ELF1 7D Virtual Memory

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2021-01-22 Fri

Outline

- Based on
- 2 Virtual memory
 - Background
 - Virtual memory
 - Kernal virtual / logical addresses
 - Kernel logical address
 - Kernel virtual address
 - User virtual address
 - Memory management unit
 - User space

Based on

"Study of ELF loading and relocs", 1999 http://netwinder.osuosl.org/users/p/patb/public_html/elf_ relocs.html

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Compling 32-bit program on 64-bit gcc

- gcc -v
- gcc -m32 t.c
- sudo apt-get install gcc-multilib
- sudo apt-get install g++-multilib
- gcc-multilib
- g++-multilib
- gcc -m32
- objdump -m i386

Logical addresses

logical address

- generated by <u>CPU</u> while a program is running
- since it does <u>not</u> <u>exist</u> physically, it is also known as <u>virtual</u> address
- used as a <u>reference</u> to access the <u>physical memory location by <u>CPU</u>
 </u>

logical address space

 the set of <u>all</u> logical addresses generated by a program's perspective.

https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/logical-and-physical-address-in-operating-system/

Physical addresses

- physical address
 - identifies a physical location in a memory
 - the user <u>never</u> directly uses the <u>physical address</u>
 but can access by the corresponding <u>logical address</u>.
- physical address space
 - <u>all</u> physical addresses corresponding to the logical addresses in a Logical address space

https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/logical-and-physical-address-in-operating-system/

Virtual addresses

virtual addresses

- the address you use in your programs,
- the address that your CPU use to fetch data, is not real and gets translated via MMU to its corresponding physical address

virtual address space

- Linux running 32-bit has 4GB address space
- each process has its own virtual address space

Memory managemet unit

- MMU (memory-management unit) hardware
 - <u>maps</u> logical address to its corresponding physical address
- OS along with MMU
 - the user program generates the logical address and
 - thinks that the program is running in this logical address
 - but to access <u>physical memory</u> for its execution, this <u>logical address</u> must be <u>mapped</u> to the <u>physical address</u> by <u>MMU</u>

https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/logical-and-physical-address-in-operating-system/

Logical vs virtual addresses (1)

- Whenever your program executes, CPU generates logical address for instructions which contains
- (16-bit segment selector, 32-bit offset)
- basically virtual (linear) address is generated using logical address fields

 $\verb|https://stackoverflow.com/questions/15851225/difference-between-physical-logical-l$

Logical vs virtual addresses (2)

- segment selector (identifier) refers to
 - code segment
 - data segment
 - stack segment etc.
- segment selector is 16-bit field
 - the first 13-bit is index
 a pointer to the segment descriptor resides in GDT
 - 1 bit TI field
 - TI = 1 Refer LDT (Local Descriptor Table)
 - TI = 0 Refer GDT (Global Descriptor Table)

Logical vs virtual addresses (3)

- Linux contains one GDT/LDT (Global/Local Descriptor Table)
 - contains 8 byte descriptor of each segments and
 - holds the base (virtual) address of the segment.
- So for for each logical address, virtual address is calculated using the following steps.

 $\verb|https://stackoverflow.com/questions/15851225/difference-between-physical-logical-l$

Logical vs virtual addresses (4)

- examines the TI field of the segment selector
 to determine which descriptor table stores the segment descriptor
 TI field indicates that
 - the descriptor is in the GDT
 the segmentation unit gets the base linear address of the GDT from the gdtr register
 - the descriptor is in the active LDT the segmentation unit gets the base linear address of that LDT from the ldtr register

Logical vs virtual addresses (5)

- 2 Computes the address of the segment descriptor from the index field of the segment selector* the index field is multiplied by 8 (the segment descriptor size), and the result is added to the content of the gdtr or ldtr register.
- adds the offset of the logical address to the base field of the segment descriptor thus obtaining the linear (virtual) address.

Now it is the job of paging unit to translate physical address from virtual address.

