

政大資科系

# 作業系統

Operating System

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Operating System

# Main Memory

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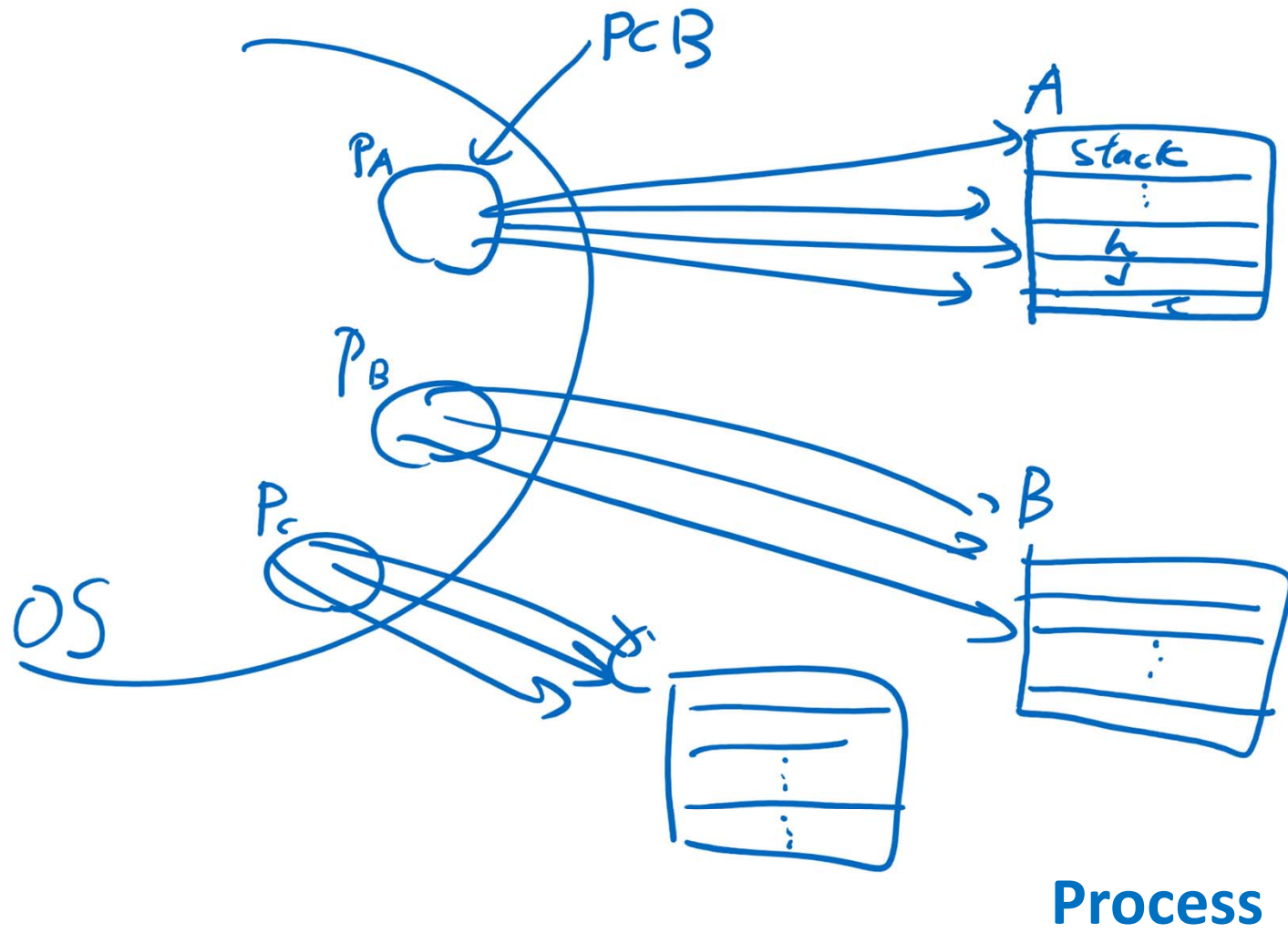
National Chengchi University

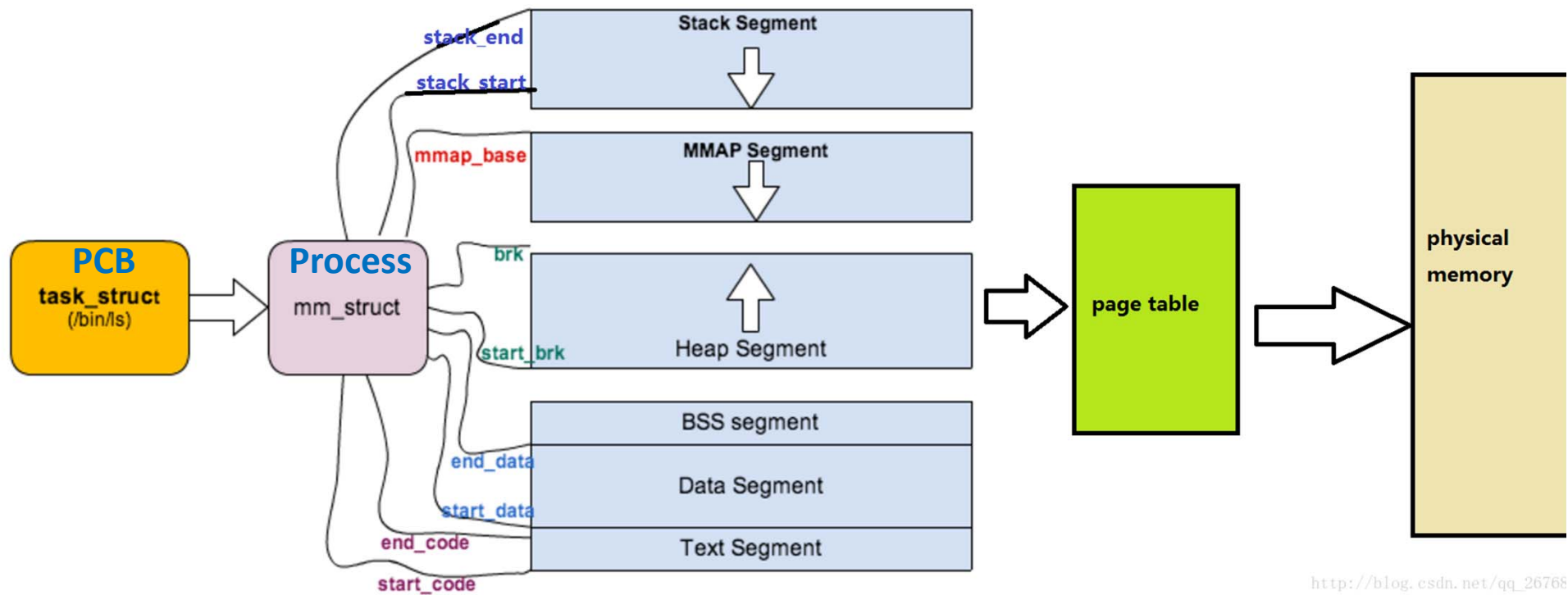
# Outline

- Overview
- Memory Allocation
- Paging
- Page Table
- Swapping

# Overview

- CPU可直接存取的儲存媒體
  - Registers
  - L1/L2 Cache
  - Main memory
- Speeds of memory hierarchy
  - Register access is done in one CPU clock (or less)
  - Main memory can take many cycles, causing a stall
  - Cache sits between main memory and CPU registers



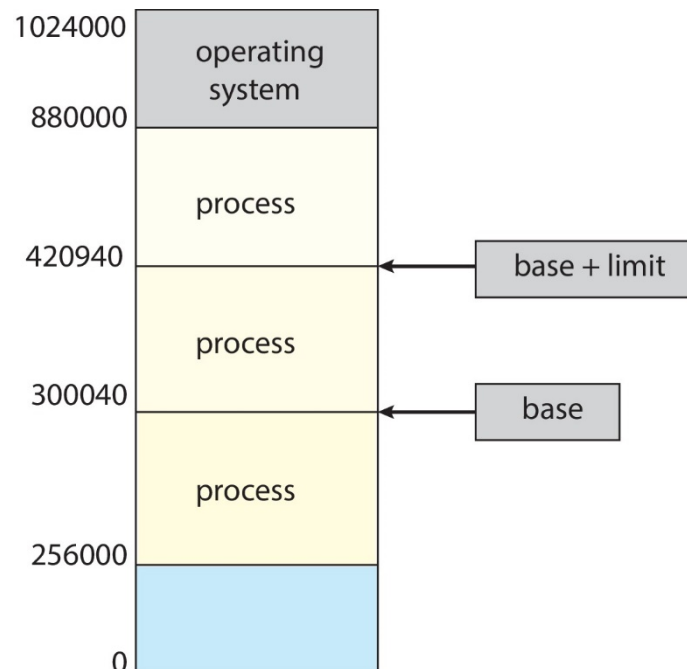


[http://blog.csdn.net/qq\\_26768](http://blog.csdn.net/qq_26768)

[https://github.com/torvalds/linux/blob/master/include/linux/mm\\_types.h#L402](https://github.com/torvalds/linux/blob/master/include/linux/mm_types.h#L402)

# Memory Protection

- Protection is required to ensure correct operation
  - Using **base and limit** registers to define the logical address space of a process



$$300040 \leq \text{addr} < 300040 + 120900$$

$$\text{base} \leq \text{addr} < \text{base} + \text{limit}$$

Base: 限制了實體位址的存取下限

Base+Limit: 限制了實體位址的存取上限

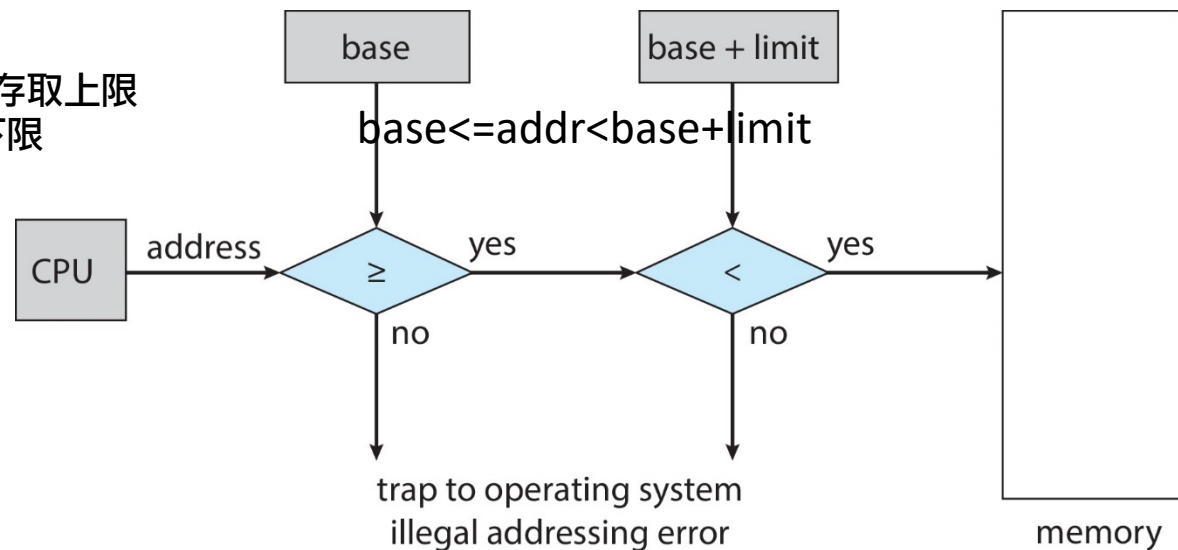
# Memory Protection

- CPU must check every access generated in **user mode** to be sure it is between base and limit for that process
- Loading the base and limit registers are privileged instructions (i.e. can be modified only in kernel mode)

