



## L23-B- INTRODUCTION TO MEMORY MANAGEMENT

# Overview of Memory Management

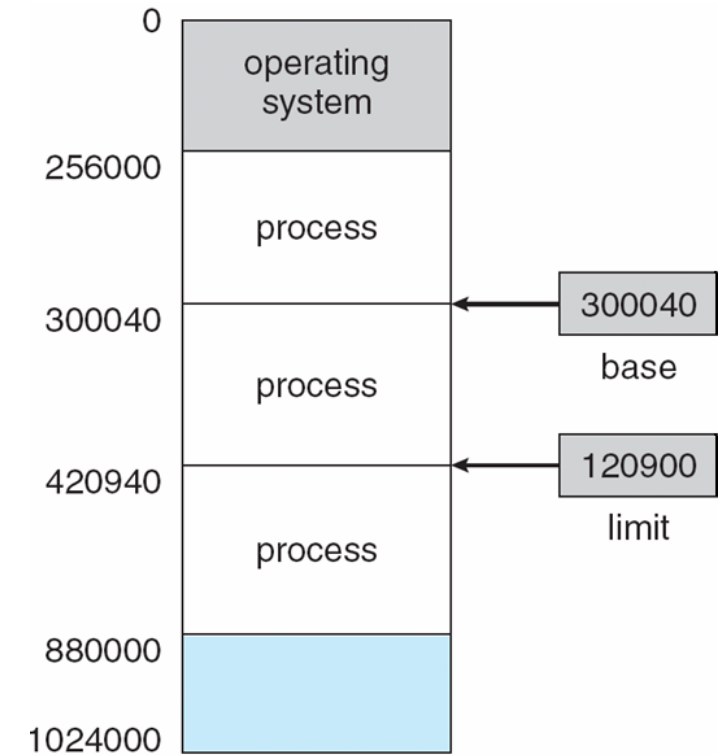
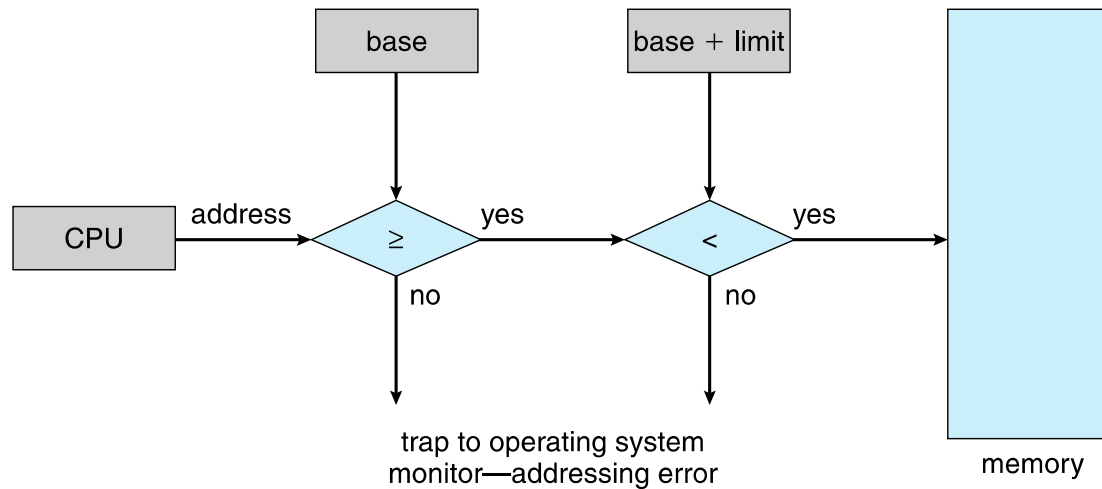
- ❖ Background
- ❖ Swapping
- ❖ Contiguous Memory Allocation
- ❖ Segmentation
- ❖ Paging
- ❖ Structure of the Page Table

# 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
- ❖ Memory unit only sees a stream of addresses + read requests, or address + data and write requests
- ❖ Register access in one CPU clock cycle
- ❖ Main memory can take many cycles, causing a **stall**
- ❖ **Cache** sits between main memory and CPU registers
- ❖ Protection of memory required to ensure correct operation

# Hardware Protection using Base and Limit Registers

- ❖ A pair of **base** and **limit registers** define the logical address space
- ❖ CPU must check every memory access generated in user mode to be sure it is between base and limit for that user



