

- Memory Management

Background

- It is a method of managing various types of memory especially the primary memory (RAM).
- Program must be brought secondary memory (from disk) into primary memory and placed within a process for it to be run
- Main memory (RAM) and registers are only storage CPU can access directly

Multiprogramming

- Multiple Programs stored at the same time
 - into different areas of memory
- Processor needs to context switch
- Programs use memory addresses / references
- Proper addressing is required
 - no matter where the program is located in memory

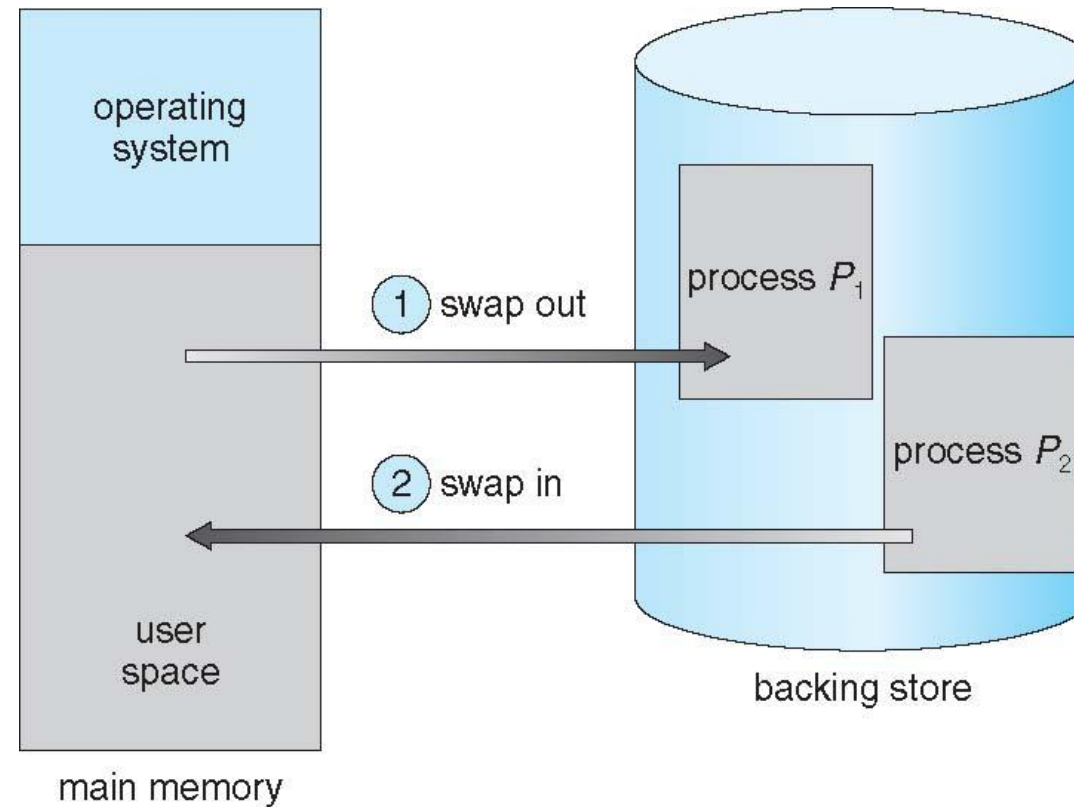
Degree of Multiprogramming

- CPU utilization = $1 - P^n$
 - n process in memory
 - P is the I/O block time by one process
 - P^n probability of all process are waiting for I/O
- I/O waiting 80% of time
 - CPU utilization = $1 - 0.8^1 = 20\%$ [1 process @ memory]
 - CPU utilization = $1 - 0.8^3 = 49\%$ [3 processes @ memory]
 - CPU utilization = $1 - 0.8^{10} = 89\%$ [10 processes @ memory]

Swapping

- A process can be swapped temporarily out of memory to a backing store, and then brought back into memory for continued execution
 - Total physical memory space of processes can exceed physical memory
- 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

