

#### Memory Managment - Part I

Amir H. Payberah payberah@kth.se Nov. 22, 2023



# Motivation

▶ Main memory is a large array of bytes, each with its own address.

## Motivation

- ▶ Main memory is a large array of bytes, each with its own address.
- ▶ Program must be brought (from disk) into memory and placed within a process for it to be run.

### KTH Motivation

- ▶ Main memory is a large array of bytes, each with its own address.
- ▶ Program must be brought (from disk) into memory and placed within a process for it to be run.
  - Machine instructions may take memory addresses as arguments, but not disk addresses.

## Motivation

- ▶ Main memory is a large array of bytes, each with its own address.
- ▶ Program must be brought (from disk) into memory and placed within a process for it to be run.
  - Machine instructions may take memory addresses as arguments, but not disk addresses.
- ► The CPU fetches instructions from memory according to the value of the program counter.

# Basic Hardware

► Main memory and registers are the only storage that the CPU can access directly.



- ► Main memory and registers are the only storage that the CPU can access directly.
- ► Register access in one CPU clock (or less)



- ► Main memory and registers are the only storage that the CPU can access directly.
- ► Register access in one CPU clock (or less)
- ▶ Main memory can take many cycles, causing a stall.



- ▶ Main memory and registers are the only storage that the CPU can access directly.
- ► Register access in one CPU clock (or less)
- ▶ Main memory can take many cycles, causing a stall.
- ► Cache sits between main memory and registers.



▶ We must protect the OS from access by user processes.



#### Address Protection

- ▶ We must protect the OS from access by user processes.
- ▶ We must protect user processes from one another.



#### Address Protection

- ▶ We must protect the OS from access by user processes.
- ▶ We must protect user processes from one another.
- ► This protection is provided by the hardware.

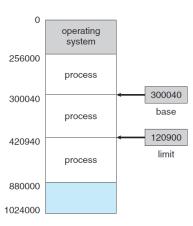


- ▶ We must protect the OS from access by user processes.
- ▶ We must protect user processes from one another.
- ► This protection is provided by the hardware.
- ► A separate memory space for each process.
  - Determining the range of legal addresses that the process may access.



#### Base and Limit Registers

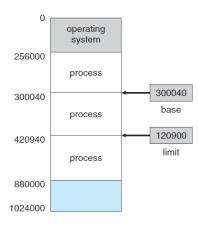
► A pair of base and limit registers define the logical address space.





#### Base and Limit Registers

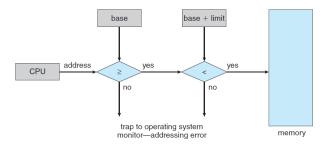
- ► A pair of base and limit registers define the logical address space.
- ► CPU must check every memory access generated in user mode to be sure it is between base and limit for that user.





#### Hardware Address Protection

▶ Any attempt by a user program to access OS memory or other users' memory results in a trap to the OS, which treats the attempt as a fatal error.





### Address Binding

# Address Binding

► Programs on disk, ready to be brought into memory to execute form an input queue.

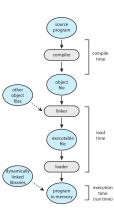


- ► Programs on disk, ready to be brought into memory to execute form an input queue.
- ▶ A user process can reside in any part of the physical memory.



### Binding of Instructions and Data to Memory (1/3)

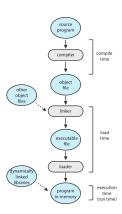
 Address binding of instructions and data to memory addresses can happen at three different stages.





### Binding of Instructions and Data to Memory (1/3)

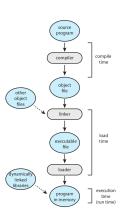
- Address binding of instructions and data to memory addresses can happen at three different stages.
- ► Compile time: if memory location known a priori, absolute code can be generated.





#### Binding of Instructions and Data to Memory (1/3)

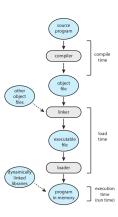
- Address binding of instructions and data to memory addresses can happen at three different stages.
- ► Compile time: if memory location known a priori, absolute code can be generated.
  - Must recompile code if starting location changes.