Logical vs virtual addresses (5)

Normally every address issued (for x86 architecture) is a logical address which is translated to a linear address via the segment tables. After the translation into linear address, it is then translated to physical address via page table.

high / low memory (1)

- Low memory
 Memory for which logical addresses exist in kernel space. On almost every system you will likely encounter, all memory is low memory.
- High memory
 Memory for which logical addresses do not exist, because it is beyond the address range set aside for kernel virtual addresses.

https://www.oreilly.com/library/view/linux-device-drivers/0596005903/ch15.html

kmap

-kmap returns a kernel virtual address for any page in the system. For low-memory pages, it just returns the logical address of the page; for high-memory pages, kmap creates a special mapping in a dedicated part of the kernel address space. Mappings created with kmap should always be freed with kunmap; a limited number of such mappings is available, so it is better not to hold on to them for too long. kmap calls maintain a counter, so if two or more functions both call kmap on the same page, the right thing happens. Note also that kmap can sleep if no mappings are available.

https://www.oreilly.com/library/view/linux-device-drivers/0596005903/ch15.html

Virtual address and physical address (1)

- Physical addresses are provided directly by the machine
 - one physical address space per machine
 - addresses typically range from some minumum (sometimes0) to some maximum,
 - though some portions of this range are usually used by the <u>OS</u> and/or <u>devices</u>, but not available for user processes

Virtual address and physical address (2)

- Virtual addresses (or logical addresses) are addresses provided by the OS
 - one virtual address space per process
 - addresses typically start at zero, but not necessarily
 - space may consist of several segments

Virtual address and physical address (3)

 address translation (or address binding) means mapping virtual addresses to physical addresses

Virtual address and physical address (4)

- size of each section except stack is specified in ELF file
- sections which are initialized from the ELF file
 - code (i.e., .text)
 - read-only data
 - initialized data segments
- other remaining sections are initially zero-filled
- sections have their own specified alignment
- segments are page aligned
- 3 segments = (.text + .rodata), (.data + .sbss + .bss), (stack)
- not all programs contain this many segments and sections

Single address space (1)

- simple systems
- sharing the same memory space
 - memory and peripherals
 - all processes and OS
- no memory proctection

Single address space (2)

- CPUs with single address space
 - 8086 80286
 - ARM Cortex-M
 - 8 / 16-bit PIC
 - AVR
 - most 8- and 16-bit systems

Single address space (3)

- portable c programs expect flat memory
 - multiple memory access methods limit portability
- management is tricky
 - need to know / detect total RAM
 - need to keep processes separated
- no protection

Virtual memory (1)

- a system that uses an address mapping
- maps virtual address space to physical address space
 - to physical RAM
 - to hardware devices
 - PCI devices
 - GPU RAM
 - On-SOC IP blocks

Virtual memory (2)

Advantages

- each process can have a different memory mapping one process' RAM is invisible to other processes built in memory protection kernel RAM is invisiable to user space processes
- memory can be moved
- memory can be swapped to disk

Virtual memory (3)

Advantages (continued)

- hardware device memory can be mapped into process' address space requires the kernel to perform the mapping
- physical RAM can be mapped into multiple processes at once shared memory
- memory regions can have access permissions read / write / execute

Virtual memory (4)

- Physical addresses addresses used by the hardware (DMA, peripherals)
- Virtual addresses addresses used by software
 - RISC: load/store instructions
 - CISC: any instruction accessing memory

Virtual memory (5)

- mapping is performed in hardware
- no performance penalty for accessing already mapped RAM regions
- permissions are handled without penalty
- the same instructions are used to access RAM and mapped hardware
- software will only use virtual addresses in its normal operation

MMU (Memory Management Unit) (1)

- MMU is the hardware responsible for implementing virtual memory
- sits between the CPU core and memory
- usually the part of the physical CPU on ARM, it's part of the licensed core
- separate from the RAM controller
 DDR controller is a separate IP block

MMU (Memory Management Unit) (2)

- transparently handels <u>all memory accesses</u> from load / store instructions
- maps <u>memory acceses</u> using <u>virtual addresses</u> to <u>system RAM</u> and <u>peripheral hardware</u>
- handles permissions
- generates an exception (page fault)
 on an invalid access

TLB (Translation Lookaside Buffer)