Schematic View of Swapping



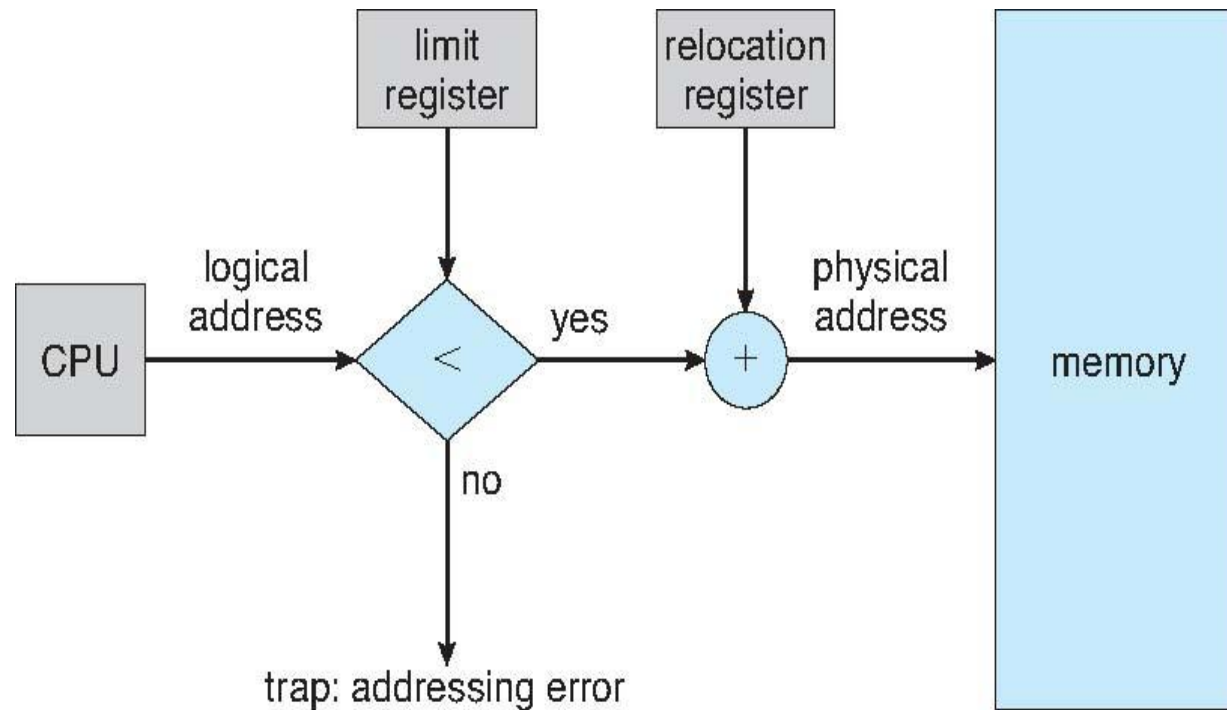
Memory Management Techniques

- Contiguous
 - Fixed partitioning (static)
 - Variable partitioning (dynamic)
- Non-contiguous
 - Paging
 - Segmentation

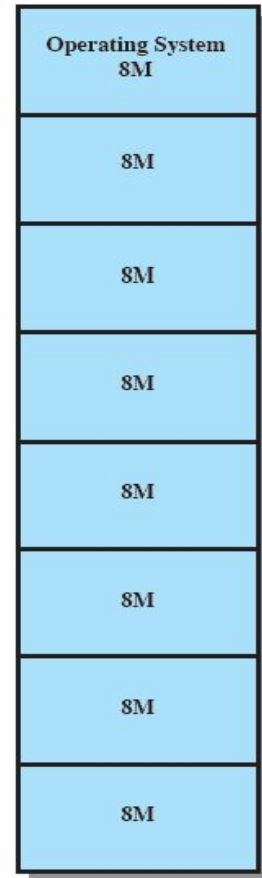
Contiguous Allocation

- 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*

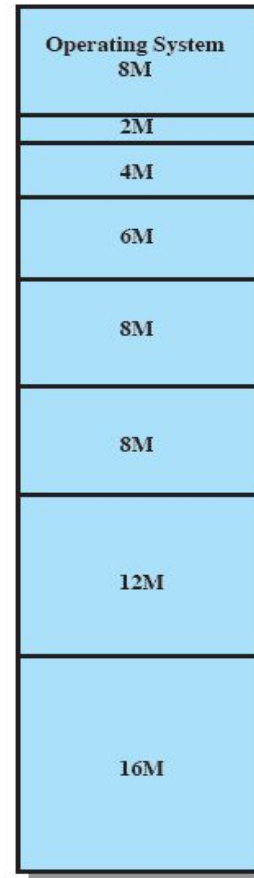
Hardware Support for Relocation and Limit Registers



Fixed Partitioning



(a) Equal-size partitions



(b) Unequal-size partitions

Figure 7.2 Example of Fixed Partitioning of a 64-Mbyte Memory

Fixed Partitioning

- Number of partitions are fixed
- Size of each partition may or may not be same
- Since contiguous allocation, so spanning is not allowed

Disadvantages:

- Internal fragmentation
- Process size is limited
- Limitations on degree of multiprogramming

Variable Partitioning

- There are no partitions beforehand.
- Partition will be created according to the process size during runtime.

Advantages:

- No internal fragmentation
- No limitation on number of processes
- No limitation on process size

Disadvantages:

- External fragmentation (hole) will be created.
- Allocation and reallocation is complex.