## 邊界檢查

Base+Limit: 限制了實體位址的存取上限

Base: 限制了實體位址的存取下限

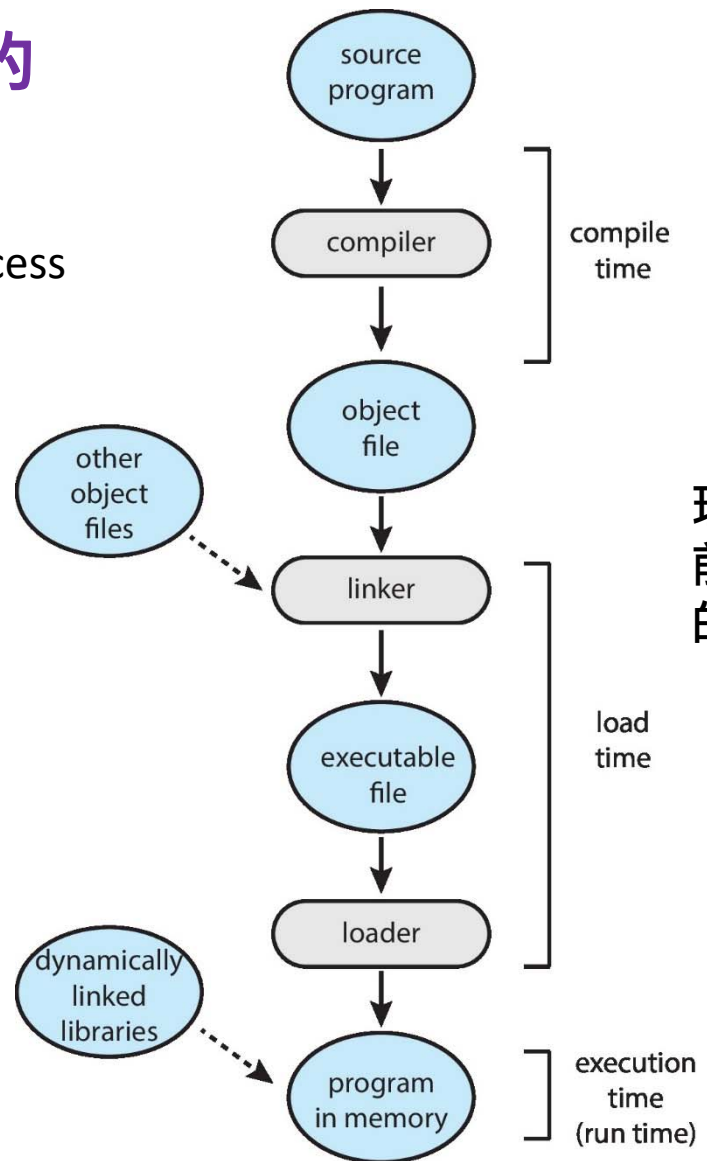


確保process只存取自己的memory space



## 那時候決定Process的Physical Address?

Address binding: 「決定Process的Physical address的時機」

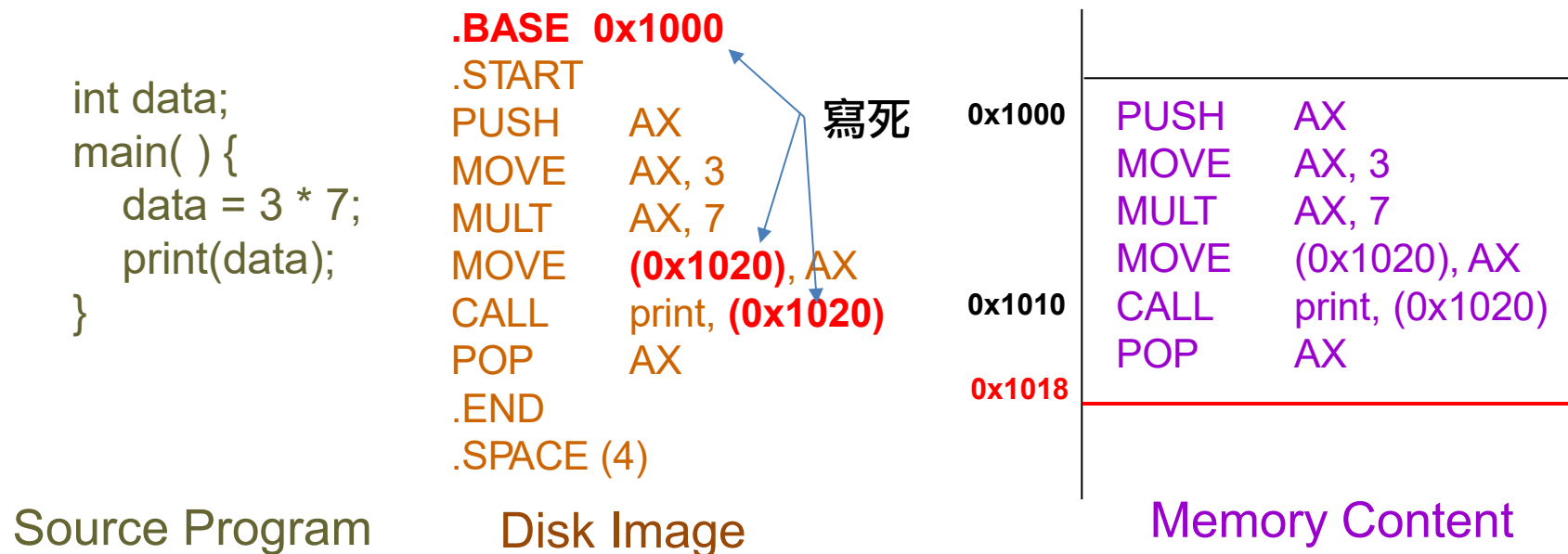


理論上load到記憶體中前，就要決定Process的記憶體位置了

有的Process在執行過程中，還會被OS移來移去

# Compile Time Address Binding

- Compiler generates absolute address
- If (memory) location changes → recompile
- Example: MS-DOS .COM format binary



# Load Time Address Binding

- Compiler generates relocatable address representations
- Relocatable code 所有程式內結構的定址，以相對於.BS的位址來表示
  - Can be run from any memory location
  - If starting location changes → reload the code
    - 理由: .BS值load time產生，一旦load完，.BS值就不能再動

Source Program	Disk Image	Memory Content (After Load)
<pre>int data; main( ) {     data = 3 * 7;     print(data); }</pre>	<pre>.START PUSH    AX MOVE    AX, 3 MULT    AX, 7 MOVE    (.BS+0x20), AX CALL    print, (.BS+0x20) POP     AX .END .SPACE (4)</pre>	<pre>0x2000 .BS PUSH    AX MOVE    AX, 3 MULT    AX, 7 MOVE    (0x2020), AX CALL    print, (0x2020) POP     AX 0x2010 0x2018</pre>

# Execution Time Address Binding

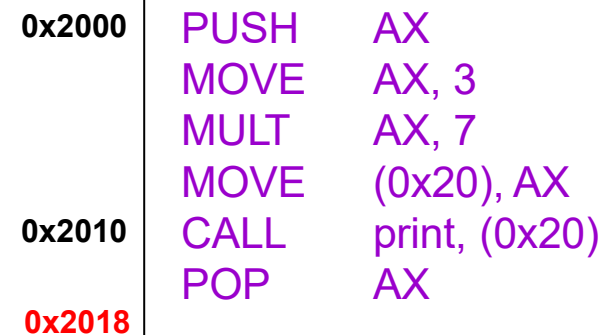
執行時，Process程式不知道自己的實體位址→要靠MMU輔助

- Compiler generates logical address
- Special hardware (MMU) is needed for this scheme
  - MMU transforms logical addr. into physical addr.
  - 執行時，程式可被任意搬動
- Most general-purpose OS use this method

int data;	.START
main( ) {	PUSH AX
data = 3 * 7;	MOVE AX, 3
print(data);	MULT AX, 7
}	MOVE (0x20), AX
	CALL print, (0x20)
	POP AX
	.END
	.SPACE (4)

Source Program

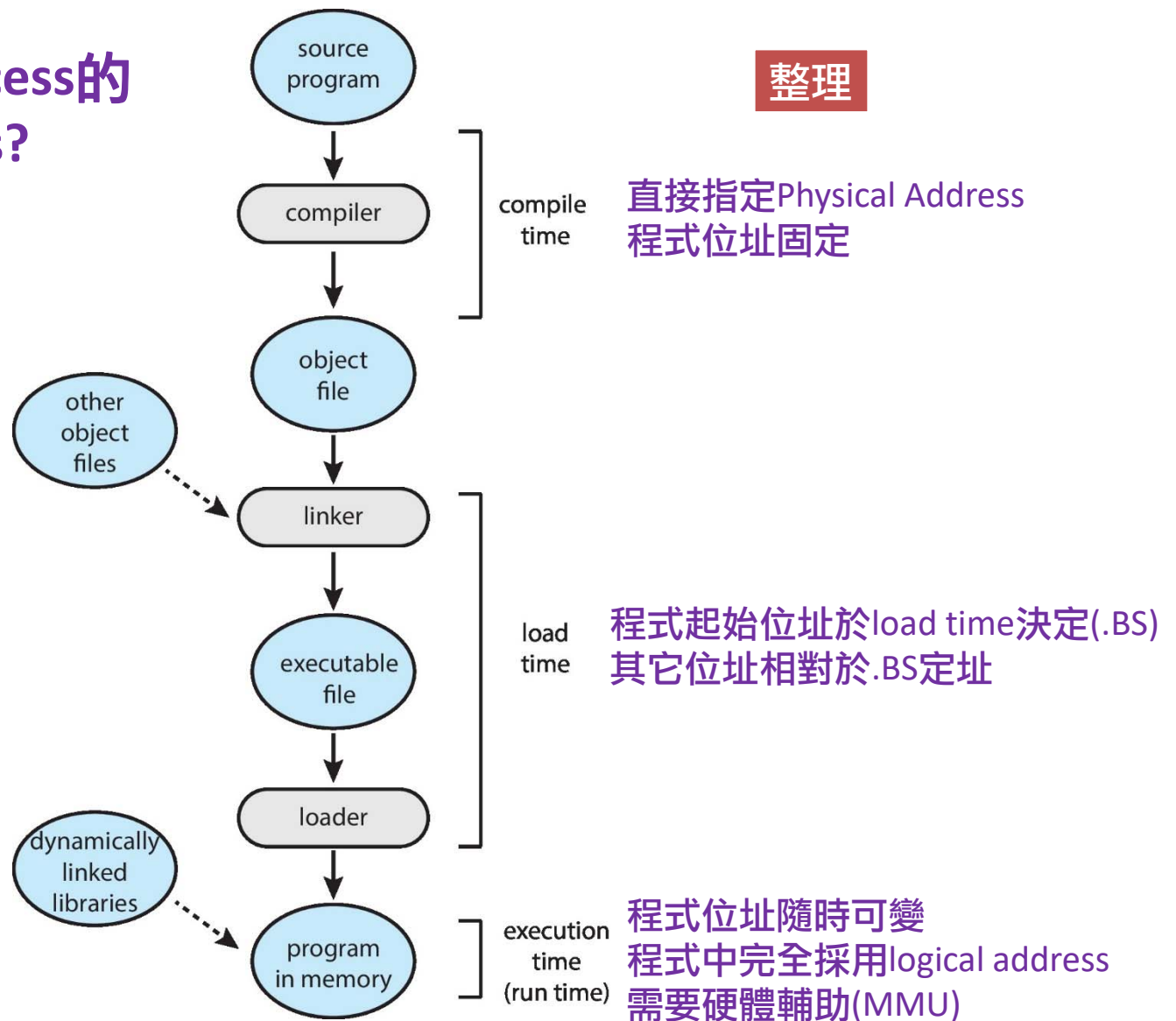
Disk Image



0x2000	PUSH AX
	MOVE AX, 3
	MULT AX, 7
	MOVE (0x20), AX
0x2010	CALL print, (0x20)
	POP AX
0x2018	

Memory Content

## 那時候決定Process的Physical Address?



# Logical vs. Physical Address

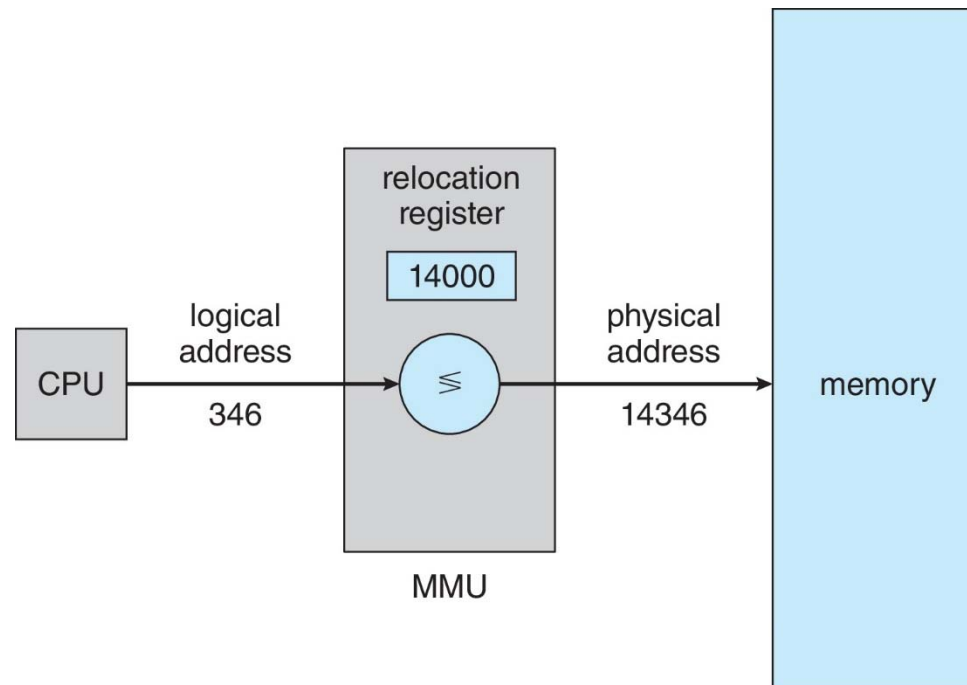
- Compile-time & load-time address binding
  - (Code in memory) logical addr = physical addr
- Execution-time address binding (DLL)
  - logical addr  $\neq$  physical addr; must be assisted by MMU
  - The user program is only aware of logical addresses
    - Never sees the physical addresses

# “執行時期”記憶體空間配置與管理

- Protecting the address space of a process
  - Developer writing programs using logical address
  - Starting from 0
- Address binding (Logical-Physical address mapping)
  - 使用硬體專責管理記憶體配置 (位址映射)
  - 標示每個程式的“0”是從那一個(實體)位址起算
  - MMU: Memory Management Unit
    - Handles logical-physical address mapping

