

CS194-24 Advanced Operating Systems Structures and Implementation Lecture 11

TLBs, SLAB allocator File Systems

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<http://inst.eecs.berkeley.edu/~cs194-24>

Goals for Today

- TLBs
- Paging
- SLAB allocator

Interactive is important!
Ask Questions!

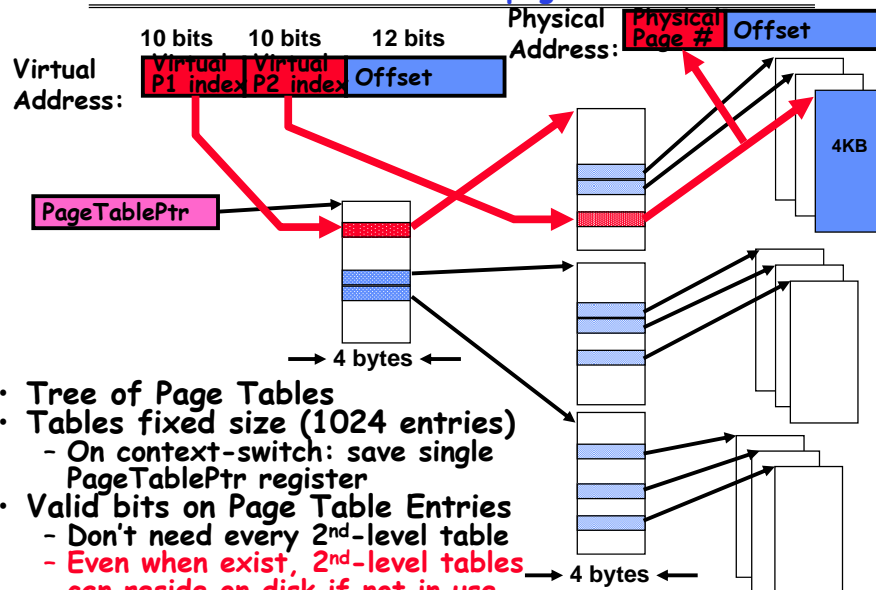
Note: Some slides and/or pictures in the following are adapted from slides ©2013

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Lec 11.2

Recall: two-level page table



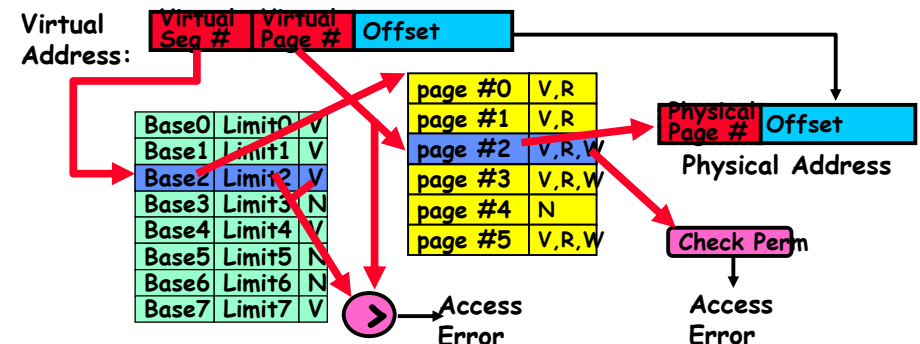
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Lec 11.3

Recall: Multi-level Translation: Segments + Pages

- What about a tree of tables?
 - Lowest level page table ⇒ memory still allocated with bitmap
 - Higher levels often segmented
- Could have any number of levels. Example (top segment):



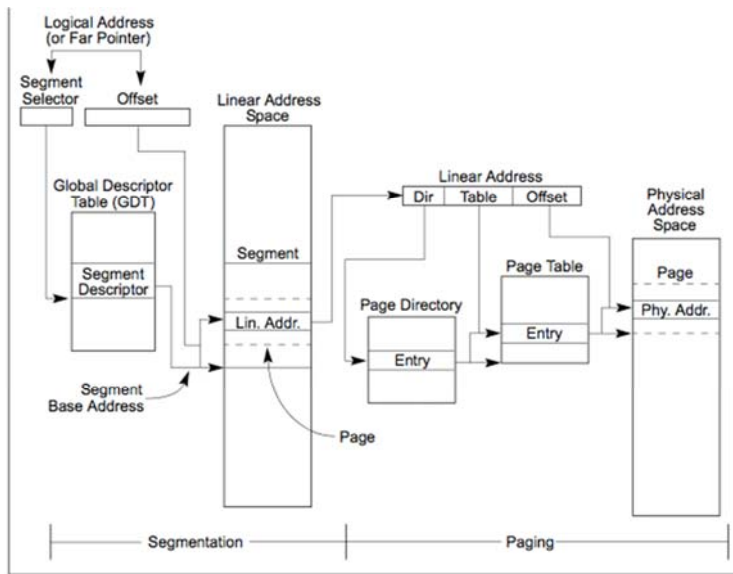
- What must be saved/restored on context switch?
 - Contents of top-level segment registers (for this example)
 - Pointer to top-level table (page table)

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Lec 11.4

Recall: X86 Memory model with segmentation (16/32-bit)



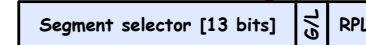
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Lec 11.5

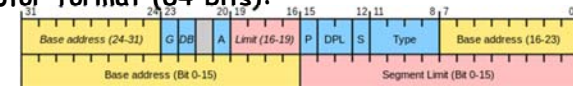
Recall: X86 Segment Descriptors (32-bit Protected Mode)

- Segments are either implicit in the instruction (say for code segments) or actually part of the instruction
 - There are 6 registers: SS, CS, DS, ES, FS, GS
- What is a segment register?
 - A pointer to the actual segment description:



G/L selects between GDT and LDT tables (global vs local descriptor tables)

- Two registers: GDTR and LDTR hold pointers to the global and local descriptor tables in memory
 - Includes length of table (for $< 2^{13}$ entries)
- Descriptor format (64 bits):



- G: Granularity of segment (0: 16bit, 1: 4KiB unit)
- DB: Default operand size (0: 16bit, 1: 32bit)
- A: Freely available for use by software
- P: Segment present
- DPL: Descriptor Privilege Level
- S: System Segment (0: System, 1: code or data)
- Type: Code, Data, Segment

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Recall: How are segments used?

