

# Sistemi Operativi

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**SAPIENZA**  
UNIVERSITÀ DI ROMA

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- Fragmentation
  - Frequent compaction needed
- Process entirely loaded
  - Swapping helps but it may be too inefficient

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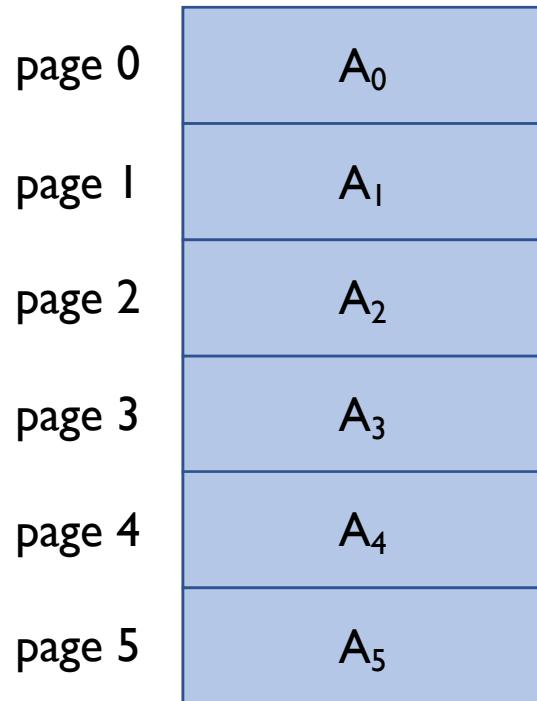
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  - Internal fragmentation may still occur though
  - Keep only those frames that are actually being used by a process

## 90/10 Rule

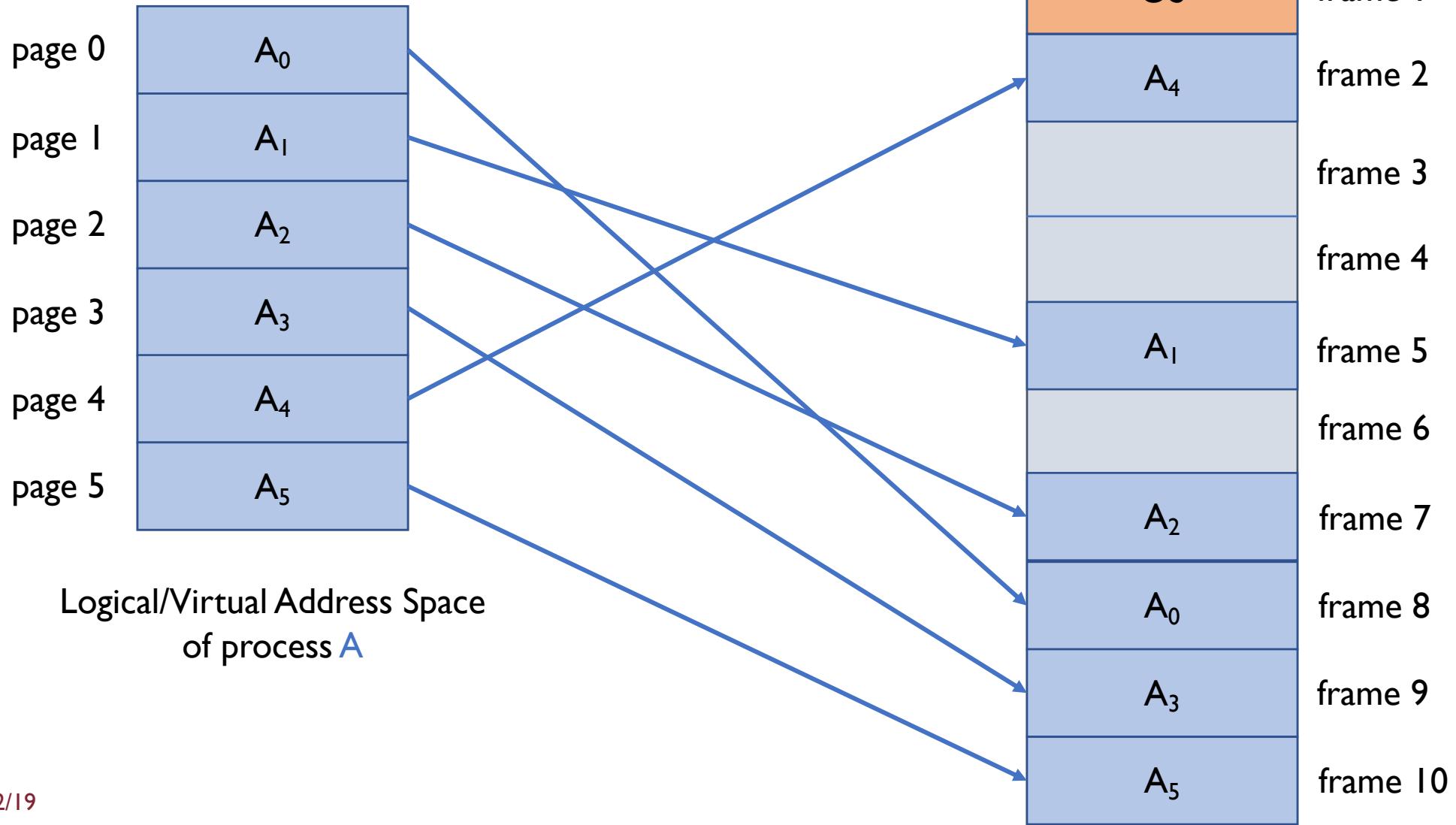
Processes spend **90%** of their time accessing only **10%** of their allocated memory space

# Paging: The Big Picture



Logical/Virtual Address Space  
of process A

# Paging: The Big Picture



# Basic OS Responsibilities for Paging

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  - mapping between logical pages and physical frames
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# Basic OS Responsibilities for Paging

- The OS has **2 main responsibilities**:
  - mapping between logical pages and physical frames
  - translating logical addresses to physical addresses
- All of this must be done efficiently!
  - Remember, memory addresses are referenced all the time
- OS needs dedicated support for doing it → **Page Table**

# Page Table: Mapping Pages to Frames

0	A <sub>0</sub>
1	A <sub>1</sub>
2	A <sub>2</sub>
3	A <sub>3</sub>
4	A <sub>4</sub>
5	A <sub>5</sub>

OS	0
OS	1
A <sub>4</sub>	2
	3
	4
A <sub>1</sub>	5
	6
A <sub>2</sub>	7
A <sub>0</sub>	8
A <sub>3</sub>	9
A <sub>5</sub>	10

# Page Table: Mapping Pages to Frames

Lookup table to efficiently retrieve what frame a page is stored in

0	A <sub>0</sub>
1	A <sub>1</sub>
2	A <sub>2</sub>
3	A <sub>3</sub>
4	A <sub>4</sub>
5	A <sub>5</sub>

Page	Frame
0	8
1	5
2	7
3	9
4	2
5	10

OS	0
OS	1
A <sub>4</sub>	2
	3
	4
A <sub>1</sub>	5
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	6
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A <sub>0</sub>	8
A <sub>3</sub>	9
A <sub>5</sub>	10

So far, we have simply assumed **all** pages of a process is mapped to physical frames, but we will see this is not always the case

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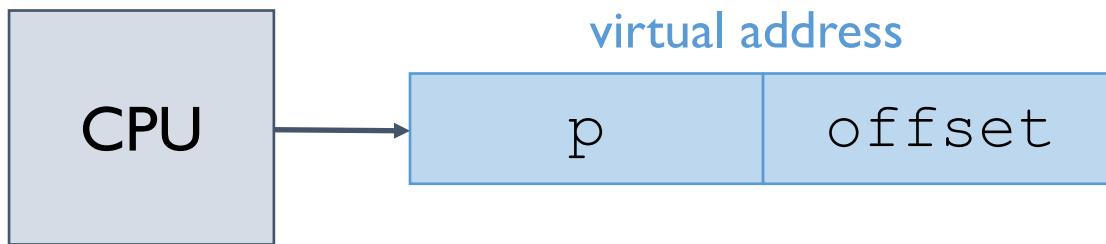
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- Page table must ultimately translate virtual address to physical address

# Page Table: Virtual to Physical Address

virtual address consists of 2 parts:

