Memory Management

1

Memory Management

- Background
- Swapping
- Contiguous Allocation
- Paging
- Segmentation
- Segmentation with Paging

2

Background

- Program must be brought into memory and placed within a process for it to be run
- **Input queue** – collection of processes on the disk that are waiting to be brought into memory to run the program
- User programs go through several steps before being run

3

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*).

4

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

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Memory-Management Unit (MMU)

- Hardware device that maps virtual to physical address
- In MMU scheme, the value in the relocation register is added to every address generated by a user process at the time it is sent to memory
- The user program deals with *logical* addresses; it never sees the *real* physical addresses

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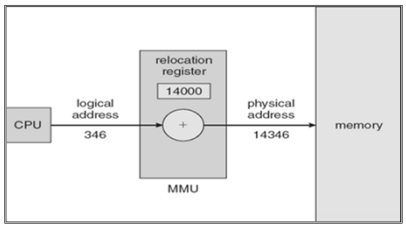
Dynamic relocation using a relocation register



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Dynamic Loading

- Routine is not loaded until it is called
- Better memory-space utilization; unused routine is never loaded
- Useful when large amounts of code are needed to handle infrequently occurring cases
- No special support from the operating system is required implemented through program design

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Dynamic Linking

- Linking postponed until execution time
- Small piece of code, *stub*, used to locate the appropriate memory-resident library routine
- Stub replaces itself with the address of the routine, and executes the routine
- Operating system needed to check if routine is in processes' memory address
- Dynamic linking is particularly useful for libraries

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Swapping

- A process can be swapped temporarily out of memory to a backing store, and then brought back into memory for continued execution
- **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
- Modified versions of swapping are found on many systems (i.e., UNIX, Linux, and Windows)

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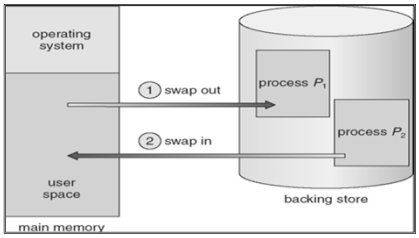
Schematic View of Swapping



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Contiguous Allocation

- Main memory usually into two partitions:
  - Resident operating system, usually held in low memory with interrupt vector
  - User processes then held in high memory
- Single-partition allocation
  - Relocation-register scheme used to protect user processes from each other, and from changing operating-system code and data
  - Relocation register contains value of smallest physical address; limit register contains range of logical addresses – each logical address must be less than the limit register

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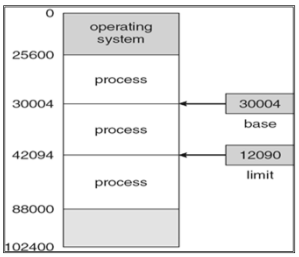
A base and a limit register define a logical address space



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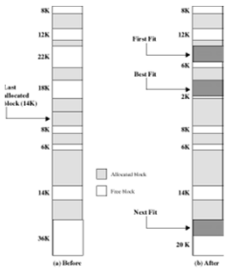
Dynamic Storage-Allocation Problem

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



Example Memory Configuration Before and After Allocation of 16 Kbyte Block

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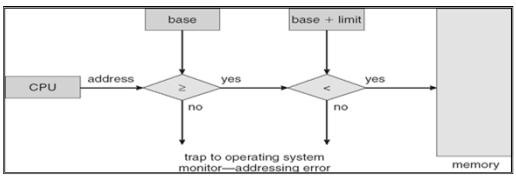
HW address protection with base and limit registers



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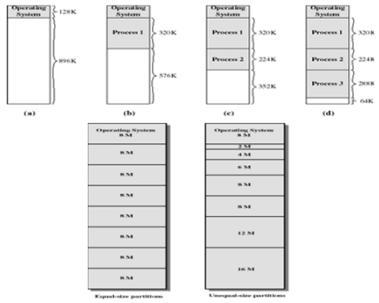
Fragmentation

- **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
- Reduce external fragmentation by **compaction**



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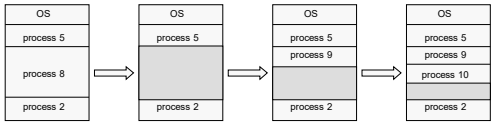
Contiguous Allocation (Cont.)