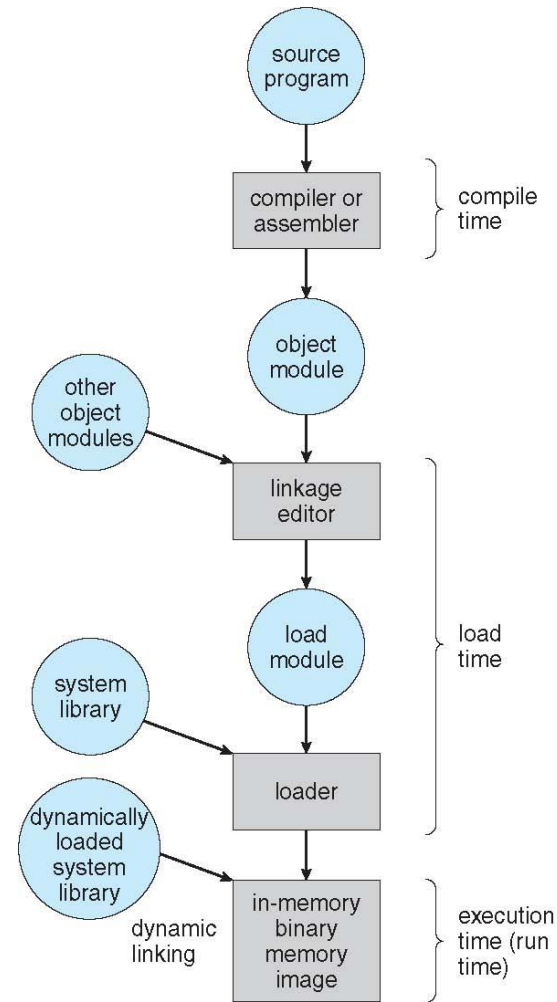
# Address Binding

- ❖ Programs on **disk**, ready to be brought into memory to execute.
- ❖ Without support, must be loaded into address 0000
- ❖ Inconvenient to have user process physical address always at 0000
- ❖ Addresses represented in different ways in a program's life
  - ❖ Source code addresses usually symbolic
  - ❖ Compiled code addresses **bind** to relocatable addresses
    - ❖ i.e. "14 bytes from beginning of this module"
  - ❖ Linker or loader will bind relocatable addresses to absolute addresses
    - ❖ i.e. 74014

# 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

- ❖ **Logical address** – generated by the CPU; also referred to as **virtual address**
- ❖ **Physical address** – address seen by the memory unit
- ❖ Logical and physical addresses are the same in compile-time and load-time address-binding schemes; logical (virtual) and physical addresses differ in execution-time address-binding scheme
- ❖ **Logical address space** is the set of all logical addresses generated by a program
- ❖ **Physical address space** is the set of all physical addresses generated by a program

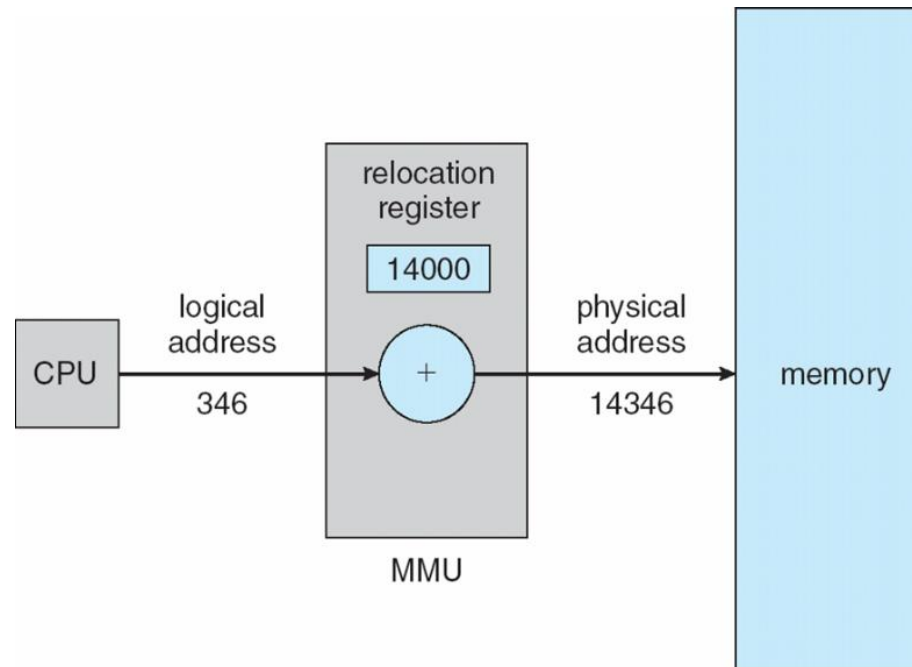


# Memory-Management Unit (MMU)

- ❖ Hardware device that at run time maps virtual to physical address
- ❖ To start, consider simple scheme where the value in the relocation register is added to every address generated by a user process at the time it is sent to memory
  - ❖ Base register now called **relocation register**
- ❖ The user program deals with logical addresses; it never sees the real physical addresses
  - ❖ Execution-time binding occurs when reference is made to location in memory
  - ❖ Logical address bound to physical addresses

