

Memory management

Tran, Van Hoai

Faculty of Computer Science & Engineering
HCMC University of Technology

E-mail: hoai@hcmut.edu.vn
(*partly based on slides of Le Thanh Van*)

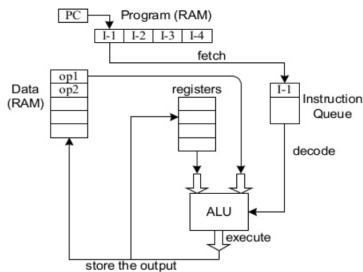
Outline

- 1 Background
- 2 Swapping
- 3 Contiguous memory allocation
- 4 Segmentation
- 5 Paging
 - Structure of page table

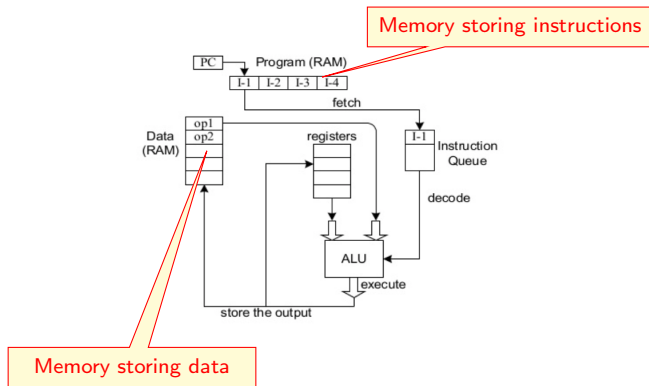
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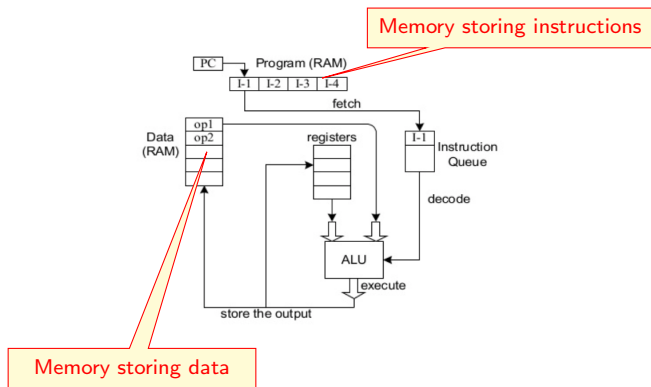
Role of memory



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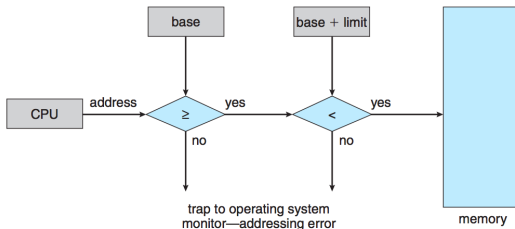
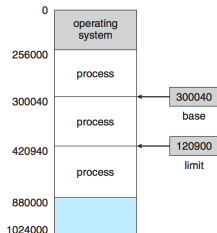
Role of memory



- Instructions of programs are only executed when they are **in memory**
- Memory management requires some **hardware support**

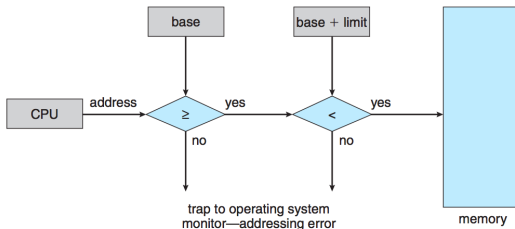
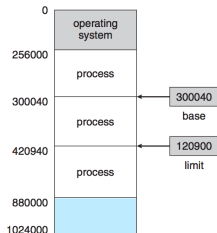
Hardware support

- Each user process has a separate memory space
- Base and limit registers give a range of the memory space