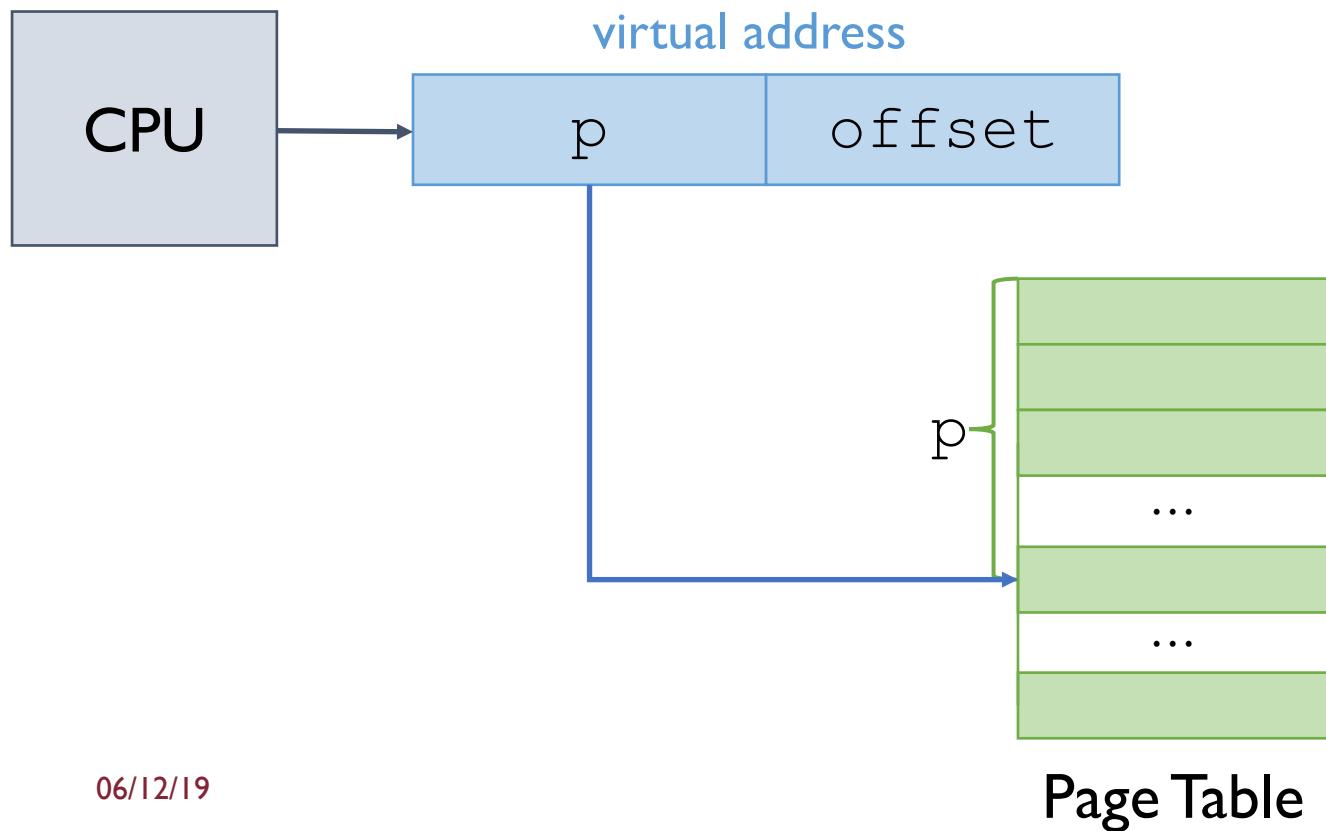
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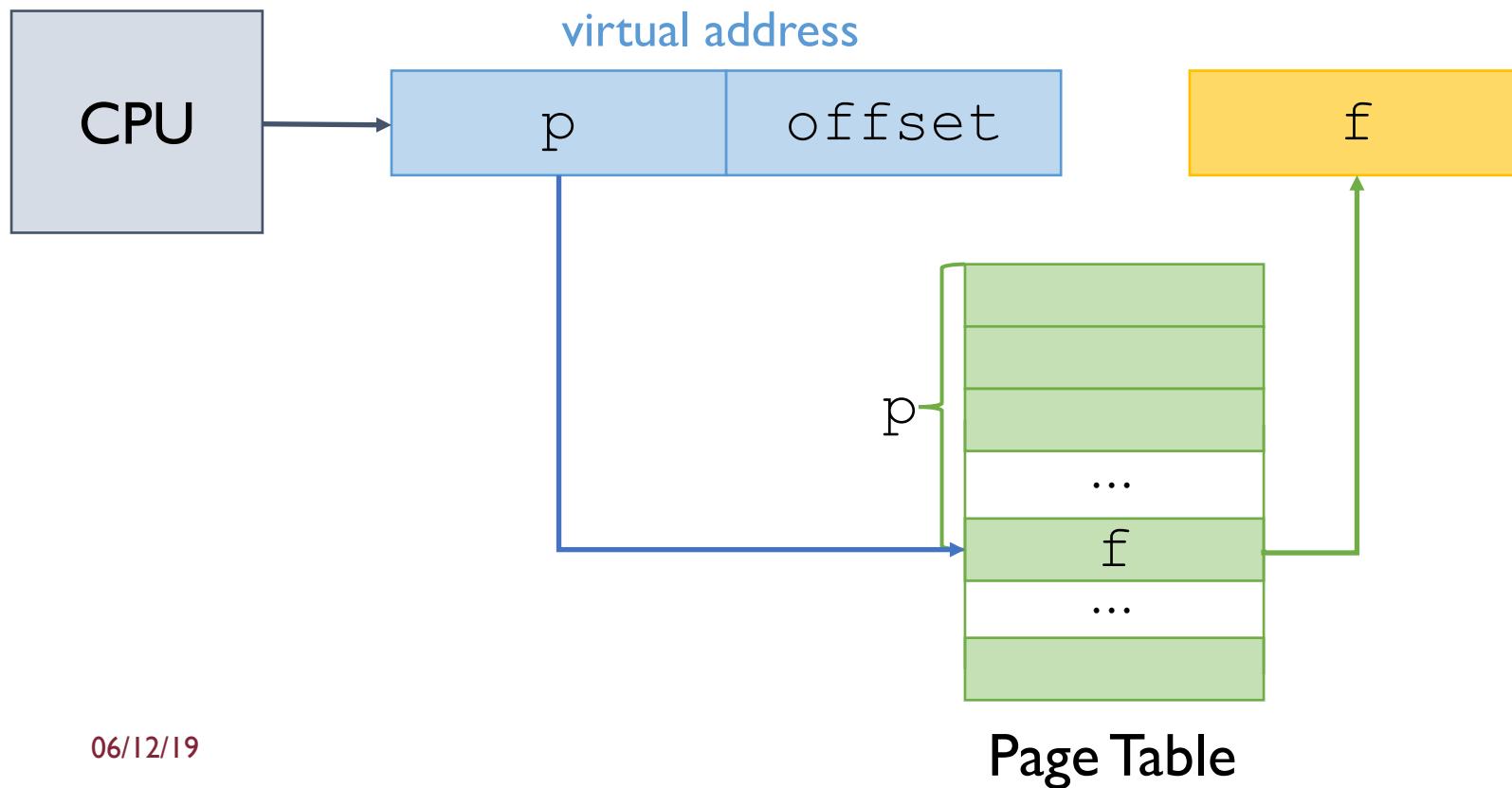
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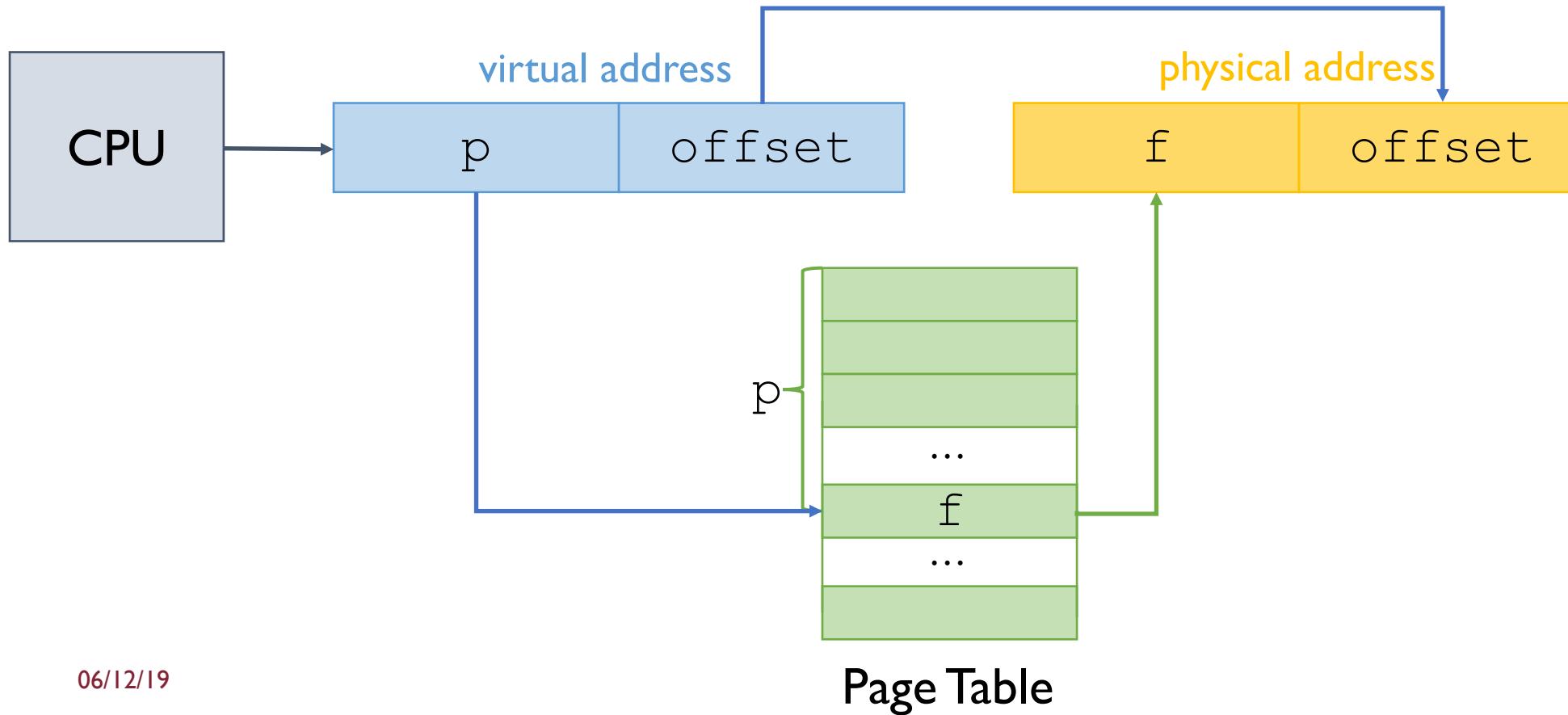
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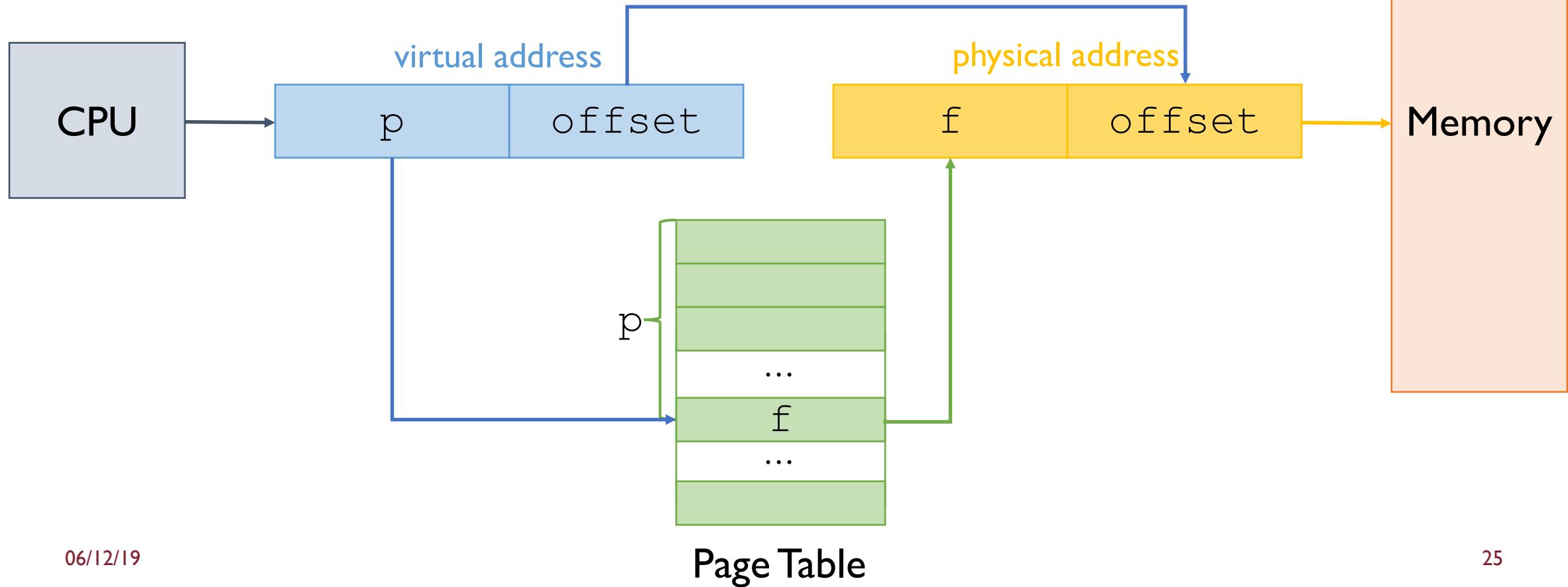
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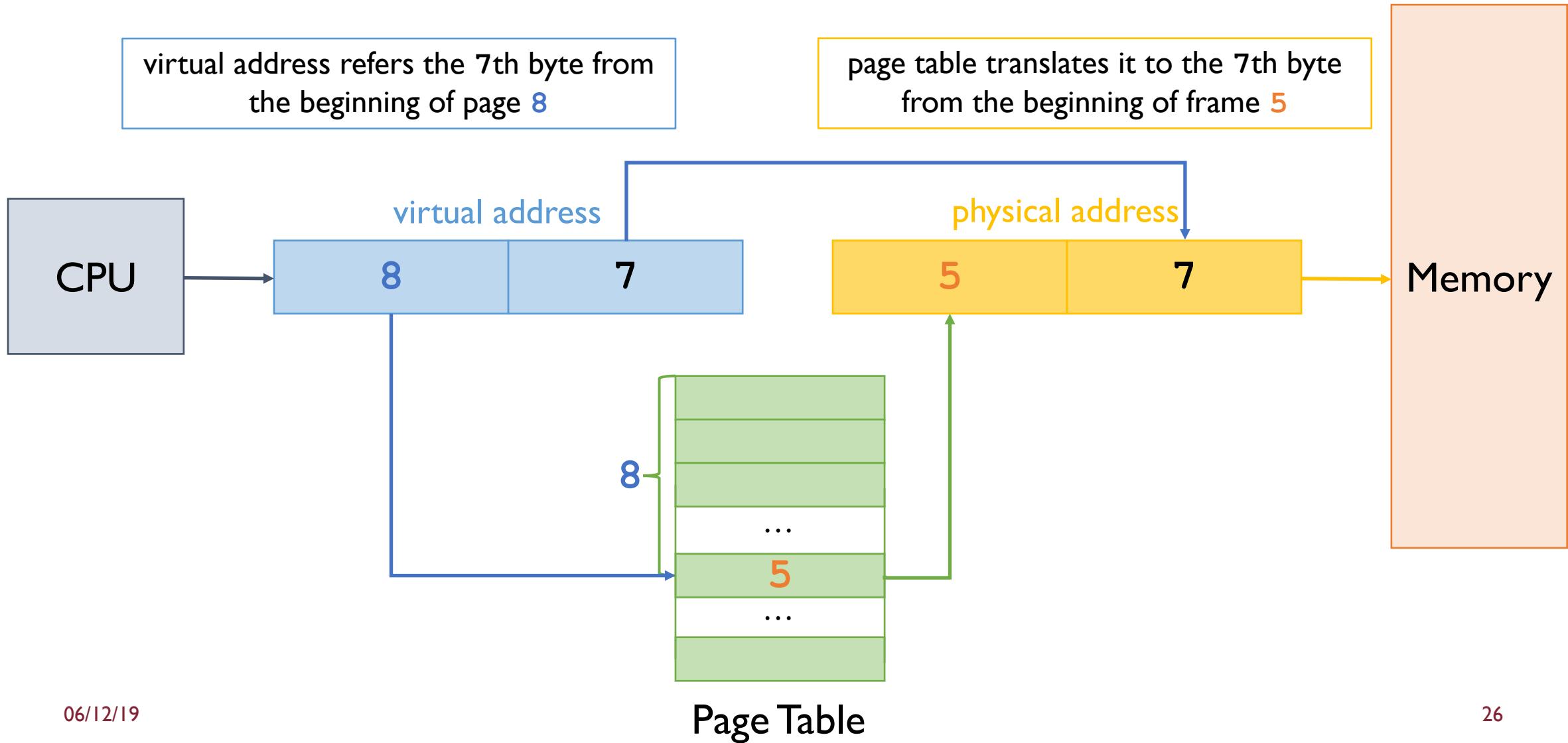
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physical address also consists of 2 parts:

- f: physical frame number
- offset: as above



# Page Table: Example of Address Translation



# Paging Hardware

- Paging can be a form of dynamic relocation
- Each virtual address is bound by the paging hardware (i.e., page table) to a physical address
- Page table can be seen just as a set of base (relocation) registers, one for each frame
- Mapping is invisible to the user process: the OS maintains the page table and translation happens in hardware
- Protection is provided similarly to dynamic relocation (limit register)

# Paging Hardware: Steps

How does page table translate a virtual address  $x$  into a physical address  $y$ ?

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- I. Get the page number (**p**) and the **offset** where the virtual address **x** resides
2. Use **p** to index into the page table to retrieve the frame number **f**
3. Combine **f** with **offset** to obtain the physical address **y**

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Address translation requires a **div** and a **mod** operation

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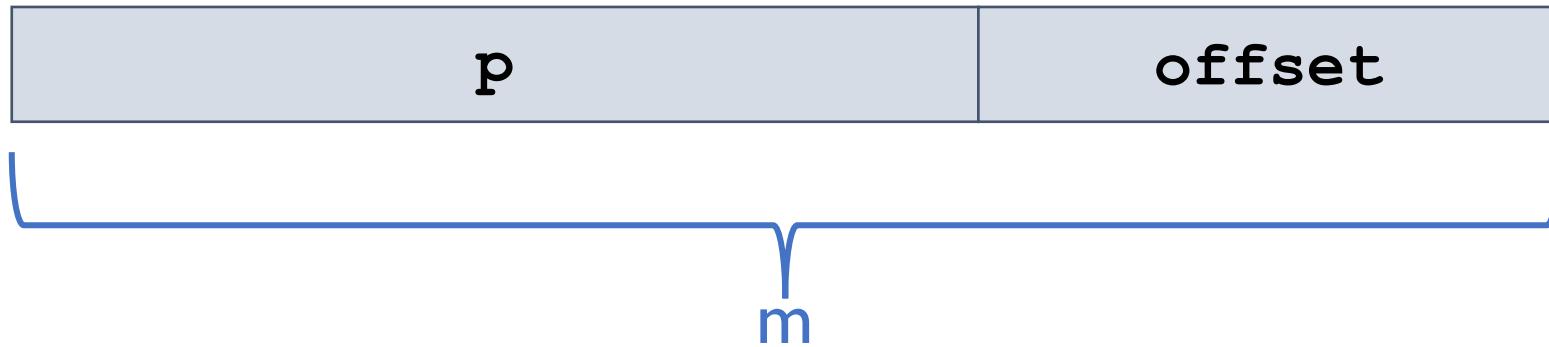
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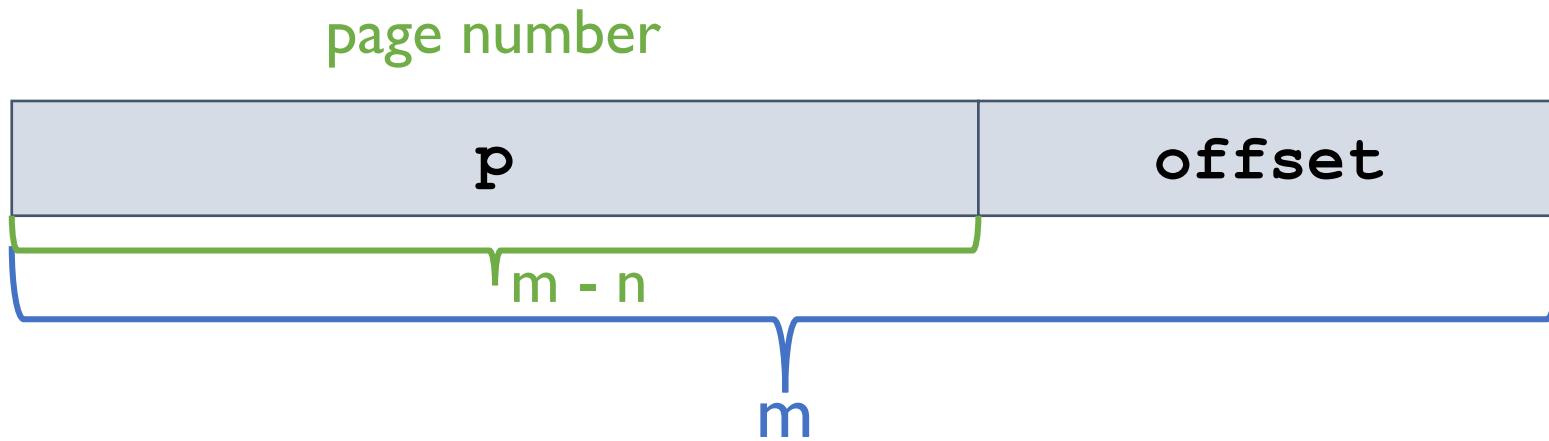
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- The low order  $n$  bits represent the offset

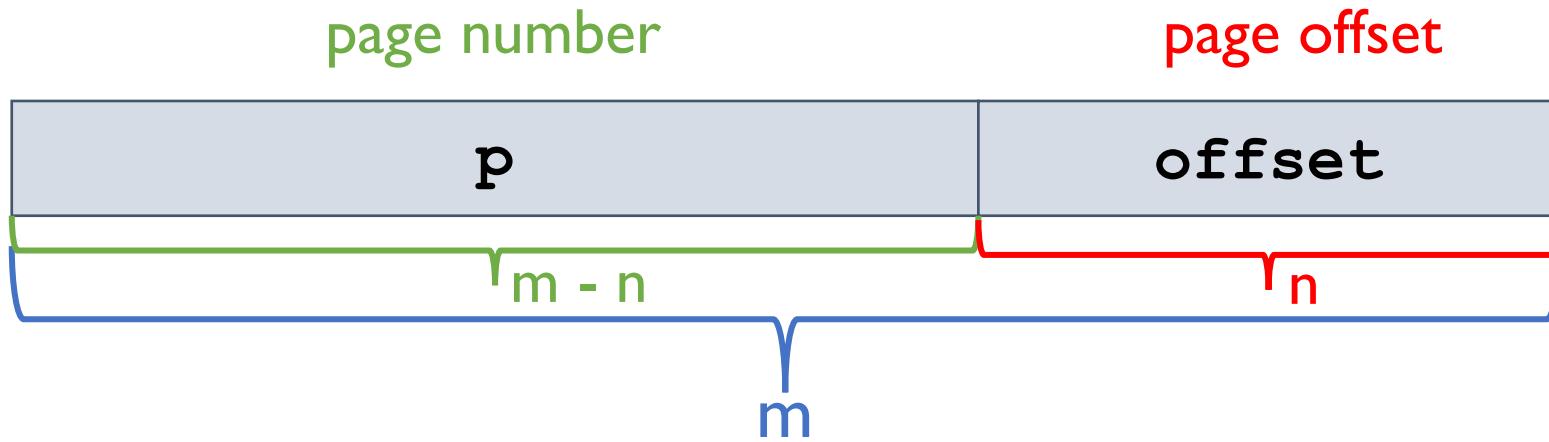
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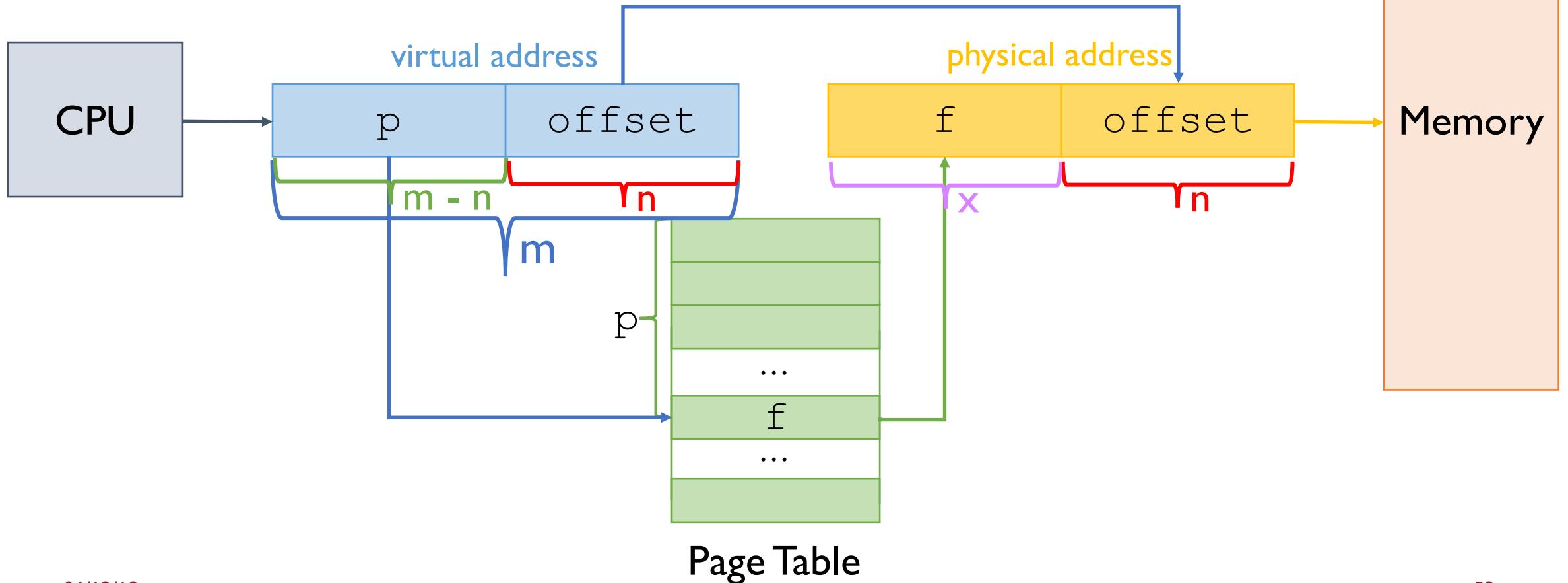
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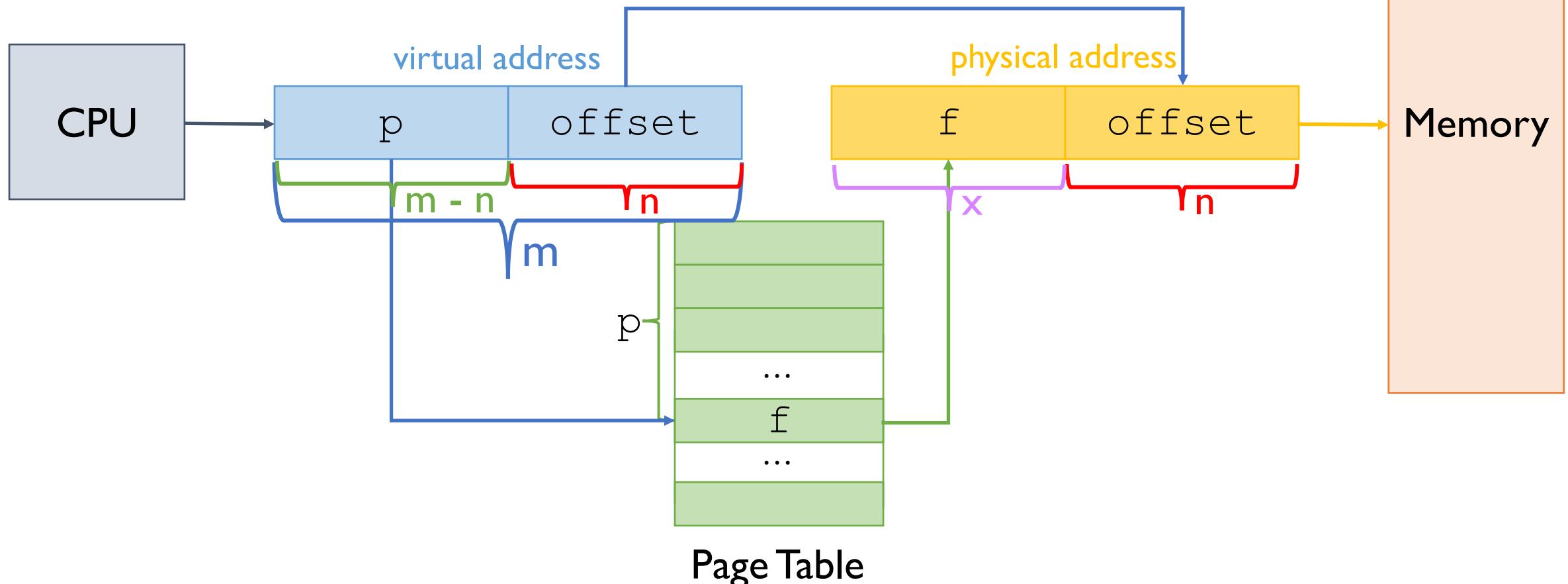
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## NOTE

