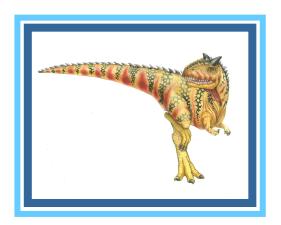
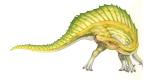
Chapter 8: Main Memory





Chapter 8: Memory Management

- Background
- Swapping
- Contiguous Memory Allocation
- Paging
- Structure of the Page Table
- Segmentation
- Example: The Intel Pentium

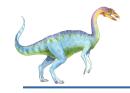




Objectives

- To provide a detailed description of various ways of organizing memory hardware
- To discuss various memory-management techniques, including paging and segmentation
- To provide a detailed description of the Intel Pentium, which supports both pure segmentation and segmentation with paging

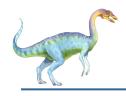




Background

- Program must be brought (from disk) into memory and placed within a process for it to be run
- Main memory and registers are only storage CPU can access directly
- Register access in one CPU clock (or less)
- Main memory can take many cycles
- Cache sits between main memory and CPU registers
- Protection of memory required to ensure correct operation





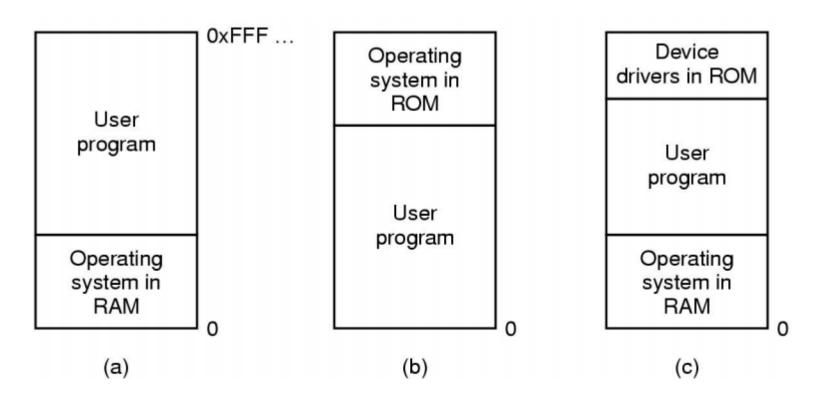
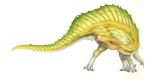


Figure 3-1. Three simple ways of organizing memory with an operating system and one user process.



Multiple Programs Without Memory Abstraction

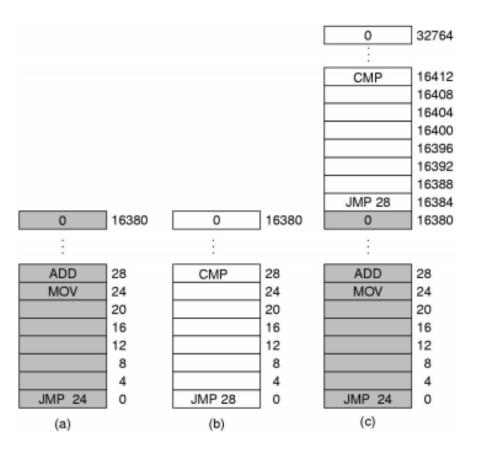
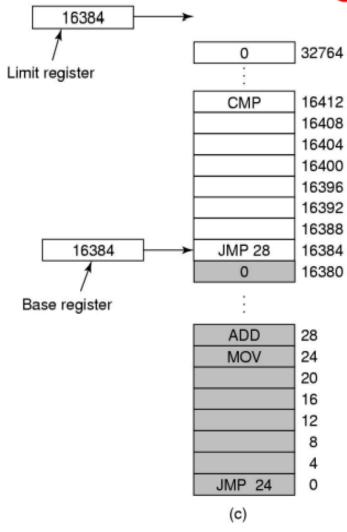


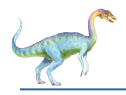
Figure 3-2. Illustration of the relocation problem.