Hardware support

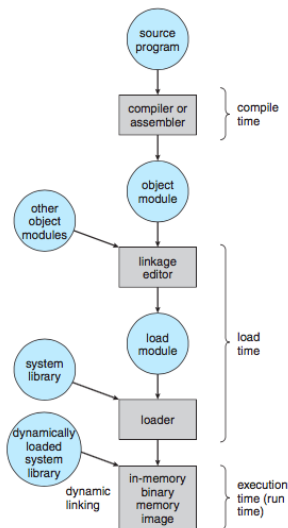
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Memory protection mechanism is **not applied** for operating system executing **in kernel mode**

Address binding

User program to execution



Address binding

A process to convert one kind of high abstract memory address to low abstract memory address

- a **symbolic address** to a **relocatable address**
- a **relocatable address** to a **absolute address**

Example:

- a variable **"count"** → a relocatable address **"14 bytes from the beginning of this module"**
- **"14 bytes from the beginning of this module"** → an absolute address **"74014"**

Address binding

When it happens?

Binding is performed in any of following 3 steps

- **Compile time**: if starting location changes, **absolute address** must be **regenerated** (by compile)
- **Load time**: with **relocatable code**, only reloading is needed when starting address changes
- **Execution time**: if a process moved in memory, binding is delayed until its run time. Most general-purpose OSs use this method

Logical address vs. physical address

Logical address

Address generated by CPU

Physical address

Address seen by memory management unit (MMU)

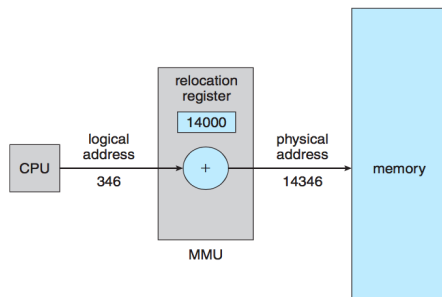
Logical address vs. physical address

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Address seen by memory management unit (MMU)



- Compile/load-time binding: logical address = physical address
- Execution-time binding: logical address \neq physical address
User program thinks logical (virtual) address range is $[0, max]$, but physical address range is $[R + 0, R + max]$.

Dynamic loading

Dynamic loading

A routine is **not loaded until** it is called

- Routine must be in **relocatable** load format
- **Relocatable linking loader** is responsible to load dynamic loading routine when a caller has not loaded yet
- Better memory=space utilization, useful to handle infrequently occurring cases
- Dynamic loading does **not require** support from OS

Dynamic linking and shared library

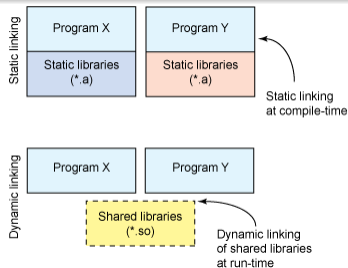
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Dynamic linking

A routine is linked to user programs when the programs **are run**



(source:ibm)

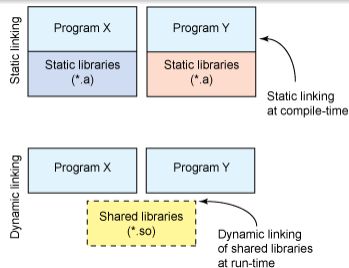
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Dynamic linking

A routine is linked to user programs when the programs **are run**

- A **stub** is put in the image of each reference
- The stub is replaced with the address of the needed routine, and then can be referred to by other references without loading



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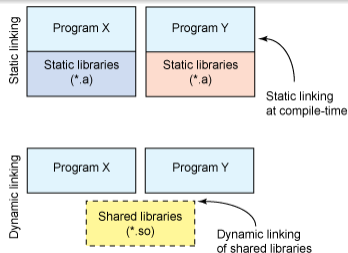
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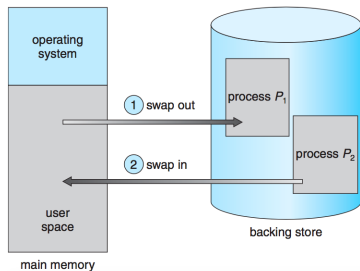
Dynamic linking requires support from OS