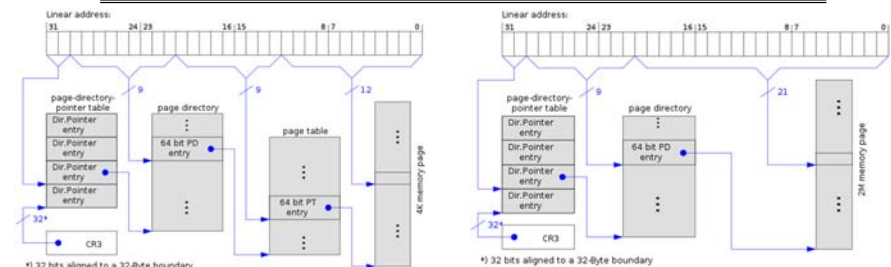
- One set of global segments (GDT) for everyone, different set of local segments (LDT) for every process
- In legacy applications (16-bit mode):
 - Segments provide protection for different components of user programs
 - Separate segments for chunks of code, data, stacks
 - Limited to 64K segments
- Modern use in 32-bit Mode:
 - Segments "flattened", i.e. every segment is 4GB in size
 - One exception: Use of GS (or FS) as a pointer to "Thread Local Storage"
 - » A thread can make accesses to TLS like this:
`mov eax, gs(0x0)`
- Modern use in 64-bit ("long") mode
 - Most segments (SS, CS, DS, ES) have zero base and no length limits
 - Only FS and GS retain their functionality (for use in TLS)

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Slightly More than 4GB RAM: PAE mode on x86



PAE with 4K pages

PAE with 2MB pages

- Physical Address Extension (PAE)
 - Poor-man's large memory extensions
 - More than 4GB physical memory
 - Every process still can have only 32-bit address space
- 3-Level page table
 - 64-bit PTE format
- How do processes use more than 4GB memory?
 - OS Support for mapping and unmapping physical memory into virtual address space
 - Application Windowing Extensions (AWE)

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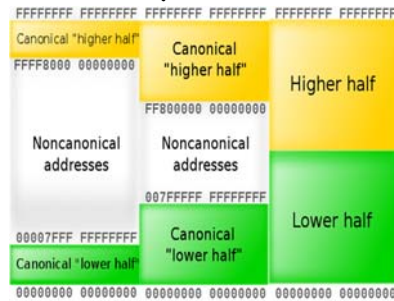
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What about 64-bit x86-64 ("long mode")?

- X86 long mode: 64 bit virtual addresses, 40-52 bits of physical memory

- Not all 64-bit virtual addresses translated
- Virtual Addresses must be "canonical": top n bits of must be equal
 - » n here might be 48
 - » Non-canonical addresses will cause a protection fault



- Using PAE scheme with 64-bit PTE can map 48-bits of virtual memory ($9 \times 4 + 12 = 48$)
- As mentioned earlier, segments other than FS/GS disabled in long mode

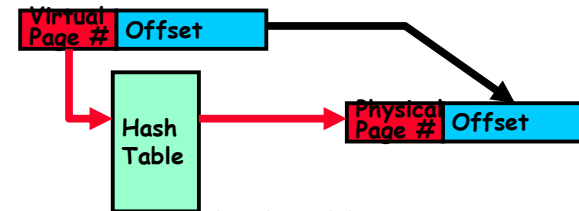
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Inverted Page Table

- With all previous examples ("Forward Page Tables")
 - Size of page table is at least as large as amount of virtual memory allocated to processes
 - Physical memory may be much less
 - » Much of process space may be out on disk or not in use



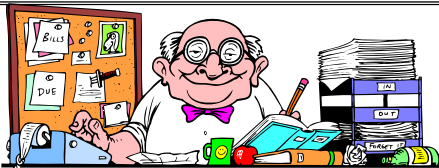
- Answer: use a hash table
 - Called an "Inverted Page Table"
 - Size is independent of virtual address space
 - Directly related to amount of physical memory
 - Very attractive option for 64-bit address spaces
- Cons: Complexity of managing hash changes
 - Often in hardware!

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Recall: Caching Concept



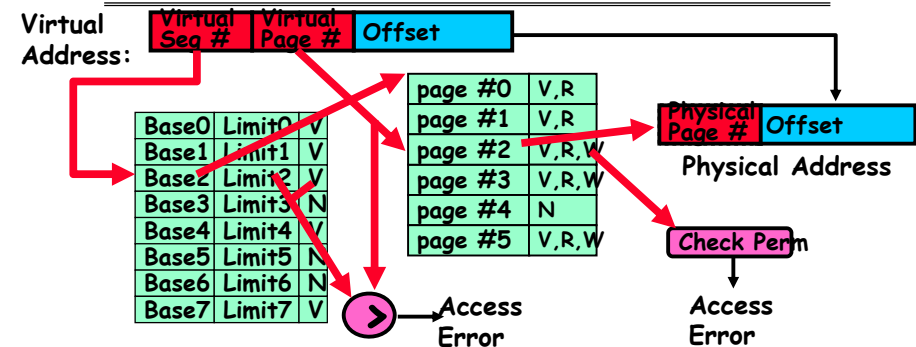
- **Cache:** a repository for copies that can be accessed more quickly than the original
 - Make frequent case fast and infrequent case less dominant
- Caching underlies many of the techniques that are used today to make computers fast
 - Can cache: memory locations, address translations, pages, file blocks, file names, network routes, etc...
- Only good if:
 - Frequent case frequent enough and
 - Infrequent case not too expensive
- Important measure: Average Access time = $(\text{Hit Rate} \times \text{Hit Time}) + (\text{Miss Rate} \times \text{Miss Time})$

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Why does caching matter for Virtual Memory?