Base and Limit Registers



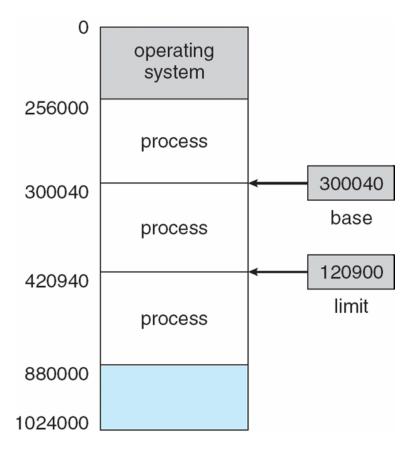




Base and Limit Registers

A pair of base and limit registers define the logical address

space







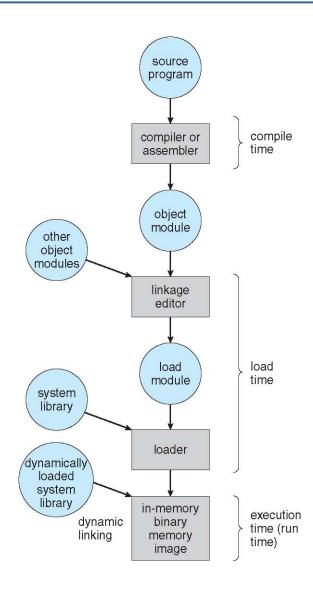
Binding of Instructions and Data to Memory

- Address binding of instructions and data to memory addresses can happen at three different stages
 - Compile time: If memory location known a priori, absolute code can be generated; must recompile code if starting location changes
 - Load time: Must generate relocatable code if memory location is not known at compile time
 - Execution time: Binding delayed until run time if the process can be moved during its execution from one memory segment to another. Need hardware support for address maps (e.g., base and limit registers)





Multistep Processing of a User Program







Logical vs. Physical Address Space

- The concept of a logical address space that is bound to a separate physical address space is central to proper memory management
 - Logical address generated by the CPU; also referred to as virtual address
 - Physical address address seen by the memory unit





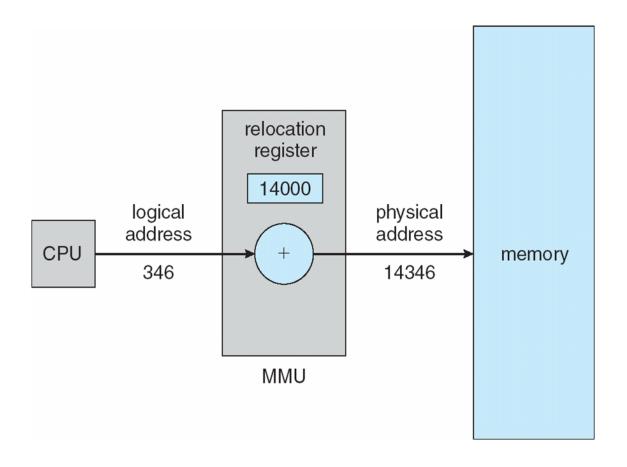
Memory-Management Unit (MMU)

- Hardware device that maps virtual to physical address.
- In MMU scheme, the value in the relocation register is added to every address generated by a user process at the time it is sent to memory.
- The user program deals with *logical* addresses; it never sees the *real* physical addresses





Dynamic relocation using a relocation register







Dynamic Loading

- Routine is not loaded until it is called
- Better memory-space utilization; unused routine is never loaded
- Useful when large amounts of code are needed to handle infrequently occurring cases
- No special support from the operating system is required implemented through program design





Dynamic Linking

- Linking postponed until execution time
- Small piece of code, stub, used to locate the appropriate memory-resident library routine
- Stub replaces itself with the address of the routine, and executes the routine
- Operating system needed to check if routine is in processes' memory address
- Dynamic linking is particularly useful for libraries
- System also known as shared libraries