Effects of Variable Partitioning

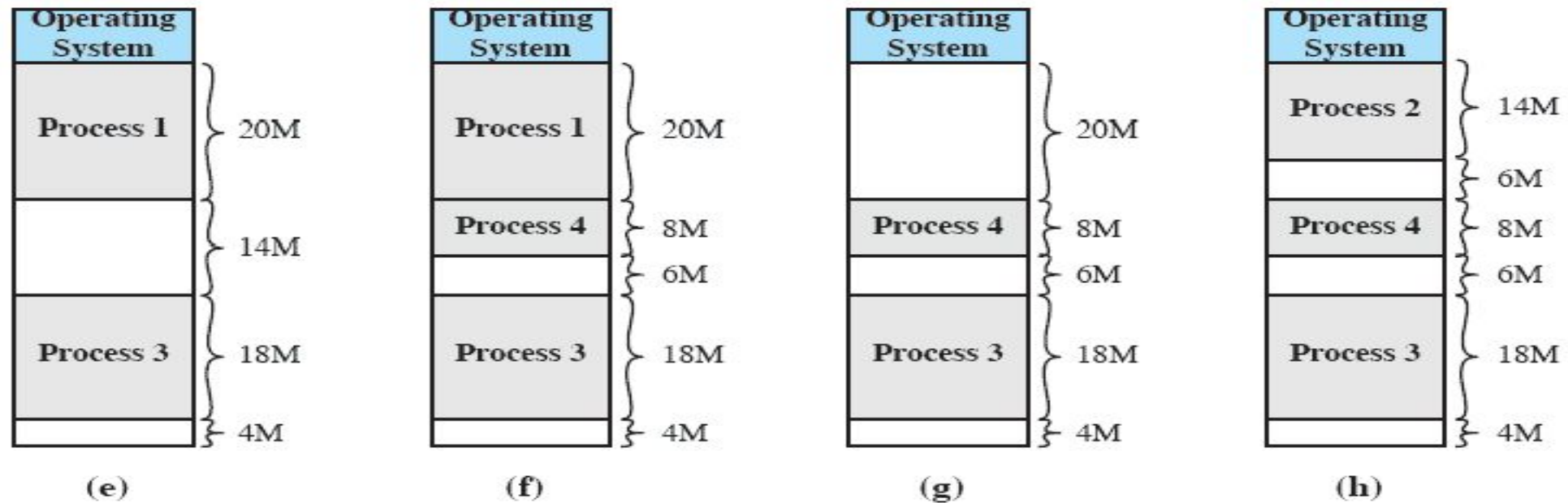


Figure 7.4 The Effect of Dynamic Partitioning

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