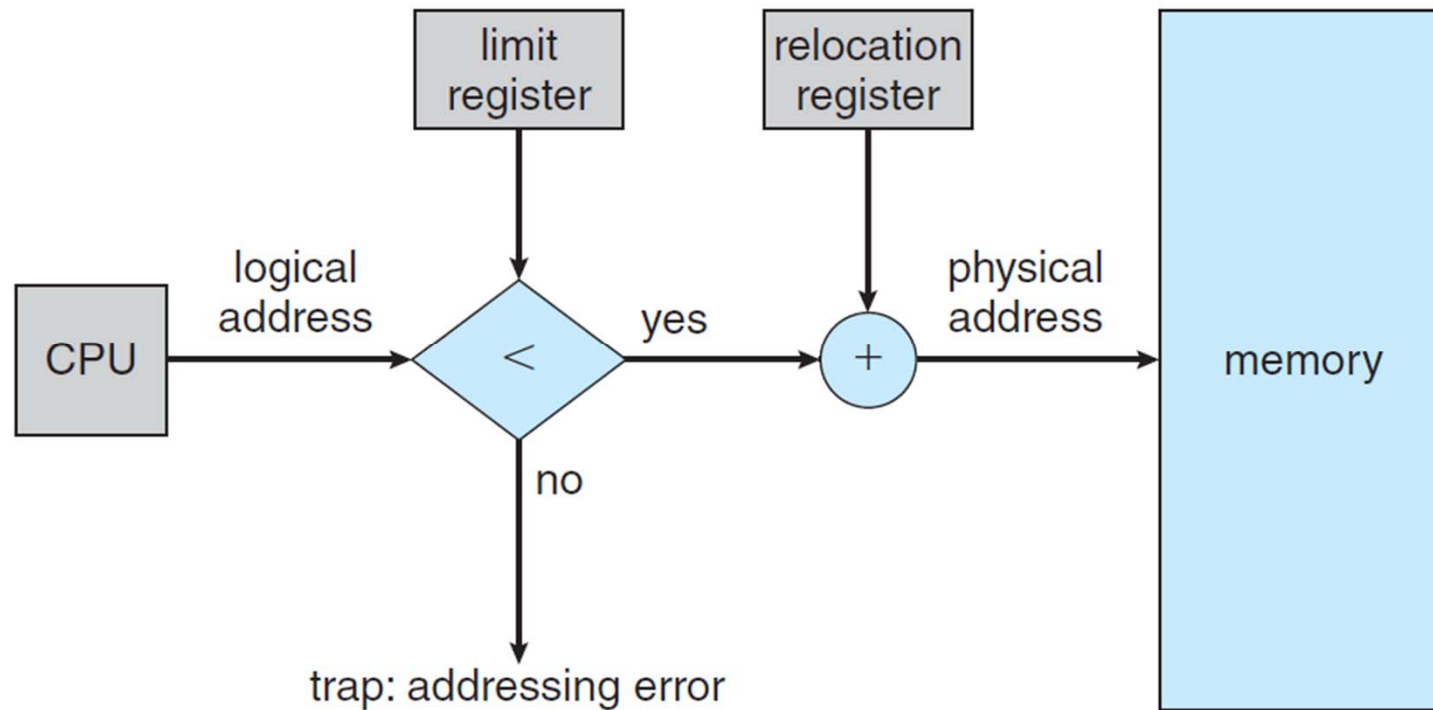
# Memory-Management Unit (MMU)

- Hardware device that maps logical to physical address
- MMU中包含多個relocation registers
  - The value in the relocation register is added to every address generated by a user process at the time it is sent to memory





# 加上Boundary Check



# Dynamic Loading

- Definition
  - A routine is loaded into memory “only” when it is called
- Better memory-space utilization
  - Un-used routine is never loaded
  - Particularly useful when large amounts of code are infrequently used (e.g., error handling code)
- No special support from OS
  - Users must implement themselves
  - OS may provide help via library or API calls
    - `plugin = dlopen(file_name, RTLD_NOW);`

# Dynamic Loading

Disk image

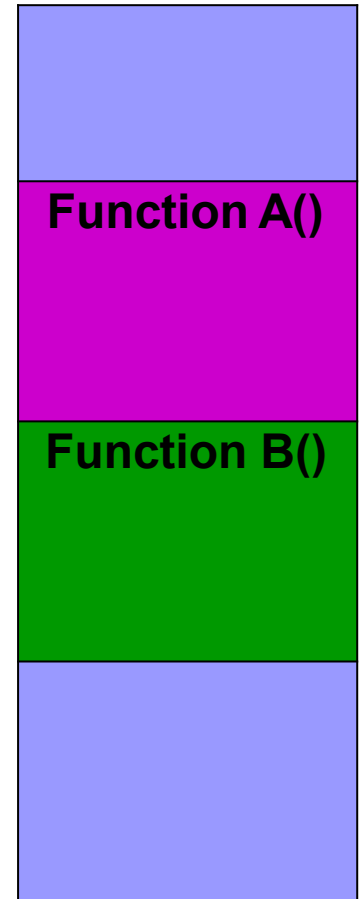
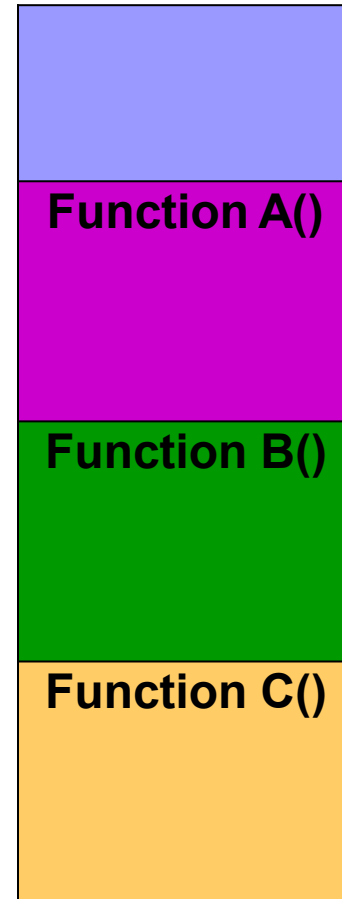
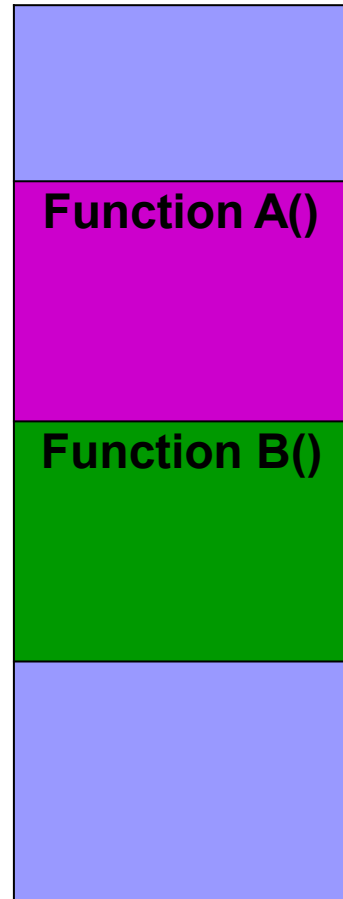
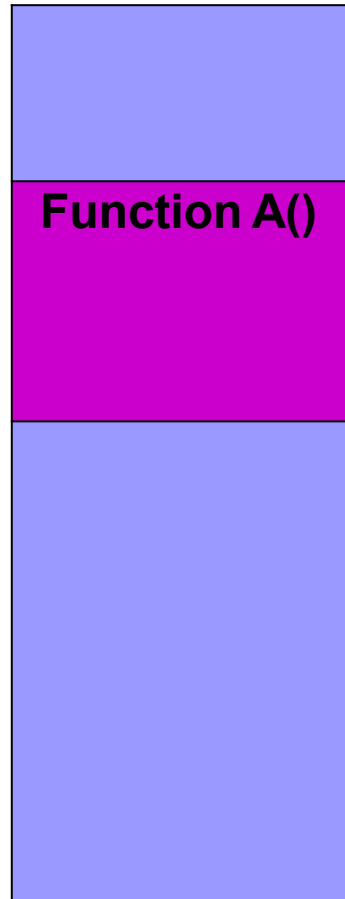
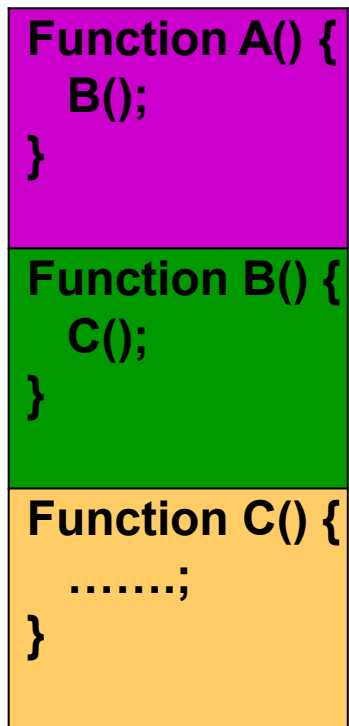
Memory content

Init

After B() called

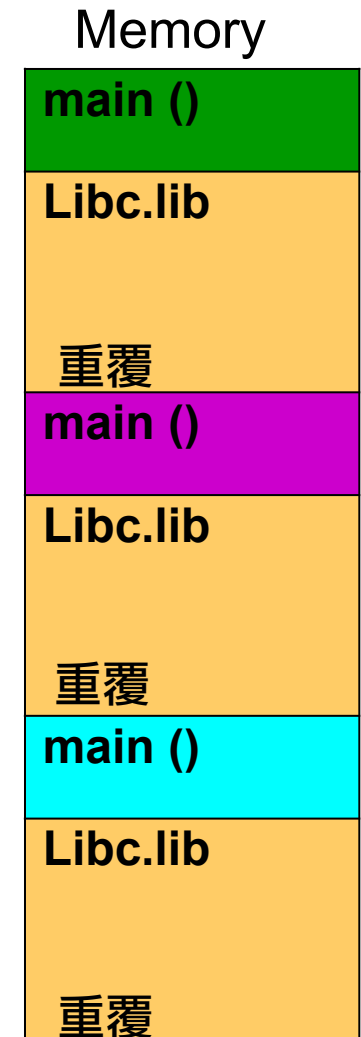
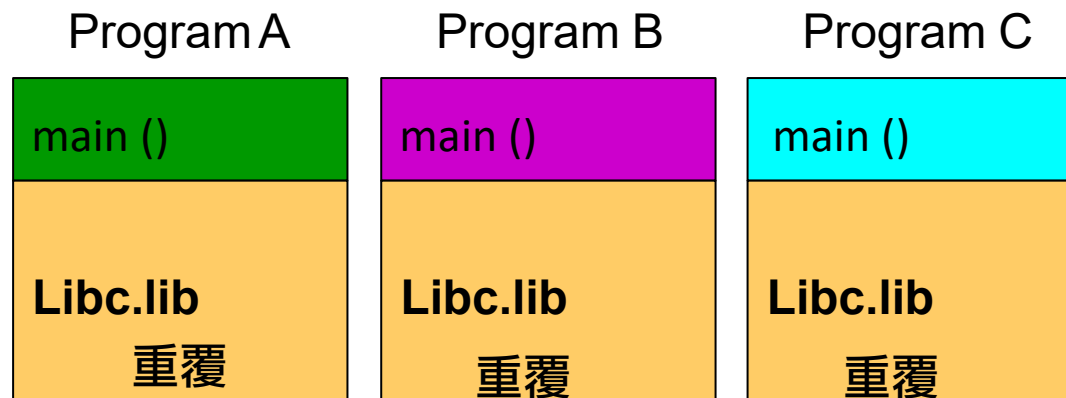
After C() called

After C() ends



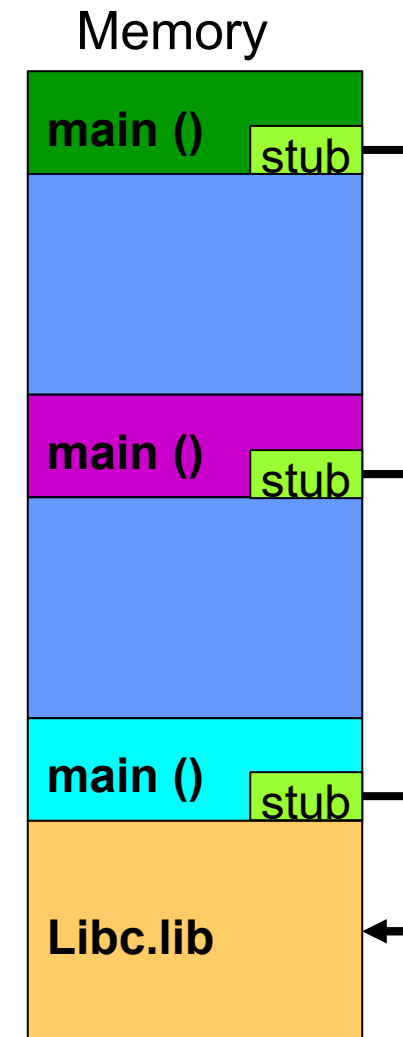
# Static Linking

- Static linking: libraries are combined by the loader into the program (in-memory image)
  - Waste memory: duplicated code
  - Faster during execution time
- Static linking + Dynamic loading
  - Still can't prevent duplicated code
  - Dynamic loading是針對一支程式中的多個function
  - 二個並用，整個系統多支程式還是會有重覆code問題



# Dynamic Linking

- Dynamic linking: Linking postponed until execution time
  - Only one shared code copy in memory
  - A **stub** is included in the program in-memory image for each lib reference
  - Stub call → check if the referred lib is in memory → if not, load the lib → execute the lib
- Ex: DLL (Dynamic link library) on Windows



# Example

```
#include <windows.h>
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
// Import function that adds two numbers
```

```
extern "C" __declspec(dllimport) double AddNumbers(double a, double b);
```