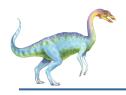




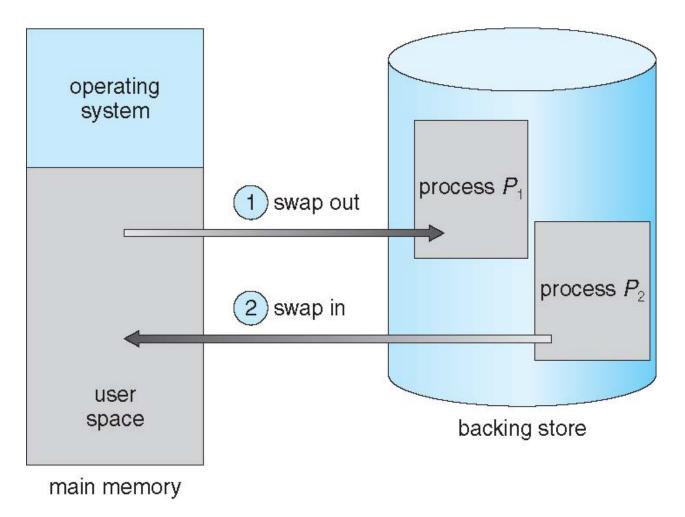
Swapping

- A process can be swapped temporarily out of memory to a backing store, and then brought back into memory for continued execution
- Backing store fast disk large enough to accommodate copies of all memory images for all users; must provide direct access to these memory images
- Roll out, roll in swapping variant used for priority-based scheduling algorithms; lower-priority process is swapped out so higher-priority process can be loaded and executed
- Major part of swap time is transfer time; total transfer time is directly proportional to the amount of memory swapped
- Modified versions of swapping are found on many systems (i.e., UNIX, Linux, and Windows)
- System maintains a ready queue of ready-to-run processes which have memory images on disk





Schematic View of Swapping







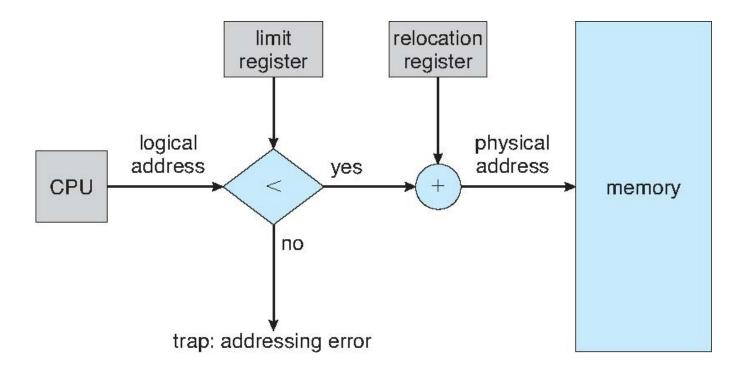
Contiguous Allocation

- Main memory usually into two partitions:
 - Resident operating system, usually held in low memory with interrupt vector
 - User processes that held in high memory
- Relocation registers used to protect user processes from each other, and from changing operating-system code and data
 - Base register contains value of smallest physical address
 - Limit register contains range of logical addresses each logical address must be less than the limit register
 - MMU maps logical address dynamically

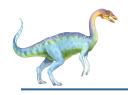




Hardware Support for Relocation and Limit Registers

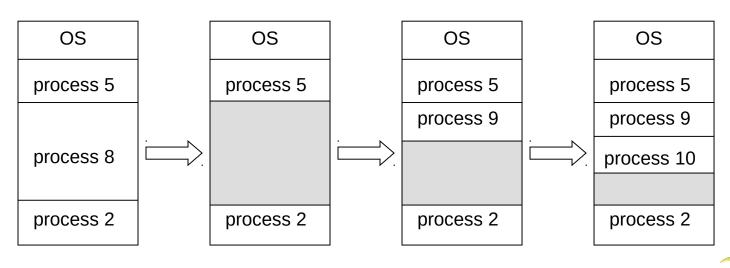






Contiguous Allocation (Cont.)

- Multiple-partition allocation
 - Hole block of available memory; holes of various size are scattered throughout memory
 - When a process arrives, it is allocated memory from a hole large enough to accommodate it
 - Operating system maintains information about:
 a) allocated partitions
 b) free partitions (hole)



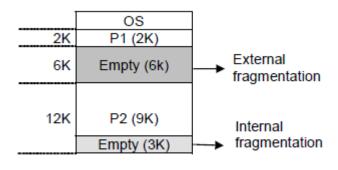


Memory Partitioning

Fixed Partitioning

- In this method, memory is divided into partitions whose sizes are fixed. OS is placed into the lowest bytes of memory.
- The number of fixed partition gives the degree of multiprogramming.