$m-n$  doesn't necessarily have to be equal to  $x$



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- Typical values of virtual address size is  $m = 32$  or  $64$  bits
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  - That means each page/frame is  $2^{12} = 4\text{KiB}$
- Assuming  $m = 32$  bits, there are  $2^{m-n} = 2^{20} = 1\text{MiB}$  pages/frames
  - That means page table has  $2^{20}$  entries (i.e., one for each page/frame)

# Paging Hardware: Practical Example

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Q1

How many bits are needed for a virtual/physical address (assuming single-byte addressing)

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**R1**

10 bits to address  $M = 1024$  bytes (both for virtual and physical address)

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How big is the page table? (i.e., how many pages/entries does it have to index?)

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**R2**

$T = M / S = 1024 \text{ memory bytes} / 16 \text{ bytes per page} = 64 \text{ pages}$

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What is p and offset (i.e., how many bits for p and offset?)

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**R3**

Our logical address is made of  $m = 10$  bits

$n = 4$  bits are used to represent the offset, as each page/frame is  $S = 16$  bytes

$m-n = 6$  bits are used to represent page number  $p$ , as there are  $T = 64$  pages

# Paging Hardware: Practical Example

**Q4**

Translate the virtual address  $x = 42$ , assuming the following page table

page	frame
0	12
1	5
2	37
3	0
...	..
63	29

# Paging Hardware: Practical Example

**Q4**

Translate the virtual address  $x = 42$ , assuming the following page table

page	frame
0	12
1	5
2	37
3	0
...	..
63	29

**R4**

$$p = x \text{ div } S = 42 \text{ div } 16 = 2$$

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0	12
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**R4**

$$p = x \text{ div } S = 42 \text{ div } 16 = 2$$

$$\text{offset} = x \text{ mod } S = 42 \text{ mod } 16 = 10$$

10th byte from the beginning of frame 37

# Paging Hardware: Practical Example 2

Suppose we still have a virtual memory and a physical memory, both of size  $M = 1024B$

## Q1

So far, we have assumed that computers work on single-byte (i.e., 8-bit architecture). Modern computers however operate natively on multiple of bytes (i.e., **words**) rather than single-byte. Typical values of word length is: 16, 32 or 64 bits.

If we assume 32-bit architecture (i.e., word = 32 bits = 4 bytes), virtual addresses refer to words instead of bytes

How many bits are therefore needed to address the number of words available on M?

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**R1**

8 bits to address  $M = 1024/4 = 256$  4-byte **words** (both for virtual and physical address)

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Now, assume we still use paging with page/frame size  $S = 16B$

**Q2**

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Now, assume we still use paging with page/frame size  $S = 16B$

**Q2**

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**R2**

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**R3**

Our logical address is now made of  $m = 8$  bits  
 $n = 2$  bits are used to represent the offset, as each page/frame is:

$$S = 16 \text{ bytes} = 4 * 4\text{-byte words}$$

$m-n = 6$  bits are used to represent page number p, as there are still  $T = 64$  pages

# Paging Hardware: Practical Example 2

**Q4**

Translate the virtual address  $x = 7$ , assuming the following page table

page	frame
0	12
1	5
2	37
3	0
...	..
63	29

# Paging Hardware: Practical Example

**Q4**

Translate the virtual address  $x = 7$ , assuming the following page table

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Remember: now virtual address refers to a 4-byte word!

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$S = 16 \text{ bytes} = 4 * 4\text{-byte words}$

Must be expressed in terms of  
number of words

**R4**

$$p = x \text{ div } S = 7 \text{ div } 4 = 1$$

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**Q4**

Translate the virtual address  $x = 7$ , assuming the following page table

page	frame
0	12
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**R4**

$$p = x \text{ div } S = 7 \text{ div } 4 = 1$$

$$\text{offset} = x \text{ mod } S = 7 \text{ mod } 4 = 3$$

3rd word from the beginning of frame 5

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- Trade-off solution: **Translation Look-aside Buffer (TLB)**

# Appendix: Registers and Main Memory

- All memory accesses are equivalent: the memory hardware doesn't know what a particular part of memory is being used for
- CPU can only access its registers and main memory (any access to other devices, e.g., hard drive, requires data to be moved into main memory first)
- Access to registers is very fast, generally one clock cycle
- Access to main memory is comparatively slow, and may take several clock cycles to complete

# Appendix: Cache Memory

- Bridge the gap between fast registers and slower main memory
- Cache Memory: on-chip (thereby, fast!) intermediary memory built into most modern CPUs
- Several chunks of memory transferred from main memory to the cache
- Access individual memory locations one at a time from the cache rather than from memory directly