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
```

```
{
```

```
    double result = AddNumbers(1, 2);
```

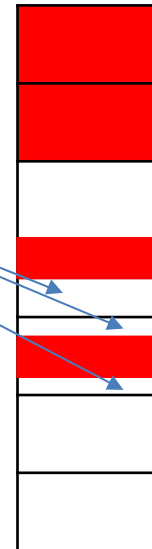
```
    printf("The result was: %f\n", result);
```

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

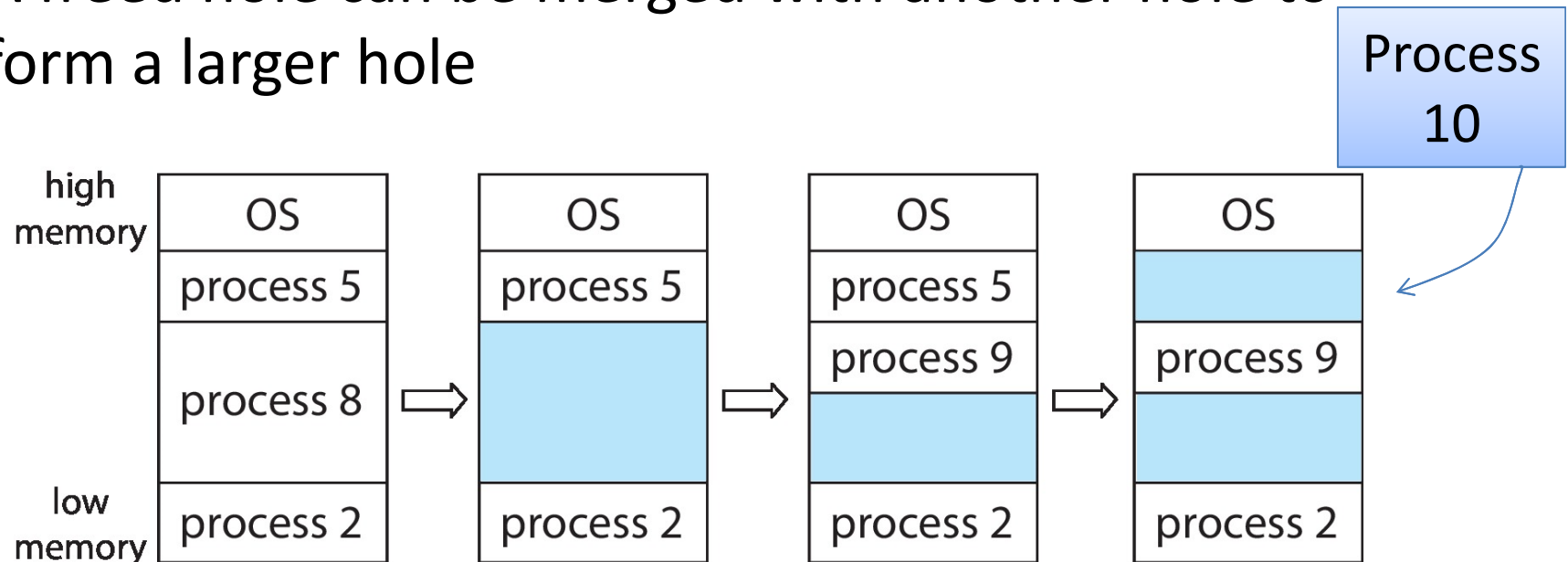
# Memory Allocation

- Fixed-partition allocation (paging):
  - Each process loads into one partition of fixed-size
  - Degree of multi-programming is bounded by the number of partitions
  - May have internal fragmentation
- Variable-size partition
  - May have external fragmentation
  - Hole: block of contiguous free memory
  - Holes of various size are scattered in memory



# Multiple Partition (Variable-Size) Method

- When a process arrives, it is allocated a hole large enough to accommodate it
- The OS maintains info. on each in-use and free hole
- A freed hole can be merged with another hole to form a larger hole





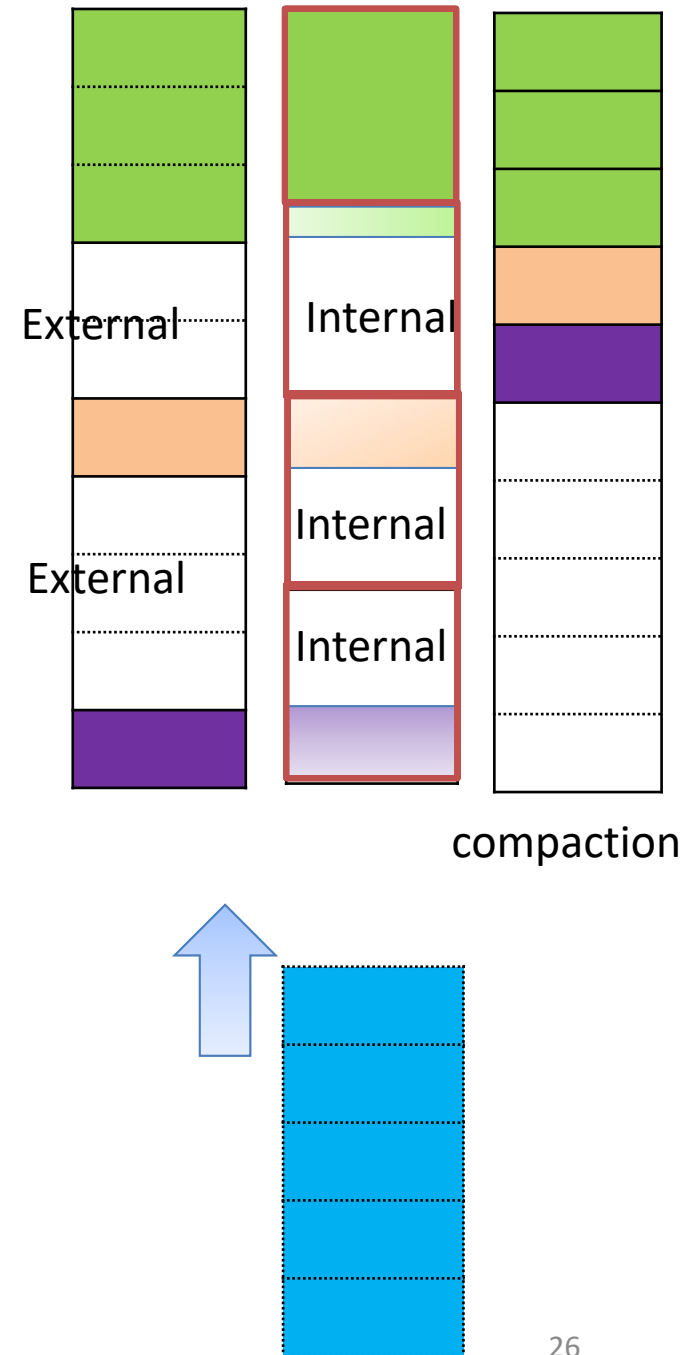
# Problem of Dynamic Storage Allocation

- How to satisfy a request of size  $n$  from a list of free holes
  - First-fit – allocate the 1st hole that fits
  - Best-fit – allocate the smallest hole that fits
    - Must search through the whole list
  - Worst-fit – allocate the largest hole
    - Must also search through the whole list
- First-fit and best-fit better than worst-fit in terms of speed and storage utilization

# Fragmentation

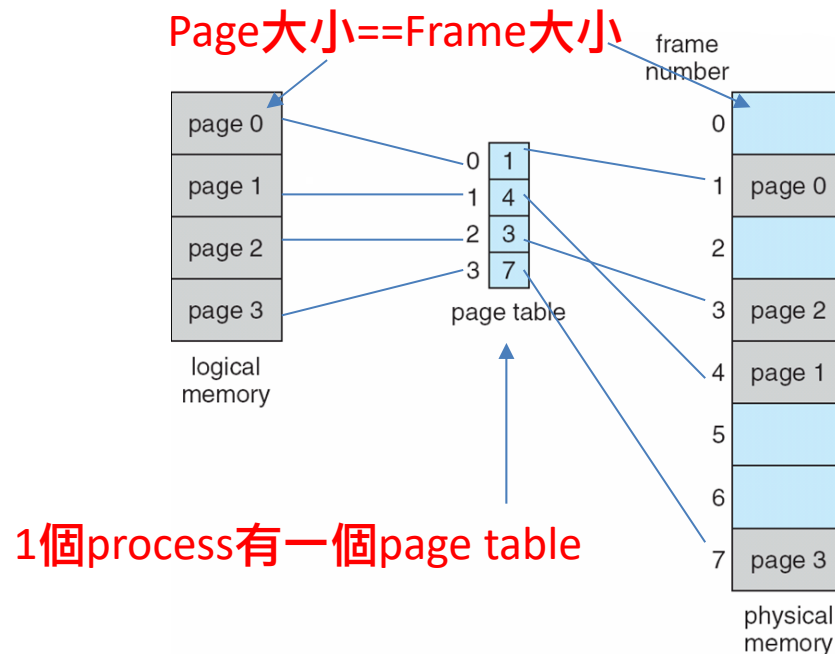
- External fragmentation
  - Total free memory space is big enough to satisfy a request, but is not contiguous
  - Occur in variable-size allocation
- Internal fragmentation
  - Memory that is internal to a partition but is not being used
  - Occur in fixed-partition allocation
- Solution: compaction
  - Move the memory contents to place all free memory together in one large block at execution time
  - Valid only if binding is done at **execution time** (why?)

Load time binding → .BS決定後就不能再改!



# Paging

- Method
  - Divide physical memory into fixed-sized blocks called frames
  - Divide logical address space into blocks of the same size called pages
  - A program of **n** pages, need **n** free frames and load the program
  - A page table (for each process) to translate logical to physical addresses



# Paging

- Benefit:
  - Allow the physical-address space of a process to be **non-contiguous** 整個process分成好幾塊來放
  - Avoid external fragmentation (frame size == page size)
  - Limited internal fragmentation (within size)
- Note
  - Page size == Frame size
  - (Process) Page 數量 未必 == (全系統) Frame 數量
    - Page number > Frame number → virtual memory
    - Frame number > Page number → multi-process

# Example

- How many pages (frames) are needed?
  - Process size = 72766 bytes
  - Page size = 2048 bytes

$$\left\lceil \frac{72766}{2048} \right\rceil = 36$$

60個bytes

000				
010				
			018	
020			023	
030				
040				
		047		
050				

5個bytes一個page

00	0	1	2	3	4
01	0	1	2	3	4
02	0	1	2	3	4
03	0	1	2	3	4
04	0	1	2	3	4
05	0	1	2	3	4
06	0	1	2	3	4
07	0	1	2	3	4
08	0	1	2	3	4
09	0	1	2	3	4
10	0	1	2	3	4
11	0	1	2	3	4

033

Page number

Offset

043

Page number

Offset

092

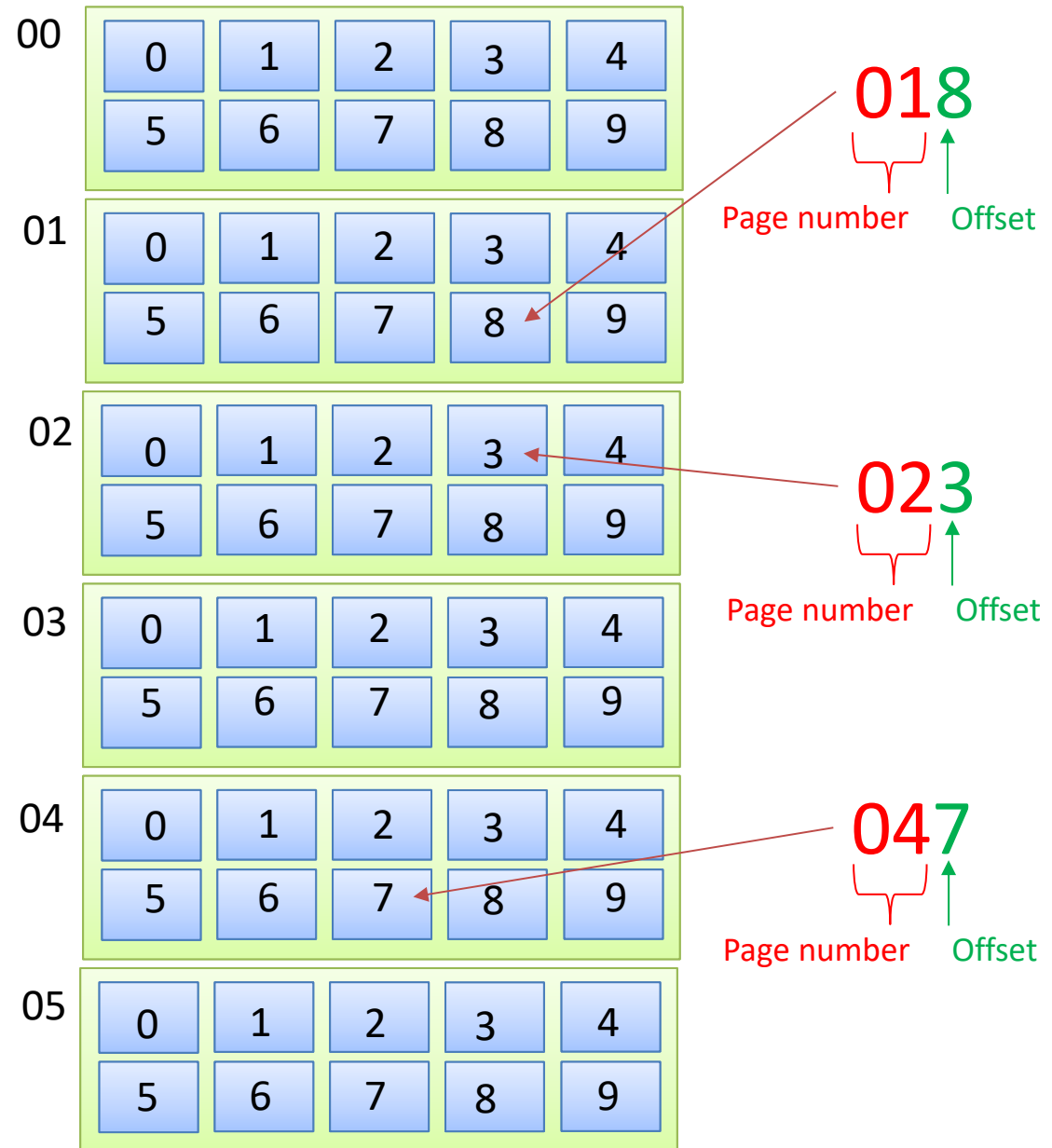
