Operating Systems

Memory Management

Operating Systems

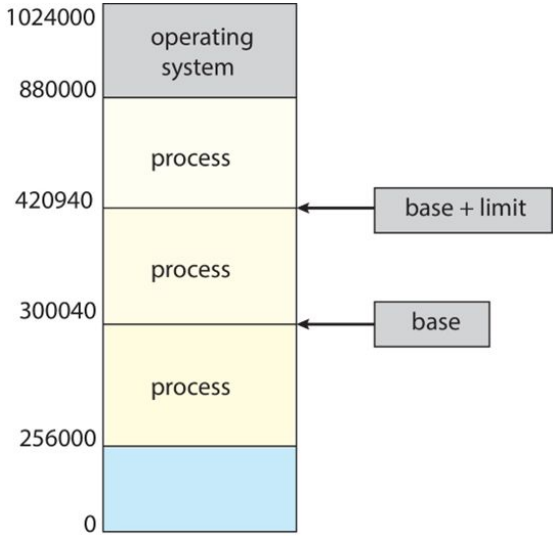
Main Memory

Background

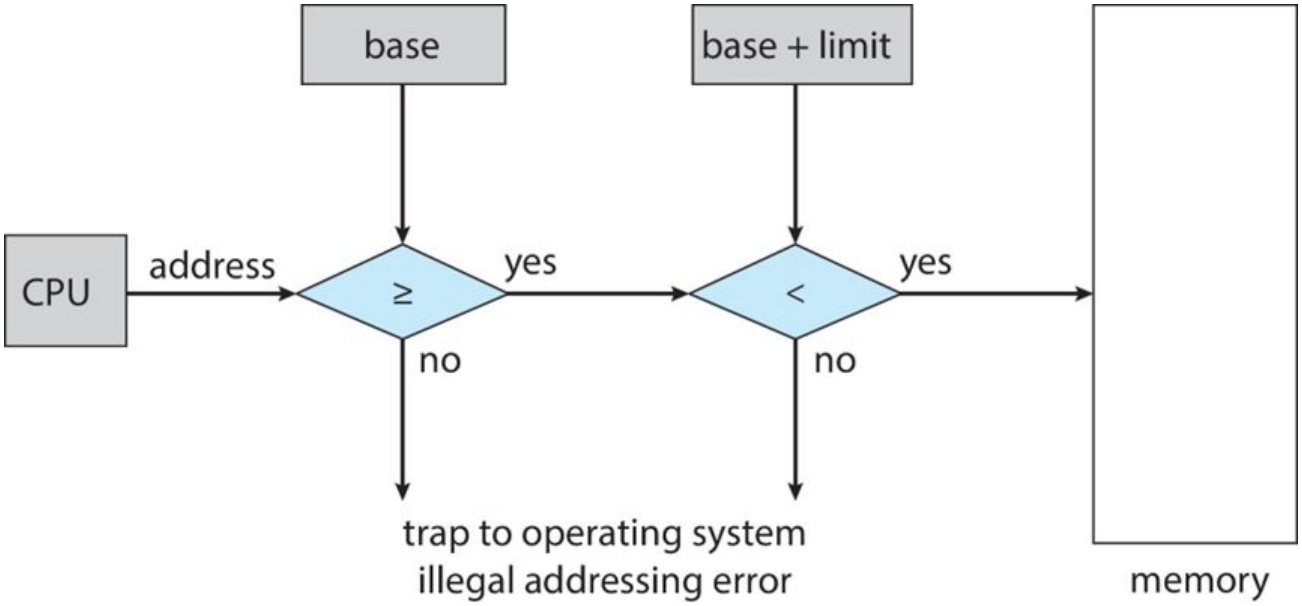
- Program must be brought (from disk) into memory and placed within a process for it to be run
- Main memory and registers are only storage CPU can access directly
- Memory unit only sees a stream of addresses + read requests, or address + data and write requests
- Register access in one CPU clock (or less)
- Main memory can take many cycles, causing a **stall,** since it does not have the data required to complete the instruction that it is executing
- **Cache** sits between main memory and CPU registers for fast access
- Protection of memory required to ensure correct operation

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



Hardware Address Protection



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Address Space

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
- 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

Operating Systems

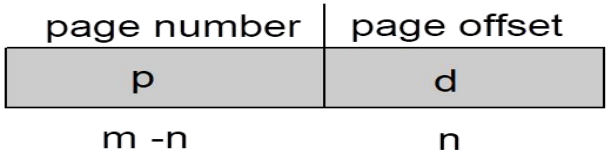
Paging

Paging

- Physical address space of a process can be noncontiguous; process is allocated physical memory whenever the latter is available
  - Avoids external fragmentation
  - Avoids problem of varying sized memory chunks
- Divide physical memory into fixed-sized blocks called **frames**
  - Size is power of 2, between 512 bytes and 16 Mbytes
- 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
- Backing store likewise split into pages
- Still have Internal fragmentation