- Multiple-partition allocation
  - *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
  - Operating system maintains information about:
    a) allocated partitions b) free partitions (hole)



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Paging

- Logical address space of a process can be noncontiguous; process is allocated physical memory whenever the latter is available
- Divide physical memory into fixed-sized blocks called **frames** (size is power of 2, between 512 bytes and 8192 bytes)
- 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
- Internal fragmentation

8.18

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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

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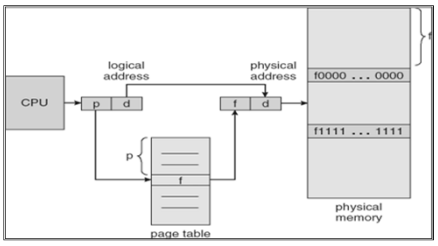
Address Translation Architecture



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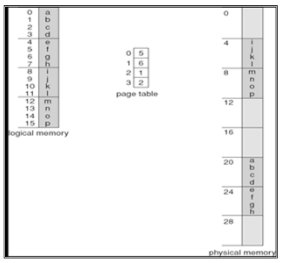
Paging Example



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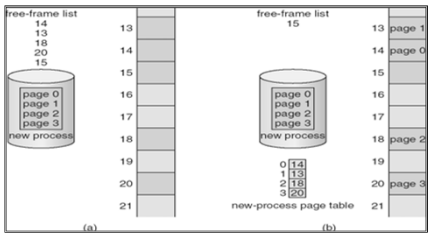
Free Frames



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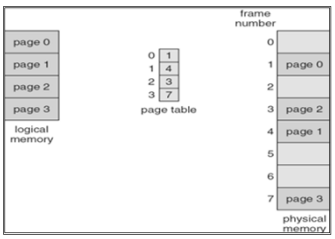
Paging Example



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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* (PRLR) 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)**

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Associative Memory

- Associative memory – parallel search

Page #	Frame #

Address translation (A´, A´´)

If A´ is in associative register, get frame # out

Otherwise get frame # from page table in memory

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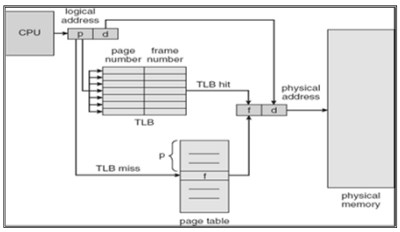
Paging Hardware With TLB



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Effective Access Time

- Associative Lookup = ε time unit
- Assume memory cycle time is 1 microsecond
- Hit ratio – percentage of times that a page number is found in the associative registers; ration related to number of associative registers
- Hit ratio = α
- **Effective Access Time** (EAT)

$$EAT = (1 + \varepsilon)\,\alpha + (2 + \varepsilon)(1 - \alpha)$$
$$= 2 + \varepsilon - \alpha$$

8.27

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Memory Protection

- Memory protection implemented by associating protection bit with each frame
- **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

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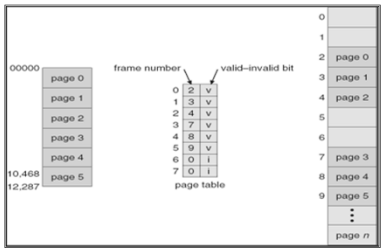
Valid (v) or Invalid (i) Bit In A Page Table



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Page Table Structure

- Hierarchical Paging
- Hashed Page Tables
- Inverted Page Tables

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Hierarchical Page Tables

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

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Two-Level Paging Example

- A logical address (on 32-bit machine with 4K page size) is divided into:
  - a page number consisting of 20 bits
  - a page offset consisting of 12 bits
- Since the page table is paged, the page number is further divided into:
  - a 10-bit page number
  - a 10-bit page offset
- Thus, a logical address is as follows:

page number		page offset
p_i	p_2	d
10	10	12

where p_i is an index into the outer page table, and p_2 is the displacement within the page of the outer page table

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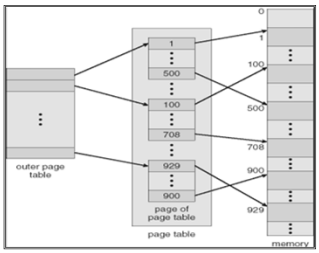
Two-Level Page-Table Scheme



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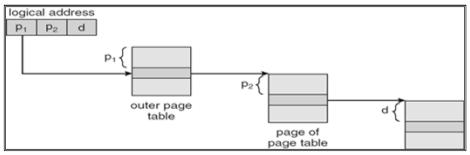
Address-Translation Scheme

- Address-translation scheme for a two-level 32-bit paging architecture



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Inverted Page Table

- One entry for each real page of memory
- Entry consists of the virtual address of the page stored in that real memory location, with information about the process that owns that page
- Decreases memory needed to store each page table, but increases time needed to search the table when a page reference occurs
- Use hash table to limit the search to one — or at most a few — page-table entries