- TLB is consulted by the MMU when CPU accesses a virtual address
- if the virtual address is in the TLB, the MMU can look up the physical address
- if the virtual address is <u>not</u> in the TLB, the MMU will generate a page fault exception and interrupt the CPU
- if the virtual address is in the TLB, but the permissions are insufficient, the MMU will generate a page fault

Page faults

- a page fault is a CPU exception generated when software attempts to use an invalide virtual address
 - the virtual address is not mapped for the process requesting it
 - the processes has insufficient permissions for the address
 - the virtual address is valide, but swapped out

Kernel virtual address (1)

- in linux, the kernel uses virtual addresses
 <u>as</u> user space processes do
 this is not true of all OS's
- virtual address space is split
 - 1 the upper part is used for the kernel
 - 2 the lower part is used for user space
 - 32-bit linux have the split address 0xc0000000

Kernel virtual address (2)

- By default, the kernel uses the top 1GB of virtual address space
- each user space process gets the <u>lower 3GB</u> of <u>virtual address</u> space

Virtual addresses - linux (1)

- kernel address space is the area above CONFIG_PAGE_OFFSET
- for 32-bit, this is configurable at kernel build time
 - the kernel can be given a different amount of address space as desired
- for <u>64-bit</u>, the split varies <u>by architecture</u> but it is high enough

Virtual addresses - linux (2)

- three kinds of virtual addresses in Linux
- Kernel
 - Kernel Logical Address
 - Kernel Virtual Address
- User Space
 - User Virtual Address

Kernel virtual / logical addresses (1)

- the kernel maps most of the kernel virtual address space to perform 1:1 mapping with an offset of the top part of physical memory (3GB - 4GB)
 - slightly less then for 1Gb for 32bit x86
 - can be different for other processors or configurations
- for kernel code on x86 address 0xc00000001 is mapped to physical address 0x1.
- This is called logical mapping
 - a 1:1 mapping (with an offset) that allows the kernel to access most of the physical memory of the machine.

Kernel virtual / logical addresses (2)

- in the following cases, the kernel keeps a region at the top of its virtual address space where it maps a "random" page
 - when we have more then 1Gb physical memory on a 32bit machine,
 - when we want to reference non-contiguous physical memory blocks as contiguous
 - when we want to map <u>memory mapped IO</u> regions
- this mapping does <u>not</u> follow the 1:1 pattern of the <u>logical mapping area</u>.
- This is called the virtual mapping.

Kernel virtual / logical addresses (3)

- on many platforms (x86 is an example), both the logical and virtual mapping are done using the same hardware mechanism (TLB controlling virtual memory).
- In many cases, the <u>logical mapping</u> is actually done using <u>virtual memory facility</u> of the processor, (this can be a little confusing)
- The difference is in which mapping scheme is used:
 - 1:1 for logical
 - random for virtual (paging)

Kernel virtual / logical addresses (4)

- 3 kinds of addressing
- Logical Addressing: Address is formed by <u>base</u> and <u>offset</u> This is nothing but <u>segmented addressing</u>, where the address (or offset) in the program is always used with the base value in the segment descriptor
- Linear Addressing: also called virtual address Here virtual adresses are contigous, but the physical address are not contiguous Paging is used to implement this.
- Physical Addressing: the <u>actual address</u> on the Main Memory

Kernel virtual / logical addresses (5)

- in linux, the kernel memory (in address space) is beyond 3 GB, i.e. 0xc000000.
- the addresses used by Kernel are not physical addresses
 - to map the virtual address from 3GB to 4GB it uses PAGE_OFFSET.
 - no page translation is involved.
 - contiguous address
 - except 896 MB on x86.
 - beyond the address space from 3GB to 4GB, paging is used for translation.
 - vmalloc returns these addresses

Kernel virtual / logical addresses (6)

- when virtual memory is referred in context of user space, then it is through paging
- if kernel memory is mentioned then it is the address mapped
 - by PAGE_OFFSET (kernel logical address)
 - by vmalloc (kernel vitual address)

Kernel virtual / logical addresses (7)

- this is where the 3G/1G split is defined.
- every address <u>above</u> <u>PAGE_OFFSET</u> is the kernel virtual address
- any address <u>below PAGE_OFFSET</u> is a user space address

https://linux-mm.org/VirtualMemory

Kernel virtual / logical addresses (8)