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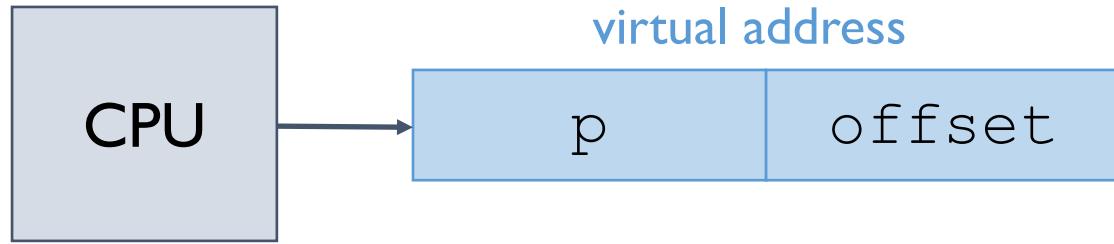
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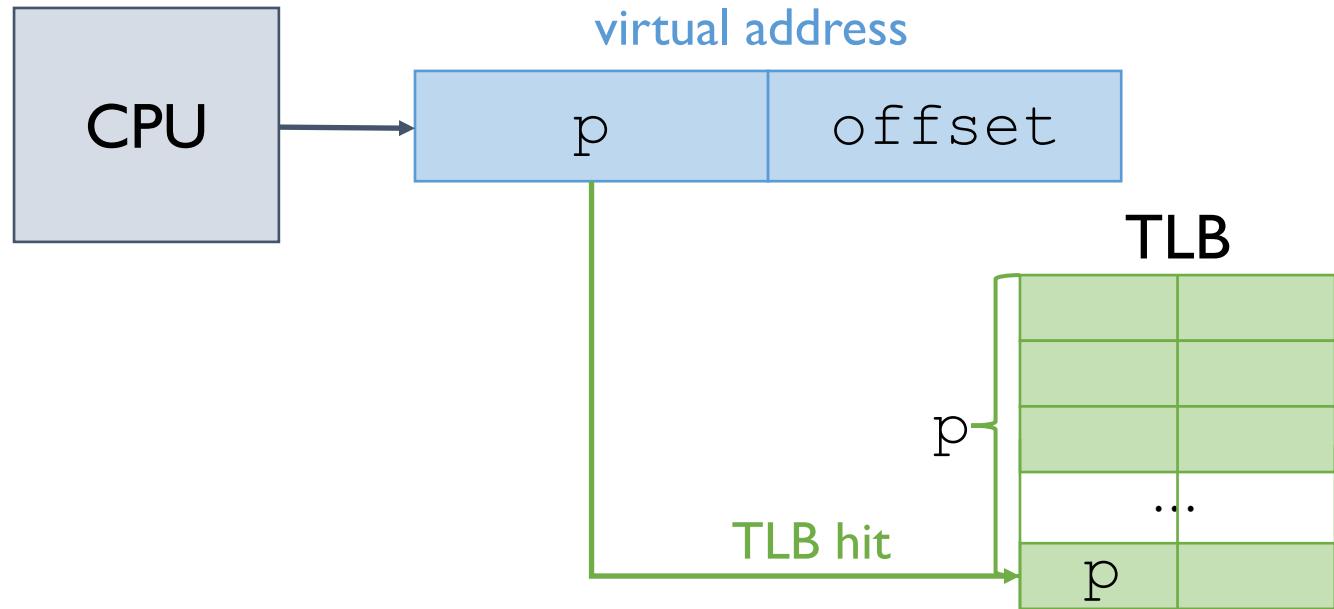
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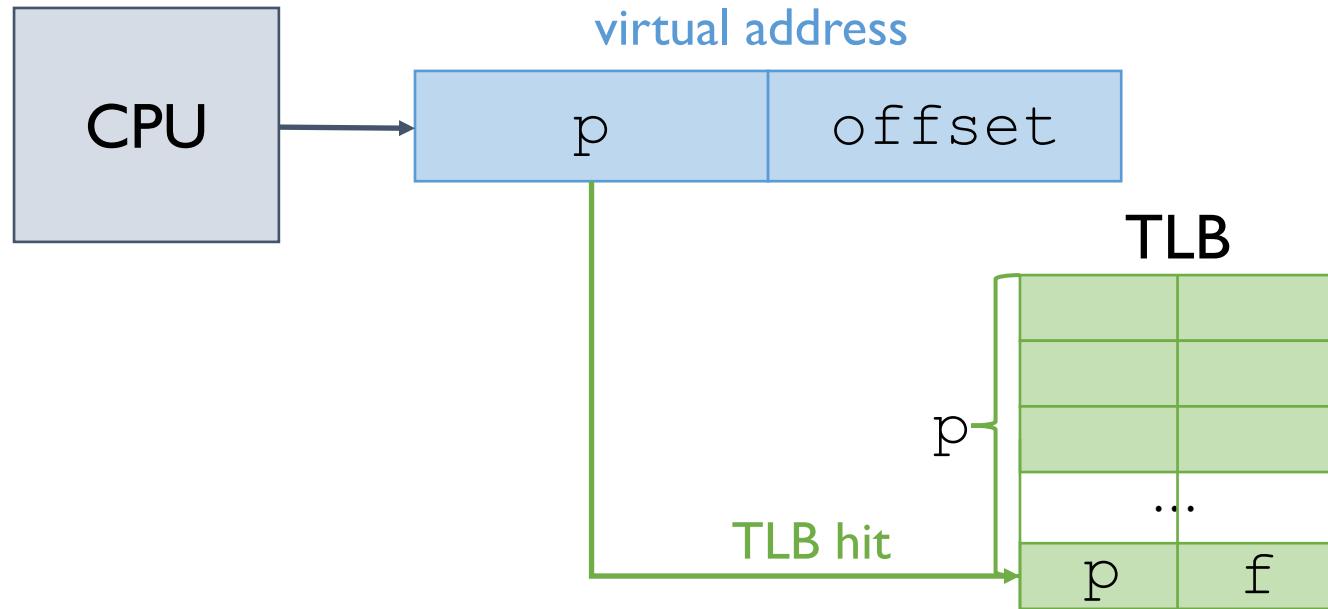
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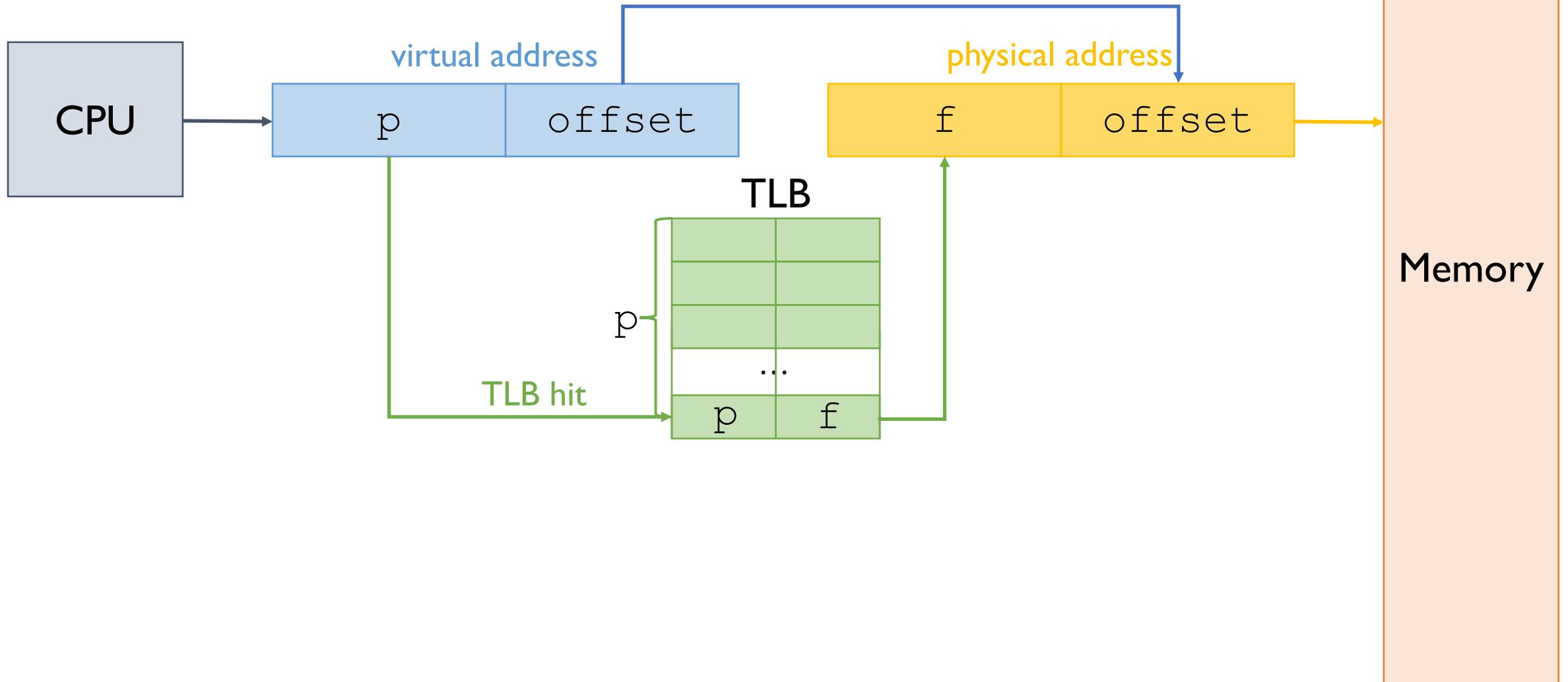
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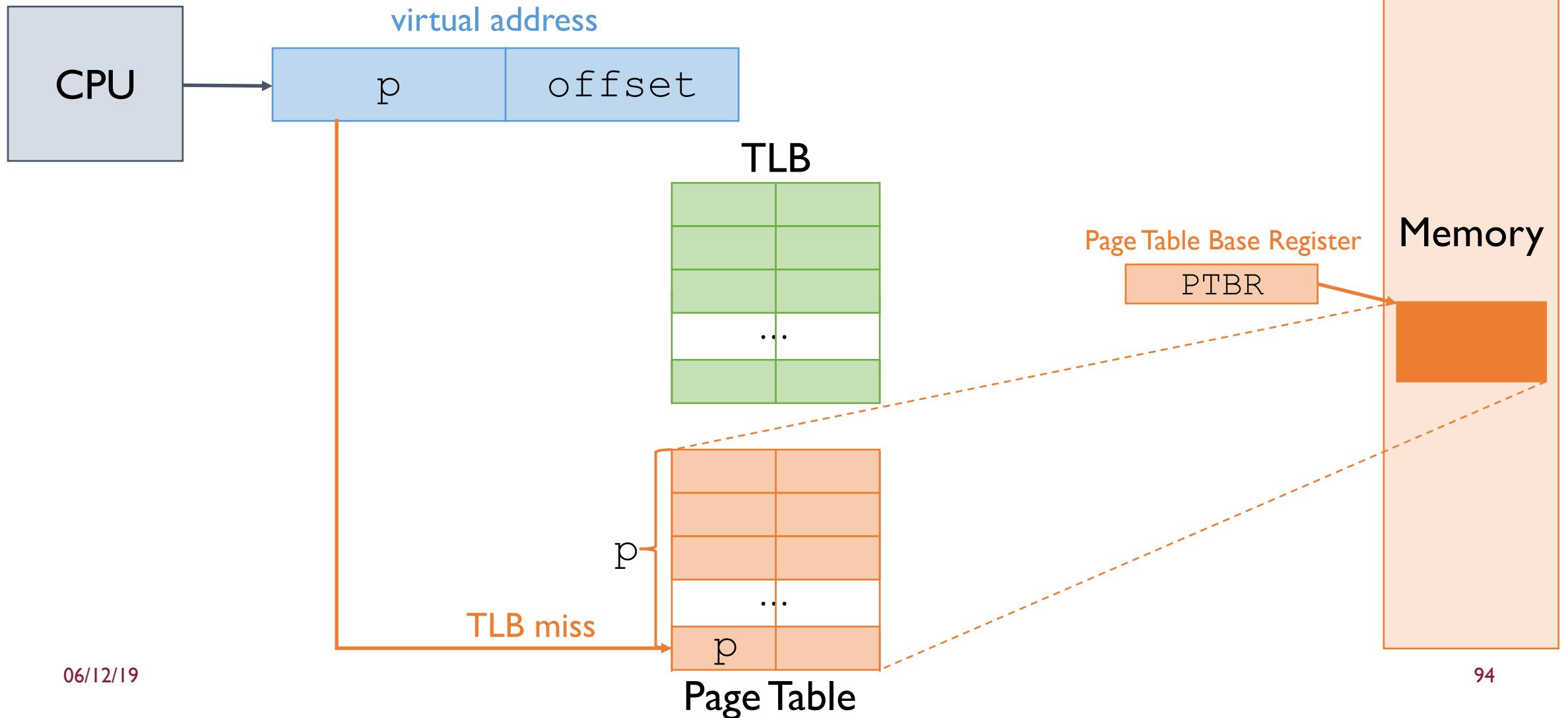
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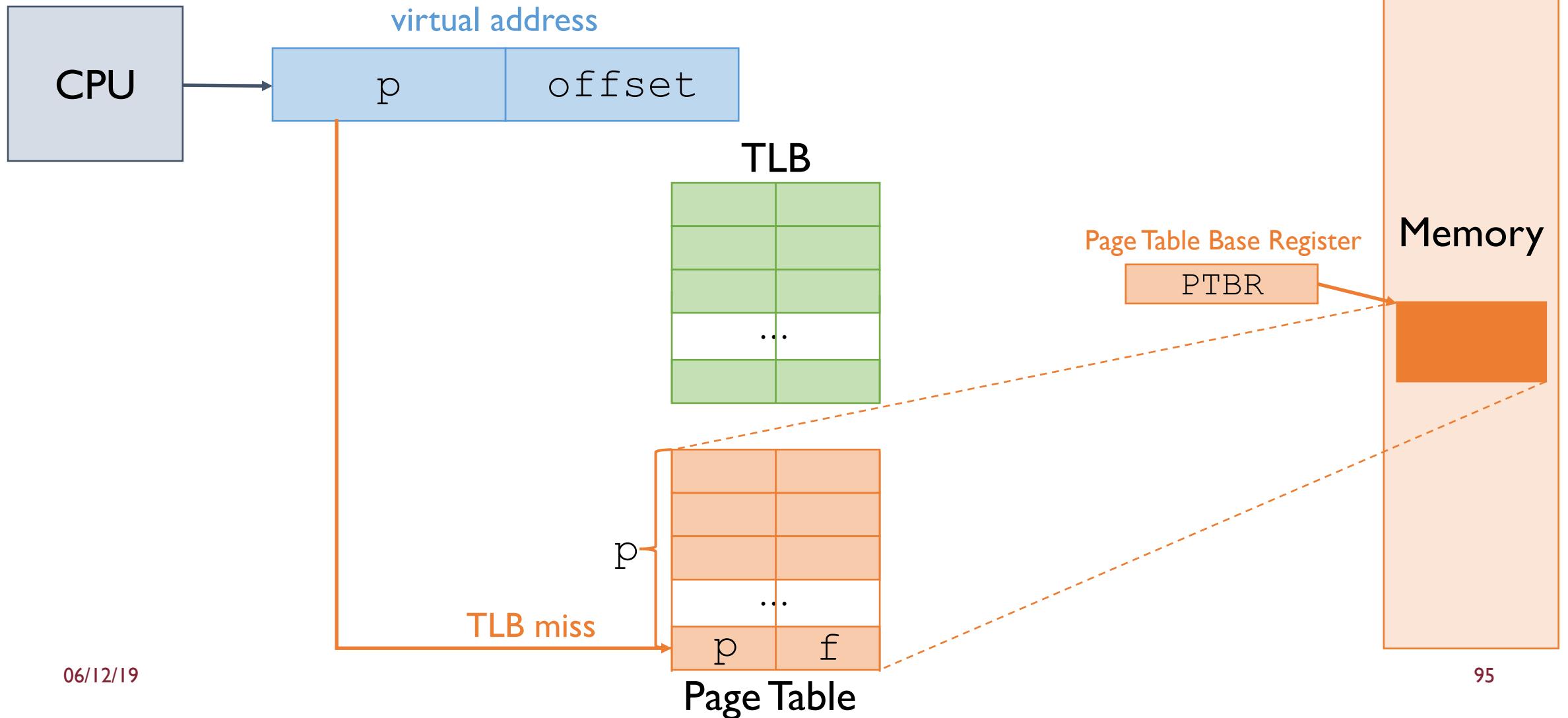
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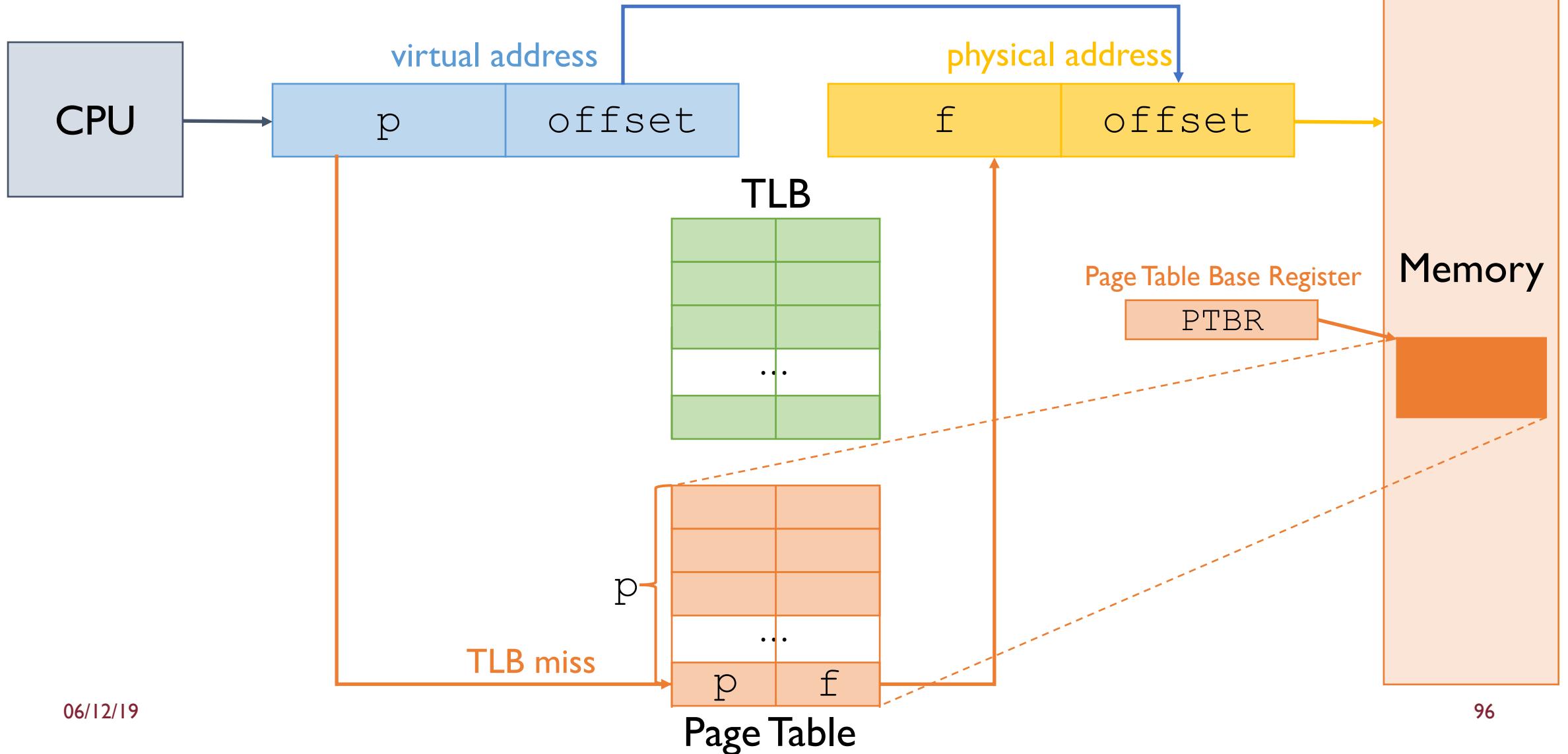
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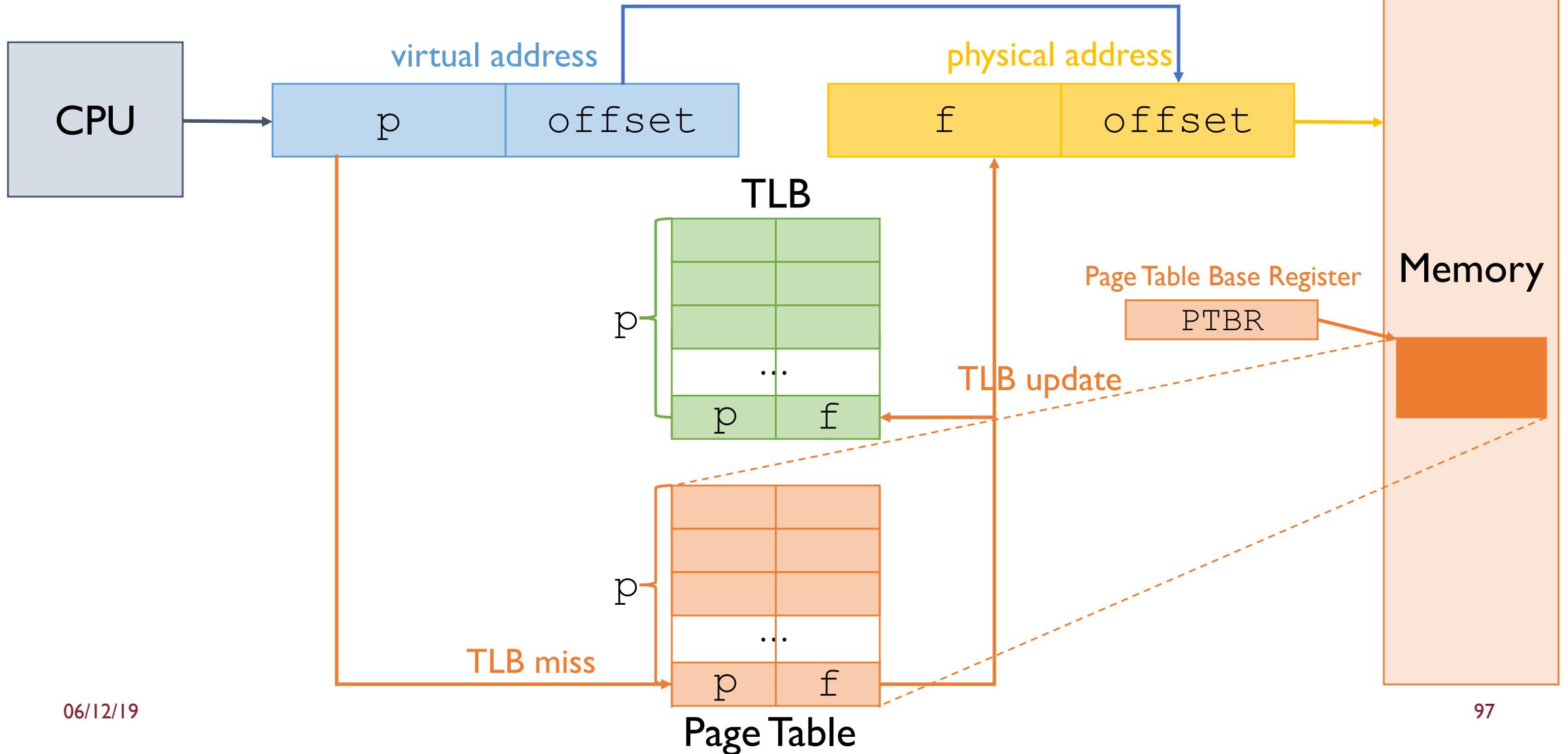
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  - **advanced:** TLB entries dumped and restored within the PCB or adding a so-called process context ID (PCID) to each entry (the CPU will use a TLB entry iff the PCID of that entry corresponds to the ID of the running process)