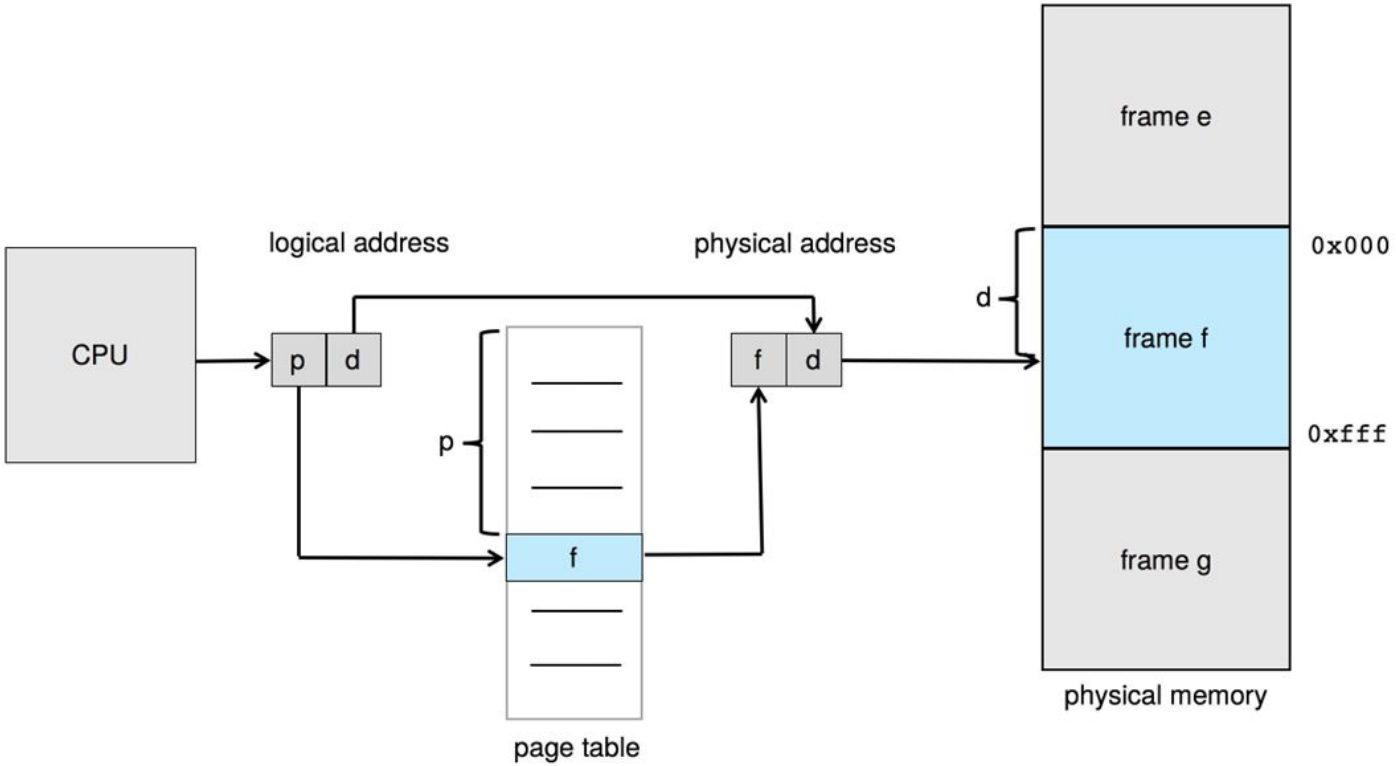
Address Translation Scheme

- 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

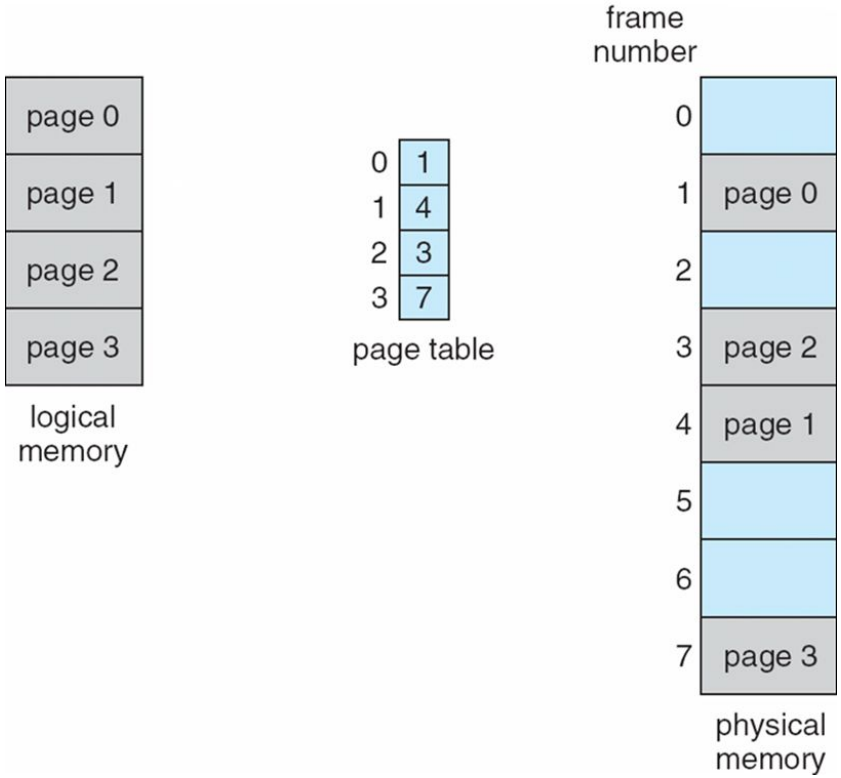


  - For given logical address space 2^m and page size 2^n

Paging Hardware



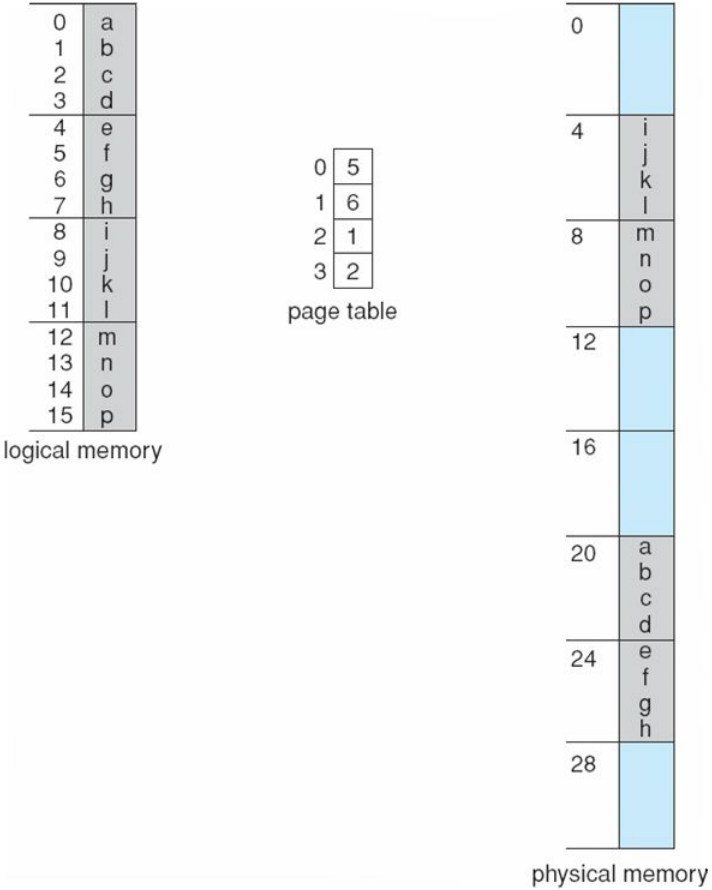
Paging Model of Logical and Physical Memory



Paging Example

n=2 and m=4

32-byte memory
and 4-byte pages