Allocation Schemes

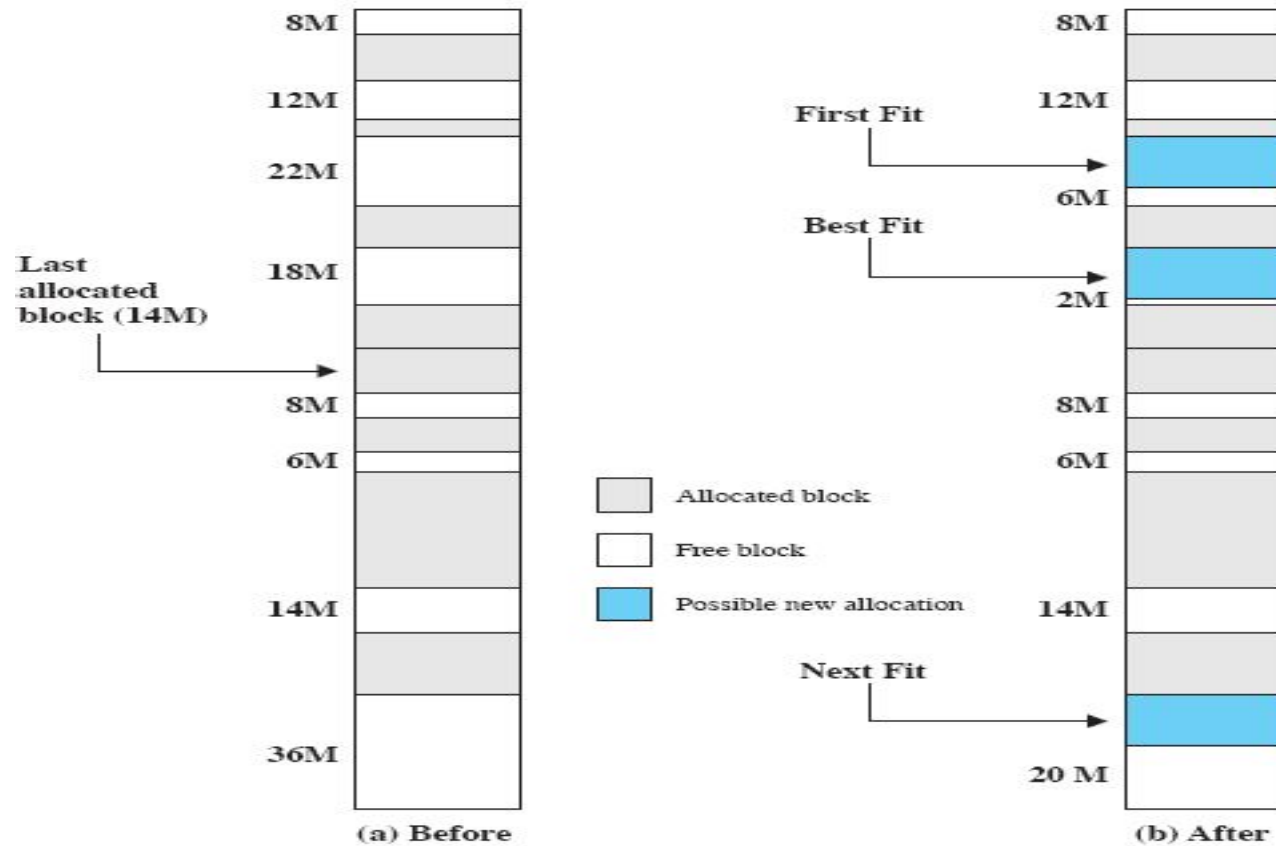
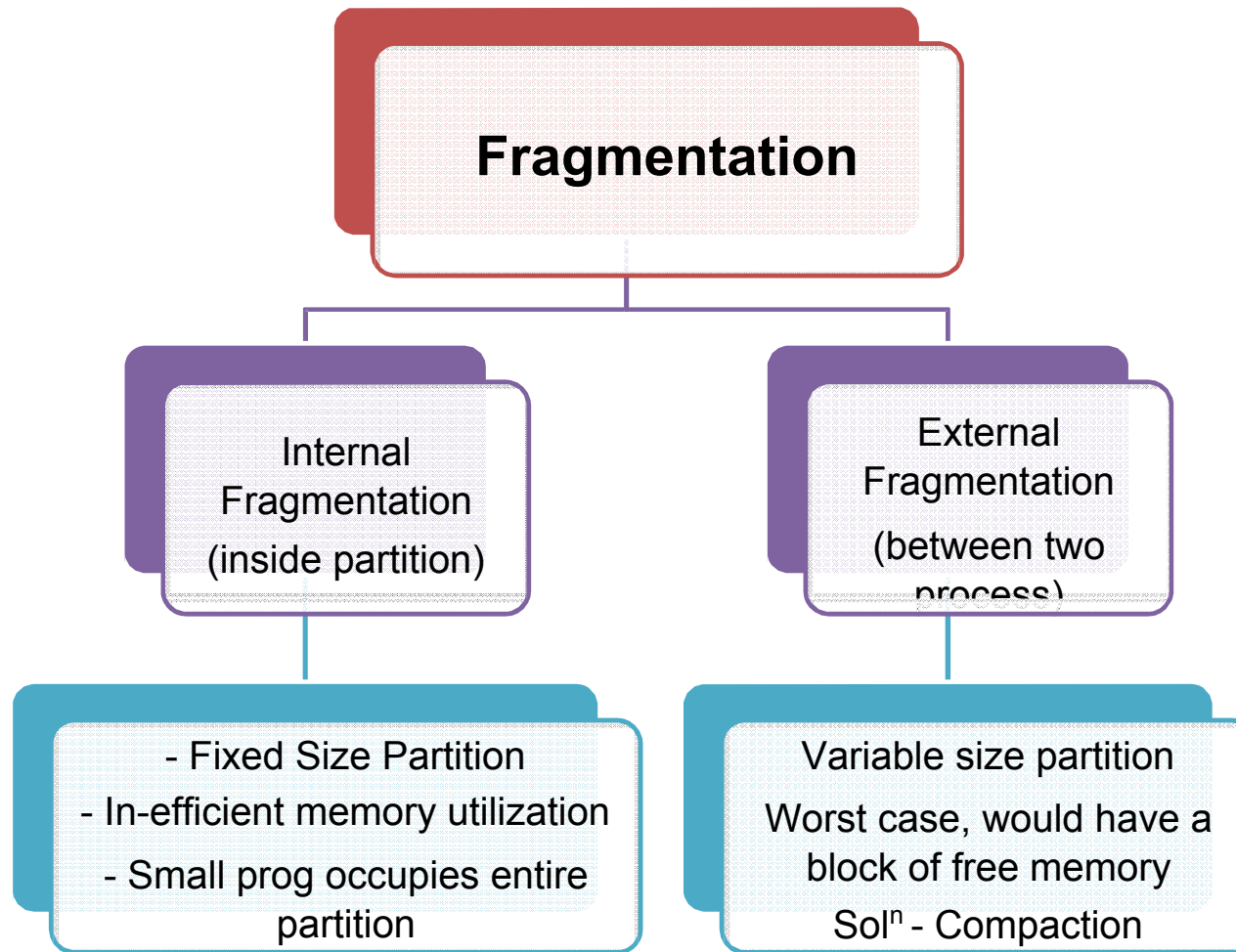


Figure 7.5 Example Memory Configuration before and after Allocation of 16-Mbyte Block