Page number

Offset

60個bytes

000				
010				
			018	
020			023	
030				
040				
		047		
050				

10個bytes一個page



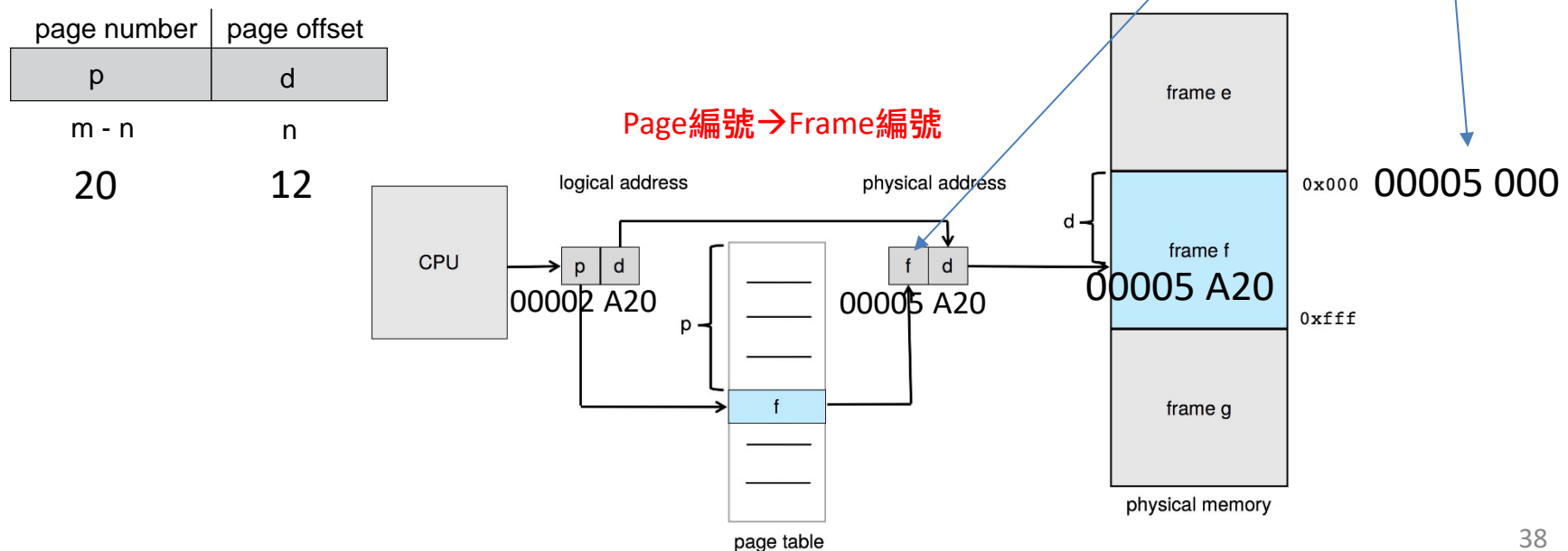
# Address Translation Scheme

- | page number | page offset |
|-------------|-------------|
| p           | d           |
- Address is divided into two parts:
    - Page number (p)
      - Used as an index into a page table
      - $m-n$  bits means a process can allocate at most  $2^{m-n}$  pages (有幾個pages)
    - page number ( $2^{m-n}$ )  $\times$  page size ( $2^n$ ) = logical memory size ( $2^m$ )
    - Page offset (d)
      - combined with (page) base address to define the physical memory address that is sent to the memory unit
      - $n$  bits means the page size is  $2^n$  (1個page的大小; 通常故意設成2的n次方, why?)



# Page Table

- Entry
  - Key: page number; Value: frame number
    - Frame number is the base address of a page in physical memory d補0
- A structure maintained by OS for each process
  - Page table includes only pages owned by the process
  - A process cannot access memory outside its space



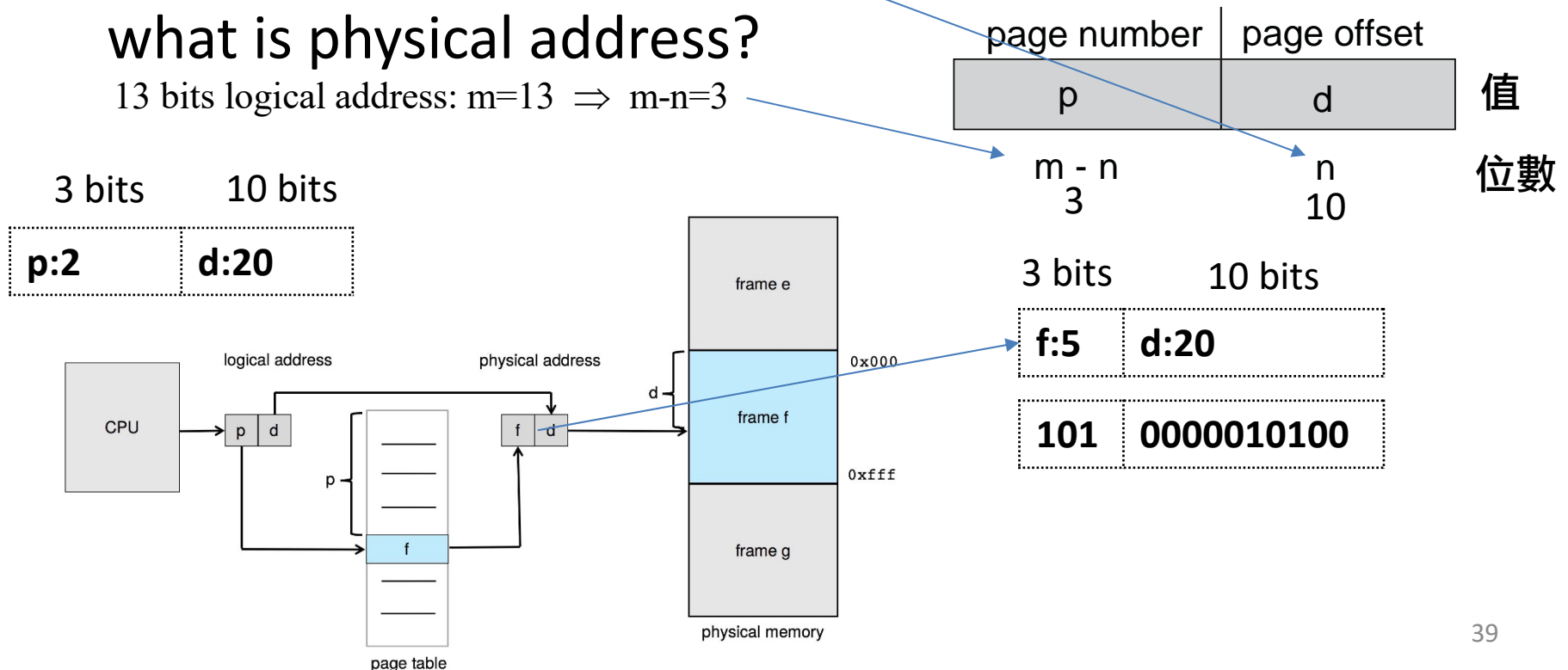
# Address Translation Scheme

- 假定: Page size:1KB( $2^{10}$ ) & Page 2 對到 frame 5

page size  $2^{10} \Rightarrow n = 10$

- Given 13 bits logical and physical address and  $d=20$ , what is physical address?

13 bits logical address:  $m=13 \Rightarrow m-n=3$



# Example

logical: 1 page 4 bytes  $\Rightarrow n = 2$ ;

Page共4個  $\Rightarrow$  只需2bits  $\Rightarrow m-n=2$

$\Rightarrow$  logical位址長度=2+2=4bits

Frame共8個( $2^3$ )

page size=frame size=4bytes; ( $n=2 \Rightarrow 2^2=4$ )

physical memory=32bytes  $\Rightarrow \frac{32}{4} = 8$  physical frames

16 bytes

0	a
1	b
2	c
3	d
4	e
5	f
6	g
7	h
8	i
9	j
10	k
11	l
12	m
13	n
14	o
15	p

logical memory

0	5
1	6
2	1
3	2

page table

32 bytes

0	
4	i j k l
8	m n o p
12	
16	
20	a b c d
24	e f g h
28	

physical memory

Logical address定址能力:  $2^4=16$  bytes

p	d
---	---

4-2=2 bits    2 bits

Page的數量  
(索引)

Page的大小

page number	page offset
p	d

$m - n$

$n$

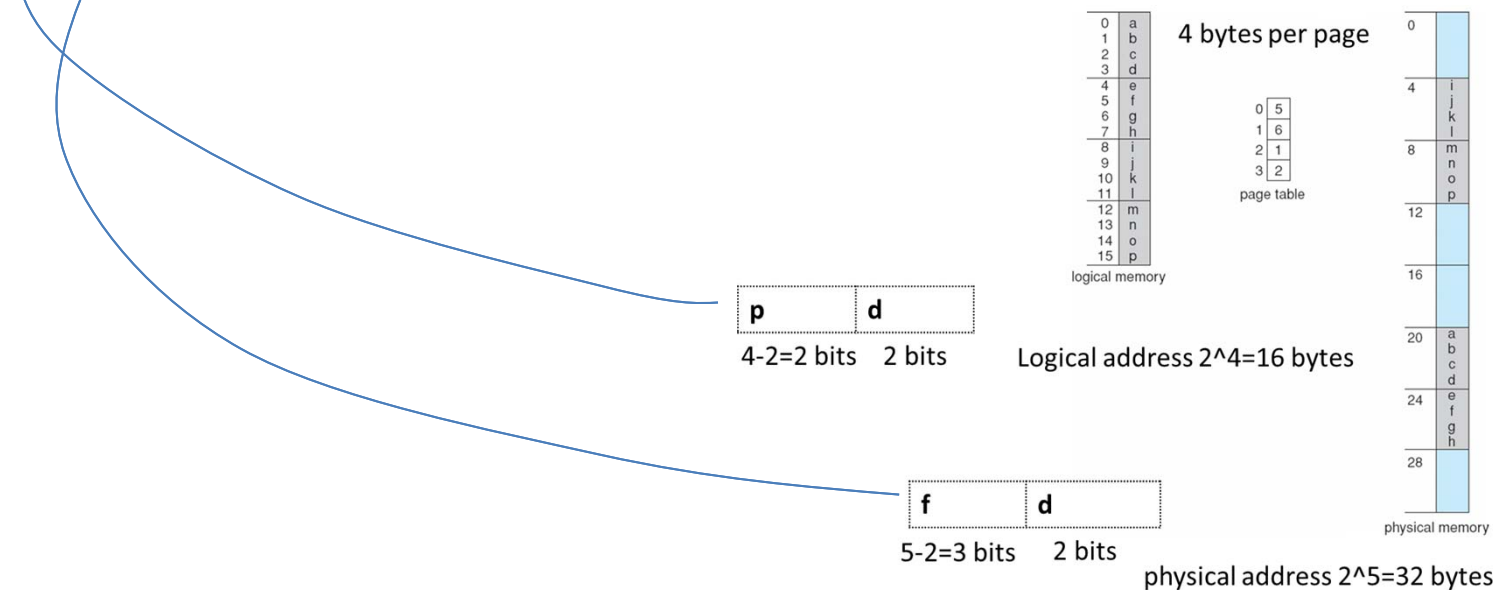
physical address定址能力 $2^5=32$  bytes

f	d
---	---

5-2=3 bits    2 bits

# Address Translation

- Total number of pages does not need to be the same as the total number of frames
  - Frame size = page size
  - Total # pages determines the logical memory size
  - Total # frames depending on the physical memory size



# Example

- Given 32 bits logical address, 36 bits physical address and 4KB page size



logical:  $x + y = 32$

physical:  $z + y = 36$

page size:  $4\text{KB} = 2^2 \times 2^{10} = 2^{12} \Rightarrow y = 12$

$x = 32 - 12 = 20$

$z = 36 - 12 = 24$

Page的數量  
(索引)

Page的大小

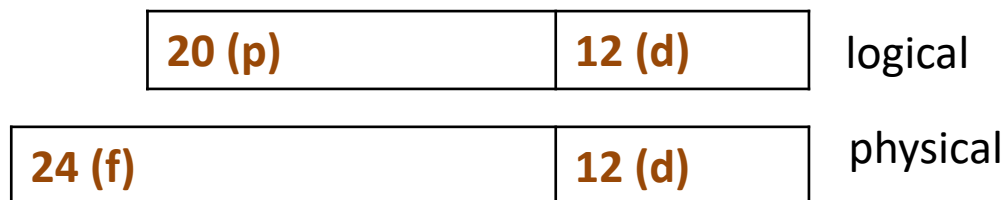
page number	page offset
p	d

m - n

n

# Example

- Given 32 bits logical address, 36 bits physical address and 4KB ( $2^{12}$ ) page size
  - Page table entries  $32 - 12 = 20 \Rightarrow 2^{20}$  entries
  - Max program (logical) memory  $2^{32}$  bytes
  - Total physical memory  $2^{36}$  bytes
  - Number of bits for page number (p) 20
  - Number of bits for frame number (f) 24
  - Number of bits for page offset (d) 12