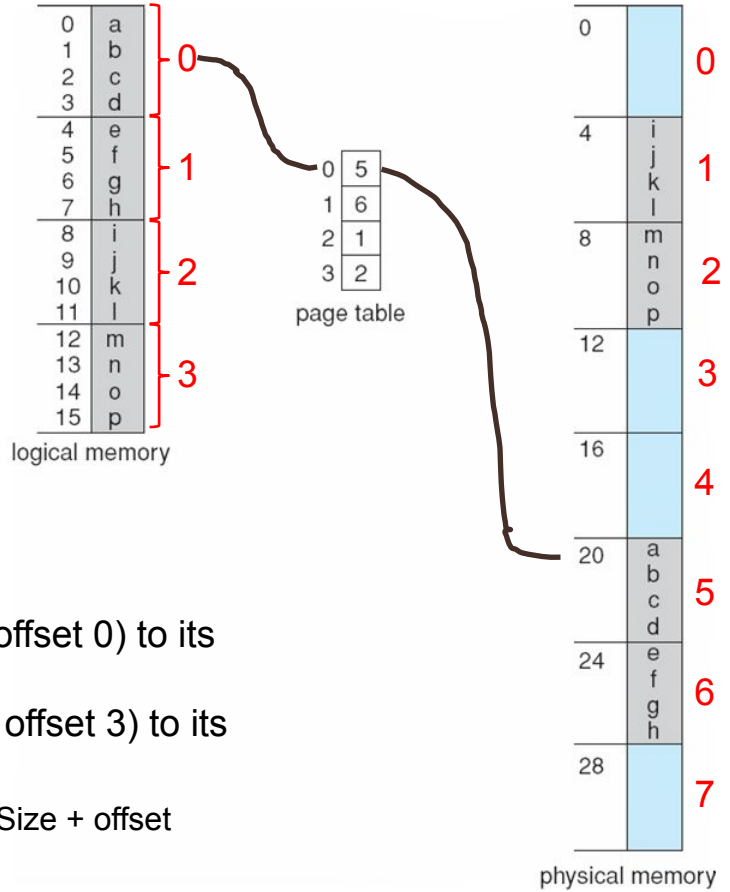
32/4 = 8 frames

Paging Example

- m is used to determine the number of logical addresses, $2^m = 16$
- n indicates the offset within each logical address

$n=2$ and $m=4$

Physical memory → 32-byte memory and 4-byte pages



- Map logical address 0 (page 0, offset 0) to its corresponding physical address
- Map Logical address 3 (page 0, offset 3) to its corresponding physical address