	OS	
2K	P1	
6K	P2	
12K	empty	



if a partition is being used by a process requiring some memory smaller than the partition size, then it is called an internal fragmentation.

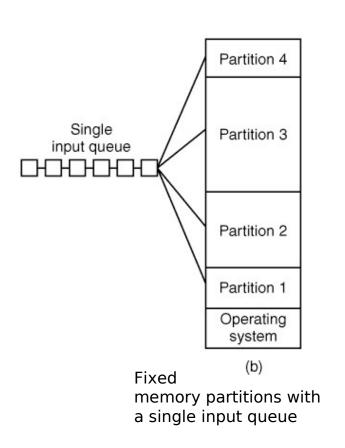
If a whole partition is currently not being used, then it is called an

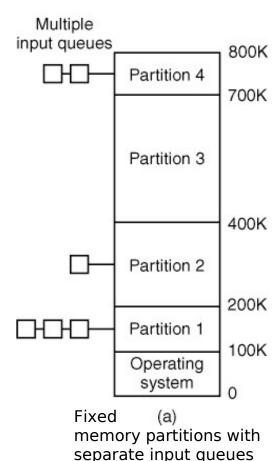
external fragmentation.

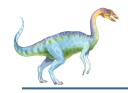


Memory Partitioning (Fixed)

With fixed partitions we have to deal with the problem of determining the number and sizes of partitions to minimize internal and external fragmentation.

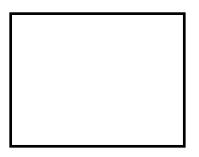






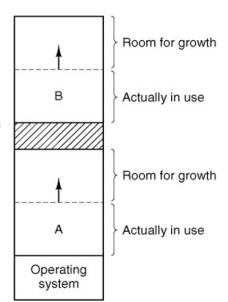
Variable Partitioning

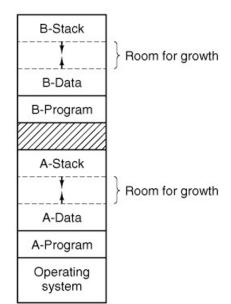
If we use variable partitioning instead, then partition sizes may vary dynamically.



P1	OS		
P2 <free> 16 KB P3</free>	P1		
<free> 16 KB P3</free>	<free></free>	10 KB	
P3	P2		
	<free></free>	16 KB	
ofrono ALIZD	P3		
<iiee> 4 KB</iiee>	<free></free>	4 KB	

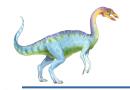
Allocating space for a growing data segment.





Allocating space for a growing stack and a growing data segment.

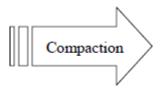




Variable Partitioning

- External Fragmentation in variable partitioning
 - Total memory space exists to satisfy a request, but it is not contiguous.
- Reduce external fragmentation by compaction
 - Shuffle memory contents to place all free memory together in one large block
 - Compaction is possible only if relocation is dynamic, and is done at execution time
 - I/O problem
 - Latch job in memory while it is involved in I/O
 - Do I/O only into OS buffers