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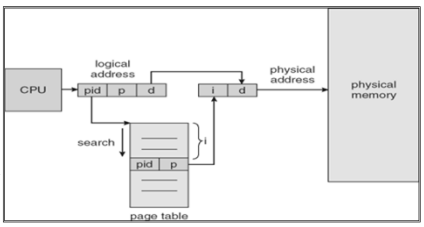
Inverted Page Table Architecture



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Shared Pages

- **Shared code**
  - One copy of read-only (reentrant) code shared among processes (i.e., text editors, compilers, window systems).
  - Shared code must appear in same location in the logical address space of all processes
- **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

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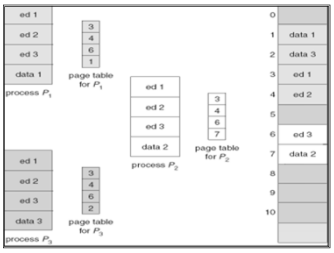
Shared Pages Example



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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

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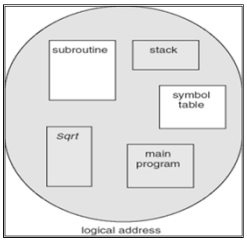
User's View of a Program



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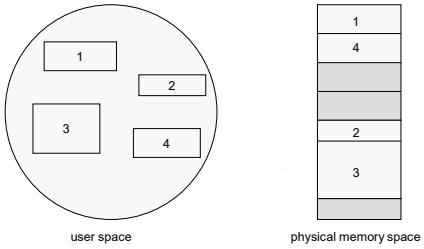
Logical View of Segmentation



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Segmentation Architecture

- Logical address consists of a two tuple:
  - <segment-number, offset>,
- **Segment table** – maps two-dimensional physical addresses; each table entry has:
  - base – contains the starting physical address where the segments reside in memory
  - *limit* – specifies the length of the segment
- *Segment-table base register (STBR)* points to the segment table's location in memory
- *Segment-table length register (STLR)* indicates number of segments used by a program;
  - segment number *s* is legal if *s* < STLR

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Segmentation Architecture (Cont.)

- **Relocation**.
  - dynamic
  - by segment table
- **Sharing**.
  - shared segments
  - same segment number
- **Allocation**.
  - first fit/best fit
  - external fragmentation

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Segmentation Architecture (Cont.)

- Protection. With each entry in segment table associate:
  - validation bit = 0 ⇒ illegal segment
  - read/write/execute privileges
- Protection bits associated with segments; code sharing occurs at segment level
- Since segments vary in length, memory allocation is a dynamic storage-allocation problem
- A segmentation example is shown in the following diagram

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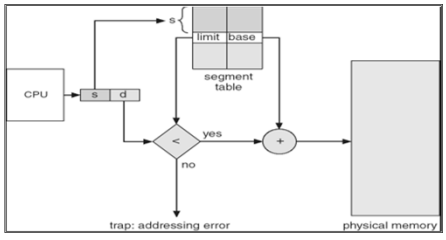
Address Translation Architecture



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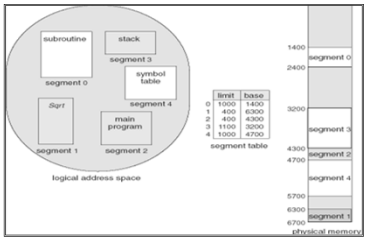
Example of Segmentation



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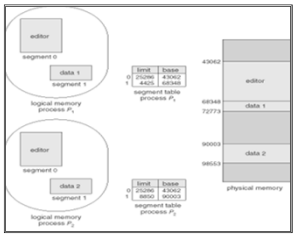
Sharing of Segments



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Segmentation with Paging – MULTICS

- The MULTICS system solved problems of external fragmentation and lengthy search times by paging the segments
- Solution differs from pure segmentation in that the segment-table entry contains not the base address of the segment, but rather the base address of a *page table* for this segment

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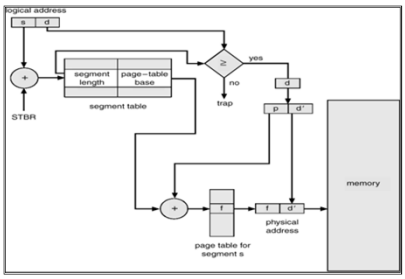
MULTICS Address Translation Scheme



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End

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