# Dynamic relocation using a relocation register

- ❖ Routine is not loaded until it is called
- ❖ Better memory-space utilization; unused routine is never loaded
- ❖ All routines kept on disk in relocatable load format
- ❖ Useful when large amounts of code are needed to handle infrequently occurring cases



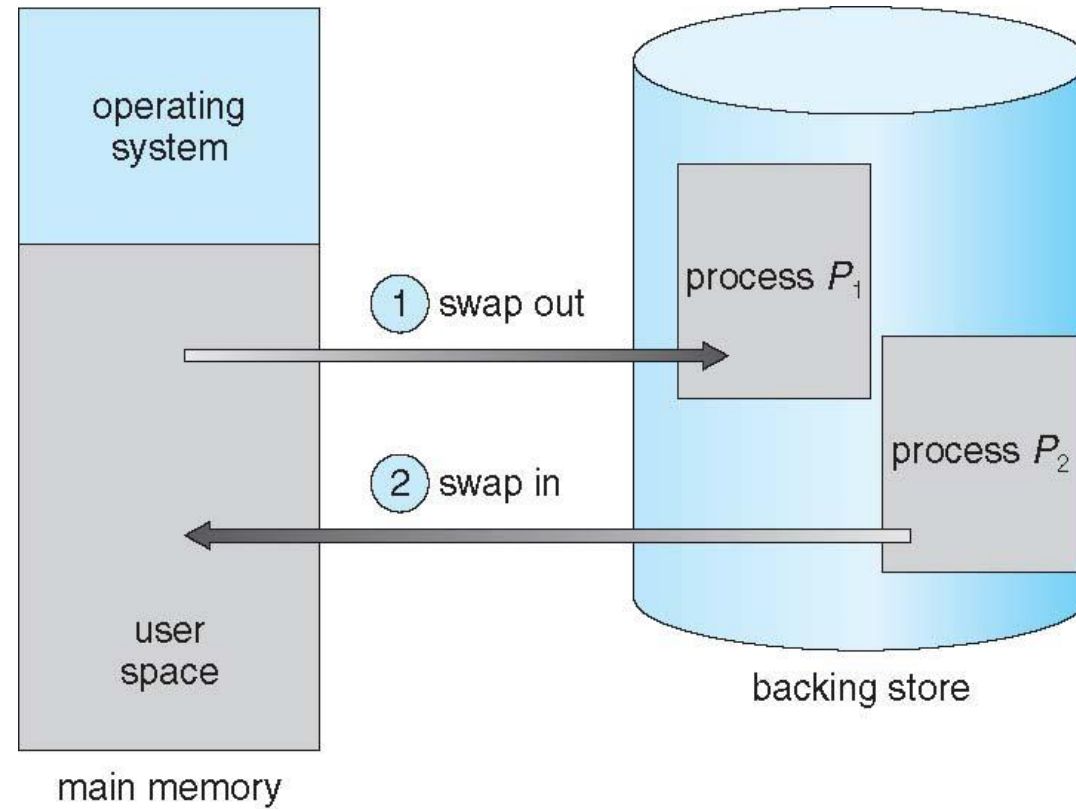
# Dynamic Linking

- ❖ **Static linking** – system libraries and program code combined by the loader into the binary program image
- ❖ Dynamic linking –linking postponed until execution time
- ❖ Operating system checks if routine is in processes' memory address
  - ❖ If not in address space, add to address space
- ❖ 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
- ❖ Total virtual memory space of processes can exceed physical memory
- ❖ **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
- ❖ System maintains a **ready queue** of ready-to-run processes which have memory images on disk