os		
P1		
<free></free>	20 KB	
P2		
<free></free>	7 KB	
P3		
<free></free>	10 KB	



OS		
P1		
P2		
P3		
<free></free>	37 KB	



Memory Management with Bitmaps/Linked List

With Bitmap and Linked List

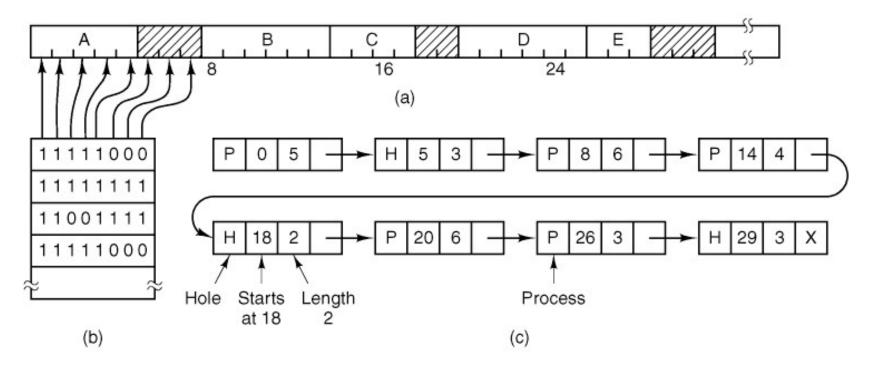


Figure 4-5. (a) A part of memory with five processes and three holes. The tick marks show the memory allocation units. The shaded regions (0 in the bitmap) are free. (b) The corresponding bitmap. (c) The same information as a list.

Memory Management with Linked Lists

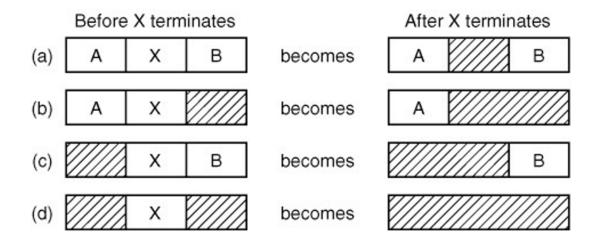


Figure 4-6. Four neighbor combinations for the terminating process, X.

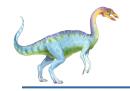
How to satisfy a request of size *n* from a list of free holes

- First-fit: Allocate the *first* hole that is big enough
- Best-fit: Allocate the *smallest* hole that is big enough; must search entire list, unless ordered by size
 - Produces the smallest leftover hole
- **Worst-fit**: Allocate the *largest* hole; must also search entire list
 - Produces the largest leftover hole

First-fit and best-fit better than worst-fit in terms of speed and storage utilization (according to simulations)

8.27





Paging

- Logical address space of a process can be noncontiguous; process is allocated physical memory whenever the latter is available
- Divide physical memory into fixed-sized blocks called frames (size is power of 2, between 512 bytes and 8,192 bytes)
- Divide logical memory into blocks of same size called pages
- Keep track of all free frames
- To run a program of size n pages, need to find n free frames and load program
- Set up a page table to translate logical to physical addresses
- Internal fragmentation





Address Translation Scheme

- Address generated by CPU is divided into:
 - Page number (p) used as an index into a page table which contains base address of each page in physical memory
 - Page offset (d) combined with base address to define the physical memory address that is sent to the memory unit

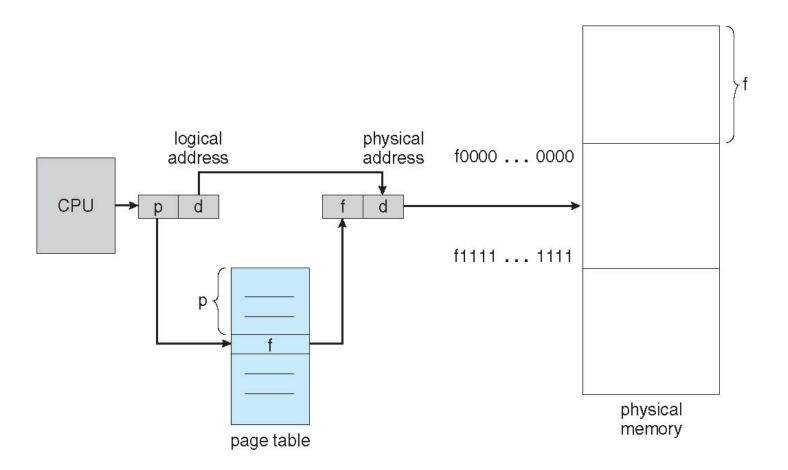
page number	page offset
р	d
m - n	

• For given logical address space 2^m and page size 2ⁿ

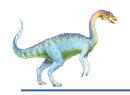




Paging Hardware







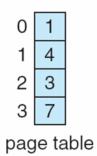
Paging Model of Logical and Physical Memory