- to get kernel memory in byte-sized chunks.
 - kmalloc()
 virtually contiguous
 physically contiguous
 - vmalloc()
 virtually contiguous
 not necessarily physically contiguous

 $\verb|https://stackoverflow.com/questions/116343/what-is-the-difference-between-vmallocal content of the content$

Kernel virtual / logical addresses (9)

- On a 32-bit system, kmalloc()
 - returns the kernel logical address (it is a virtual address)
 - the direct mapping (constant offset)
 - a contiguous physical chunk of RAM.
 - suitable for DMA where we give only
- vmalloc()
 - returns the kernel virtual address
 - paging (not direct mapping)
 - not necessarily a contiguous chunk of RAM
 - Useful for <u>large</u> memory allocation and in cases where <u>non-contiguous</u> physicl memory is allowed

 $\verb|https://stackoverflow.com/questions/116343/what-is-the-difference-between-vmallocal content of the content$

Kernel virtual / logical addresses (10)

- kernel logical addresses use normal CPU memory access functions.
- On 32-bit systems, only 4GB of kernel logical address space exists, even if more physical memory than that is in use.
- logical address space supported by physical memory can be allocated with kmalloc()

Kernel virtual / logical addresses (11)

- kernel virtual addresses do <u>not</u> necessarily have corresponding <u>logical</u> addresses.
- You can allocate physical memory with vmalloc and get back a virtual address that has no corresponding logical address (on 32-bit systems with PAE, for example).
- use kmap() to assign a logical address to that virtual address.

 $\verb|https://stackoverflow.com/questions/8708463/difference-between-kernel-virtual-additional content of the con$

Kernel logical addresses (1)

- normal address space of the kernel kmalloc()
- virtual addresses are a <u>fixed offset</u>
 from their physical addresses
 virtual 0xc0000000 → physical 0x00000000
- easy conversion between physical and virtual addresses

Kernel logical addresses (2)

 kernel logical addresses can be converted to and from physical addresses using these macros

 for <u>small</u> memory systems (less than 1G of RAM) kernel logical address space <u>starts</u> at PAGE_OFFSET and goes through the end of physical memory

Kernel logical addresses (3)

- kernel logical address space includes
 - memory allocated with kmalloc() and most other allocation methods
 - kernel stacks per process
- kernel logical memory can <u>never</u> be swapped out

Kernel logical addresses (4)

- kernel logical addresses use a <u>fixed mapping</u> between physical and virtual address space
- this means <u>virtually contiguous</u> regions are by nature also physically contiguous
- this combined with inability to be swapped out, makes them suitable for DMA transfers

Kernel logical addresses (5)

- for 32-bit <u>large</u> memory systems (> 1GB RAM)
 <u>not all</u> of the physical RAM can be mapped into the kernel's address space
- kernel address space is the top 1GB of virtual address space, by default
- upto 104 MB is reserved at the top of the kernel memory space for non-contiguous allocation vmalloc()

Kernel logical addresses (6)

- in a <u>large</u> memory case, only the <u>bottom</u> part of physical RAM is mapped <u>directly</u> into kernel logical address space
- only the bottom part of physical RAM has a kernel logical address
- this case is never applied to 64-bit systems
 - there is always enough kernel address space to accommodate all the RAM

Low and High Memory

- low memory
 - physical memory which has a kernel logical address
 - physically contiguous
- high memory
 - physical memory beyond -~896MB
 - has no logical address
 - not physically contiguous when used in the kernel
 - only on 32-bit

Kernel virtual addresses (1)

- kernel virtual addresses are above the kernel logical address mapping
- kernel virtual addresses vmalloc()
- kernel logical addresses kmalloc()

Kernel virtual addresses (2)

- kernel virtual addresses are used for
 - non-contiguous memory mappings
 - often for <u>large buffers</u> which could potentially be too large to find contiguous memory
 - vmalloc()
 - memory-mapped I/O
 - map peripheral devices into kernel
 - PCI, SoC IP blocks
 - o ioremap(), kmap()

Kernel virtual addresses (3)

- the important difference is that memory in the kernel virtual address area (vmalloc() area) is non-contiguous physically
- this makes it easier to allocate, especially for large buffers on small memory systems
- this makes it unsuitable for DMA