# Swapping



# Context Switch Time including Swapping

- ❖ If next processes to be put on CPU is not in memory, need to swap out a process and swap in target process
- ❖ Context switch time can then be very high
- ❖ 100MB process swapping to hard disk with transfer rate of 50MB/sec
  - ❖ Swap out time of 2000 ms
  - ❖ Plus swap in of same sized process
  - ❖ Total context switch swapping component time of 4000ms (4 seconds)
- ❖ Can reduce if reduce size of memory swapped – by knowing how much memory really being used
  - ❖ System calls to OS: `request_memory()` and

# Swapping on Mobile Systems

- ❖ Not typically supported in flash memory based systems
  - ❖ Small amount of space
  - ❖ Limited number of write cycles
  - ❖ Poor throughput between flash memory and CPU
- ❖ 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

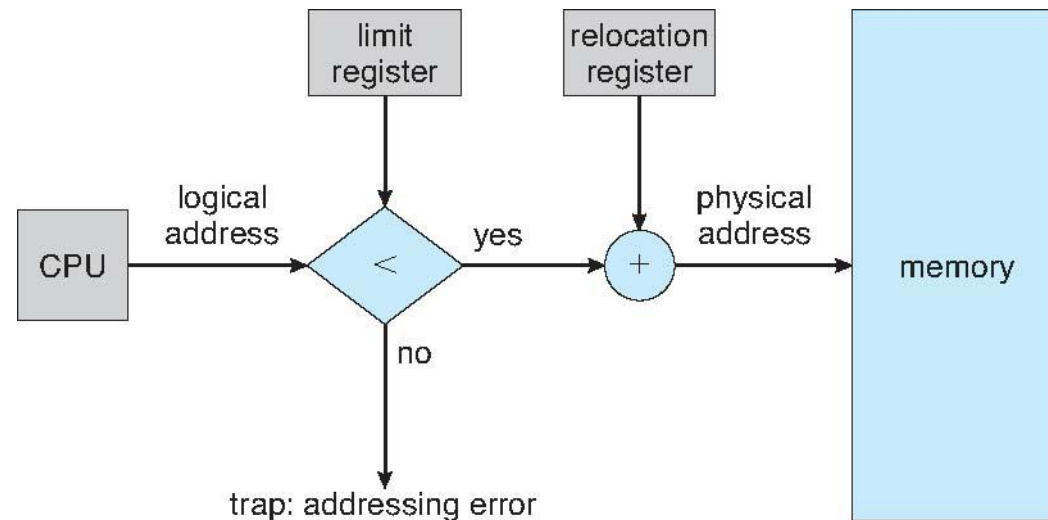
# Contiguous Allocation

- ❖ Main memory must support both OS and user processes
- ❖ Limited resource, must allocate efficiently
- ❖ Contiguous allocation is one early method
- ❖ Main memory has usually into two **partitions**:
  - ❖ Resident operating system, usually held in low memory with interrupt vector
  - ❖ User processes then held in high memory
  - ❖ Each process contained in single contiguous section of memory



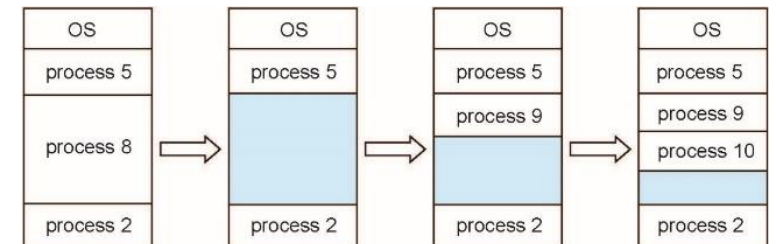
# Contiguous Allocation

- ❖ 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*



# Multiple-partition allocation

- ❖ Multiple-partition allocation
  - ❖ Degree of multiprogramming limited by number of partitions
  - ❖ **Variable-partition** sizes for efficiency as per size of process
  - ❖ **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
  - ❖ Process exiting frees its partition, adjacent free partitions combined
  - ❖ Operating system maintains information about:
    - a) allocated partitions
    - b) free partitions (hole)



# Dynamic Storage-Allocation Problem

- ❖ 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

# Fragmentation

- ❖ **External Fragmentation** – total memory space exists to satisfy a request, but it is not contiguous
- ❖ **Internal Fragmentation** – allocated memory may be slightly larger than requested memory; this size difference is memory internal to a partition, but not being used
- ❖ First fit analysis reveals that given  $N$  blocks allocated,  $0.5 N$  blocks lost to fragmentation
  - ❖  $1/3$  may be unusable -> **50-percent rule**

# Fragmentation

- ❖ 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
- ❖ Now consider that backing store has same fragmentation problems



Thank You