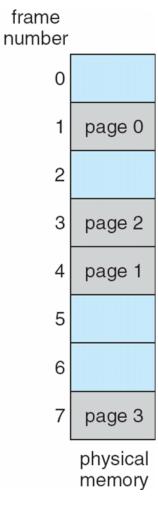
page 0
page 1

page 2

page 3

logical memory

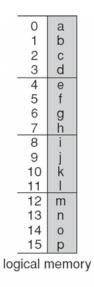








Paging Example

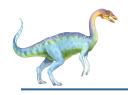


0	5	
1	6	
2	1	
3	2	
oage	e tak	ole

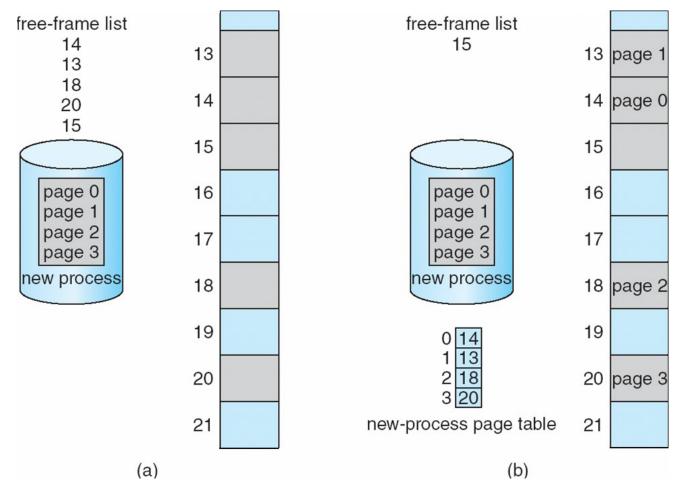
0		
4	i j k l	
8	m n o p	
12		
16		
20	a b c d	
24	e f g h	
28		
ysical	mem	О

32-byte memory and 4-byte pages





Free Frames



Before allocation

After allocation





Implementation of Page Table

- Page table is kept in main memory
- Page-table base register (PTBR) points to the page table
- Page-table length register (PRLR) indicates size of the page table
- In this scheme every data/instruction access requires two memory accesses. One for the page table and one for the data/instruction.
- The two memory access problem can be solved by the use of a special fast-lookup hardware cache called associative memory or translation look-aside buffers (TLBs)
- Some TLBs store address-space identifiers (ASIDs) in each TLB entry – uniquely identifies each process to provide address-space protection for that process





Associative Memory

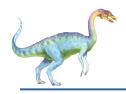
Associative memory – parallel search

Page #	Frame #

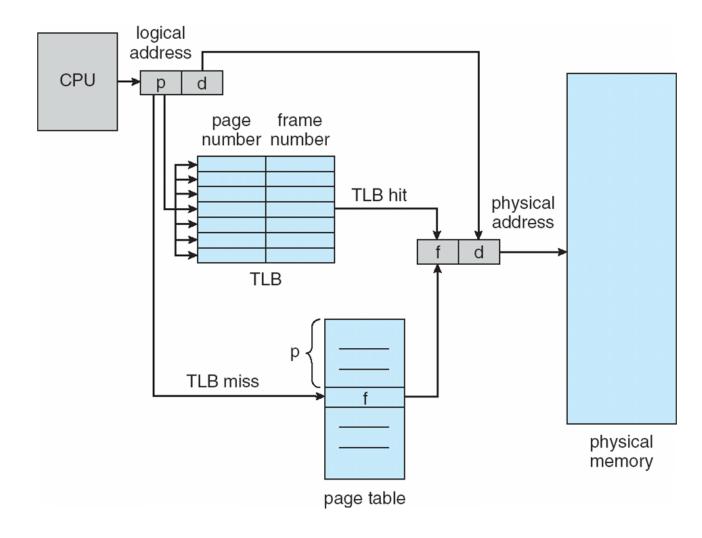
Address translation (p, d)

- If p is in associative register, get frame # out
- Otherwise get frame # from page table in memory