# Memory Access Cost

$t_{MA}$  = physical memory access time

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(NOTE:  $t_{TLB} \ll t_{MA}$ )

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The larger the TLB the higher the probability  $p$  of hit ratio,  
thereby decreasing the average memory access cost

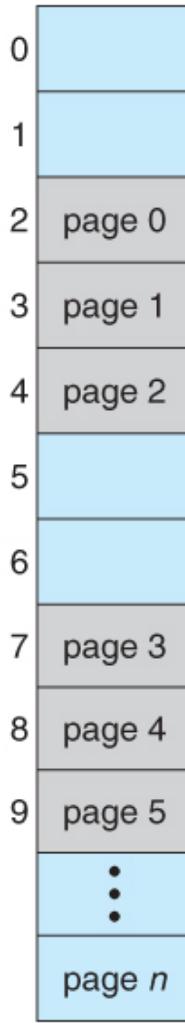
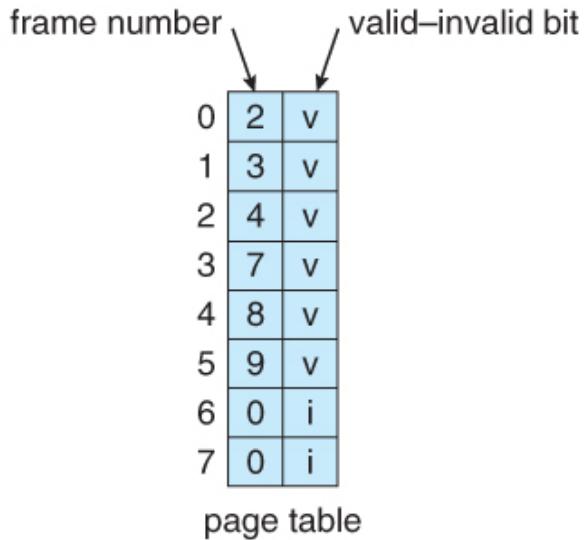
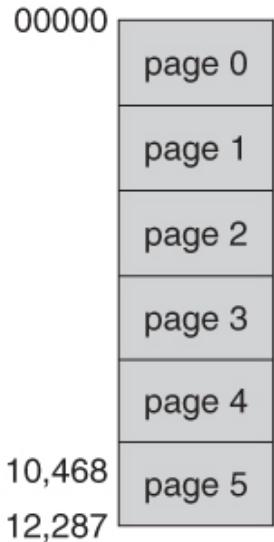
# Additional Protection

- The page table can also help to protect processes from accessing memory they shouldn't, or their own memory in correct ways
- A bit or bits can be added to the page table to classify a page as read-write, read-only, read-write-execute, or combination of those
- Each memory reference can be checked to ensure it is accessing the memory in the appropriate mode
- Valid/invalid bits can be added to "mask off" entries in the page table that are not in use by the current process