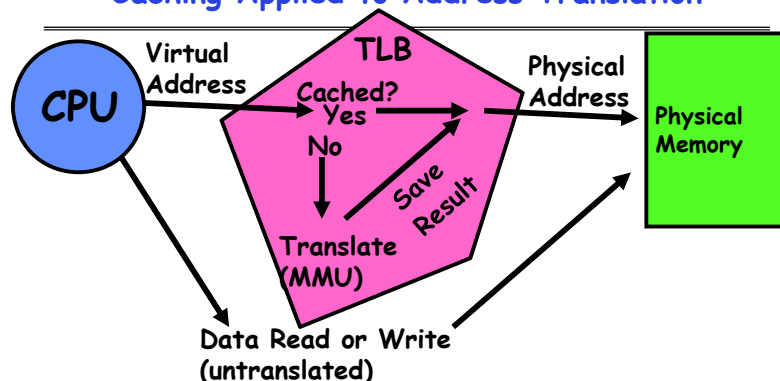
- Cannot afford to translate on every access
 - At least three DRAM accesses per actual DRAM access
 - Or: perhaps I/O if page table partially on disk!
- Even worse: What if we are using caching to make memory access faster than DRAM access???
- Solution? Cache translations!
 - Translation Cache: TLB ("Translation Lookaside Buffer")

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Caching Applied to Address Translation



- Question is one of page locality: does it exist?
 - Instruction accesses spend a lot of time on the same page (since accesses sequential)
 - Stack accesses have definite locality of reference
 - Data accesses have less page locality, but still some...
- Can we have a TLB hierarchy?
 - Sure: multiple levels at different sizes/speeds

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What Actually Happens on a TLB Miss?

- Hardware traversed page tables:
 - On TLB miss, hardware in MMU looks at current page table to fill TLB (may walk multiple levels)
 - » If PTE valid, hardware fills TLB and processor never knows
 - » If PTE marked as invalid, causes Page Fault, after which kernel decides what to do afterwards
- Software traversed Page tables (like MIPS)
 - On TLB miss, processor receives TLB fault
 - Kernel traverses page table to find PTE
 - » If PTE valid, fills TLB and returns from fault
 - » If PTE marked as invalid, internally calls Page Fault handler
- Most chip sets provide hardware traversal
 - Modern operating systems tend to have more TLB faults since they use translation for many things
 - Examples:
 - » shared segments
 - » user-level portions of an operating system

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What happens on a Context Switch?

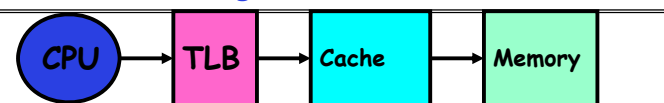
- Need to do something, since TLBs map virtual addresses to physical addresses
 - Address Space just changed, so TLB entries no longer valid!
- Options?
 - Invalidate TLB: simple but might be expensive
 - » What if switching frequently between processes?
 - Include ProcessID in TLB
 - » This is an architectural solution: needs hardware
- What if translation tables change?
 - For example, to move page from memory to disk or vice versa...
 - Must invalidate TLB entry!
 - » Otherwise, might think that page is still in memory!

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What TLB organization makes sense?



- Needs to be really fast
 - Critical path of memory access
 - » In simplest view: before the cache
 - » Thus, this adds to access time (reducing cache speed)
 - Seems to argue for Direct Mapped or Low Associativity
- However, needs to have very few conflicts!
 - With TLB, the Miss Time extremely high!
 - This argues that cost of Conflict (Miss Time) is much higher than slightly increased cost of access (Hit Time)
- Thrashing: continuous conflicts between accesses
 - What if use low order bits of page as index into TLB?
 - » First page of code, data, stack may map to same entry
 - » Need 3-way associativity at least?
 - What if use high order bits as index?
 - » TLB mostly unused for small programs

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TLB organization: include protection

- How big does TLB actually have to be?
 - Usually small: 128-512 entries
 - Not very big, can support higher associativity
- TLB usually organized as fully-associative cache
 - Lookup is by Virtual Address
 - Returns Physical Address + other info
- What happens when fully-associative is too slow?
 - Put a small (4-16 entry) direct-mapped cache in front
 - Called a "TLB Slice"
- Example for MIPS R3000:

Virtual Address	Physical Address	Dirty	Ref	Valid	Access	ASID
0xFA00	0x0003	Y	N	Y	R/W	34
0x0040	0x0010	N	Y	Y	R	0
0x0041	0x0011	N	Y	Y	R	0

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Example: R3000 pipeline includes TLB "stages"

MIPS R3000 Pipeline

Inst Fetch	Dcd/ Reg	ALU / E.A	Memory	Write Reg
TLB	I-Cache	RF	Operation	WB
		E.A.	TLB	D-Cache

TLB

64 entry, on-chip, fully associative, software TLB fault handler

Virtual Address Space

ASID	V. Page Number	Offset
6	20	12

0xx User segment (caching based on PT/TLB entry)
 100 Kernel physical space, cached
 101 Kernel physical space, uncached
 11x Kernel virtual space

Allows context switching among
 64 user processes without TLB flush

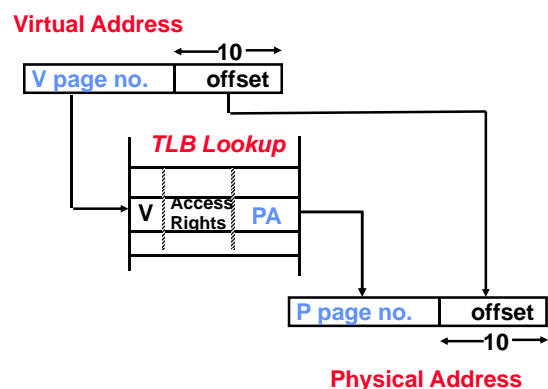
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Reducing translation time further

- As described, TLB lookup is in serial with cache lookup:



- Machines with TLBs go one step further: they overlap TLB lookup with cache access.
 - Works because offset available early