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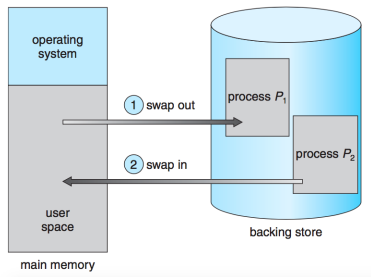
Standard swapping

- **Backing store** must be large enough to accommodate copies of **all** memory images of **all** users
- Images of processes in **ready queue** are in backing store



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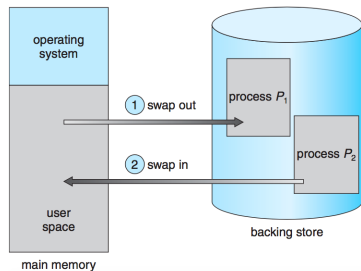


Swapping is influenced by factors

- Transfer time between fast disk and memory
- Informing mechanism to activate swapping
- I/O waiting processes should be swapped out **carefully**

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Standard swapping is not used in modern OSs

Swapping on mobile systems

Flash drives have **finite number** of write/erase cycles

- Mobile OSs do **not** support swapping
- OSs may **terminate** processes if memory is **not sufficient**
- Developers for mobile systems must **carefully** allocate and release memory

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- Memory divided into 2 partitions: resident OS & user processes
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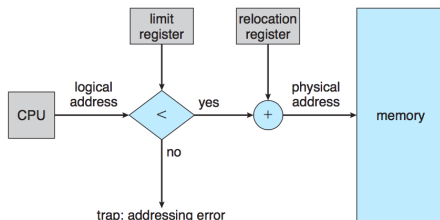
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OSs use **relocation register** for memory protection



Memory allocation

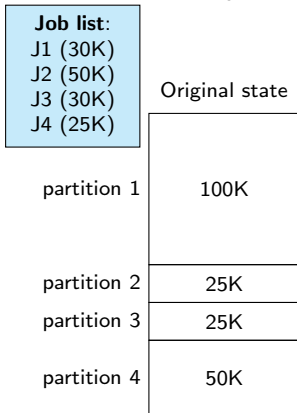
There are 2 ways

- **Fixed-partition**: memory is divided into several fixed-size partitions. A process is in a **single** partition
- **Variable-partition**: only assign enough memory for processes and OS keeps a table storing status of memory

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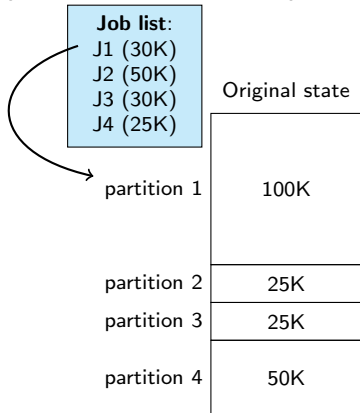
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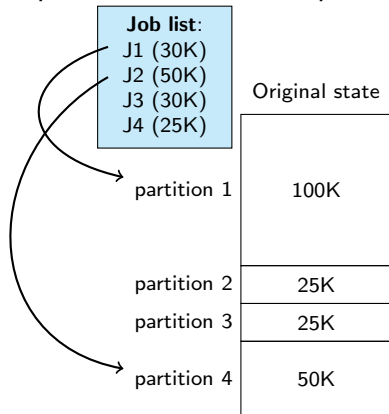
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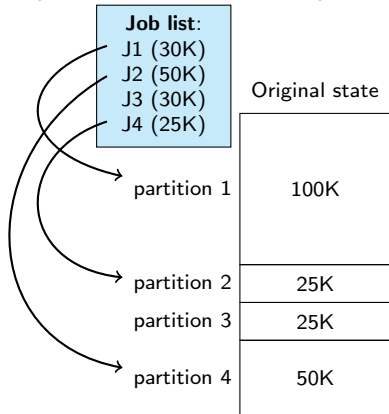
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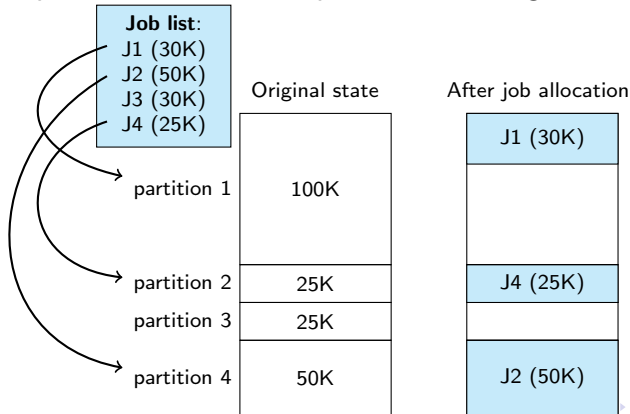
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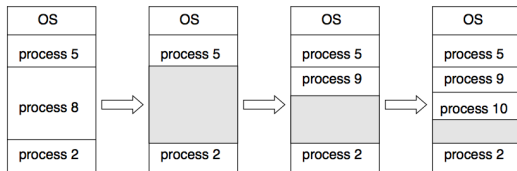
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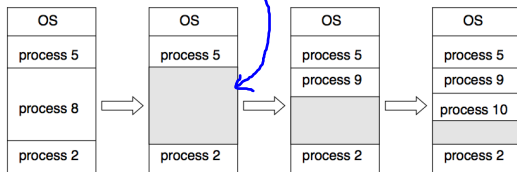
Variable partition