Paging Hardware With TLB





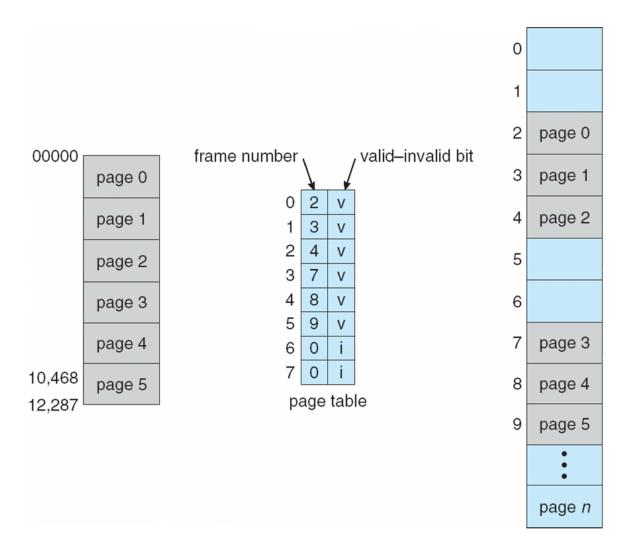
Memory Protection

- Memory protection implemented by associating protection bit with each frame
- Valid-invalid bit attached to each entry in the page table:
 - "valid" indicates that the associated page is in the process' logical address space, and is thus a legal page
 - "invalid" indicates that the page is not in the process' logical address space





Valid (v) or Invalid (i) Bit In A Page Table







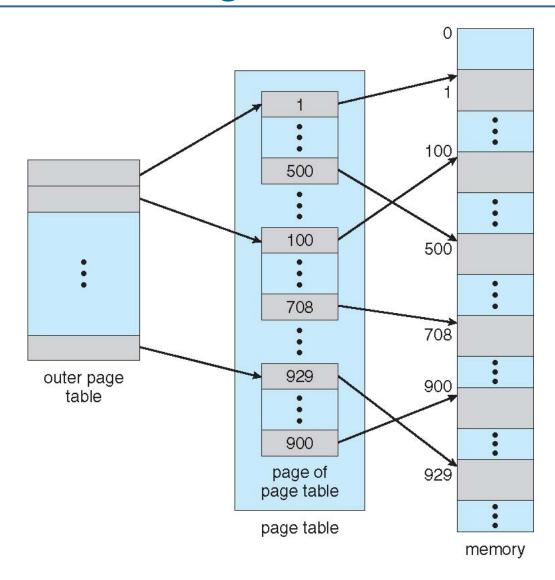
Hierarchical Page Tables

- Break up the logical address space into multiple page tables
- A simple technique is a two-level page table





Two-Level Page-Table Scheme







Two-Level Paging Example

- A logical address (on 32-bit machine with 1K page size) is divided into:
 - a page number consisting of 22 bits
 - a page offset consisting of 10 bits
- Since the page table is paged, the page number is further divided into:
 - a 12-bit page number
 - a 10-bit page offset
- Thus, a logical address is as follows:

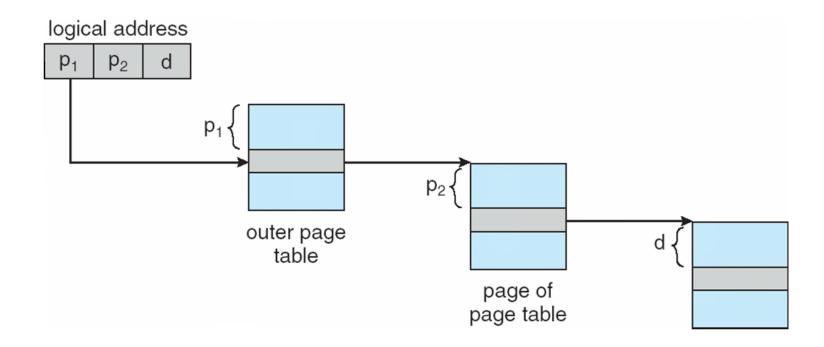
page number			page offset
	$p_{_{\mathrm{i}}}$	p_2	d

where p_i is an index into the outer page table, and p_2 is the displacement within the page of the outer page table