Kernel virtual addresses (4)

- in a <u>large</u> memory situation, the <u>kernel virtual address</u> area is smaller, because there is more physical memory
- an interesting case, where more memory means less space for kernel virtual addresses
- in 64-bit, of course, this doesn't happen, as PAGE_OFFSET is large, and there is much more virtual address space

User virtual addresses (1)

- represent memory used by user space programs
 - the most of the memory on most systems
 - where the most of the compilation is
- all addresses below PAGE_OFFSET
- each process has its own mapping
 - threads share a mapping
 - complex behavior with clone(2)

User virtual addresses (2)

- kernel logical addresses use a <u>fixed mapping</u> user space processes make full use of the <u>MMU</u>
 - only the <u>used portions</u> of RAM are mapped
 - memory is not contiguous
 - memory may be swapped out
 - memory can be moved

User virtual addresses (3)

- since user virtual addresses are <u>not</u> guaranteed to be swapped in, or even allocated at all,
- user buffers are not suitable for use by the kernel (or for DMA), by default
- each process has its <u>own</u> memory map struct <u>mm</u> pointers in task_struct
- at context switch time, the memory map is changed this is part of the <u>overhead</u>

Memory management unit (1)

- the MMU manages virtual address mappings
 - maps virtual addresses to physical addresses
- the MMU operates on basic units of memory : pages
 - page size varies by architecture
 - some architectures have configurable page sizes

Memory management unit (2)

- common page sizes
 - ARM 4k
 - ARM64 4k or 64k
 - MIPS widely configurable
 - x86 4k

Memory management unit (3)

- a page is
 - a unit of memory size
 - aligned at the page size
 - abstract
- a page frame refers to
 - a physical memory block which is page sized and page aligned
 - physical
- the pfn (page frame number) is often used to refer to <u>physical</u> page frames in the kernel

Memory management unit (4)

- the MMU operates on pages
- the MMU maps physical frames to virtual addresses
- a memory map for a process contains many mappings
- a mapping often covers multiple pages
- the TLB holds each mapping
 - virtual address
 - physical address
 - permissions

Page faults

- when a process acceses a region of memorythat is <u>not</u> <u>mapped</u>, the <u>MMU</u> will generate a <u>page fault</u> exception
- the kernel <u>handles</u> page fault <u>exceptions</u> regularly as part of its memory management design
- TLB can contain only the part of the required maps for a process
- page faults at context switch time
- lazy allocation

Basic TLB mappings (1)

- user virtual address space
 - mapped pages unmapped space
- physical address space
 - allocated frames
- TLB mapings
 - TLB entries (page, page frame)
 - virtually contiguous regions not physically contiguous

Basic TLB mappings (2)

- mappings to virtually <u>contiguous</u> regions do <u>not</u> have to be physically <u>contiguous</u>
- easy memory allocation
- almost all user space code does not need physically contiguous memory

Multiple processes

- each process has its own set of mappings
- the <u>same</u> <u>virtual</u> addresses in two <u>different</u> <u>processes</u>
 will <u>likely</u> be used to map <u>different</u> <u>physical</u> addresses
 - (page, page frame1) for process 1
 - (page, page frame2) for process 2

Shared memory (1)

- shared memory is easily implemented with an MMU
- simply map the <u>same</u> physical frame into two different <u>processes</u>
- the virtual addresses need not be the same
 - for <u>pointers</u> to values inside a shared memory region the virtual addresses must be the same

Shared memory (2)

- the <u>shared memory region</u> can be mapped to different virtual addresses in each process
- the mmap() system call allows the user space process to request a specific virtual address to map the shared memory region
 - if the kernel cannot grant a mapping at this address, mmap() returns with failure

Lazy allocation (1)

- the kernel does <u>not</u> <u>allocate</u> pages <u>immeidately</u> that are requested by a process
- the kernel will wait until those pages are actually used
- lazy allocation to optimize a performance
 - if the requested pages may not be actually used, then the allocation will never happen

Lazy allocation (2)