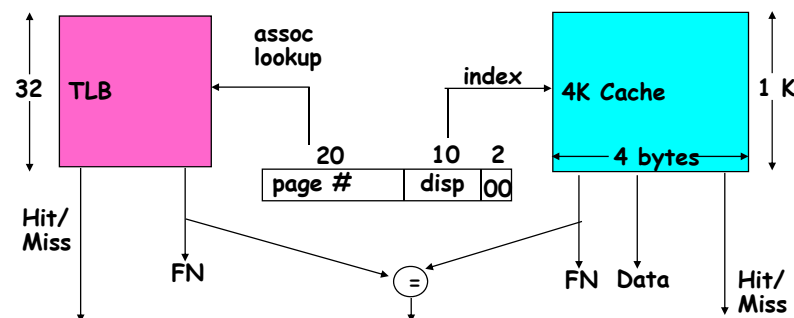
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Overlapping TLB & Cache Access

- Here is how this might work with a 4K cache:



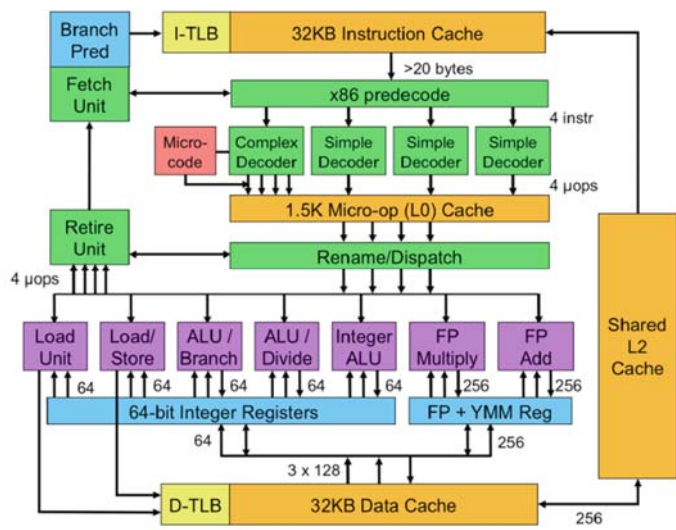
- What if cache size is increased to 8KB?
 - Overlap not complete
 - Need to do something else. See CS152/252
- Another option: Virtual Caches
 - Tags in cache are virtual addresses
 - Translation only happens on cache misses

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Modern Pipelines: SandyBridge Pipeline

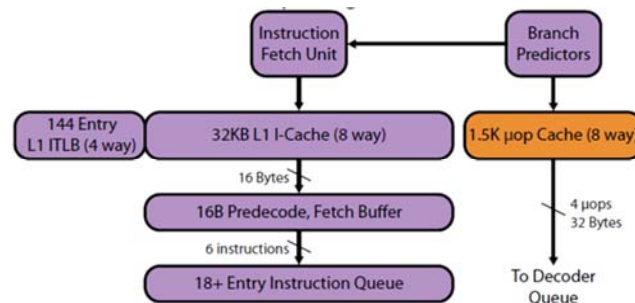


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Fetch and Branch Prediction



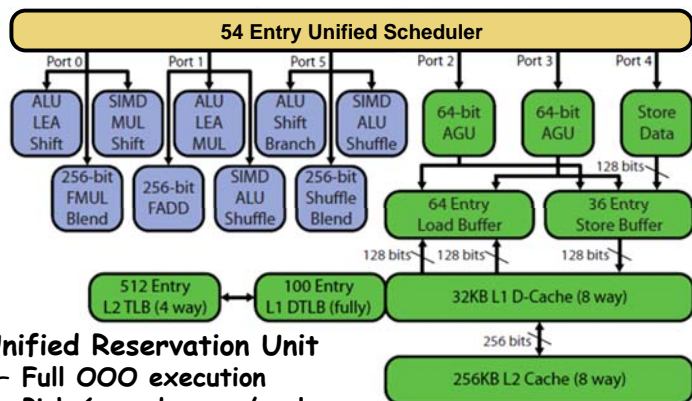
- **x86 instructions turned into micro-ops**
 - Cached translations are reused
- **Branch prediction**
 - Not entirely clear, but seems to have some combination of bi-mode, multi-level BTB, stack-based prediction for CALL/RETURN
- **Predecoder**
 - Finds instruction boundaries
 - Passes at least 6 instructions onto decoding infrastructure

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Out-of-Order execution: Data TLB (DTLB)



- **Unified Reservation Unit**
 - Full OOO execution
 - Pick 6 ready μops/cycle
 - Can have two loads or stores/cycle
 - » 2 address generation units (AGUs) + store data
 - Simultaneous 256-bit Multiply and Add
 - Can have 3 regular integer ops/cycle

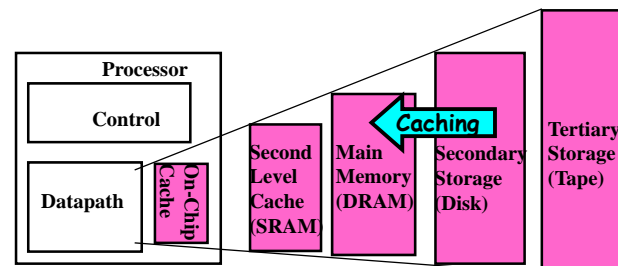
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Use of Mapping as a Cache: Demand Paging

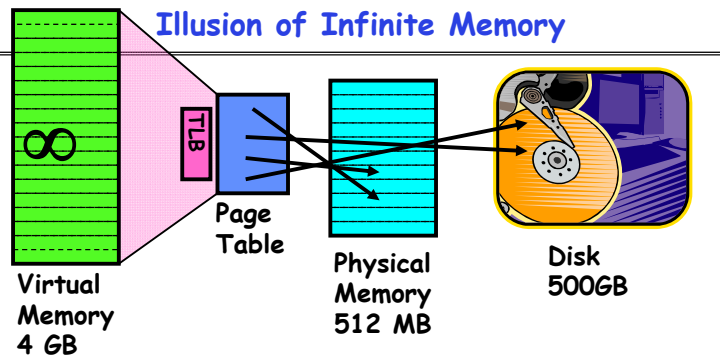
- **Modern programs require a lot of physical memory**
 - Memory per system growing faster than 25%-30%/year
- **But they don't use all their memory all of the time**
 - 90-10 rule: programs spend 90% of their time in 10% of their code
 - Wasteful to require all of user's code to be in memory
- **Solution: use main memory as cache for disk**



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- Disk is larger than physical memory \Rightarrow
 - In-use virtual memory can be bigger than physical memory
 - Combined memory of running processes much larger than physical memory
 - » More programs fit into memory, allowing more concurrency
- Principle: **Transparent Level of Indirection** (page table)
 - Supports flexible placement of physical data
 - » Data could be on disk or somewhere across network
 - Variable location of data transparent to user program
 - » Performance issue, not correctness issue

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Review: What is in a PTE?