Compaction

- 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

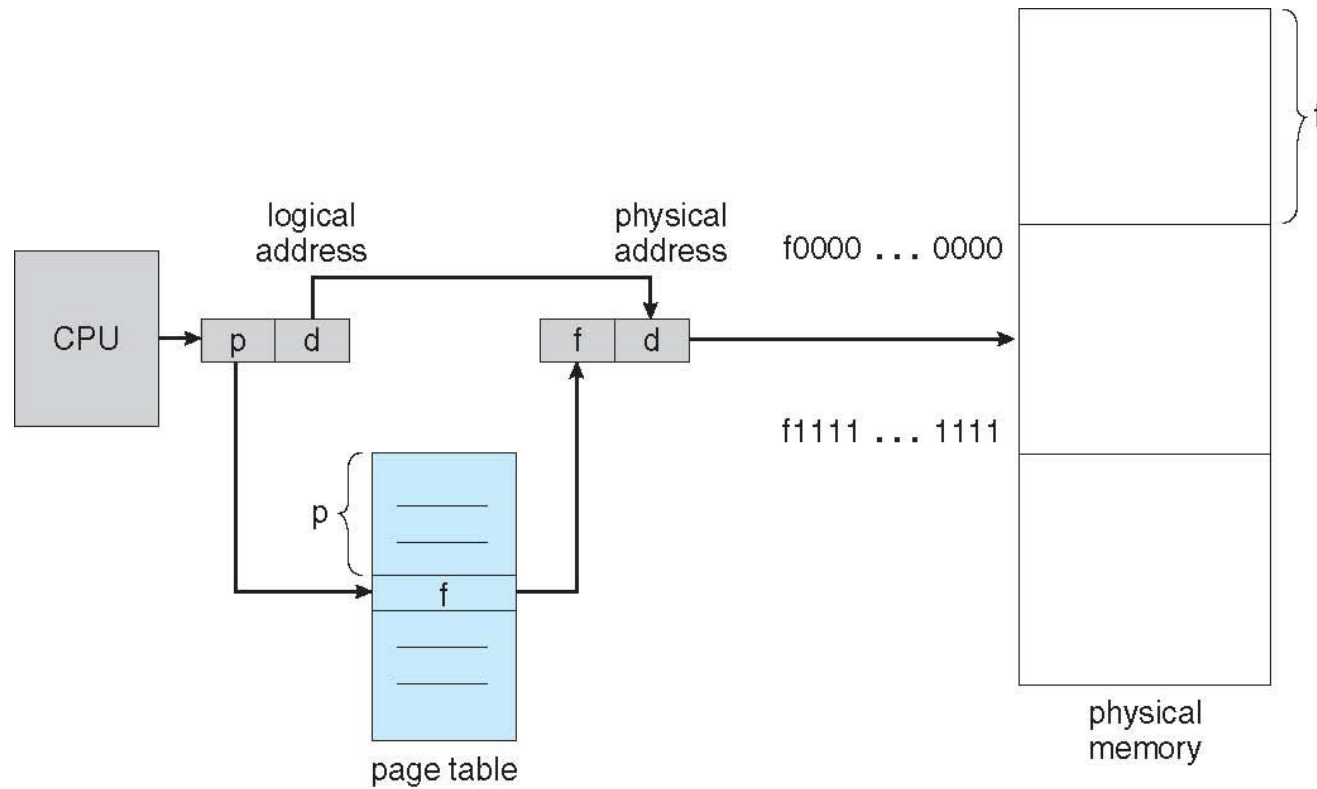
Disadvantages

- Before shifting, the processes at running states need to be halted
- Time consuming