- when memory is <u>requested</u> for allocation, the kernel simply creates

 a <u>record</u> of the <u>request</u> in its <u>page tables</u>
 and then <u>returns</u> (quickly) to the process, without updating the TLB
- when that newly-allocated memory is actually <u>accessed</u>, the CPU will generate a page fault, because the CPU doesn't know about the mapping (no entry in the TLB)

Lazy allocation (3)

- in the page fault handler, the kernel uses its page tables to determine that the mapping is valid (from the kernel's point of view) yet unmapped in the TLB
- the kernel will <u>allocate</u> a <u>physical page frame</u> and <u>update</u> the <u>TLB</u> with the new mapping
- the kernel <u>returns</u> from the <u>exception handler</u> and user space <u>program can resume</u>

Lazy allocation (4)

- in a lazy allocation case, the user space program is never aware that the page fault happened
- the page fault can only be detected at the time that was lost to handle it
- for processses that are time-sensitive pages can be pre-faulted, or simply touched, at the start of execution
 - see also mlock() and mlockall()

Page tables (1)

- the entries in the TLB are a limited resource
- <u>far more mappings</u> can be made than can exist in the TLB at one time
- the kernel must <u>keep track</u> of all of the mappings at all times
- the krenel <u>stores</u> all these informations in the <u>page tables</u> stuct_mm and vm_area_struct

Page tables (2)

- since the TLB can only hold a <u>limited subset</u> of the total mappings for a process, some valid mappings will not have TLB entries
- when these addresses are touched the CPU will generate a page fault because the CPU has no knowledge of the mapping only the kernel does

Page tables (3)

- the page fault handler will
 - find the appropriate mapping for the offending addresses in the krenel's page tables
 - select and remove an existing TLB entry
 - create a TLB entry for the page containing the address
 - return to the user space process
 - observe the similarities to lazy allocation handling

Swapping (1)

- when memory utilization is high, the kernel may swap some frames to disk to free up RAM
- the MMU makes this possible
 - the kernel may copy a frame to disk and remove its TLB entry
 - the frame may be reused by another process

Swapping (2)

- when the frame is <u>needed</u> again, the CPU will generate a page fault because the address is not in the TLB
- at a page fault time, the kernel can
 - put the process to sleep
 - copy the frame from the disk into an unused frame in RAM
 - fix the page table entry
 - wake the process

Swapping (3)

- note that when the page is <u>restored</u> to RAM,
 it is not necessarily restored to the <u>same</u> physical frame
 where it originally was located (before being swapped out)
- the MMU will use the <u>same</u> <u>virtual</u> address though,
 so the <u>user space program</u> will not know the difference
 - this is why user space memory cannot typically be used for DMA

User space

- there are several ways to allocate memory from user space
 - ignoring the familiar *alloc() functions, which sit on top of platform methods
- mmap() can be used directly to allocate and map pages
- brk() / sbrk() can be used to increase the heap size

mmap()

- mmap() is the standard way to allocate large amounts of memory from user space
- while mmap() is often used for files, the MAP_ANONYMOUS flag causes mmap() to allocate normal memory for the process
- the MAP_SHARED flag can make the allocated pages sharable with other processes

brk() / sbrk() (1)

- brk() sets the top of the program break
- this is the top of the data segment but inspecton of kernel/sys.c shows it separates from the data segment
- this in effect increases the size of the heap
- sbrk() increases the program break rather than setting it directly

brk() / sbrk() (2)

- lazy allocation
- see mm/mmap.c for do_brk()
- do_brk() is implemented similar to ~mmap()
- modify the page tables for the new area
- wait for the page fault
- optionally, do_brk() can pre-fault the new area and allocate it see mlock(2) to control this behavior

High level implementation

- malloc() and calloc() will use either brk() or mmap() depending on the requested allocation size
 - small allocations use brk()
 - large allocaion use mmap()
 - see mallopt(3) and the M_MMAP_THRESHOD parameter to control this behavio

Stack

- Stack expansion
- if a process accesses memory beyond its stack, the CPU will trigger a page fault
- the page fault handler detects the address is just beyond the stack, and allocates a new page to extend the stack
- the new page will not be physically contiguous with the rest of the stack
- see __do_page_fault() in /arch/arm/mm/fault.c