frameNumber * frameSize + offset

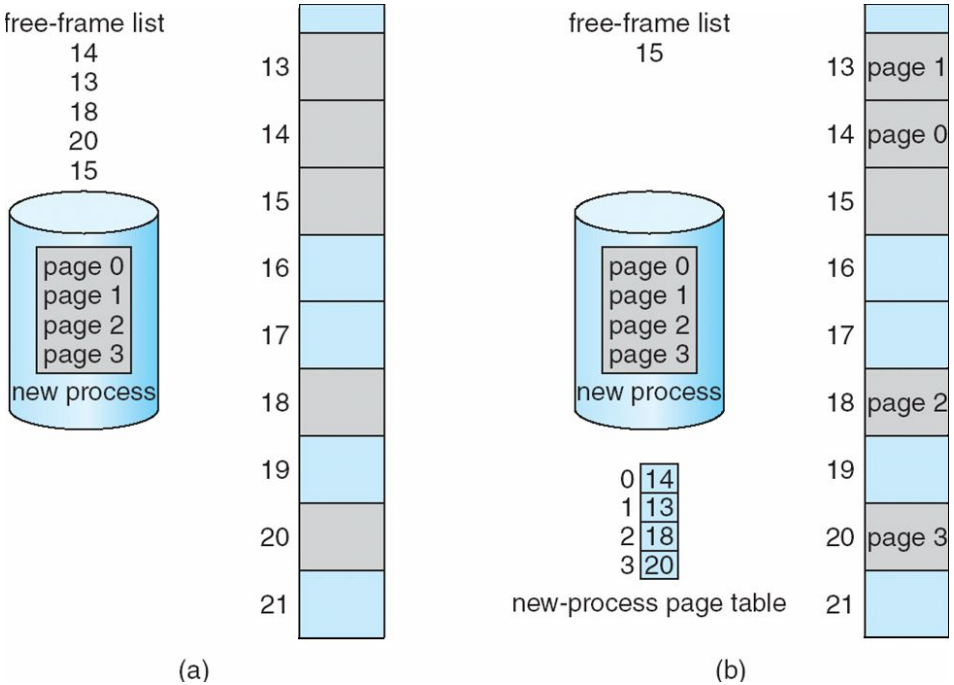
Size of Page

- Calculating internal fragmentation
  - Page size = 2,048 bytes
  - Process size = 72,766 bytes
  - 35 pages + 1,086 bytes
  - Internal fragmentation of 2,048 - 1,086 = 962 bytes
  - Worst case fragmentation = 1 frame – 1 byte
  - On average fragmentation = 1 / 2 frame size
  - So small frame sizes desirable?
  - But each page table entry takes memory to track
  - Page sizes growing over time
    - Solaris supports two page sizes – 8 KB and 4 MB

- Process view and physical memory now very different

- By implementation process can only access its own memory

Free Frames



Before allocation

After allocation

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Implementation of Page Table

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** (**PTLR**) 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 lookaside buffers** (**TLBs**)

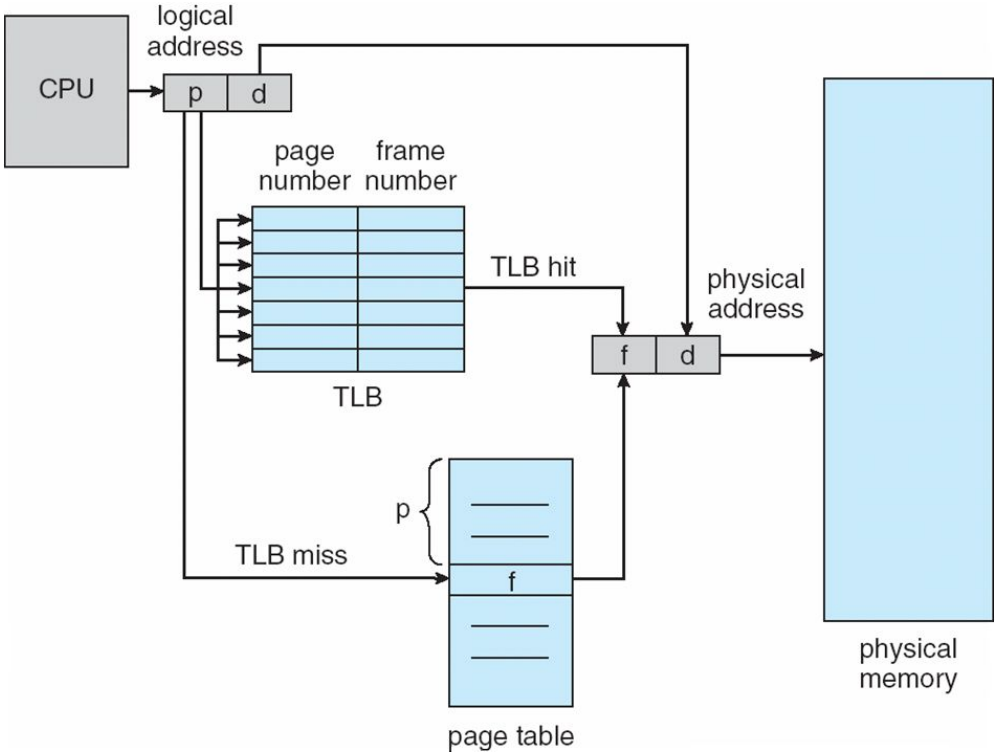
Associative Memory

- 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



Effective Access Time

- Associative Lookup = ε time unit
  - Can be < 10% of memory access time
- Hit ratio = α
  - Hit ratio – percentage of times that a page number is found in the associative registers;
- **Effective Access Time** (**EAT**):
- Consider α = 80%, ε = 20ns for TLB search, 100ns for memory access
  - EAT = 0.80 x 120 + 0.20 x 220 = 140ns
- Consider more realistic hit ratio -> α = 99%, ε = 20ns for TLB search, 100ns for memory access
  - EAT = 0.99 x 120 + 0.01 x 220 = 121ns