- What is in a Page Table Entry (or PTE)?
 - Pointer to next-level page table or to actual page
 - Permission bits: valid, read-only, read-write, write-only
- Example: Intel x86 architecture PTE:
 - Address same format previous slide (10, 10, 12-bit offset)
 - Intermediate page tables called "Directories"

Page Frame Number (Physical Page Number)	Free (OS)	0	L	D	A	PCD	PWT	U	W	P
31-12	11-9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

- P: Present (same as "valid" bit in other architectures)
 - W: Writeable
 - U: User accessible
 - PWT: Page write transparent: external cache write-through
 - PCD: Page cache disabled (page cannot be cached)
 - A: Accessed: page has been accessed recently
 - D: Dirty (PTE only): page has been modified recently
 - L: L=1 \Rightarrow 4MB page (directory only).
- Bottom 22 bits of virtual address serve as offset

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Demand Paging Mechanisms

- PTE helps us implement demand paging
 - Valid \Rightarrow Page in memory, PTE points at physical page
 - Not Valid \Rightarrow Page not in memory; use info in PTE to find it on disk when necessary
- Suppose user references page with invalid PTE?
 - Memory Management Unit (MMU) traps to OS
 - » Resulting trap is a "Page Fault"
 - What does OS do on a Page Fault?:
 - » Choose an old page to replace
 - » If old page modified ("D=1"), write contents back to disk
 - » Change its PTE and any cached TLB to be invalid
 - » Load new page into memory from disk
 - » Update page table entry, invalidate TLB for new entry
 - » Continue thread from original faulting location
 - TLB for new page will be loaded when thread continued!
 - While pulling pages off disk for one process, OS runs another process from ready queue
 - » Suspended process sits on wait queue



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Demand Paging Example

- Since Demand Paging like caching, can compute average access time! ("Effective Access Time")
 - $EAT = Hit Rate \times Hit Time + Miss Rate \times Miss Time$
 - $EAT = Hit Time + Miss Rate \times Miss Penalty$
- Example:
 - Memory access time = 200 nanoseconds
 - Average page-fault service time = 8 milliseconds
 - Suppose p = Probability of miss, $1-p$ = Probability of hit
 - Then, we can compute EAT as follows:

$$EAT = 200ns + p \times 8 ms$$

$$= 200ns + p \times 8,000,000ns$$
- If one access out of 1,000 causes a page fault, then $EAT = 8.2 \mu s$:
 - This is a slowdown by a factor of 40!
- What if want slowdown by less than 10%?
 - $200ns \times 1.1 < EAT \Rightarrow p < 2.5 \times 10^{-6}$
 - This is about 1 page fault in 400000!

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Implementing LRU

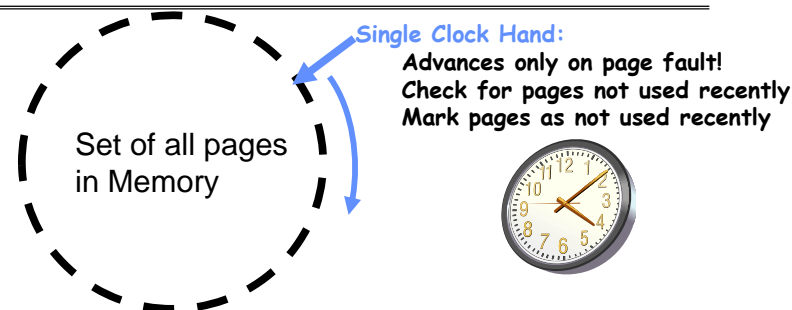
- **Perfect:**
 - Timestamp page on each reference
 - Keep list of pages ordered by time of reference
 - Too expensive to implement in reality for many reasons
- **Clock Algorithm:** Arrange physical pages in circle with single clock hand
 - Approximate LRU (approx to approx to MIN)
 - Replace **an** old page, not **the oldest** page
- **Details:**
 - Hardware "use" bit per physical page:
 - » Hardware sets use bit on each reference
 - » If use bit isn't set, means not referenced in a long time
 - » Nachos hardware sets use bit in the TLB; you have to copy this back to page table when TLB entry gets replaced
 - On page fault:
 - » Advance clock hand (not real time)
 - » Check use bit: 1→used recently; clear and leave alone
 - 0→selected candidate for replacement
 - Will always find a page or loop forever?
 - » Even if all use bits set, will eventually loop around⇒FIFO

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Clock Algorithm: Not Recently Used



- What if hand moving slowly?
 - Good sign or bad sign?
 - » Not many page faults and/or find page quickly
- What if hand is moving quickly?
 - Lots of page faults and/or lots of reference bits set
- One way to view clock algorithm:
 - Crude partitioning of pages into two groups: young and old
 - Why not partition into more than 2 groups?