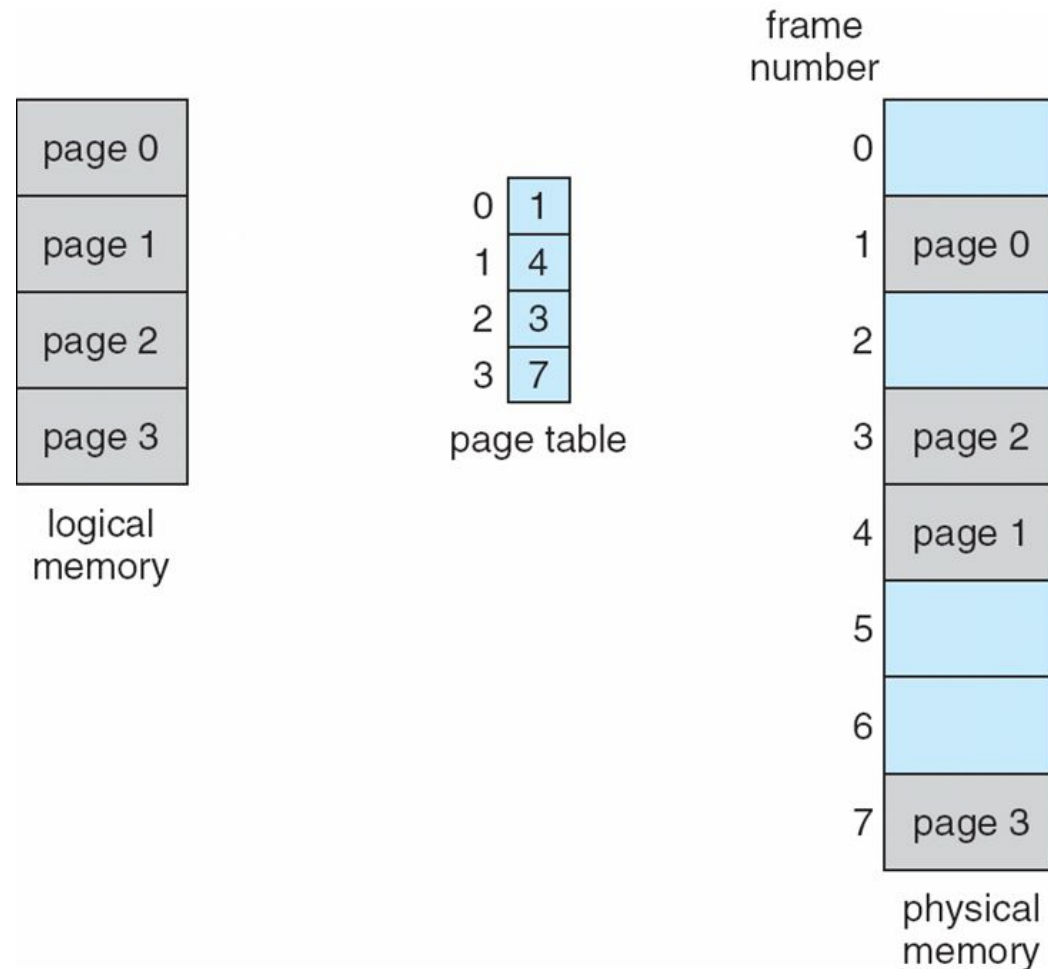
Paging

- 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

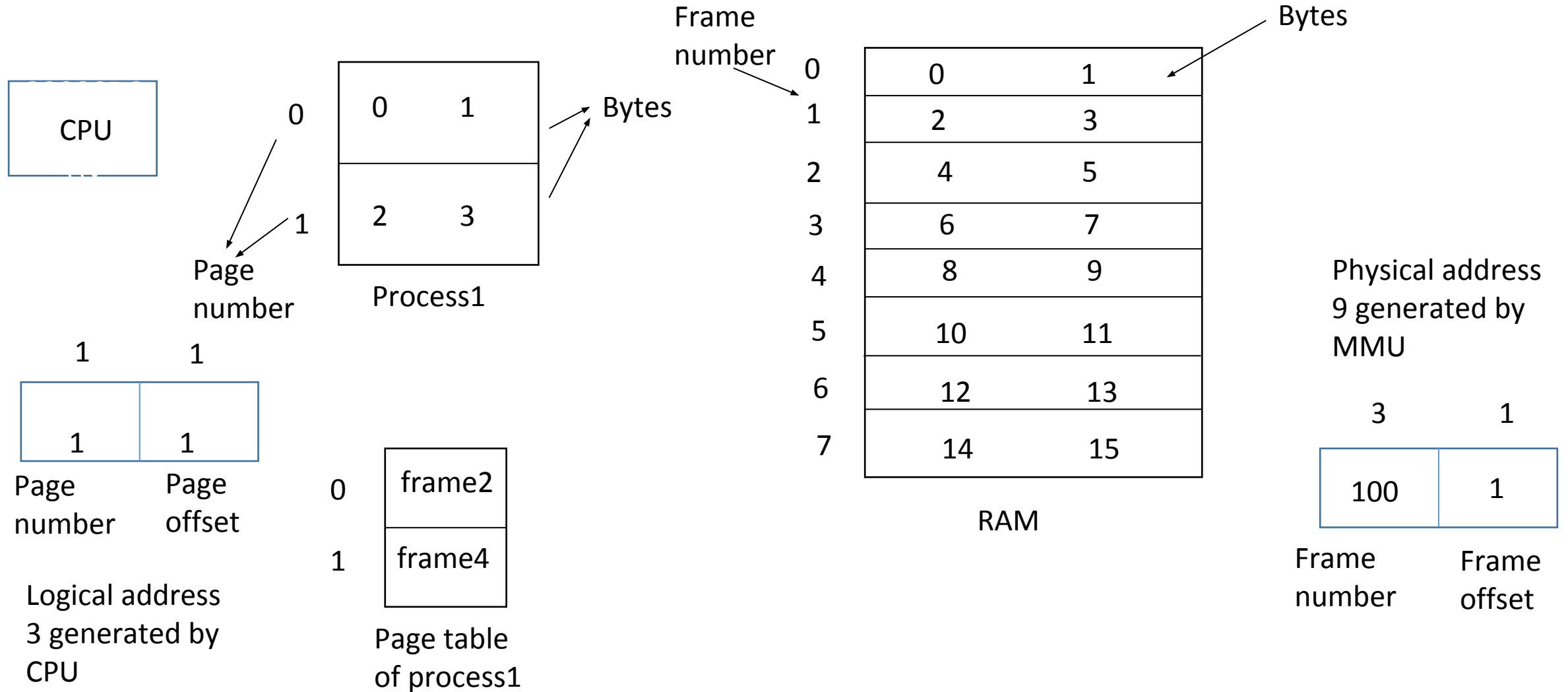
Paging Hardware



Paging Model of Logical and Physical Memory



Paging Explained With an Example



Paging Explained With an Example(cont.)

- Process size is 4B
 - Page size is 2B
 - Number of pages is 2 ($4/2$).
-
- RAM size is 16B
 - Frame size is 2B
 - Number of frames is 8 ($16/2$).