### Binding of Instructions and Data to Memory (2/3)

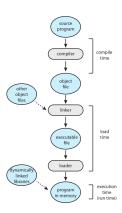
► Load time: must generate relocatable code if memory location is not known at compile time.





### Binding of Instructions and Data to Memory (2/3)

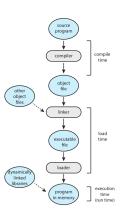
- ► Load time: must generate relocatable code if memory location is not known at compile time.
  - Final binding is delayed until load time.





### Binding of Instructions and Data to Memory (2/3)

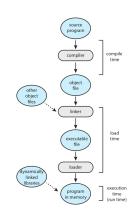
- ► Load time: must generate relocatable code if memory location is not known at compile time.
  - Final binding is delayed until load time.
  - If the starting address changes, we need only reload the user code to incorporate this changed value.





### Binding of Instructions and Data to Memory (3/3)

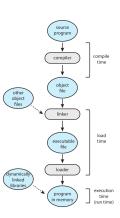
- ► Execution time: binding delayed until run time if the process can be moved during its execution from one memory segment to another.
  - Need hardware support





#### Linking and Loading

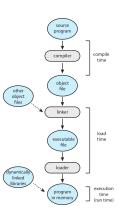
► Linking: connecting all the modules or the function of a program for program execution.





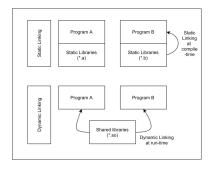
#### Linking and Loading

- ► Linking: connecting all the modules or the function of a program for program execution.
- ► Loading: loading the program from disk to the main memory for execution.



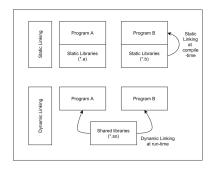
# Dynamic Linking

► Static linking: system libraries and program code combined by the loader into the binary program image.



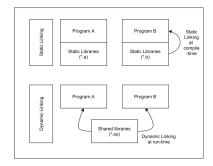


- ► Static linking: system libraries and program code combined by the loader into the binary program image.
- ► Dynamic linking: linking postponed until execution time.





- ► Static linking: system libraries and program code combined by the loader into the binary program image.
- ► Dynamic linking: linking postponed until execution time.
  - Useful for shared libraries.





► Routine/library is not loaded until it is called.



- ► Routine/library is not loaded until it is called.
- ▶ The main program is loaded into memory and is executed.



- ► Routine/library is not loaded until it is called.
- ▶ The main program is loaded into memory and is executed.
- ▶ When a routine is needed, if it has not been loaded, the loader loads the routine into memory.



#### Dynamic Loading

- ► Routine/library is not loaded until it is called.
- ▶ The main program is loaded into memory and is executed.
- ▶ When a routine is needed, if it has not been loaded, the loader loads the routine into memory.
- ▶ Better memory-space utilization; unused routine is never loaded.



### Logical and Physical Address Space



▶ Logical address (virtual address): address generated by the CPU.



- ▶ Logical address (virtual address): address generated by the CPU.
  - Logical address space is the set of all logical addresses generated by a program.



- ► Logical address (virtual address): address generated by the CPU.
  - Logical address space is the set of all logical addresses generated by a program.
- ▶ Physical address: address seen by the memory unit.



- ► Logical address (virtual address): address generated by the CPU.
  - Logical address space is the set of all logical addresses generated by a program.
- ▶ Physical address: address seen by the memory unit.
  - Physical address space is the set of all physical addresses generated by a program.



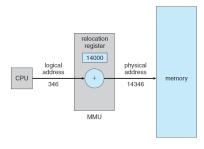
#### Memory-Management Unit (MMU) (1/2)

► Hardware device that maps virtual to physical address at run time.



#### Memory-Management Unit (MMU) (1/2)

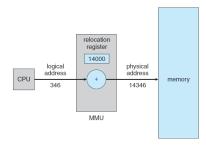
- ► Hardware device that maps virtual to physical address at run time.
- ► E.g., the value in the relocation register is added to every address generated by a user process at the time it is sent to memory.





