage is “fragmented”. Therefore, at some stage programs have to be moved around to compact the storage.
Paged Memory Systems

- Processor-generated address can be interpreted as a pair \( \langle \text{page number}, \text{offset} \rangle \)
- A page table contains the physical address of the base of each page

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|}
\hline
\text{virtual PN} & \text{physical PN} \\
\hline
0 & 0x6 \\
1 & 0x7 \\
2 & 0x1 \\
3 & 0x3 \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

Page tables make it possible to store the pages of a program non-contiguously.
Private Address Space per User

- Each user has a page table
- Page table contains an entry for each user page
Where Should Page Tables Reside?

- Space required by the page tables (PT) is proportional to the virtual address space, number of users, ...
  - Space requirement is large
  - Too expensive to keep in registers

- Idea: Keep PT of the current user in special registers
  - may not be feasible for large page tables
  - Increases the cost of context swap

- Idea: Keep PTs in the main memory
  - needs one reference to retrieve the page base address and another to access the data word
  - \( \textit{doubles the number of memory references!} \)
Page Tables in Physical Memory

Idea: cache the address translation of frequently used pages – TLBs (translation lookaside buffer)
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

- Assume 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
  - Difficult, error prone

- Method 2: automatic initiation of I/O transfers by software address translation
  - Brooker’s interpretive coding, 1960
  - Inefficient

Ferranti Mercury
1956

40k bits
main

640k bits
drum

Central Store
“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 $32 \times 6 \times 512$ words of storage
Hardware Organization of Atlas

Initial Address Decode

16 ROM pages
0.4 ~1 µsec
system code (not swapped)

2 subsidiary pages
1.4 µsec
system data (not swapped)

Main 32 pages
1.4 µsec

Drum (4) 192 pages

8 Tape decks
88 sec/word

1 Page Address Register (PAR) per physical page frame

PARs

Compare the effective page address against all 32 PARs
match ⇒ normal access
no match ⇒ page fault

save the state of the partially executed instruction

<effective PN , status>
Atlas Demand Paging Scheme

Effective Address

Initial Address Decode

16 ROM pages
0.4 ~1 µsec

2 subsidiary pages
1.4 µsec

Main
32 pages
1.4 µsec

Drum (4)
192 pages

<effective PN, status>

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 the 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

system code (not swapped)

system data (not swapped)

8 Tape decks
88 sec/word

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Caching vs. Demand Paging

Caching
- cache entry
- cache block (~32 bytes)
- cache miss rate (1% to 20%)
- cache hit (~1 cycle)
- cache miss (~100 cycles)
- a miss is handled in *hardware*

Demand paging
- page frame
- page (~4K bytes)
- page miss rate (<0.001%)
- page hit (~100 cycles)
- page miss (~5M cycles)
- a miss is handled mostly in *software*
Protection & Privacy
- several users, each with their private address space and one or more shared address spaces
  - page table \( \equiv \) name space

Demand Paging
- Provides the ability to run programs larger than the primary memory
- Hides differences in machine configurations

The price is address translation on each memory reference
Linear Page Table

• Page Table Entry (PTE) contains:
  – A bit to indicate if a page exists
  – PPN (physical page number) for a memory-resident page
  – DPN (disk page number) for a page on the disk
  – Status bits for protection and usage

• OS sets the Page Table Base Register whenever active user process changes

Page Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PPN</th>
<th>PPN</th>
<th>DPN</th>
<th>PPN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Pages

VPN

Offset

PT Base Register

VPN

Offset

Virtual address

Data word

VPN

Offset

Virtual address
Size of Linear Page Table

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

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

Larger pages?
- Internal fragmentation (Not all memory in a page is used)
- 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”?
Hierarchical Page Table

Virtual Address

31  22  21  12  11  0

p1  p2  offset

10-bit  10-bit
L1 index  L2 index

Root of the Current
Page Table

(Processor
Register)

Level 1
Page Table

p1

Level 2
Page Tables

PTE of a nonexistent page

page in primary memory

page in secondary memory

Data Pages
• Every instruction and data access needs address translation and protection checks

A good VM design needs to be fast (~ one cycle) and space-efficient
Translation Lookaside Buffers

Address translation is very expensive!
- In a two-level page table, each reference becomes several memory accesses

Solution: *Cache translations in TLB*

- TLB hit $\Rightarrow$ *Single-cycle Translation*
- TLB miss $\Rightarrow$ *Page Table Walk to refill*

**virtual address**

```
V  R  W  D  tag  PPN
```

(VPN = virtual page number)

```
VPN  offset
```

(PPN = physical page number)

```
PPN  offset
```

hit?  physical address
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 (256-512 entries) are 4-8 way set-associative

• Random or FIFO replacement policy

• 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

\[ \text{TLB Reach} = 64 \text{ entries} \times 4 \text{ KB} = 256 \text{ KB (if contiguous)} \]
Variable-Sized Page Support

Virtual Address

31 22 21 12 11 0

p1 p2 offset

10-bit 10-bit
L1 index L2 index

Root of the Current Page Table

(Processor Register)

Level 1 Page Table

Level 2 Page Tables

Data Pages

page in primary memory
large page in primary memory
page in secondary memory
PTE of a nonexistent page
Some systems support multiple page sizes.
Handling a TLB Miss

Software (MIPS, Alpha)
TLB miss causes an exception and the operating system walks the page tables and reloads TLB. A 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
Hierarchical Page Table Walk: SPARC v8

Virtual Address

Context Table Register

Context Register

Context Table

root ptr

L1 Table

PTP

L2 Table

PTP

L3 Table

PTP

PTE

Physical Address

MMU does this table walk in hardware on a TLB miss
Address Translation: putting it all together

Virtual Address

TLB Lookup

Page Table Walk

Protection Check

hit

miss

Protection Fault

Page Fault (OS loads page)

Update TLB

Physical Address (to cache)

Where?

SEGFAULT

\( \notin \text{memory} \)

\( \in \text{memory} \)

\( \notin \text{memory} \)

\( \in \text{memory} \)

denied

permitted
Next lecture:
Modern Virtual Memory Systems