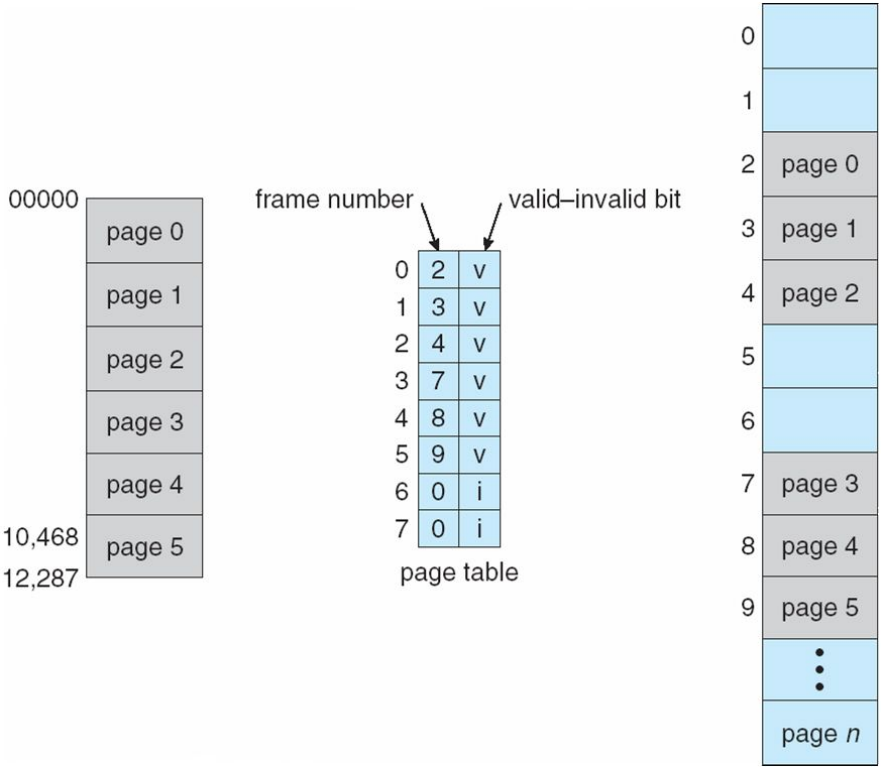
Memory Protection

- Memory protection implemented by associating protection bit with each frame to indicate if read-only or read-write access is allowed
  - Can also add more bits to indicate page execute-only, and so on

- **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
  - Or use **page-table length register** (**PTLR**)

- Any violations result in a trap to the kernel

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



Operating Systems

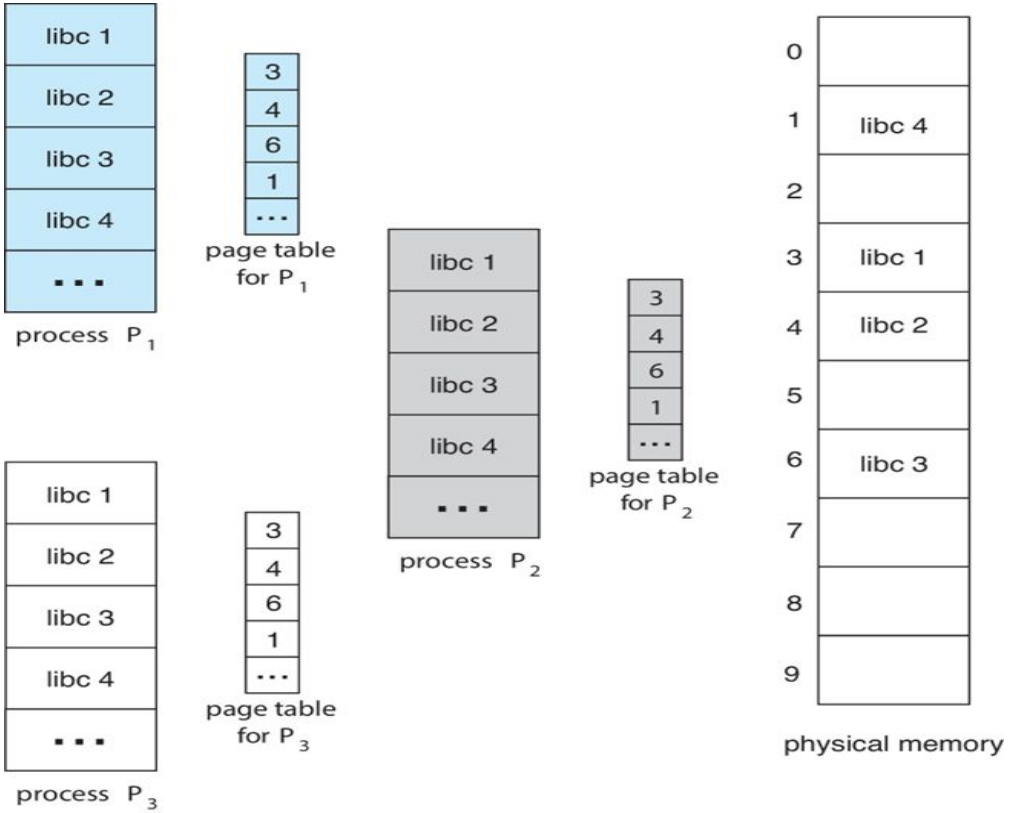
Shared Pages

Shared Pages

- **Shared code**
  - One copy of read-only (**reentrant**) code shared among processes (i.e., text editors, compilers, window systems)
  - Similar to multiple threads sharing the same process space
  - Also useful for inter-process communication if sharing of read-write pages is allowed

- **Private code and data**
  - Each process keeps a separate copy of the code and data
  - The pages for the private code and data can appear anywhere in the logical address space

Shared Pages Example



Operating Systems

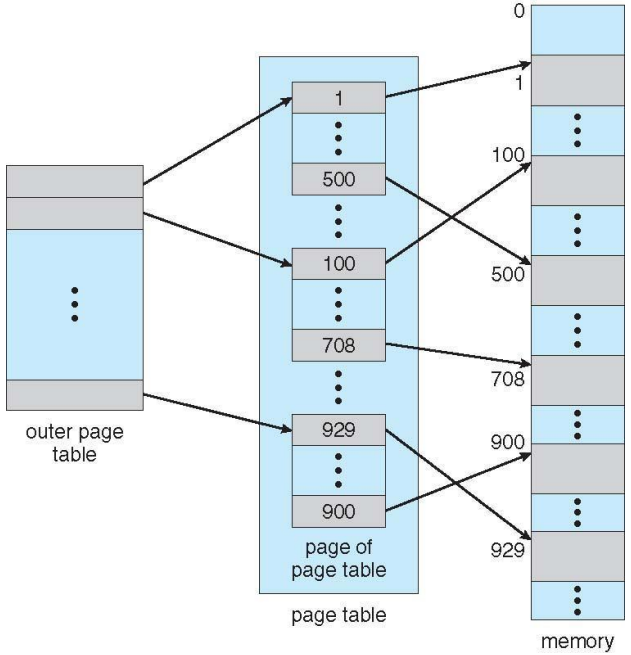
Hierarchical Page Table

Structure of the Page Table

- Memory structures for paging can get huge using straightforward methods
  - Consider a 32-bit logical address space as on modern computers
  - Page size of 4 KB (2^{12})
  - Page table would have 1 million entries (2^{32} / 2^{12})
  - If each entry is 4 bytes -> 4 MB of physical address space / memory for page table alone
    - That amount of memory used to cost a lot
    - Don’t want to allocate that contiguously in main memory