#### Memory-Management Unit (MMU) (1/2)

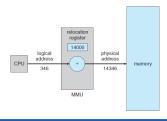
- ► Hardware device that maps virtual to physical address at run time.
- ► E.g., the value in the relocation register is added to every address generated by a user process at the time it is sent to memory.
  - Base register now called relocation register.





#### Memory-Management Unit (MMU) (2/2)

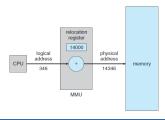
- ► Two different types of addresses:
  - Logical addresses: range 0 to max
  - ullet Physical addresses: range R + 0 to R + max for a base value R





#### Memory-Management Unit (MMU) (2/2)

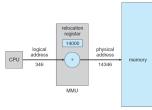
- ► Two different types of addresses:
  - Logical addresses: range 0 to max
  - $\bullet$  Physical addresses: range R + 0 to R + max for a base value R
- ► The user program generates only logical addresses and thinks that the process runs in locations 0 to max.





#### Memory-Management Unit (MMU) (2/2)

- ► Two different types of addresses:
  - Logical addresses: range 0 to max
  - $\bullet$  Physical addresses: range R + 0 to R + max for a base value R
- ► The user program generates only logical addresses and thinks that the process runs in locations 0 to max.
- ► These logical addresses must be mapped to physical addresses before they are used.





# Swapping

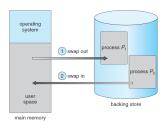
# KTH Swapping

► A process can be swapped temporarily out of memory to disk, and then brought back into memory for continued execution.



#### Swapping

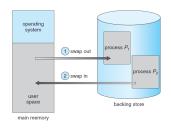
- A process can be swapped temporarily out of memory to disk, and then brought back into memory for continued execution.
- ▶ If next processes to be put on CPU is not in memory, need to swap out a process and swap in target process.





#### Swapping

- ► A process can be swapped temporarily out of memory to disk, and then brought back into memory for continued execution.
- ▶ If next processes to be put on CPU is not in memory, need to swap out a process and swap in target process.
- ► Major part of swap time is transfer time.





► Not typically supported.



- Not typically supported.
- ► Flash memory based
  - Small amount of space
  - Limited number of write cycles
  - Poor throughput between flash memory and CPU on mobile platform



▶ Instead use other methods to free memory if low.



- ▶ Instead use other methods to free memory if low.
- ▶ iOS asks apps to voluntarily relinquish allocated memory.



- ▶ Instead 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.



- ▶ Instead 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.



- ▶ Instead 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.



# Contiguous Memory Allocation



▶ Main memory must support both OS and user processes.



- ▶ Main memory must support both OS and user processes.
- ▶ Limited resource, must allocate efficiently.



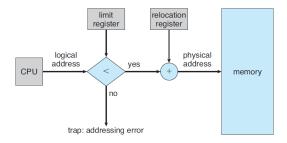
- ▶ Main memory must support both OS and user processes.
- ▶ Limited resource, must allocate efficiently.
- ► Contiguous allocation is an early method.



- ▶ Main memory must support both OS and user processes.
- ► Limited resource, must allocate efficiently.
- Contiguous allocation is an early method.
- ► Main memory usually into two partitions:
  - Resident OS and user processes memory address.
  - Each process contained in single contiguous section of memory.

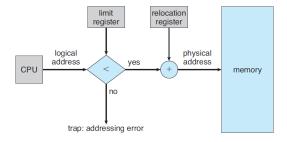


► Relocation registers used to protect user processes from each other, and from changing OS code and data.



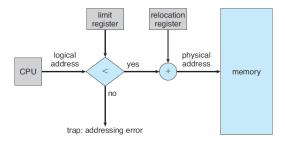


- ► Relocation registers used to protect user processes from each other, and from changing OS code and data.
  - Base register contains value of smallest physical address.