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Nth Chance version of Clock Algorithm

- **Nth chance algorithm:** Give page N chances
 - OS keeps counter per page: # sweeps
 - On page fault, OS checks use bit:
 - » 1→clear use and also clear counter (used in last sweep)
 - » 0→increment counter; if count=N, replace page
 - Means that clock hand has to sweep by N times without page being used before page is replaced
- How do we pick N?
 - Why pick large N? Better approx to LRU
 - » If N ~ 1K, really good approximation
 - Why pick small N? More efficient
 - » Otherwise might have to look a long way to find free page
- What about dirty pages?
 - Takes extra overhead to replace a dirty page, so give dirty pages an extra chance before replacing?
 - Common approach:
 - » Clean pages, use N=1
 - » Dirty pages, use N=2 (and write back to disk when N=1)

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Clock Algorithms: Details

- Which bits of a PTE entry are useful to us?
 - **Use:** Set when page is referenced; cleared by clock algorithm
 - **Modified:** set when page is modified, cleared when page written to disk
 - **Valid:** ok for program to reference this page
 - **Read-only:** ok for program to read page, but not modify
 - » For example for catching modifications to code pages!
- Do we really need hardware-supported "modified" bit?
 - No. Can emulate it (BSD Unix) using read-only bit
 - » Initially, mark all pages as read-only, even data pages
 - » On write, trap to OS. OS sets software "modified" bit, and marks page as read-write.
 - » Whenever page comes back in from disk, mark read-only

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Clock Algorithms Details (continued)

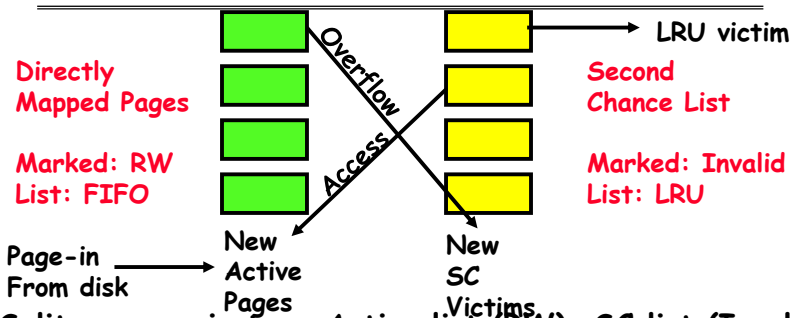
- Do we really need a hardware-supported "use" bit?
 - No. Can emulate it similar to above:
 - » Mark all pages as invalid, even if in memory
 - » On read to invalid page, trap to OS
 - » OS sets use bit, and marks page read-only
 - Get modified bit in same way as previous:
 - » On write, trap to OS (either invalid or read-only)
 - » Set use and modified bits, mark page read-write
 - When clock hand passes by, reset use and modified bits and mark page as invalid again
- Remember, however, that clock is just an approximation of LRU
 - Can we do a better approximation, given that we have to take page faults on some reads and writes to collect use information?
 - Need to identify an old page, not oldest page!
 - Answer: second chance list

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Second-Chance List Algorithm (VAX/VMS)



- Split memory in two: Active list (RW), SC list (Invalid)
- Access pages in Active list at full speed
- Otherwise, Page Fault
 - Always move overflow page from end of Active list to front of Second-chance list (SC) and mark invalid
 - Desired Page On SC List: move to front of Active list, mark RW
 - Not on SC list: page in to front of Active list, mark RW; page out LRU victim at end of SC list

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Second-Chance List Algorithm (con't)

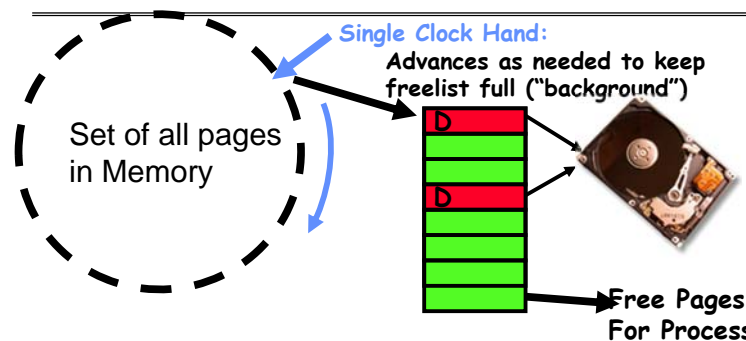
- How many pages for second chance list?
 - If 0 \Rightarrow FIFO
 - If all \Rightarrow LRU, but page fault on every page reference
- Pick intermediate value. Result is:
 - Pro: Few disk accesses (page only goes to disk if unused for a long time)
 - Con: Increased overhead trapping to OS (software / hardware tradeoff)
- With page translation, we can adapt to any kind of access the program makes
 - Later, we will show how to use page translation / protection to share memory between threads on widely separated machines
- Question: why didn't VAX include "use" bit?
 - Strecker (architect) asked OS people, they said they didn't need it, so didn't implement it
 - He later got blamed, but VAX did OK anyway

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Free List



- Keep set of free pages ready for use in demand paging
 - Freelist filled in background by Clock algorithm or other technique ("Pageout demon")
 - Dirty pages start copying back to disk when enter list
- Like VAX second-chance list
 - If page needed before reused, just return to active set
- Advantage: Faster for page fault
 - Can always use page (or pages) immediately on fault

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Summary: Examples of how to exploit a PTE

- How do we use the PTE?
 - Invalid PTE can imply different things:
 - » Region of address space is actually invalid or
 - » Page/directory is just somewhere else than memory
 - Validity checked first
 - » OS can use other (say) 31 bits for location info
- Usage Example: Demand Paging
 - Keep only active pages in memory
 - Place others on disk and mark their PTEs invalid
- Usage Example: Copy on Write
 - UNIX fork gives *copy* of parent address space to child
 - » Address spaces disconnected after child created
 - How to do this cheaply?
 - » Make copy of parent's page tables (point at same memory)
 - » Mark entries in both sets of page tables as read-only
 - » Page fault on write creates two copies
- Usage Example: Zero Fill On Demand
 - New data pages must carry no information (say be zeroed)
 - Mark PTEs as invalid; page fault on use gets zeroed page
 - Often, OS creates zeroed pages in background

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Reverse Page Mapping (Sometimes called "Coremap")

- Physical page frames often shared by many different address spaces/page tables
 - All children forked from given process
 - Shared memory pages between processes
- Whatever reverse mapping mechanism that is in place must be very fast
 - Must hunt down all page tables pointing at given page frame when freeing a page
 - Must hunt down all PTEs when seeing if pages "active"
- Implementation options:
 - For every page descriptor, keep linked list of page table entries that point to it
 - » Management nightmare - expensive
 - Linux 2.6: Object-based reverse mapping
 - » Link together memory region descriptors instead (much coarser granularity)

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Linux Memory Details?