# Free-Frame List

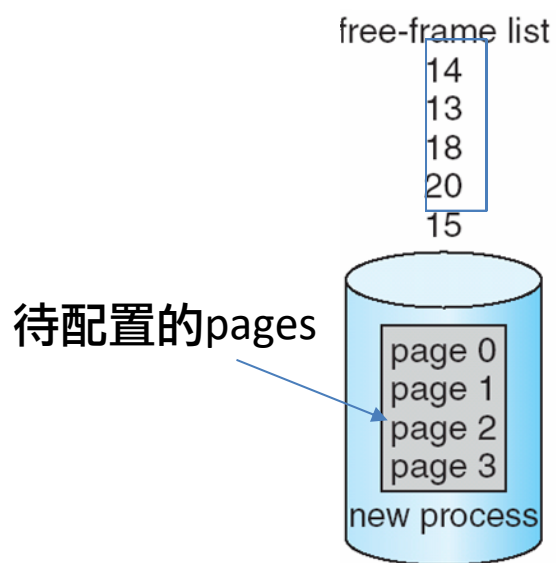
- When a page fault occurs, the OS brings the desired page from disk into memory
- Free-frame list
  - a pool of free frames for satisfying such requests.

head → 7 → 97 → 15 → 126 ... → 75

- OS typically allocate free frames using a technique known as **zero-fill-on-demand** -- the content of the frames zeroed-out before being allocated
- When a system starts up, all available memory is placed on the free-frame list

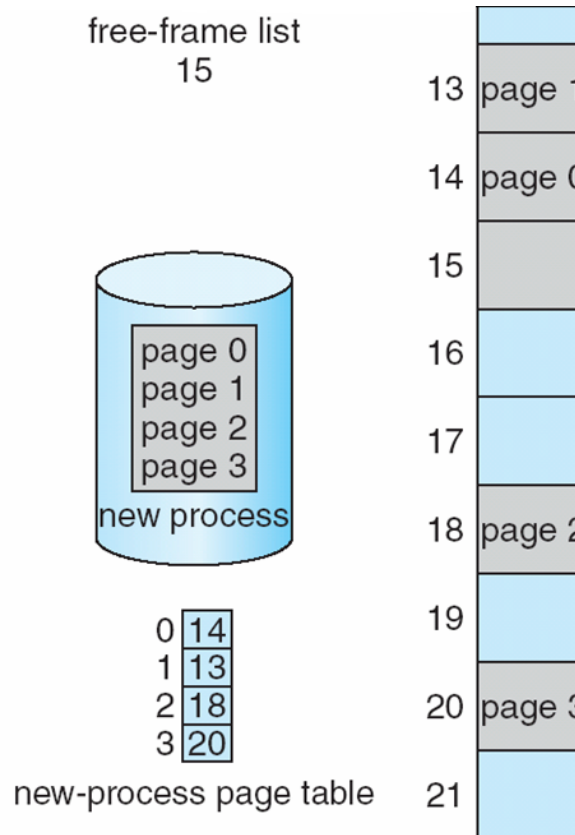
# Page的配置: Free-frame List

灰色是原本free的部份



(a)

Before allocation



(b)

After allocation



# Page (Frame) Size

- The page (frame) size is defined by hardware
  - Typically a power of 2
  - Ranging from 512 bytes to 16MB / page
  - 4KB / 8KB page size is commonly used  $1K = 1 \times 1024 = 1 \times 2^{10}$
- Internal fragmentation issue
  - Larger page size → More space waste
- In practice, page size **has grown over time**
  - Memory, process, data sets have become larger
  - Better I/O performance (during page fault)
  - Make page table smaller (page table is a pure overhead)
    - Page size愈大，切出來的pages就愈少→page table愈小

# Page Table Summary

- Address abstraction
  - Paging helps separate user's (process's) view of memory and the actual physical memory
    - User view's memory: one single contiguous space
    - Actually, user's memory is scatter out in physical memory
- OS maintains
  - One page table for each process
  - One frame table for managing physical memory
    - One entry for each physical frame
    - Indicate whether a frame is free or allocated
    - If allocated, to which page of which process or processes



# Implementation of Page Table

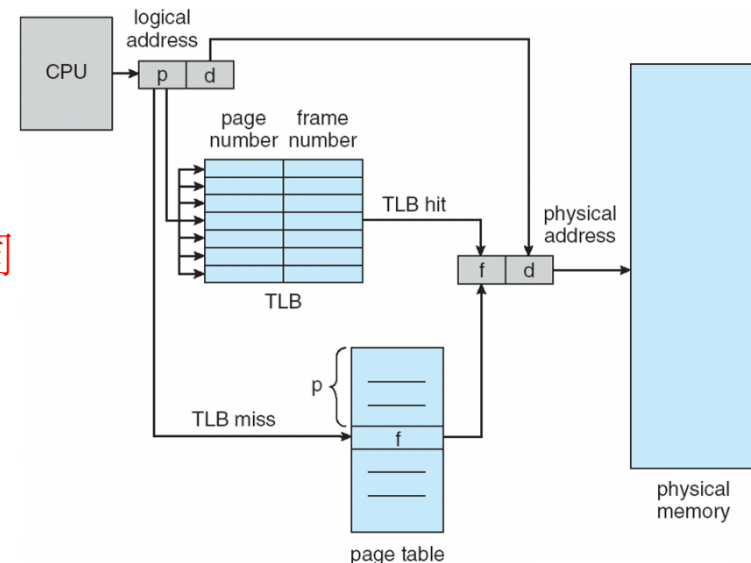
- Memory: stores the page tables
- 如何找到Page Table: page-table base register (PTBR) (方便CPU直接找到Page table)
  - Stores the physical address of the page table
    - 直接指向現正處理process的page table
  - The value is stored in PCB (Process Control Block)
  - Changing the value of PTBR during context-switch
- 1 memory reference == 2 memory reads
  - One for the page table and one for the real address
  - Can be enhanced by using TLB (Translation Lookaside Buffer)
    - Implemented with fast associative memory (HW)
      - Key: page number; value: frame number
    - TLB == Page Table 的cache

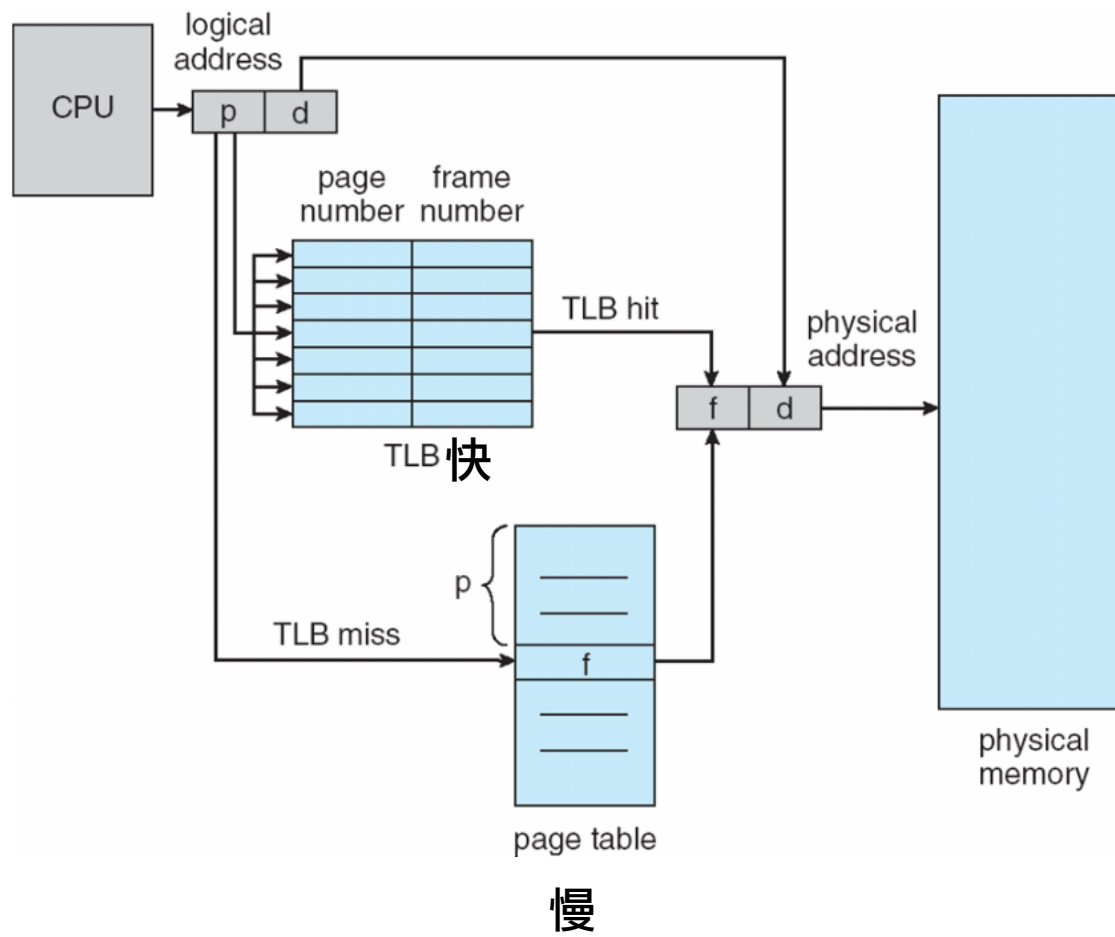
# Translation Look-aside Buffer (TLB)

P.365-P.367

- A cache for page table shared by all processes
  - 先找cache，miss才查memory上的page table
  - Issue: page numbers are specific to each process
- TLB must be flushed after a context switch
  - Otherwise, TLB entry must have a PID field (address-space identifiers (ASIDs) )

每個不同的process有相同的page number:  
Process A的page 2和Process B的page 2內容不同  
(指向不同的physical address!)





# Effective Memory-Access Time

- Assume
  - 20 ns for TLB search
  - 100 ns for memory access
- Effective Memory-Access Time (EMAT)
  - 70% TLB hit-ratio:

No TLB: 200ns

$$\text{EMAT} = 0.70 \times \overset{\text{TLB}}{20} + \overset{\text{Mem}}{100} + (1-0.70) * \overset{\text{TLB}}{20} + \overset{\text{PT}}{100} + \overset{\text{Mem}}{100} = 150 \text{ ns}$$

Hit

Miss
  - 98% TLB hit-ratio