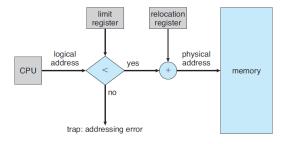


- ► Relocation registers used to protect user processes from each other, and from changing OS code and data.
  - Base register contains value of smallest physical address.
  - Limit register contains range of logical addresses.





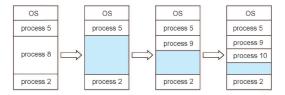
- ► Relocation registers used to protect user processes from each other, and from changing OS code and data.
  - Base register contains value of smallest physical address.
  - Limit register contains range of logical addresses.
  - MMU maps logical address dynamically.





## Multiple-Partition Allocation (1/2)

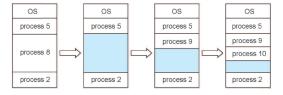
▶ Memory is divided into several fixed-sized partitions.





#### Multiple-Partition Allocation (1/2)

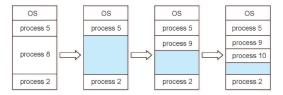
- ▶ Memory is divided into several fixed-sized partitions.
- ► Each partition may contain exactly one process.





#### Multiple-Partition Allocation (1/2)

- ► Memory is divided into several fixed-sized partitions.
- ► Each partition may contain exactly one process.
- ▶ When a partition is free, a process is selected from the input queue and is loaded into the free partition.





# Multiple-Partition Allocation (2/2)

▶ Variable-partition sizes for efficiency (sized to a given process' needs).



#### Multiple-Partition Allocation (2/2)

- ▶ Variable-partition sizes for efficiency (sized to a given process' needs).
- ► Hole: block of available memory.



## Multiple-Partition Allocation (2/2)

- ▶ Variable-partition sizes for efficiency (sized to a given process' needs).
- ► Hole: block of available memory.
- ▶ When a process arrives, it is allocated memory from a hole large enough to accommodate it.



#### Multiple-Partition Allocation (2/2)

- ▶ Variable-partition sizes for efficiency (sized to a given process' needs).
- ► Hole: block of available 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.



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



- ▶ How to satisfy a request of size n from a list of free holes?
- ► First-fit: allocate the first hole that is big enough



- ▶ 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.



- ▶ 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.



- ▶ 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.



- ► 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.



► Compaction: a solution to the problem of external fragmentation.



- ► Compaction: a solution to the problem of external fragmentation.
- ► Shuffle memory contents to place all free memory together in one large block.



- ▶ Compaction: a solution to the problem of external fragmentation.
- ► Shuffle memory contents to place all free memory together in one large block.
- ► Another possible solution to the external fragmentation problem: permit the logical address space of the processes to be noncontiguous.

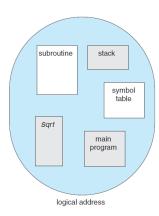


- ► Compaction: a solution to the problem of external fragmentation.
- ► Shuffle memory contents to place all free memory together in one large block.
- ► Another possible solution to the external fragmentation problem: permit the logical address space of the processes to be noncontiguous.
- ► Two techniques:
  - Segmentation
  - Paging



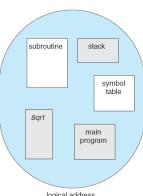


▶ Memory-management scheme supports user view of memory.





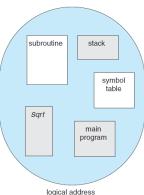
- ▶ Memory-management scheme supports user view of memory.
- ► A program is a collection of segments.



logical address

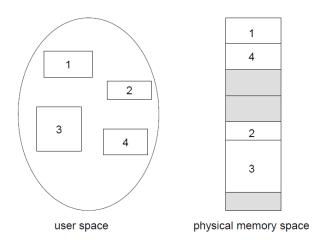


- ▶ Memory-management scheme supports user view of memory.
- ► A program is a collection of segments.
- ► A segment is a logical unit such as:
  - Main program
  - Procedure
  - Function
  - Object
  - ...





#### Logical View of Segmentation





#### Segmentation Architecture

► Logical address consists of a tuple: ⟨segment\_number, offset⟩



#### Segmentation Architecture

- ► Logical address consists of a tuple: ⟨segment\_number, offset⟩
- ► Segment table: maps two-dimensional user-defined addresses into one-dimensional physical address.