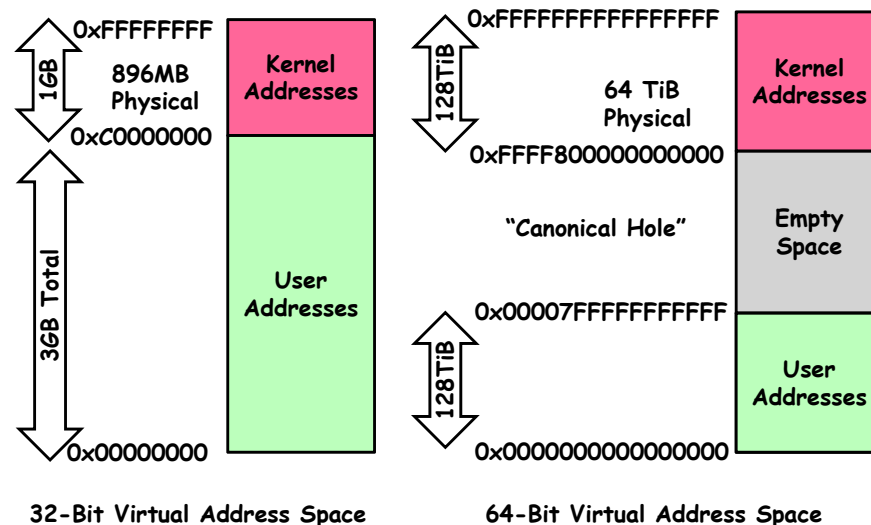
- Memory management in Linux considerably more complex than the previous indications
- Memory Zones: physical memory categories
 - ZONE_DMA: < 16MB memory, DMAable on ISA bus
 - ZONE_NORMAL: 16MB ⇒ 896MB (mapped at 0xC0000000)
 - ZONE_HIGHMEM: Everything else (> 896MB)
- Each zone has 1 freelist, 2 LRU lists (Active/Inactive)
- Many different types of allocation
 - SLAB allocators, per-page allocators, mapped/unmapped
- Many different types of allocated memory:
 - Anonymous memory (not backed by a file, heap/stack)
 - Mapped memory (backed by a file)
- Allocation priorities
 - Is blocking allowed/etc

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Recall: Linux Virtual memory map



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Virtual Map (Details)

- Kernel memory not generally visible to user
 - Exception: special VDSO facility that maps kernel code into user space to aid in system calls (and to provide certain actual system calls such as `gettimeofday()`).
- Every physical page described by a "page" structure
 - Collected together in lower physical memory
 - Can be accessed in kernel virtual space
 - Linked together in various "LRU" lists
- For 32-bit virtual memory architectures:
 - When physical memory < 896MB
 - » All physical memory mapped at `0xC0000000`
 - When physical memory >= 896MB
 - » Not all physical memory mapped in kernel space all the time
 - » Can be temporarily mapped with addresses > `0xCC000000`
- For 64-bit virtual memory architectures:
 - All physical memory mapped above `0xFFFF800000000000`

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Internal Interfaces: Allocating Memory

- One mechanism for requesting pages: everything else on top of this mechanism:
 - Allocate contiguous group of pages of size 2^{order} bytes given the specified mask:

```
struct page * alloc_pages(gfp_t gfp_mask,
                          unsigned int order)
```
 - Allocate one page:

```
struct page * alloc_page(gfp_t gfp_mask)
```
 - Convert page to logical address (assuming mapped):

```
void * page_address(struct page *page)
```
- Also routines for freeing pages
- Zone allocator uses "buddy" allocator that tries to keep memory unfragmented
- Allocation routines pick from proper zone, given flags

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Allocation flags

- Possible allocation type flags:
 - **GFP_ATOMIC:** Allocation high-priority and must never sleep. Use in interrupt handlers, top halves, while holding locks, or other times cannot sleep
 - **GFP_NOWAIT:** Like **GFP_ATOMIC**, except call will not fall back on emergency memory pools. Increases likely hood of failure
 - **GFP_NOIO:** Allocation can block but must not initiate disk I/O.
 - **GFP_NOFS:** Can block, and can initiate disk I/O, but will not initiate filesystem ops.
 - **GFP_KERNEL:** Normal allocation, might block. Use in process context when safe to sleep. This should be default choice
 - **GFP_USER:** Normal allocation for processes
 - **GFP_HIGHMEM:** Allocation from `ZONE_HIGHMEM`
 - **GFP_DMA:** Allocation from `ZONE_DMA`. Use in combination with a previous flag

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Page Frame Reclaiming Algorithm (PFRA)

- Several entrypoints:
 - Low on Memory Reclaiming: The kernel detects a "low on memory" condition
 - Hibernation reclaiming: The kernel must free memory because it is entering in the suspend-to-disk state
 - Periodic reclaiming: A kernel thread is activated periodically to perform memory reclaiming, if necessary
- Low on Memory reclaiming:
 - Start flushing out dirty pages to disk
 - Start looping over all memory nodes in the system
 - » `try_to_free_pages()`
 - » `shrink_slab()`
 - » `pdflush` kernel thread writing out dirty pages
- Periodic reclaiming:
 - `Kswapd` kernel threads: checks if number of free page frames in some zone has fallen below `pages_high` watermark
 - Each zone keeps two LRU lists: Active and Inactive
 - » Each page has a last-chance algorithm with 2 count
 - » Active page lists moved to inactive list when they have been idle for two cycles through the list
 - » Pages reclaimed from Inactive list