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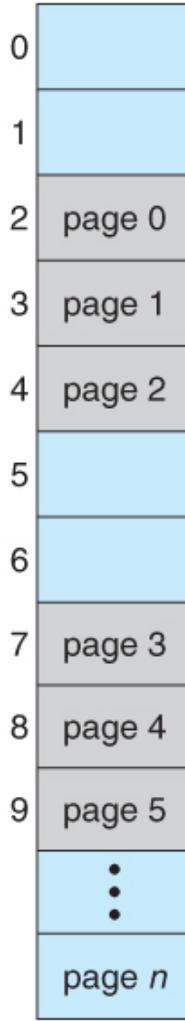
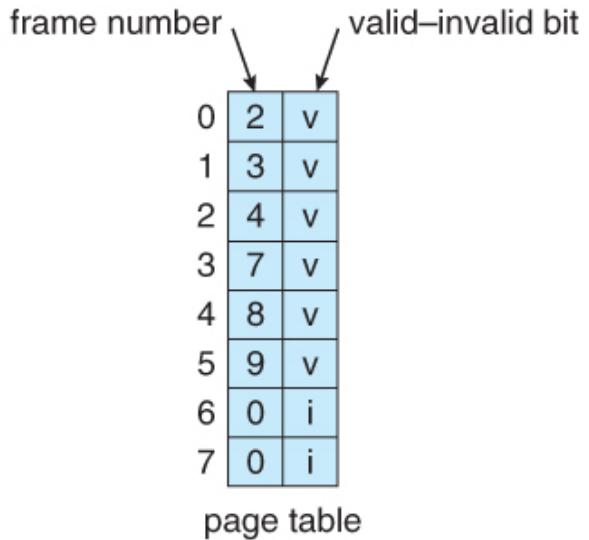
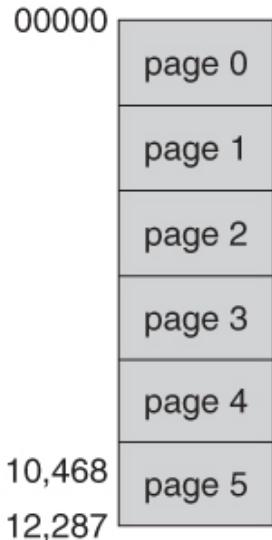
- valid/invalid bits cannot block all illegal memory accesses, due to the internal fragmentation
- Many processes do not use all of the page table entries available, particularly in modern systems with very large potential page tables
- Some systems use a page-table length register (PTLR) to specify the length of the page table

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any entry whose invalid bit is set will be discarded (and updated)

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5. As process runs, OS loads TLB missed entries possibly replacing existing entries if TLB is full

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- On a context switch:
  - Copy the PTBR value to the PCB
  - Copy the TLB to the PCB (optional)
  - Flush the TLB (if TLB is not saved to/restored from the PCB)
  - Restore the PTBR (i.e., with the value of the new running process)
  - Restore the TLB (if it was previously saved)

# Sharing Pages

- Paging systems can make it very easy to share blocks of memory, since memory doesn't have to be contiguous anymore

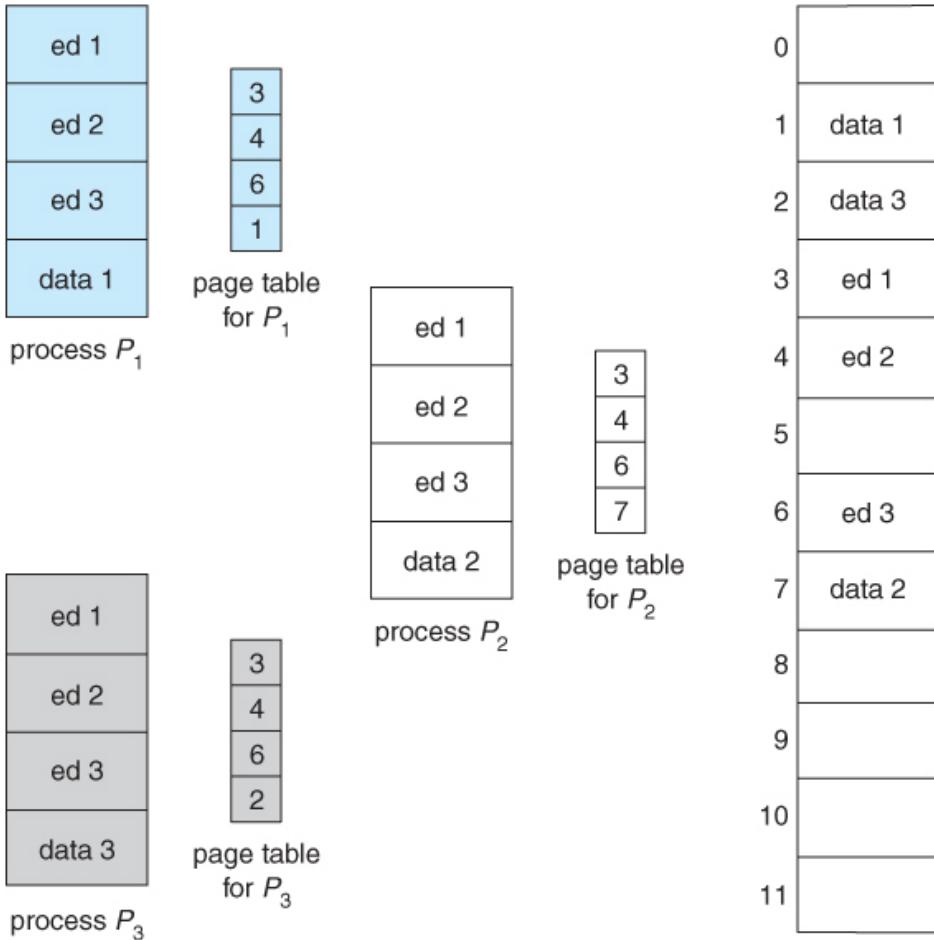
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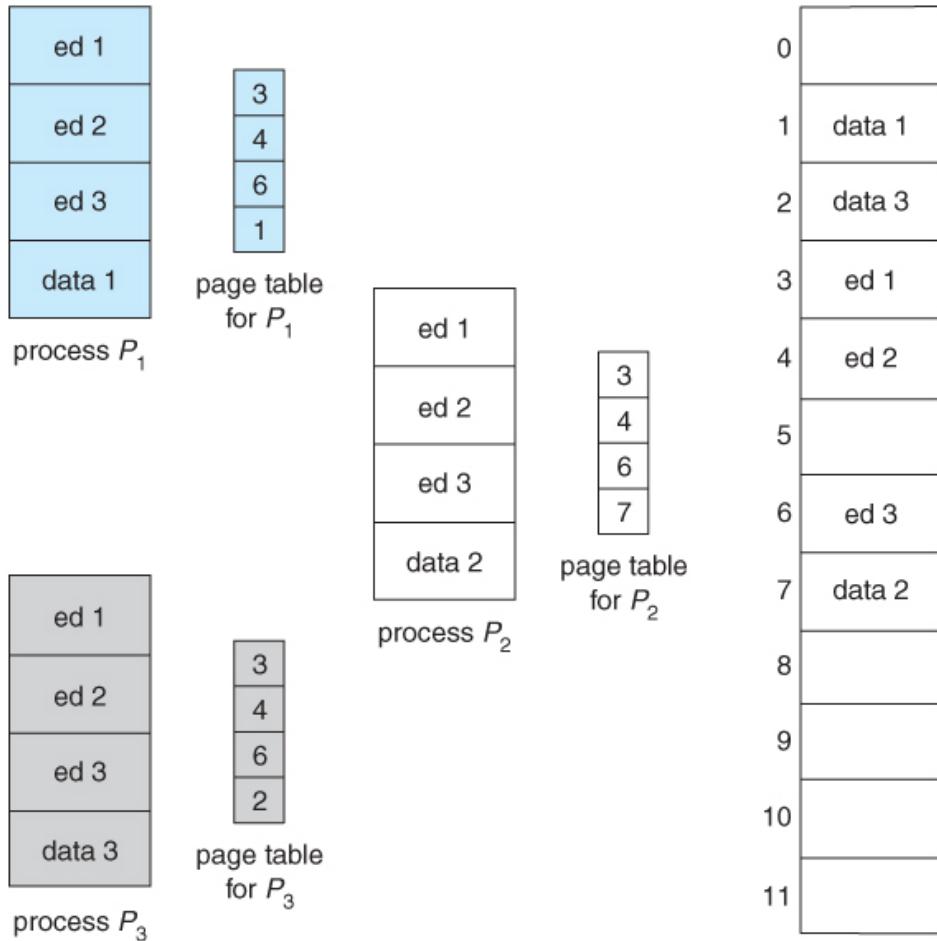
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- This can be done by simply duplicating page entries of different processes to the same page frames (both for code and data)
- Only if code is **reentrant**:
  - it does not write to or change the code (i.e., it is non self-modifying)
  - the code can be shared by multiple processes, as long as each has their own copy of the data and registers, including the instruction register

# Sharing Pages: Example



**3 user processes** are using the editor program ed

# Sharing Pages: Example



**3 user processes** are using the editor program **ed**

Only a **single copy** of the code of **ed** is actually loaded in main memory

# Paging: Summary

- A big improvement over **relocation**
  - Eliminates the problem of external fragmentation and therefore the need for compaction
  - Allows code sharing among processes, reducing memory footprint
  - Enables processes to run when they are partially loaded

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- A big improvement over **relocation**
  - Eliminates the problem of external fragmentation and therefore the need for compaction
  - Allows code sharing among processes, reducing memory footprint
  - Enables processes to run when they are partially loaded
- However, paging comes with its costs:
  - Virtual/Physical address translation may be time consuming
  - Hardware support like TLB cache is needed to make it efficient enough
  - OS has to be inevitably more complex

# A Quick Step Back: Segmentation

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# A Quick Step Back: Segmentation

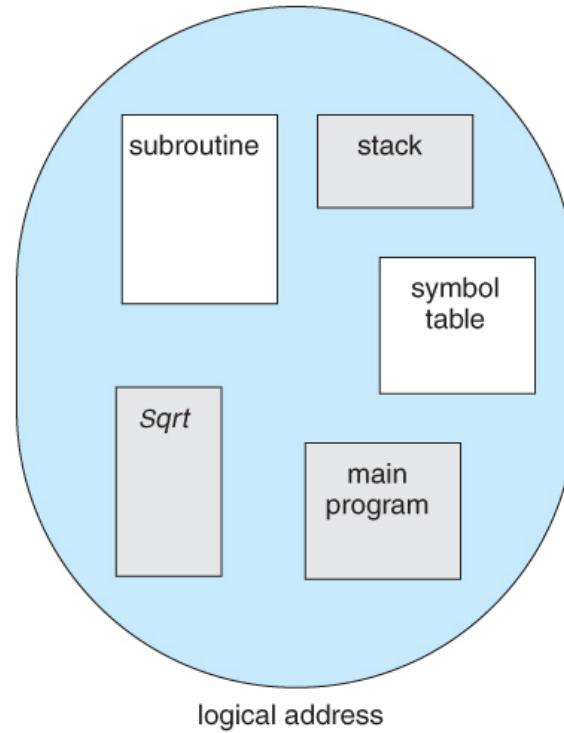
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- Most users (programmers) do not think of their programs as existing in one continuous linear address space
- Rather they think of memory divided in multiple **segments**, each dedicated to a specific use, such as code, data, stack, heap, etc.
- Memory segmentation supports this view by providing addresses with a **segment number** (mapped to a segment base address) and an **offset** from the beginning of that segment