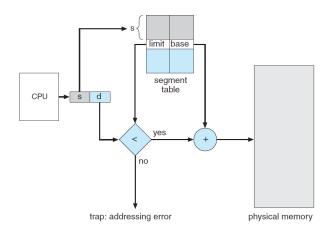


#### Segmentation Architecture

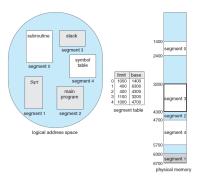
- ► Logical address consists of a tuple: ⟨segment\_number, offset⟩
- Segment table: maps two-dimensional user-defined addresses into one-dimensional physical address.
- ► Each table entry has:
  - Base: contains the starting physical address where the segments reside in memory.
  - Limit: specifies the length of the segment.



#### Segmentation Hardware

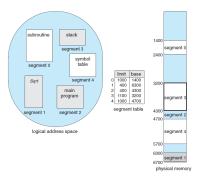






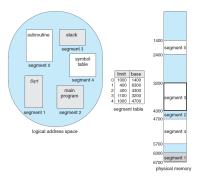
► A reference to byte 53 of segment 2:





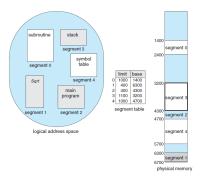
▶ A reference to byte 53 of segment 2: 4300 + 53 = 4353





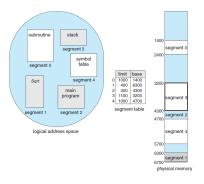
- ▶ A reference to byte 53 of segment 2: 4300 + 53 = 4353
- ► A reference to byte 852 of segment 3:





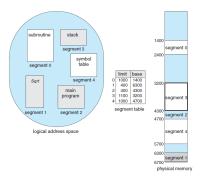
- $\blacktriangleright$  A reference to byte 53 of segment 2: 4300 + 53 = 4353
- A reference to byte 852 of segment 3: 3200 + 852 = 4052





- A reference to byte 53 of segment 2: 4300 + 53 = 4353
- A reference to byte 852 of segment 3: 3200 + 852 = 4052
- ► A reference to byte 1222 of segment 0:





- $\blacktriangleright$  A reference to byte 53 of segment 2: 4300 + 53 = 4353
- A reference to byte 852 of segment 3: 3200 + 852 = 4052
- ► A reference to byte 1222 of segment 0: trap to OS



## Summary



► Main memory

# Summary

- ► Main memory
- ► Address protection: base + limit



- ► Main memory
- ► Address protection: base + limit
- ► Address binding: compile time, load time, execution time



- ► Main memory
- ► Address protection: base + limit
- ► Address binding: compile time, load time, execution time
- ► Logical and physical address, MMU



- Main memory
- ► Address protection: base + limit
- ► Address binding: compile time, load time, execution time
- ► Logical and physical address, MMU
- ► Swapping: backing store, swapping cost



- ► Main memory
- ► Address protection: base + limit
- ► Address binding: compile time, load time, execution time
- Logical and physical address, MMU
- Swapping: backing store, swapping cost
- Contiguous memory allocation: partitions, holes, first-fit, best-fit, worst-fit



- ► Main memory
- ► Address protection: base + limit
- ► Address binding: compile time, load time, execution time
- Logical and physical address, MMU
- Swapping: backing store, swapping cost
- Contiguous memory allocation: partitions, holes, first-fit, best-fit, worst-fit
- External and internal fragmentation: compaction, segmentation, paging



- Main memory
- ► Address protection: base + limit
- ► Address binding: compile time, load time, execution time
- Logical and physical address, MMU
- Swapping: backing store, swapping cost
- Contiguous memory allocation: partitions, holes, first-fit, best-fit, worst-fit
- External and internal fragmentation: compaction, segmentation, paging
- ► Segmentation: noncontiguous address, user view of memory



### Questions?

#### Acknowledgements

Some slides were derived from Avi Silberschatz slides.