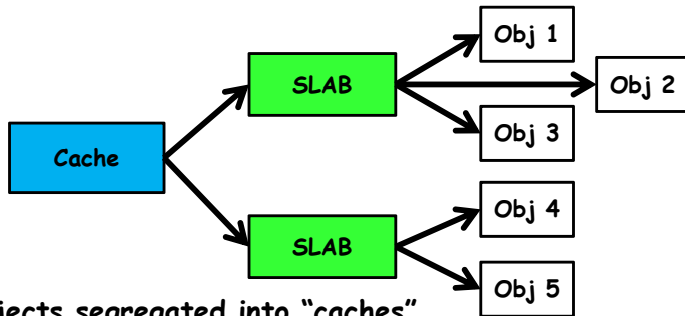
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SLAB Allocator

- Replacement for free-lists that are hand-coded by users
 - Consolidation of all of this code under kernel control
 - Efficient when objects allocated and freed frequently



- Objects segregated into "caches"
 - Each cache stores different type of object
 - Data inside cache divided into "slabs", which are continuous groups of pages (often only 1 page)
 - Key idea: avoid memory fragmentation

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SLAB Allocator Details

- Based on algorithm first introduced for SunOS
 - Observation: amount of time required to initialize a regular object in the kernel exceeds the amount of time required to allocate and deallocate it
 - Resolves around object caching
 - » Allocate once, keep reusing objects
- Avoids memory fragmentation:
 - Caching of similarly sized objects, avoid fragmentation
 - Similar to custom freelist per object
- Reuse of allocation
 - When new object first allocated, constructor runs
 - On subsequent free/reallocation, constructor does not need to be reexecuted

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SLAB Allocator: Cache Construction

- Creation of new Caches:

```
struct kmem_cache * kmem_cache_create(const char *name,
                                     size_t size,
                                     size_t align,
                                     unsigned long flags,
                                     void (*ctor)(void *));
```

- name: name of cache
- size: size of each element in the cache
- align: alignment for each object (often 0)
- flags: possible flags about allocation
 - » SLAB_HWCACHE_ALIGN: Align objects to cache lines
 - » SLAB_POISON: Fill slabs to known value (0xa5a5a5a5) in order to catch use of uninitialized memory
 - » SLAB_RED_ZONE: Insert empty zones around objects to help detect buffer overruns
 - » SLAB_PANIC: Allocation layer panics if allocation fails
 - » SLAB_CACHE_DMA: Allocations from DMA-able memory
 - » SLAB_NOTRACK: don't track uninitialized memory
- ctor: called whenever new pages are added to the cache

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SLAB Allocator: Cache Use

- Example:

```
task_struct_cachep =
    kmem_cache_create("task_struct",
                     sizeof(struct task_struct),
                     ARCH_MIN_TASKALIGN,
                     SLAB_PANIC | SLAB_NOTRACK,
                     NULL);
```

- Use of example:

```
struct task_struct *tsk;

tsk = kmem_cache_alloc(task_struct_cachep, GFP_KERNEL);
if (!tsk)
    return NULL;

kmem_free(task_struct_cachep, tsk);
```

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SLAB Allocator Details (Con't)

- Caches can be later destroyed with:

```
int kmem_cache_destroy(struct kmem_cache *cachep);
```

 - Assuming that all objects freed
 - No one ever tries to use cache again
- All caches kept in global list
 - Including global caches set up with objects of powers of 2 from 2^5 to 2^{17}
 - General kernel allocation (kmalloc/kfree) uses least-fit for requested cache size
- Reclamation of memory
 - Caches keep sorted list of empty, partial, and full slabs
 - » Easy to manage - slab metadata contains reference count
 - » Objects within slabs linked together
 - Ask individual caches for full slabs for reclamation

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Recall: Kmalloc/Kfree: The "easy interface" to memory

- Simplest kernel interface to manage memory:

```
kmalloc()/kfree()
```

 - Allocate chunk of memory in kernel's address space (will be physically contiguous and virtually contiguous):

```
void * kmalloc(size_t size, gfp_t flags);
```
 - Example usage:

```
struct dog *p;  
p = kmalloc(sizeof(struct dog), GFP_KERNEL);  
if (!p)  
    /* Handle error! */
```
 - Free memory:

```
void kfree(const void *ptr);
```
 - Important restrictions!
 - » Must call with memory previously allocated through `kmalloc()` interface!!!
 - » Must not free memory twice!

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Alternatives for allocation

- According to Robert Love, "SLAB" has become a name for any allocator with a similar API
 - Kinda like "Kleenex" has become a generic noun
- A number of options in the kernel for object allocation:
 - SLAB: original allocator based on Bonwick's paper from SunOS
 - SLUB: Newer allocator with same interface but better use of metadata (Default since Linux 2.6.23)
 - » Keeps SLAB metadata in the page data structure (for pages that happen to be in kernel caches)
 - » Debugging options compiled in by default, just need to be enabled
 - SLOB: low-memory footprint allocator for embedded systems

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Summary (1/2)

- Memory is a resource that must be shared
 - Controlled Overlap: only shared when appropriate
 - Translation: Change Virtual Addresses into Physical Addresses
 - Protection: Prevent unauthorized Sharing of resources
- Segment Mapping
 - Segment registers within processor
 - Segment ID associated with each access
 - » Often comes from portion of virtual address
 - » Can come from bits in instruction instead (x86)
 - Each segment contains base and limit information
 - » Offset (rest of address) adjusted by adding base
- Page Tables
 - Memory divided into fixed-sized chunks of memory
 - Virtual page number from virtual address mapped through page table to physical page number
 - Offset of virtual address same as physical address
 - Large page tables can be placed into virtual memory
- Multi-Level Tables
 - Virtual address mapped to series of tables
 - Permit sparse population of address space
- Inverted page table
 - Size of page table related to physical memory size

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Summary (2/2)

- **PTE: Page Table Entries**
 - Includes physical page number
 - Control info (valid bit, writeable, dirty, user, etc)
- **A cache of translations called a "Translation Lookaside Buffer" (TLB)**
 - Relatively small number of entries (< 512)
 - Fully Associative (Since conflict misses expensive)
 - TLB entries contain PTE and optional process ID
- **On TLB miss, page table must be traversed**
 - If located PTE is invalid, cause Page Fault
- **On context switch/change in page table**
 - TLB entries must be invalidated somehow
- **TLB is logically in front of cache**
 - Thus, needs to be overlapped with cache access to be really fast