- Fixed-partition scheme **limits the level of multiprogramming**
- Variable-partition scheme needs a mechanism to deal efficiently with set of **holes**



Variable partition

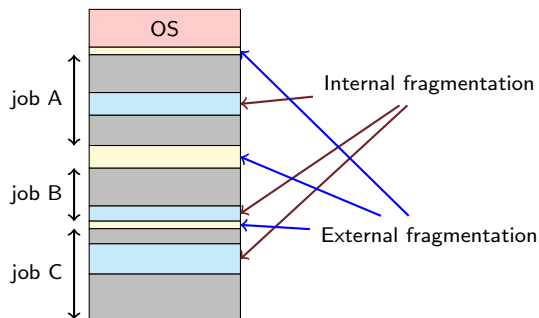
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- Variable-partition scheme needs a mechanism to deal efficiently with set of **holes**



- State: list of available (free) block sizes, input queue
- Dynamic storage-allocation problem: how to satisfy a request of size n from a list of free holes
- Strategies: **first-fit**, **best-fit**, **worst-fit**

Fragmentation

Internal vs. external



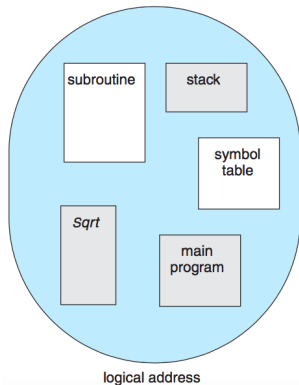
- External fragmentation: small holes which cannot satisfy large request
- Internal fragmentation: unused memory which has been allocated for process

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What is segmentation ?

Memory management should be **convenient** to both OS and programmers

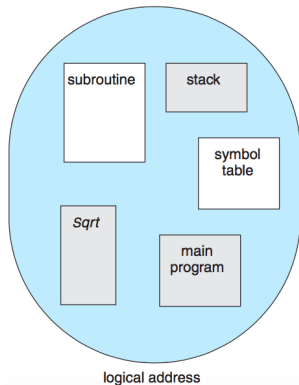


Programmers think of programs as set of data structures and methods. With memory, they need

- Collection of **variable-sized** memory blocks (**segments**)
- **No necessary ordering** among segments