$$\text{EMAT} = 0.98 \times \underset{\text{Hit}}{120} + 0.02 \times \underset{\text{Miss}}{220} = 122 \text{ ns}$$

# Memory Protection

- Each page is associated with a set of **protection bit** in the page table
  - E.g., a bit to define read/write/execution permission
- Common use: valid-invalid bit
  - Valid: the page/frame is **in** the process' logical address space, and is thus a legal page
  - Invalid: the page/frame is **not in** the process' logical address space
    - 結合Virtual Memory使用時，有不同定義!
      - invalid代表in logical address space but not in memory

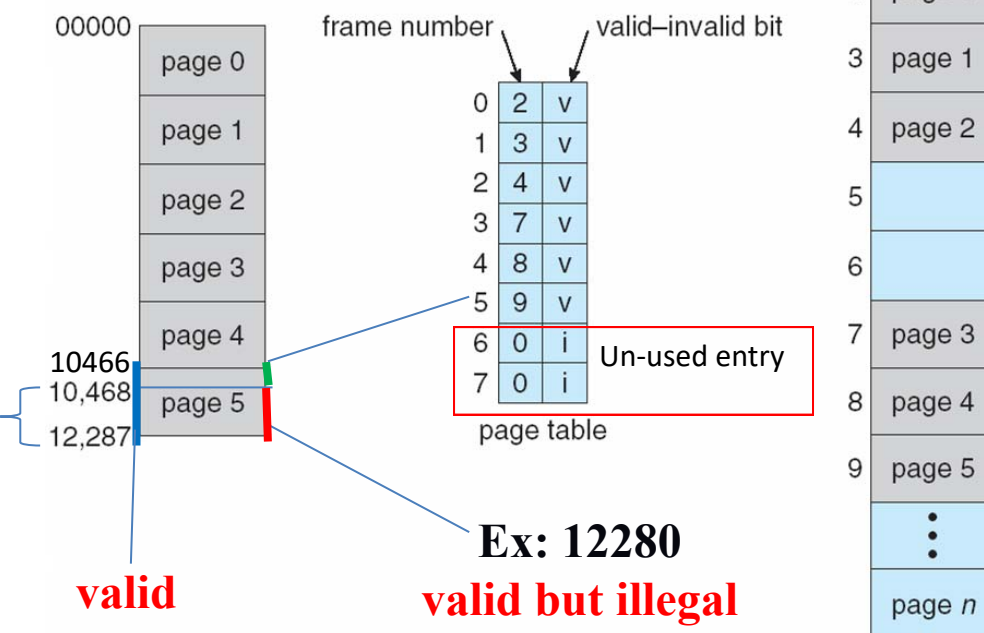


# Valid-Invalid Bit

- Potential issues:
  - Unused PT entry: Un-used entry causes memory waste → use page table length register (PTLR) 計算Page Table長度
  - Internal overflow: Process memory may NOT be on the boundary of a page → memory limit register is still needed

在右邊的例子中，page 5邏輯位址最多到12287  
10466-12287都是valid

程式只佔到10468; 所以  
10469-12287都是無意義資料

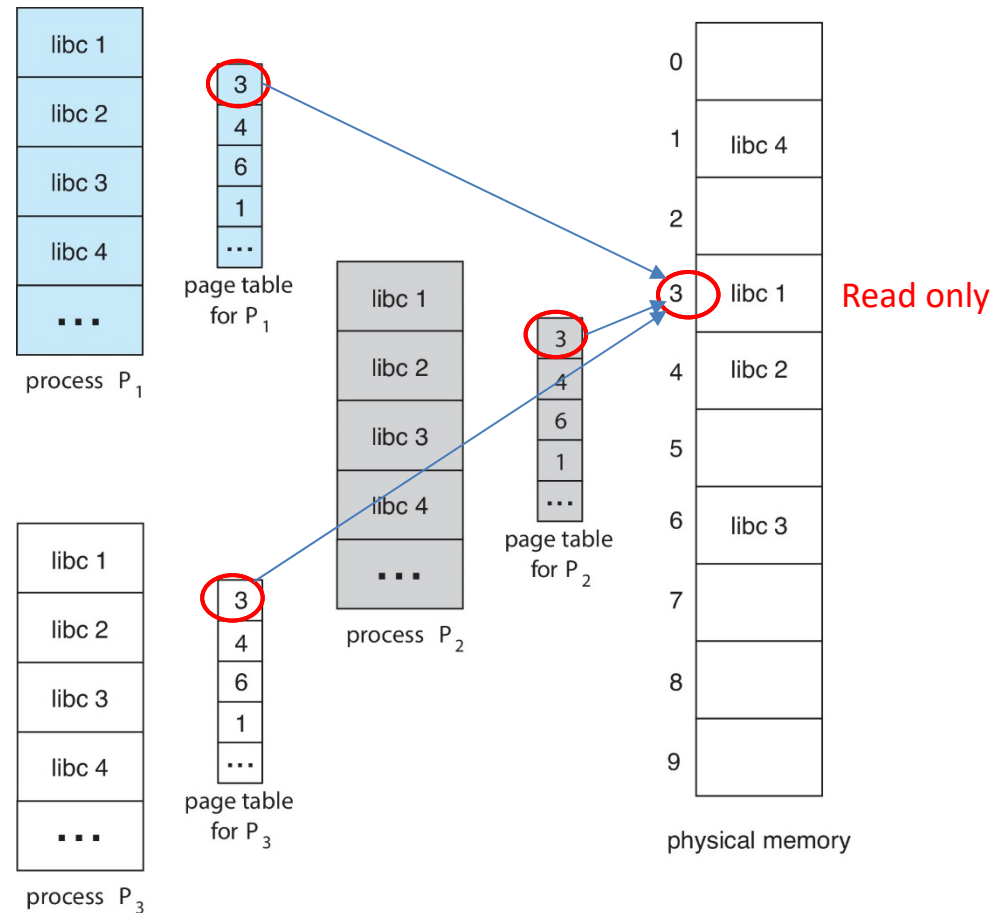


# Shared Pages

- Paging allows processes share common code, which must be reentrant
  - The shared code never change during execution (immutable)
  - One copy of the code is kept in physical memory
  - Two (or more) virtual addresses are mapped to one physical address
- Process keeps a copy of its own private data and code

# Shared Pages by Page Table

不同process的page table entry指向同一個physical frame



# Page Table 太大的問題

- Page table could be huge and difficult to be loaded
  - 4GB ( $2^{32}$ ) logical address space with 4KB ( $2^{12}$ ) page
    - 1 million ( $2^{20}$ ) page table entry
  - Assume each entry need 4 bytes (32bits)
    - Total size=4MB
  - 狀況: Page Table (4M)遠比1個Page (4K)大
    - Need to break it into several smaller page tables, better within a single page size (i.e. 4KB) 最好每個Page Table片段不大於一個Page
    - Or reduce the total size of page table
- Solutions:
  - Inverted Page Table (frame table) → Hard to support shared paging
  - Hierarchical Paging → Additional memory reference、64bit定址不適用
  - Hash Page Table → Additional memory reference

$2^{20} \approx 1\text{MB}$

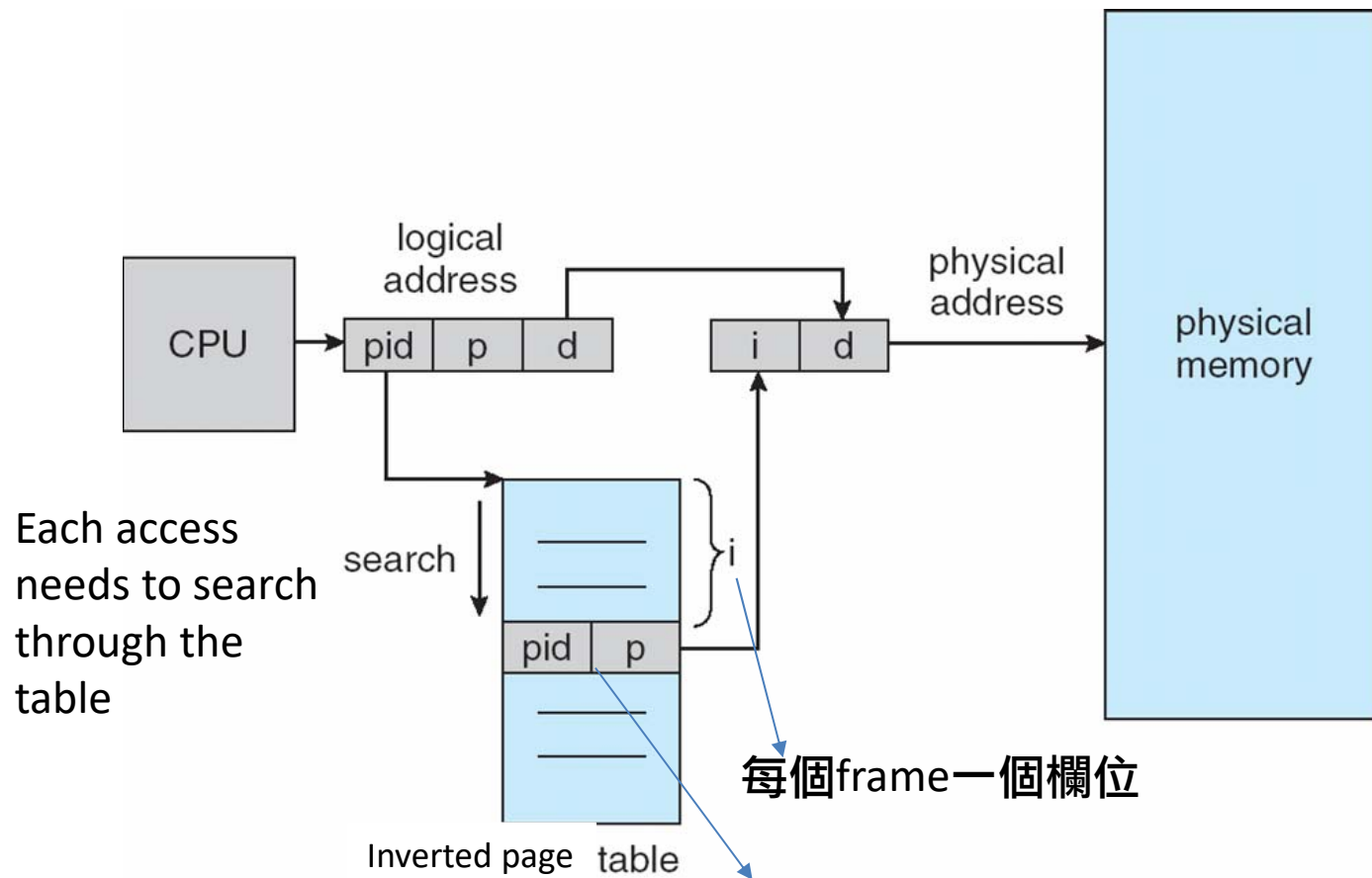
1M個entries, 每個4bytes, 每個process要1份!

→page table要連續, 又造成external frag問題!  
若不連續, 要設計機制找, 效能差

# Inverted Page Table

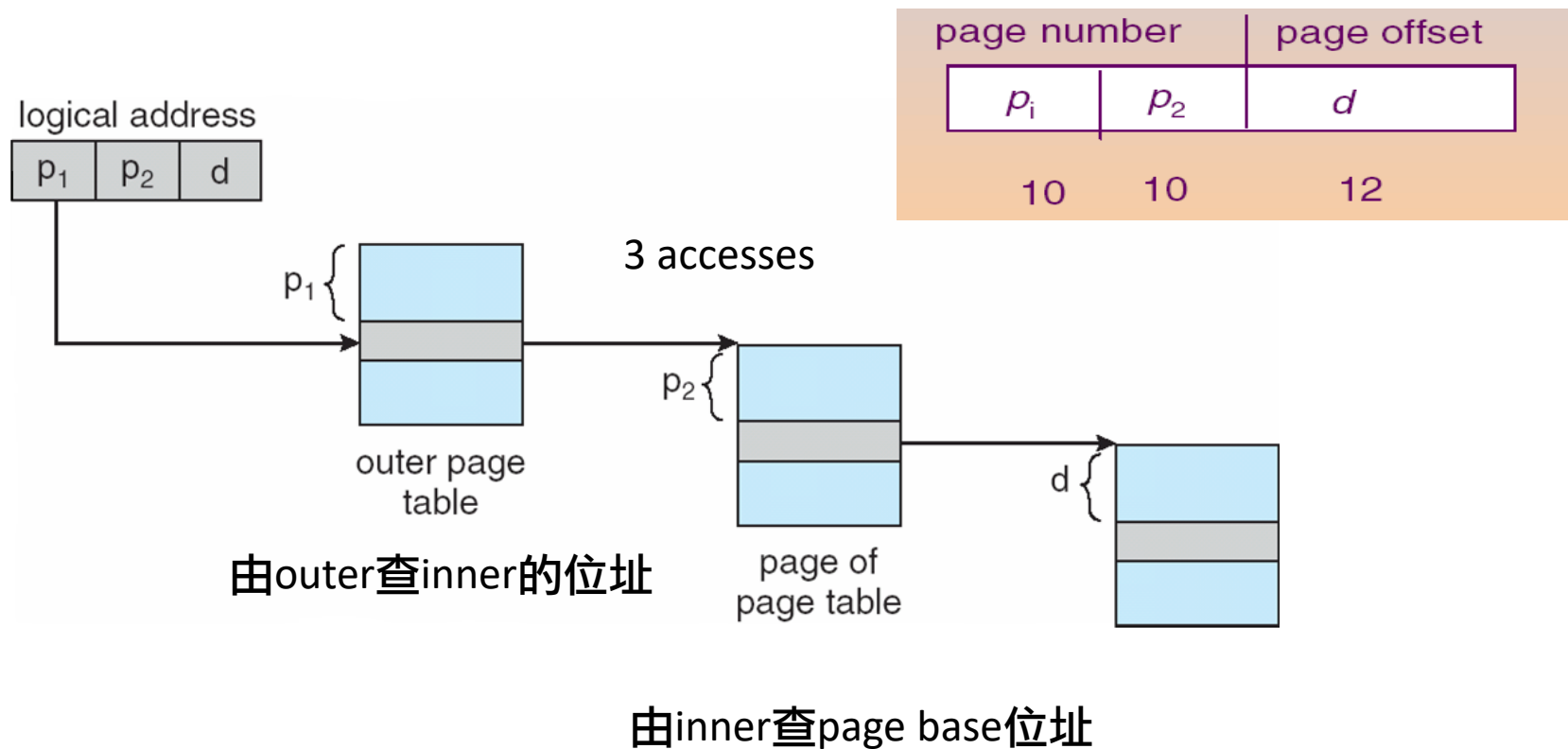
- Maintains **an inverted page table (frame table)** for the whole memory
  - One entry for each real frame of memory
  - Maintains NO page table for each process
- Each entry in the inverted page table has
  - (PID, Page Number)
- Eliminate the memory needed for page tables but **increase memory access time**
  - Each access needs to search through the table (linearly)
  - Solution: use hashing (例如: 同一個“page number”的放在同一排)
- Hard to support shared page/memory
  - Why?  
因為一個frame只能與一個(PID, Page Number)對應

# Inverted Page Table



如果要多個共用一個frame, 這裡勢必要能存多個(pid,p)值

# Paging the page table

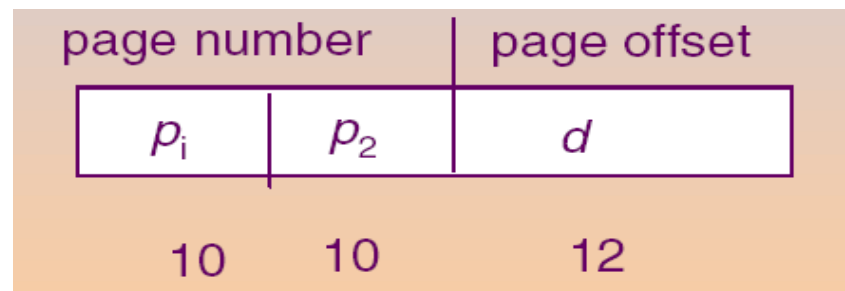


和原來有何不同: 原來:所有page table entries連續不間斷地放在一起，要「整體」共同進出記憶體

階層式: 因為page table本身也分頁了，所以PT可以頁為單位進出記憶體 (結合demand paging)

# Hierarchical Paging

- Break up the logical address space into multiple page tables
  - Paging the page table