Address-Translation Scheme





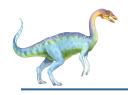


Three-level Paging Scheme

outer page	inner page	offset
p_1	p_2	d
42	10	12

2nd outer page	outer page	inner page	offset
p_1	p_2	p_3	d
32	10	10	12





Segmentation

- Memory-management scheme that supports user view of memory
- A program is a collection of segments
 - A segment is a logical unit such as:

main program

procedure

function

method

object

local variables, global variables

common block

stack

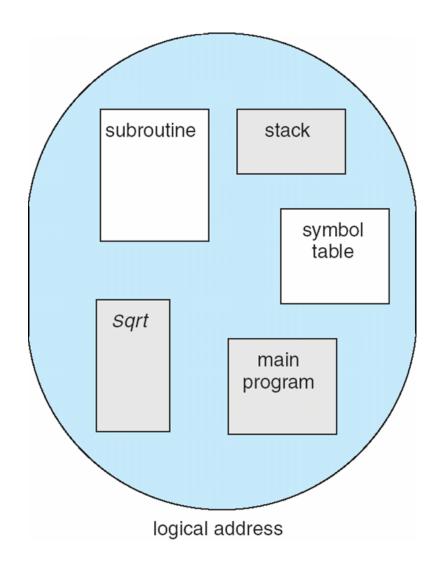
symbol table

arrays





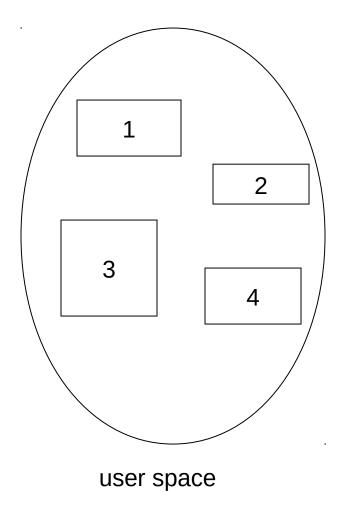
User's View of a Program







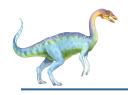
Logical View of Segmentation



4 3

physical memory space





Segmentation Architecture

- Logical address consists of a two tuple: <segment-number, offset>,
- Segment table maps two-dimensional physical addresses; each table entry has:
 - base contains the starting physical address where the segments reside in memory
 - limit specifies the length of the segment
- Segment-table base register (STBR) points to the segment table's location in memory
- Segment-table length register (STLR) indicates number of segments used by a program;

segment number s is legal if s < STLR





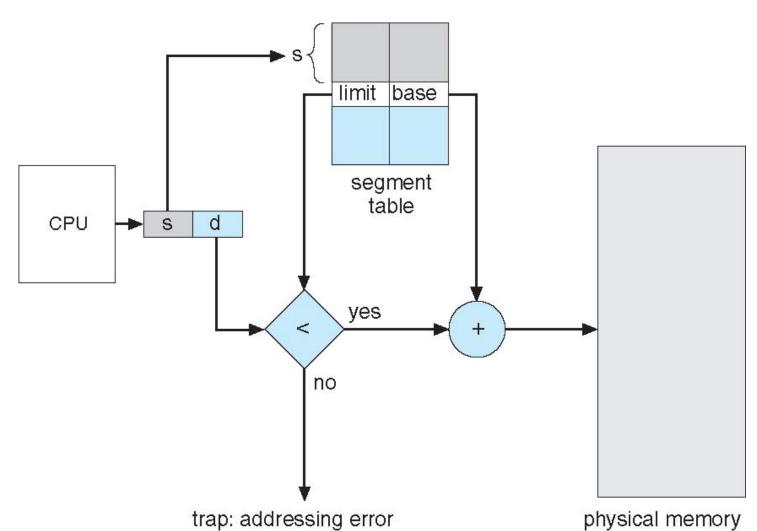
Segmentation Architecture (Cont.)

- Protection
 - With each entry in segment table associate:
 - > validation bit = 0 ⇒ illegal segment
 - read/write/execute privileges
- Protection bits associated with segments; code sharing occurs at segment level
- Since segments vary in length, memory allocation is a dynamic storage-allocation problem
- A segmentation example is shown in the following diagram





Segmentation Hardware



de



Example of Segmentation