Hierarchical Page Tables

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

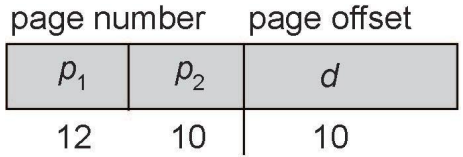


Two-Level Paging Example

- 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:



- where p_1 is an index into the outer page table, and p_2 is the displacement within the page of the inner page table
- Known as **forward-mapped page table**

Operating Systems

Virtual Memory

Background

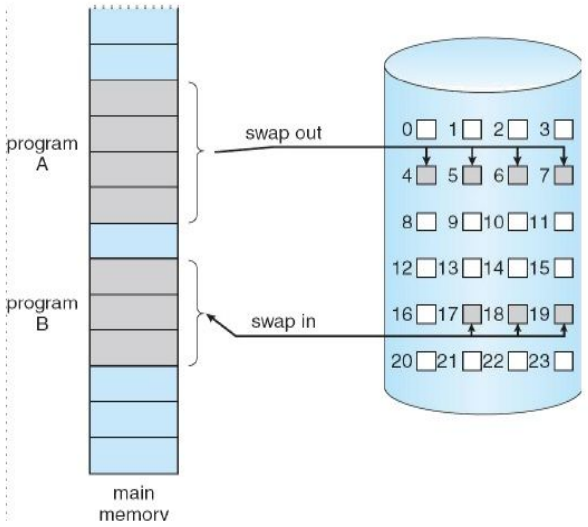
- The term “virtual memory” refers to something which appears to be present but actually it is not.
- The virtual memory technique allows users to use more memory for a program than the real memory of a computer.
- Virtual memory is a **concept** that we use when we have processes that exceed the main memory.
- When computer runs out of physical memory, it writes its requirement to the hard disc in a swap file as “virtual memory”.

Demand Paging

- Bring a page into memory only when it is needed
  - Less I/O needed
  - Less memory needed
  - Faster response
  - More users

- Disadvantage: Page fault interrupt

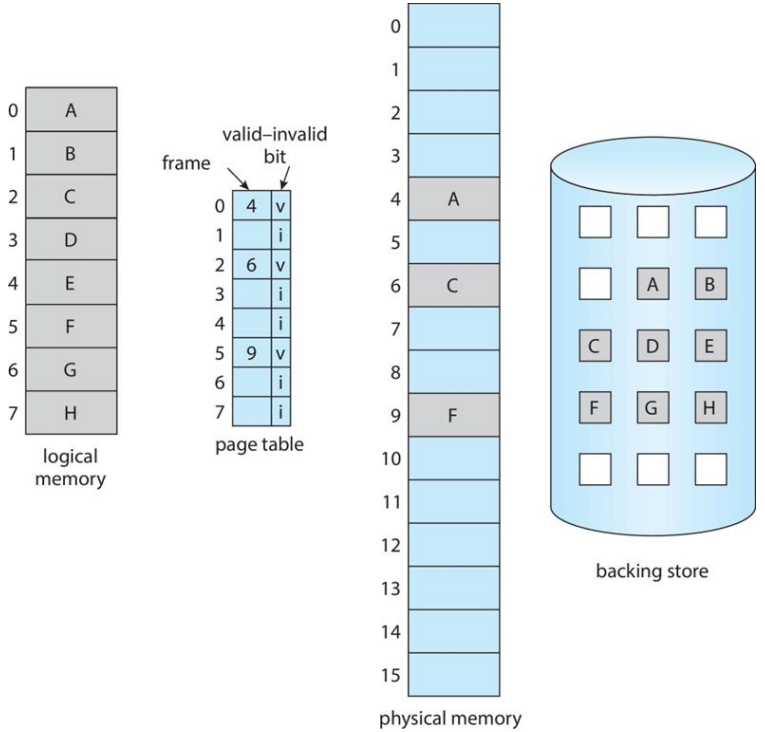
- Required hardware support:
  - Page Table with valid-invalid bit
  - Secondary memory



Demand Paging in OS

Valid-Invalid Bit

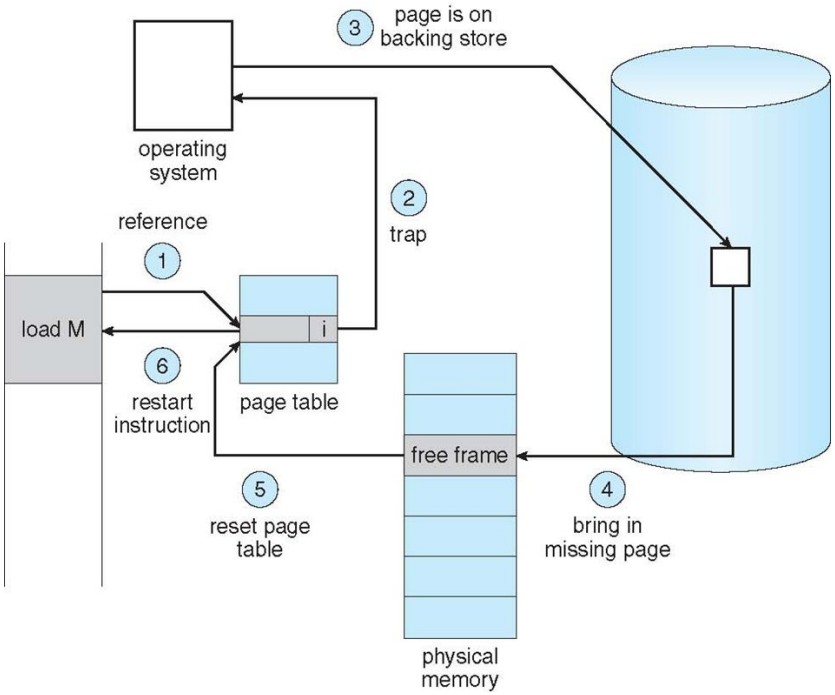
- An extra bit in the page table which indicates the existence of the page in the main memory.
- Attempt to access page
- If page is valid (in memory) then continue processing instruction as normal.
- If page is invalid then a page-fault trap / page-fault interrupt occurs.
- Page is needed ⇒ reference to it
  - Invalid reference ⇒ abort
  - Not-in-memory ⇒ bring to memory