Paging Calculations

Consider a system which has logical address which is represented by 7 bits, physical address represented by 6 bits, page size of 8 bytes, then calculate number of pages and number of frames.

4	3
---	---

Page
number Page
offset

Logical address

3	3
---	---

Frame
number Frame
offset

Physical address

Paging Calculations (Cont.)

- Total number of pages = $2^4 = 16$
- Total number of frames = $2^3 = 8$
- Logical address space = $2^7 = 128$
- Physical address space = $2^6 = 64$
- Number of entries in a page table of a process = number of pages in a process = 16

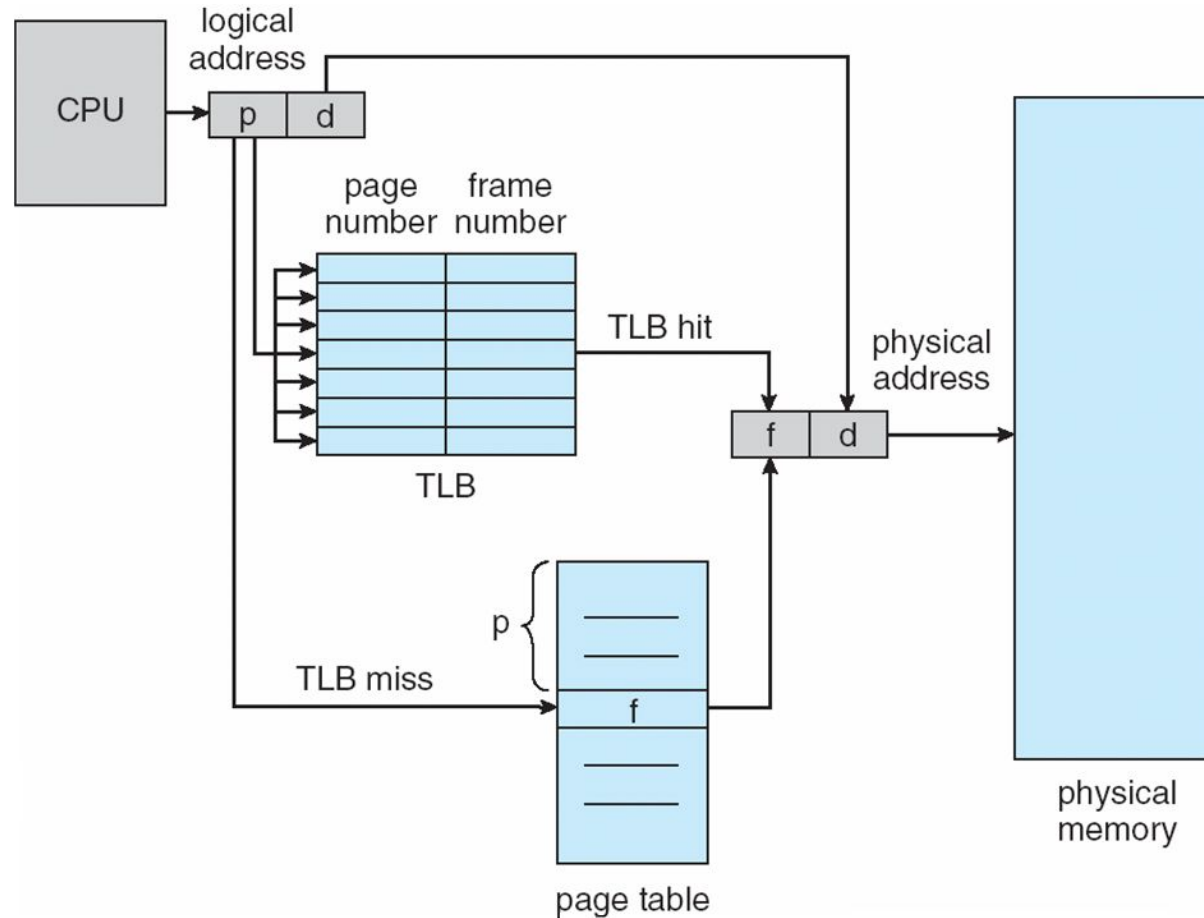
Powers of 2

- $2^1=2$
 - $2^2=4$
 - $2^3=8$
 - $2^4=16$
 - $2^5=32$
 - $2^6=64$
 - $2^7=128$
- $2^8=256$
 - $2^9=512$
 - $2^{10}=1\text{K}$
 - $2^{20}=1\text{M}$
 - $2^{30}=1\text{G}$
 - $2^{40}=1\text{T}$

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 look-aside buffers (TLBs)**

Paging Hardware With TLB



Effective Memory Access Time

Effective access time=

$$\begin{aligned} & \# \text{TLB hit} \times (\text{TLB access time} + \text{memory access time}) + \\ & \# \text{TLB miss} \times (\text{TLB access time} + \text{Page table access time} + \text{memory access time}) \end{aligned}$$

Memory Access Time 100 nanoseconds

100% hit ratio: $1.0 \times (20+100) \text{ nanoseconds} = 120 \text{ nanoseconds}$