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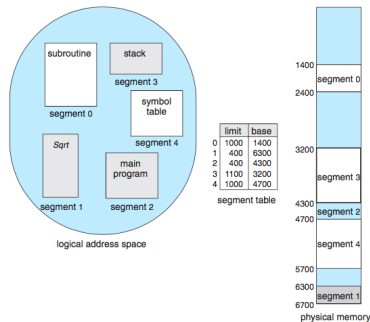
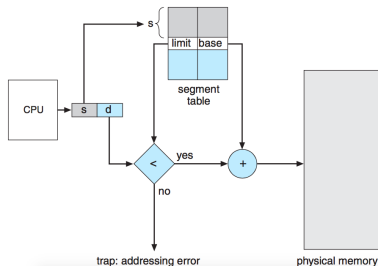
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- Collection of **variable-sized** memory blocks (**segments**)
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Segment = <segment-number, offset>

Segmentation hardware

Segment address is **2-dimensional**, but physical memory address is **1-dimensional**



- Segment table is an array of base–limit register pairs

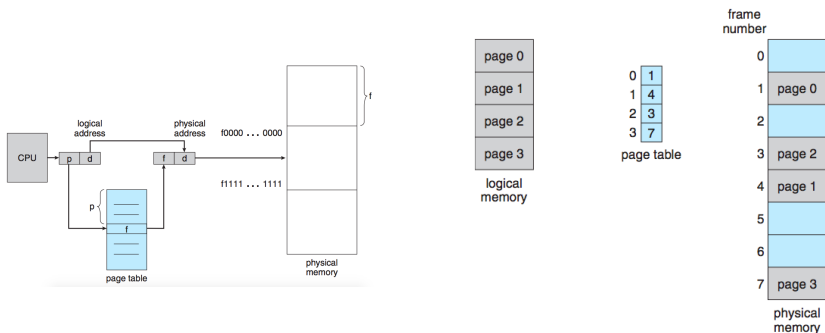
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What is paging ?

Segmentation still has external fragmentation, requiring **compaction**

- Physical memory is divided into fixed-sized blocks (**frame**)
- Logical memory is divided into same-sized blocks (**page**)