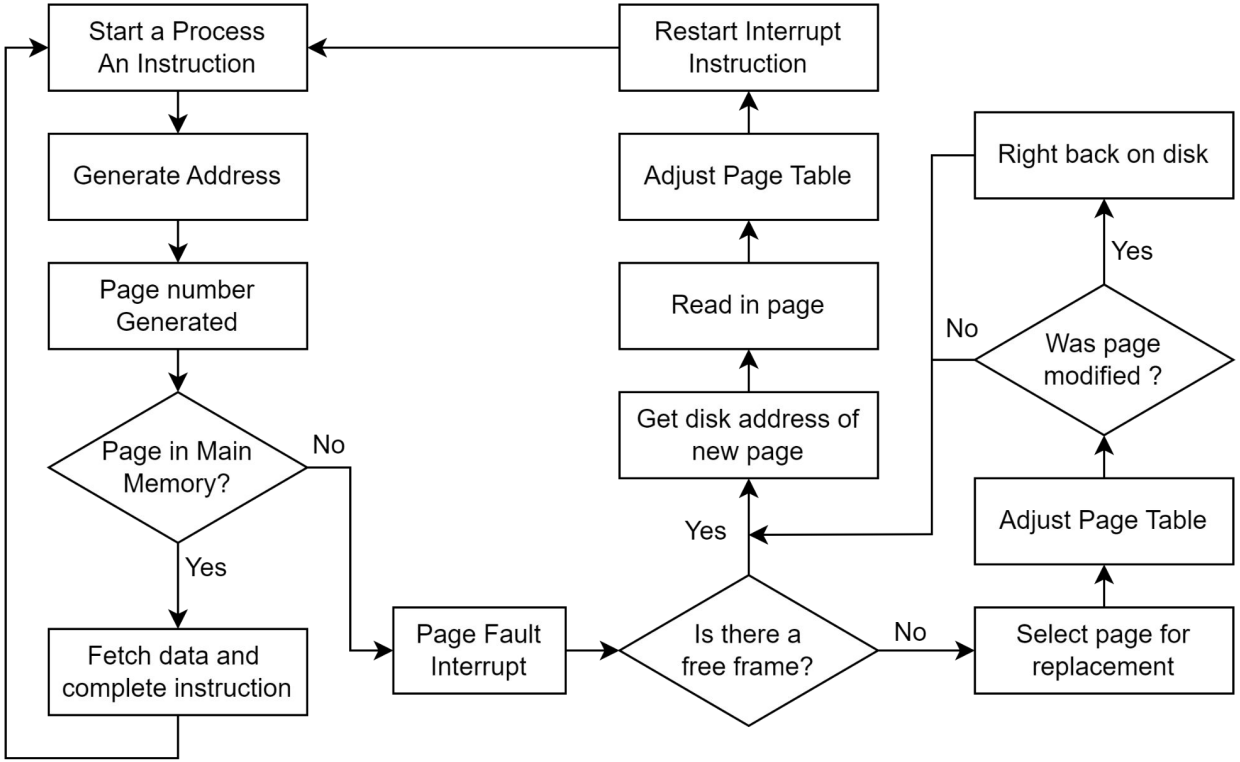
Page Fault

If there is ever a reference to a page, first reference will trap to OS ⇒ **page fault**

1. OS looks at another table to decide:
   - Invalid reference ⇒ abort.
   - Just not in memory.
2. Find empty/ free frame.
3. Load page from disk into frame.
4. Reset tables, validation bit = 1.
5. Restart instruction that caused page fault