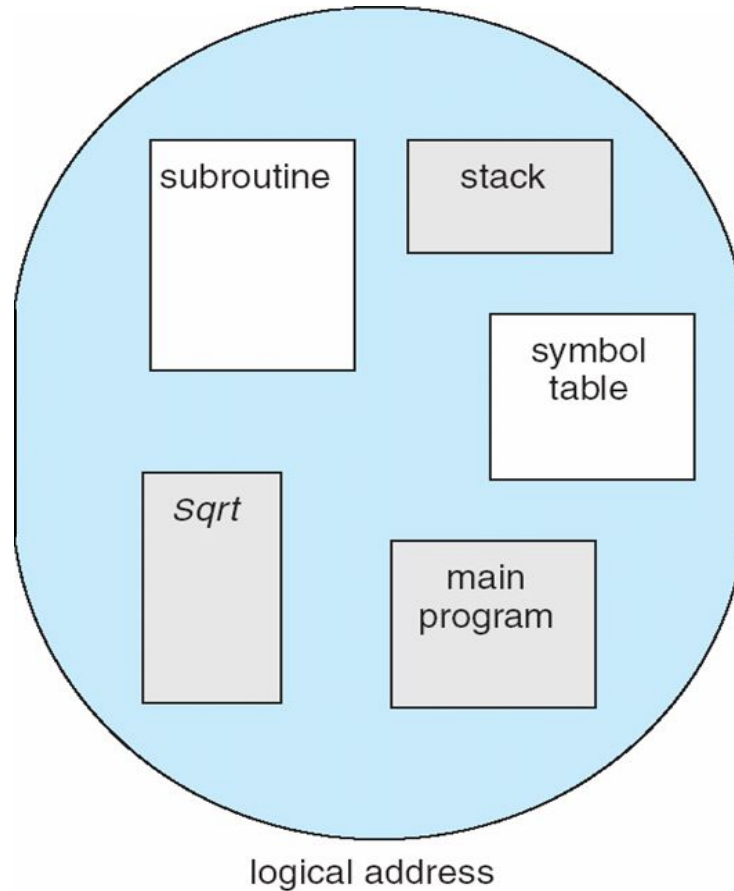
80% hit ratio: $0.8 \times (20+100) + 0.20 \times (20+100+100) \text{ nanoseconds} = 140 \text{ nanoseconds}$

98% hit ratio: $0.98 \times (20+100) + 0.02 \times (20+100+100) \text{ nanoseconds}$
 $= 122 \text{ nanoseconds}$

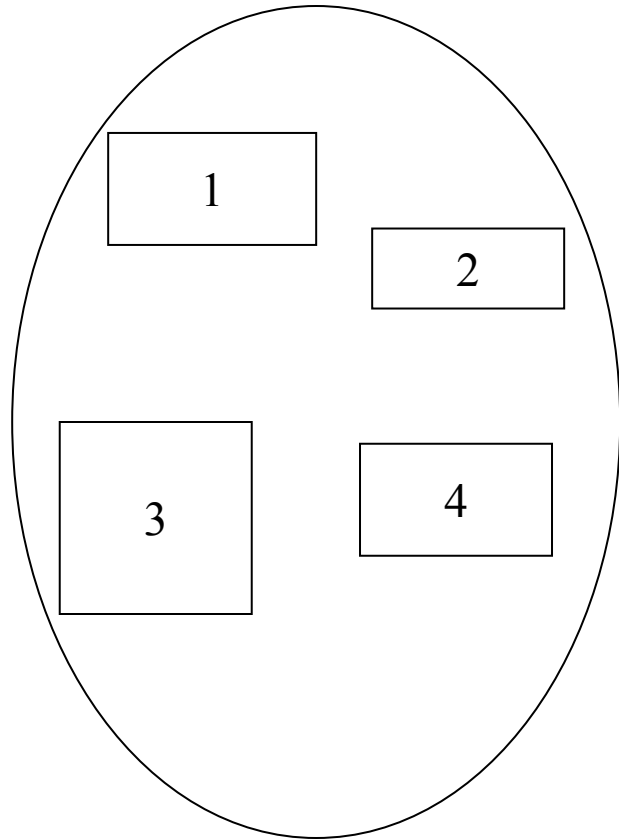
Segmentation

- 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

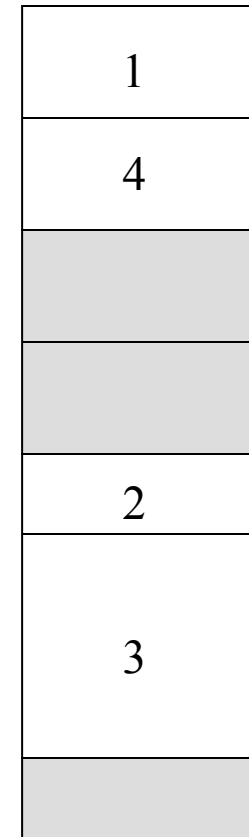
User's View of a Program



Logical View of Segmentation



user space



physical memory space

Segmentation Hardware

