#### ELF1 7D Virtual Memory

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#### Outline

- Based on
- Virtual memory
  - 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

### 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</u> <u>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.

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

# 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 memory mapped IO 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 base and offset This is nothing but segmented addressing, 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 actual address 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 <u>user space address</u>

https://linux-mm.org/VirtualMemory

# Kernel virtual / logical addresses (8)

- The kmalloc() & vmalloc() functions are a simple interface for obtaining kernel memory in byte-sized chunks.
- kmalloc() guarantees that the pages are <u>physically contiguous</u> (and virtually contiguous)
- vmalloc() allocates memory that is only <u>virtually contiguous</u> and not necessarily physically contiguous

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# Kernel virtual / logical addresses (9)

- On a 32-bit system, kmalloc() returns
  the kernel logical address (its a virtual address though)
  which has the direct mapping (actually with constant offset)
  to physical address.
- This direct mapping ensures that we get a contiguous physical chunk of RAM.
- Suited for DMA where we give only the initial pointer and expect a contiguous physical mapping thereafter for our operation.

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/116343/what-is-the-difference-between-vmalloc

### Kernel virtual / logical addresses (10)

- vmalloc() returns the kernel virtual address
   which in turn might not be a contiguous mapping on physical RAM.
- Useful for large memory allocation and in cases where we don't care about that the memory allocated to our process is continuous also in Physical RAM.

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/116343/what-is-the-difference-between-vmalloc

# Kernel virtual / logical addresses (11)

- Kernel logical addresses are mappings accessible to kernel code through 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 backed by physical memory can be allocated with kmalloc()

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# Kernel virtual / logical addresses (12)

- kernel virtual addresses do not necessarily have corresponding logical 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).
- You can then use kmap() to assign a logical address to that virtual address.

### 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 large memory situation, the kernel virtual address 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 not 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 not have to be physically contiguous
- 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 <u>virtual addresses</u> must be the <u>same</u>

## 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 <u>TLB</u>
- 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 program can resume

### 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 processes 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
- far more mappings 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