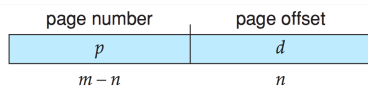


Page address = <page number, page offset>

Paging in practice

Logical address space = 2^m

Page size = 2^n



Paging in practice

Logical address space = 2^m

Page size = 2^n

page number	page offset
p	d
$m - n$	n

0	a
1	b
2	c
3	d
4	e
5	f
6	g
7	h
8	i
9	j
10	k
11	l
12	m
13	n
14	o
15	p

logical memory

0	5
1	6
2	1
3	2

page table

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

physical memory

$$n = 2, m = 4$$

Paging in practice

Logical address space = 2^m

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logical memory

0	5
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page table

$6 = 0110_2$
page = 01_2
offset = 10_2

$$n = 2, m = 4$$

0	
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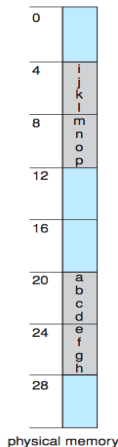
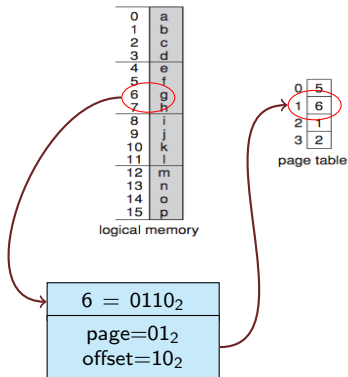
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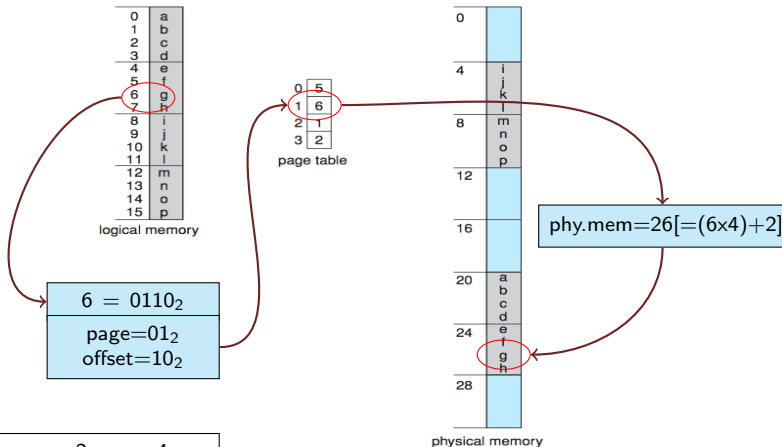
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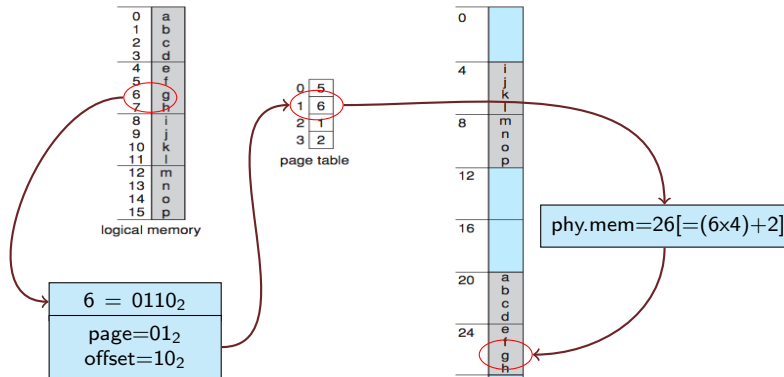
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Paging in practice

Logical address space = 2^m

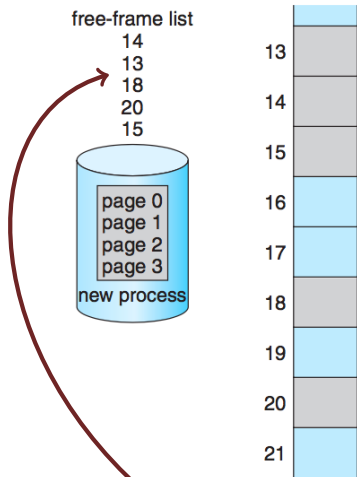
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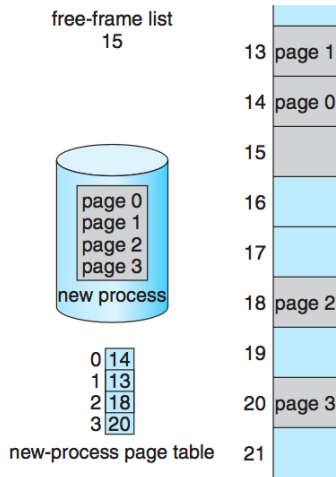


Paging has **no external fragmentation**, but has **internal fragmentation**.

Frame allocation



A process can be given a non-contiguous set of frames



Frame allocation



A process can be given
a non-contiguous set

A data structure (**frame-table**) is needed to manage frames.

Hardware support

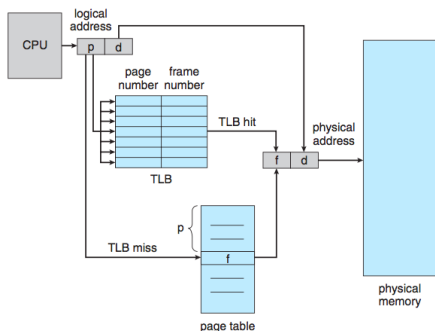
- Page table stored in main memory,
 - A page table for each process, pointer to it in PCB
 - Few page tables for all processes

Hardware support

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 - Few page tables for all processes
- Page-address translation overhead \Rightarrow hardware support
 - Page-table base register (PTBR): point to page table
 - Translation look-aside buffer (TLB): **associative**, high-speed memory ($\langle \text{key}, \text{value} \rangle$)