  - i.e. n-level page table
- Ex: Two-level paging (32-bit address with 4KB ( $2^{12}$ ) page size)
  - 12-bit offset ( $d$ )  $\rightarrow$  4KB ( $2^{12}$ ) page size
  - 10-bit outer page number  $\rightarrow$  1K ( $2^{10}$ ) page table entries
  - 10-bit inner page number  $\rightarrow$  1K ( $2^{10}$ ) page table entries
  - 3 memory accesses
    - PT 2次+M1次

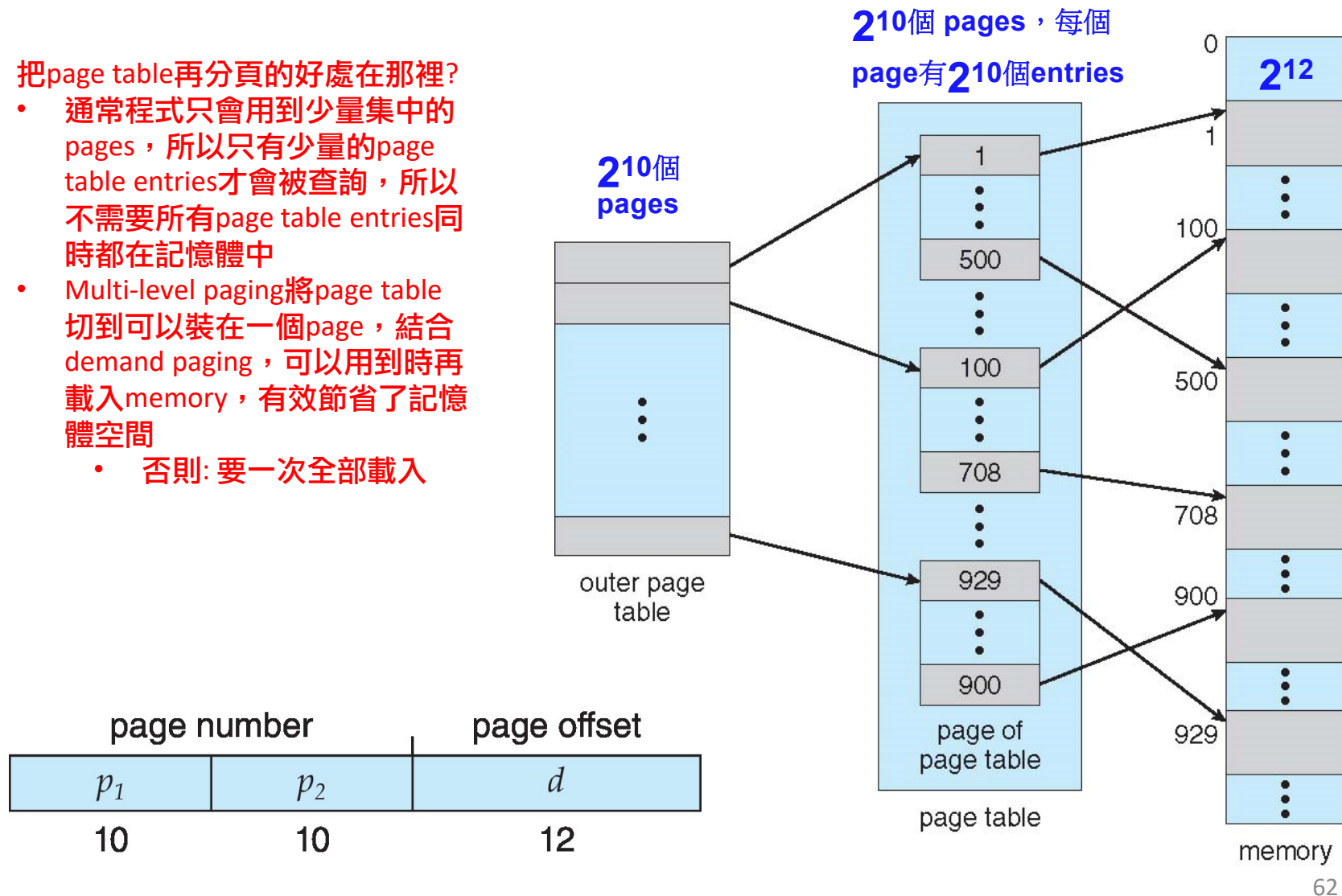




# Two-Level Page Table Example

把page table再分頁的好處在那裡?

- 通常程式只會用到少量集中的pages，所以只有少量的page table entries才會被查詢，所以不需要所有page table entries同時都在記憶體中
- Multi-level paging將page table切到可以裝在一個page，結合demand paging，可以用到時再載入memory，有效節省了記憶體空間
  - 否則: 要一次全部載入

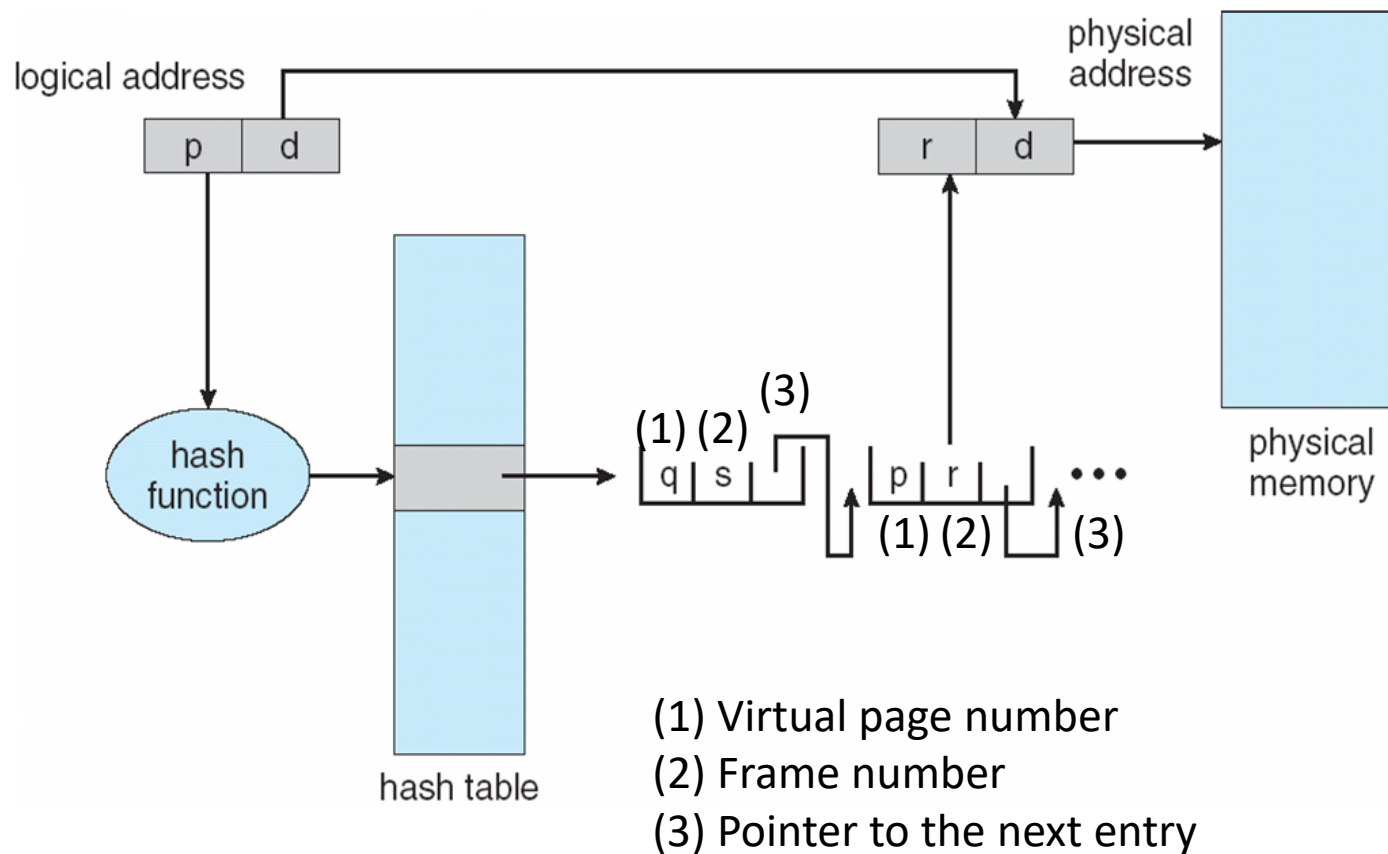


# 64-bit Logical Address Space

- How about 64-bit address?
  - assume each entry needs 4 bytes
  - $42 (p1) + 10 (p2) + 12 (\text{offset})$ 
    - outer table requires  $2^{42} \times 4B = 16TB$  contiguous memory!!!
  - $12 (p1) + 10 (p2) + 10 (p3) + 10 (p4) + 10 (p5) + 12 (\text{offset})$ 
    - outer table requires  $2^{12} \times 4B = 16KB$  contiguous memory
    - 6 memory accesses!
- For 64-bit computers, hierarchical page tables are generally considered **inappropriate**

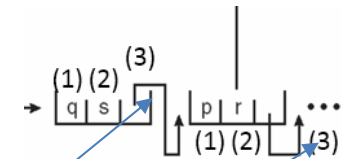
# Hashed Page Table

核心想法: 由hash值找出list所在，再逐一比對(1)，match(1)後再由(2)+d找出physical



# Hashed Page Table

- Commonly-used for address > 32 bits
- 做法
  - Virtual page number is hashed into a hash table
  - Each entry in the hashed table contains  
(Virtual Page Number, Frame Number, Next Pointer)
- Hash table size
  - Larger hash table → smaller chains in each entry
- Problems
  - Pointers waste memory Ex: 64位元中一個pointer需8 bytes (64bits=8bytes)
  - Traverse linked list waste time & cause additional memory references

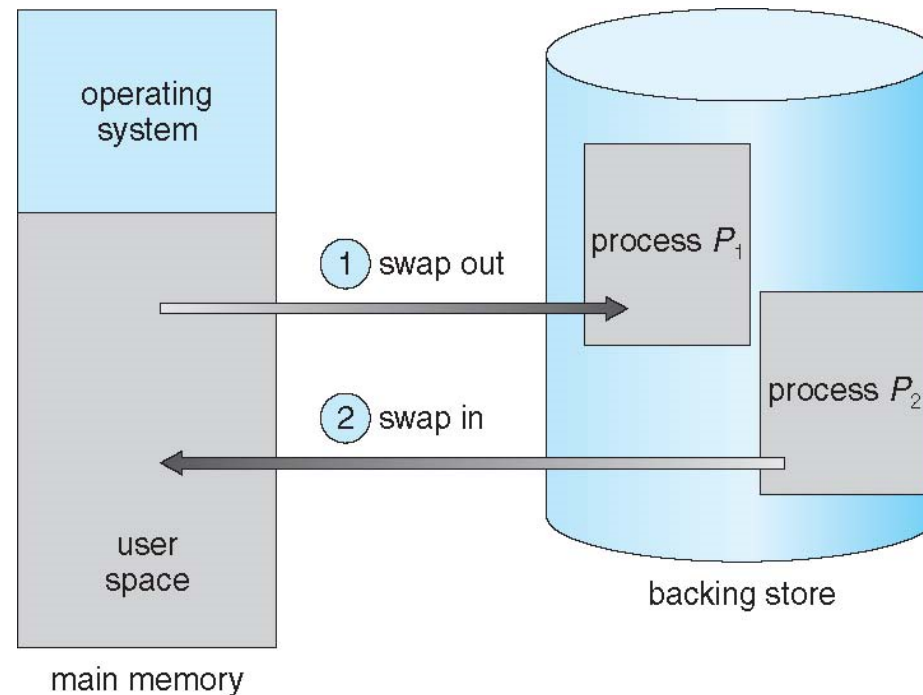


# Swapping

- Definition
  - A process can be brought out of memory to a backing store, and later brought back into memory for continuous execution
  - 和paging的不同: swapping是process為單位共同進出記憶體; (demand) paging是以頁為單位進出記憶體
- Backing store
  - A chunk of disk, separated from file system, to provide direct access to these memory images
- Why Swap?
  - Free up memory
  - Roll out, roll in: swap lower-priority process with a higher one

# Process Swapping to Backing Store

- Major part of swap time is transfer time
- Total transfer time is directly proportional to the amount of memory swapped

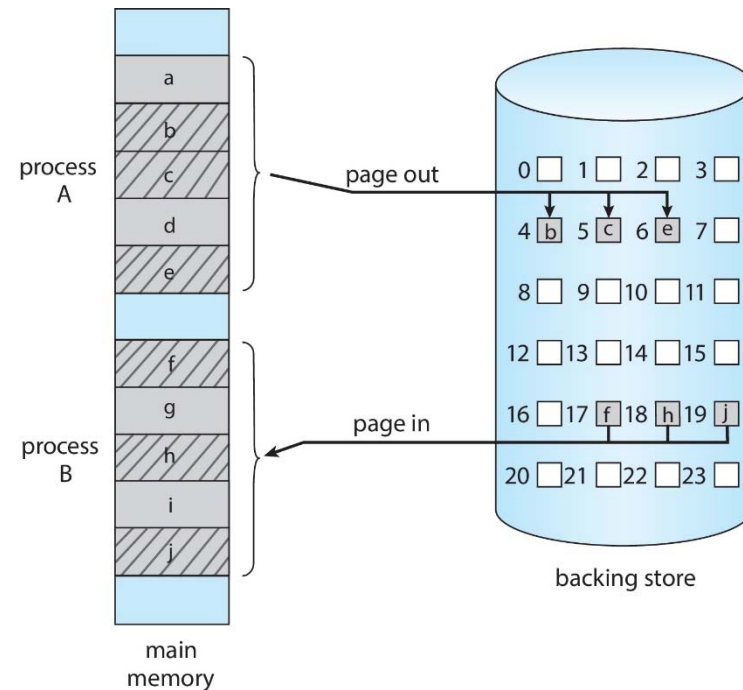


# Swapping on Mobile Systems

- Usually does not support
  - Flash memory based
    - Small amount of space
    - Limited number of write cycles
    - Poor throughput between flash memory and CPU on mobile platform
- Use other methods to free memory if low
  - iOS *asks* apps to voluntarily relinquish allocated memory
    - Read-only data thrown out and reloaded from flash if needed
    - Failure to free can result in termination
  - Android terminates apps if low free memory, but first writes **application state** to flash for fast restart
  - Both OSes support paging as discussed below

# Swapping with Paging = Demand Paging

- Swap only part of a process
  - Some pages belonging to the process
  - Typically combined with virtual memory





# Q & A