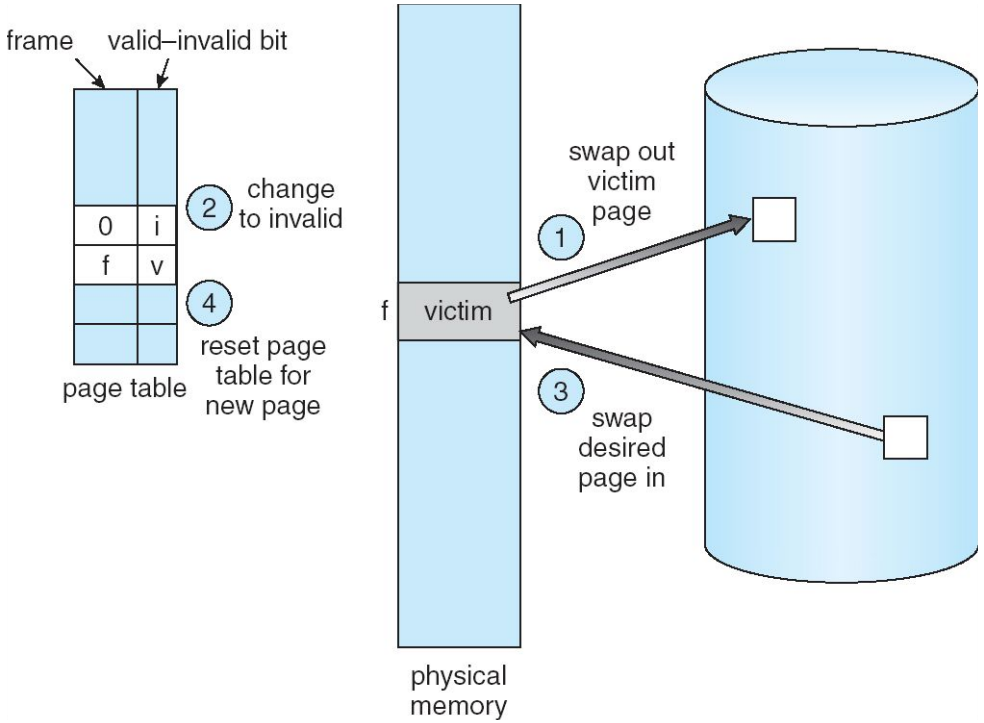
Demand Paging Flowchart



Page Replacement

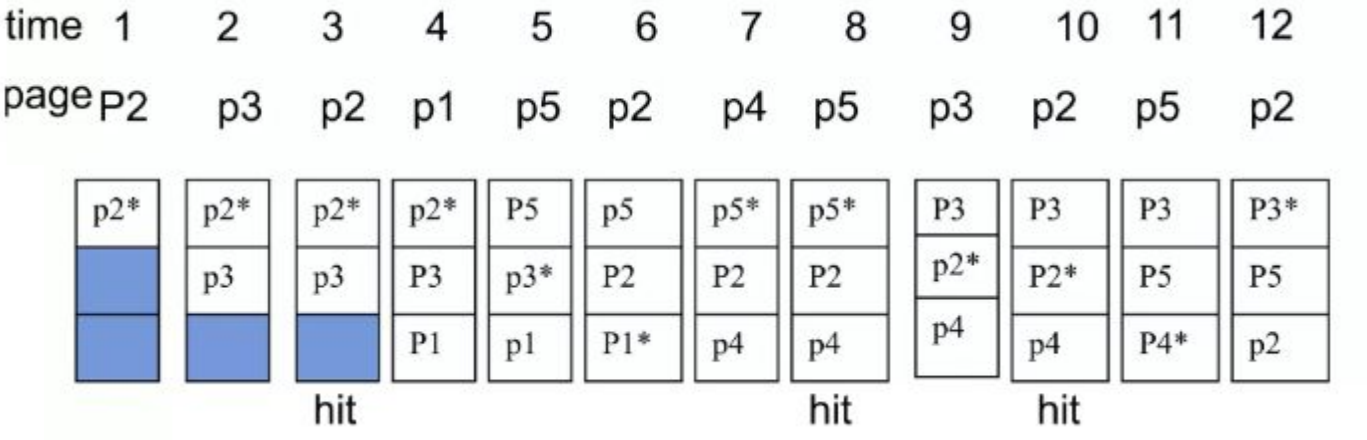
Page Replacement Algorithms:

- FIFO (First In First Out)
- LRU (Least Recently Used)
- OPT (Optimal)



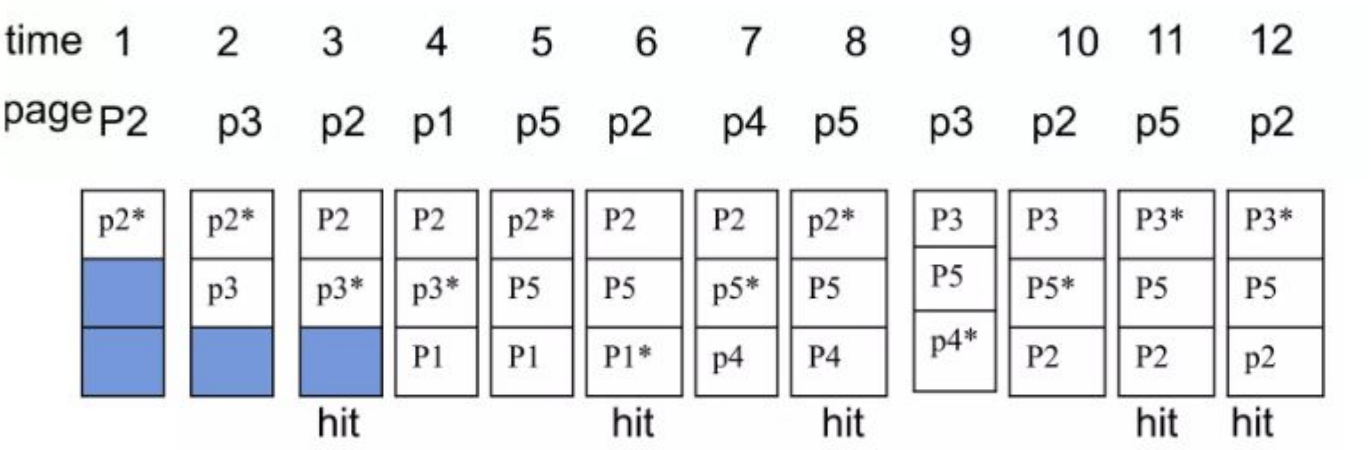
FIFO (First In First Out)

- Selects the page for replacement that has been in the memory for the longest amount of time



LRU (Least Recently Used)

- Replace the least recently used page in the past
- Can be implemented by associating a counter with every page that is in main memory



Optimal

- Replace the page which is not used in longest dimension of time in future