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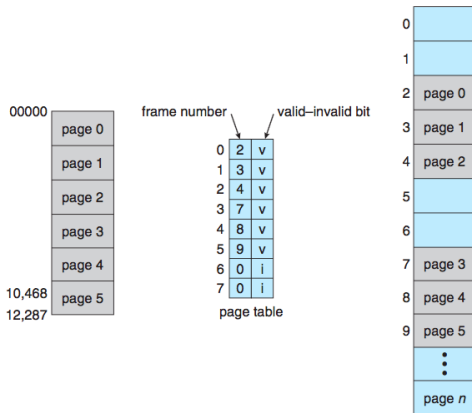


hit ratio

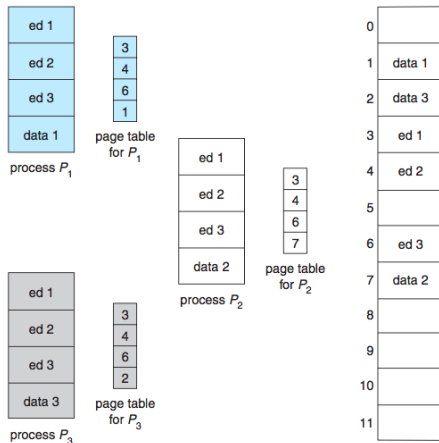
- 80%
effective access time =
 $80\% \times 100(ns) + 20\% \times 200(ns) = 120(ns)$
- 99%
effective access time =
 $99\% \times 100(ns) + 1\% \times 200(ns) = 101(ns)$

Protection

- From access permission: read-write/read-only bit
- From out-of-range access: valid-invalid bit
 - Just keep a small range of pages \Rightarrow page-table length register (PTLR)



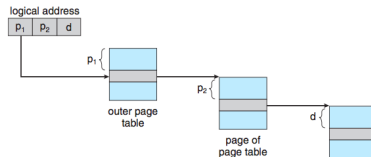
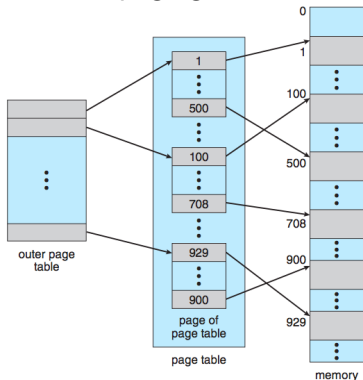
Shared pages



An advantage of paging is possibility of **sharing** common code

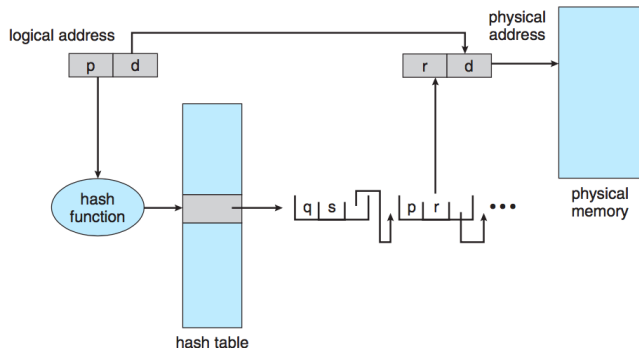
Hierarchical paging

2-level paging scheme



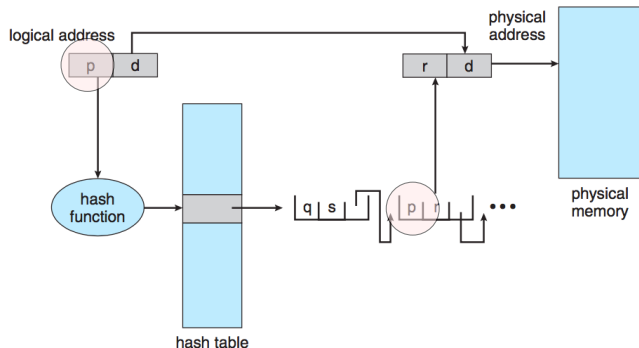
- It is often applied for 32(or less)-bit address space

Hashed paging



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Inverted paging

Just keep a page table for all processes. PID is needed to search for an **address-space identifier**