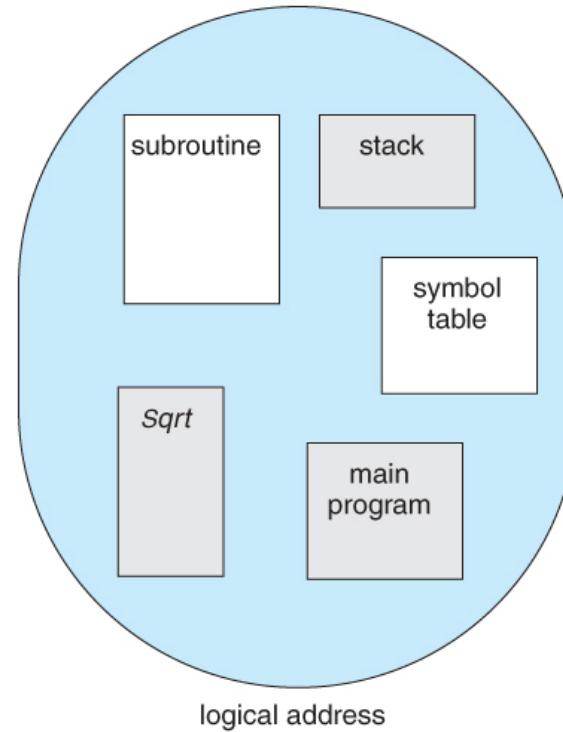
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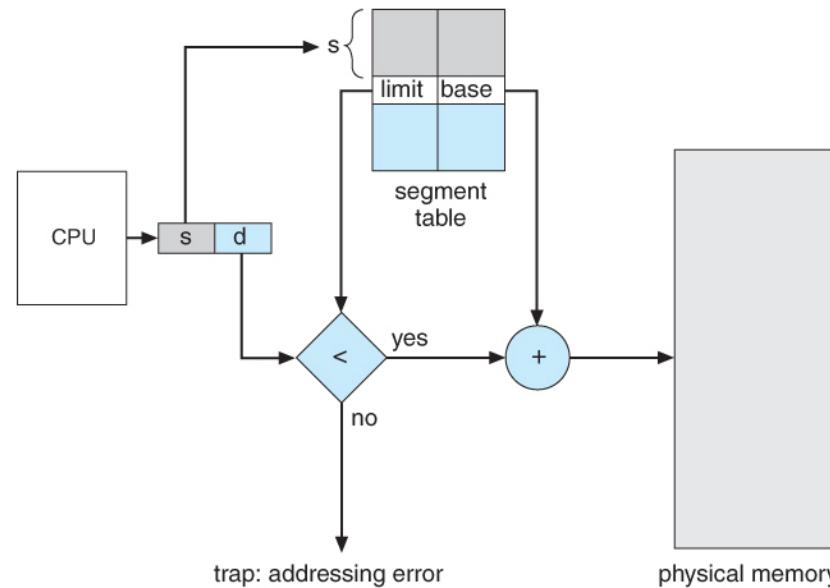
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The compiler generates addresses identifying segments and offset in those

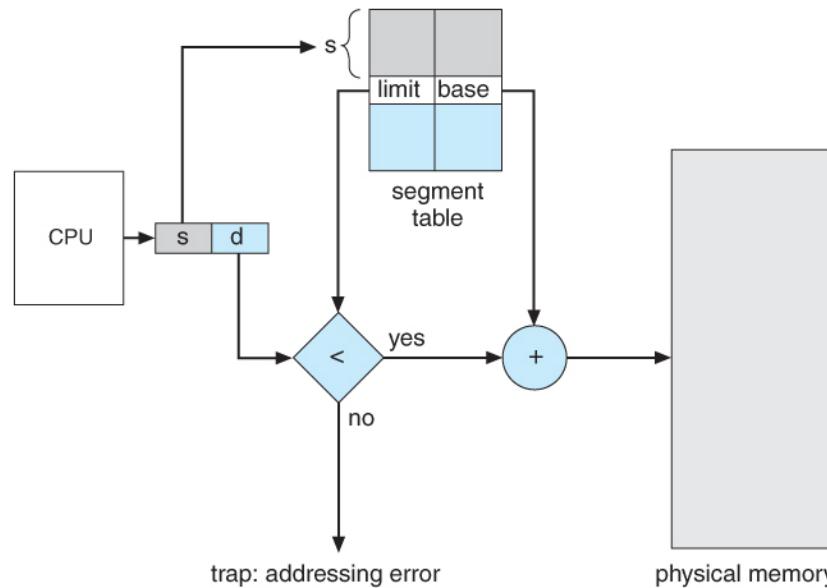
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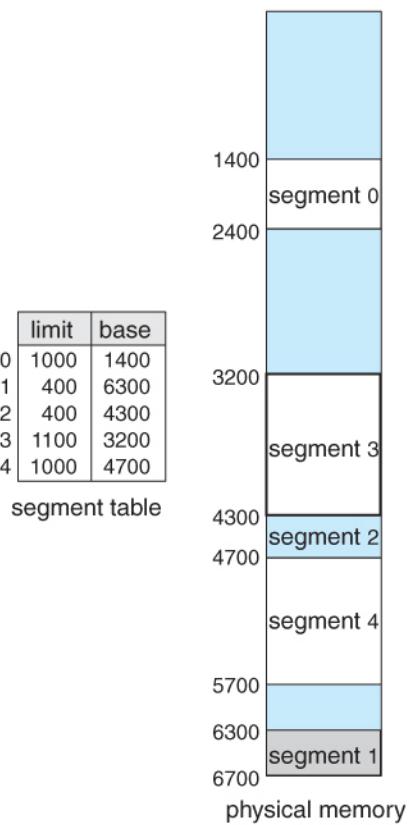
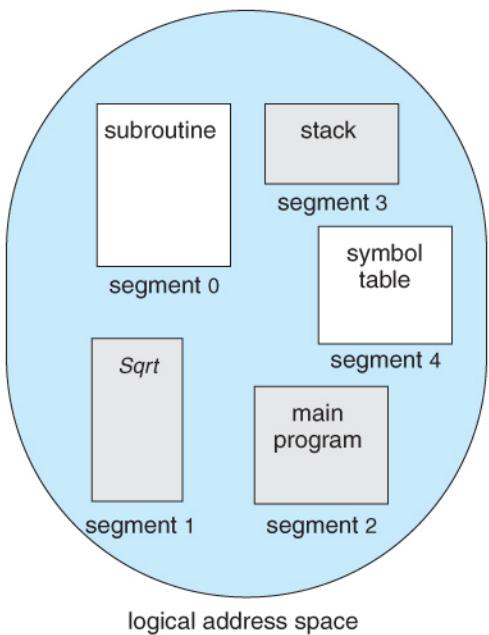
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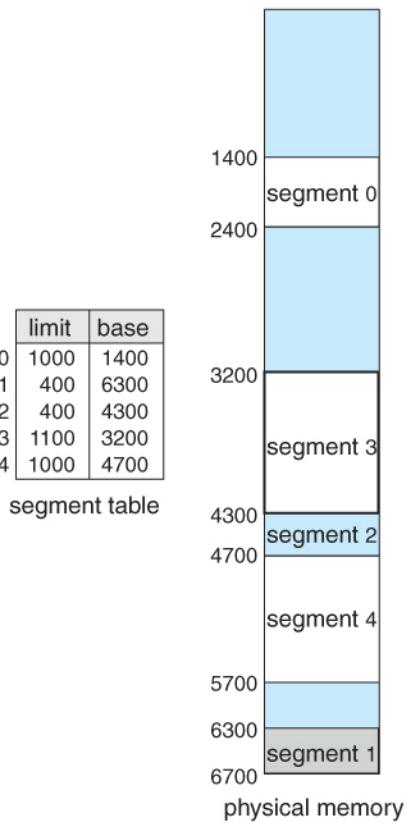
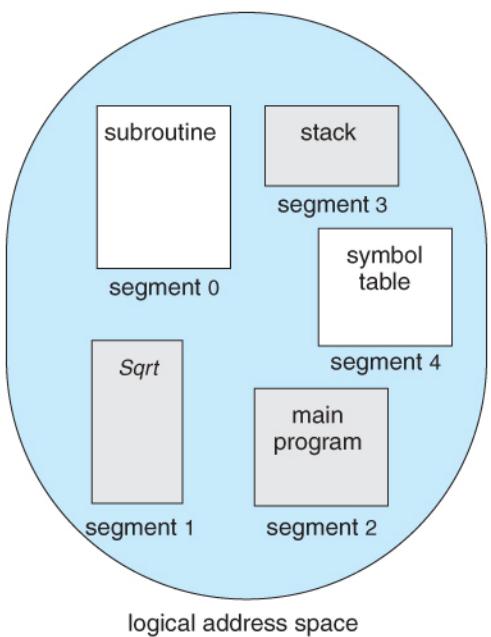
Note that we came back to the assumption that each segment is kept in **contiguous** memory and may be of different sizes...

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Each entry contains a base address in memory, the length of the segment, plus additional protection information (e.g., sharing, read/write permissions)

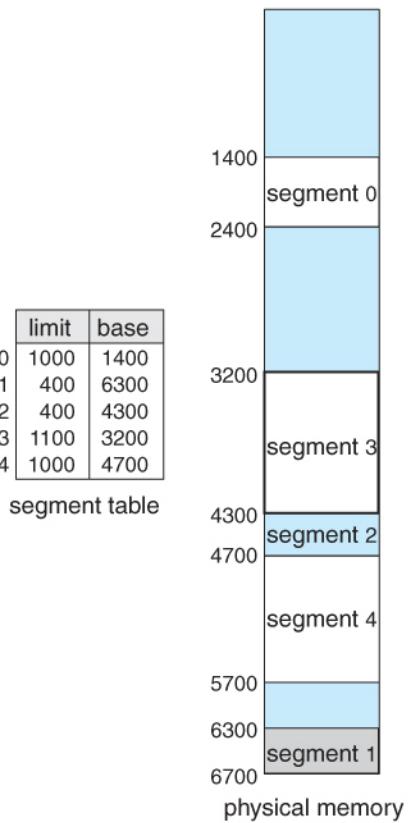
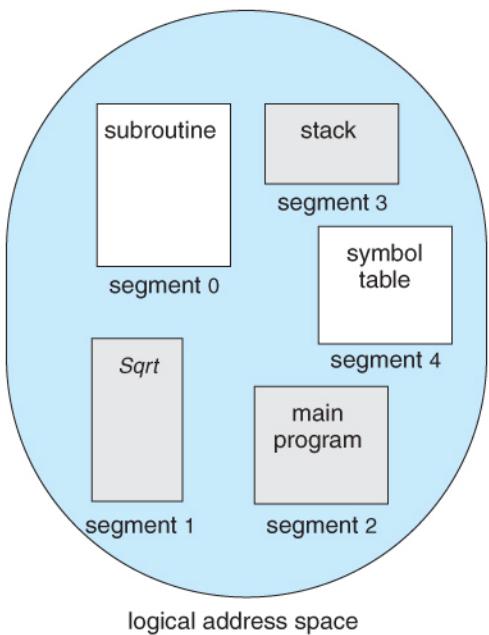
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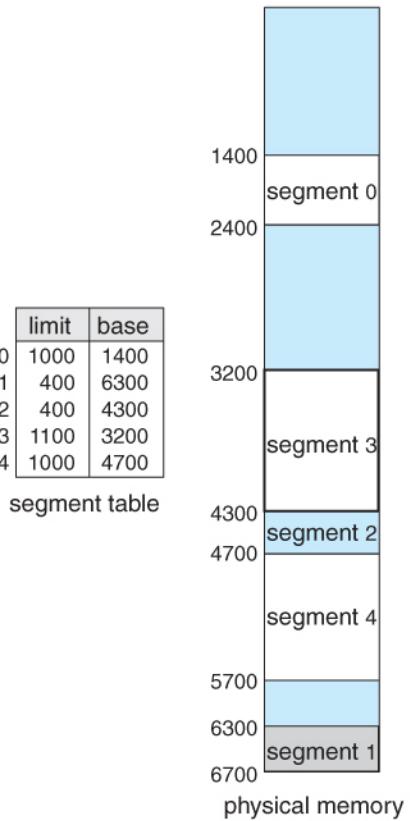
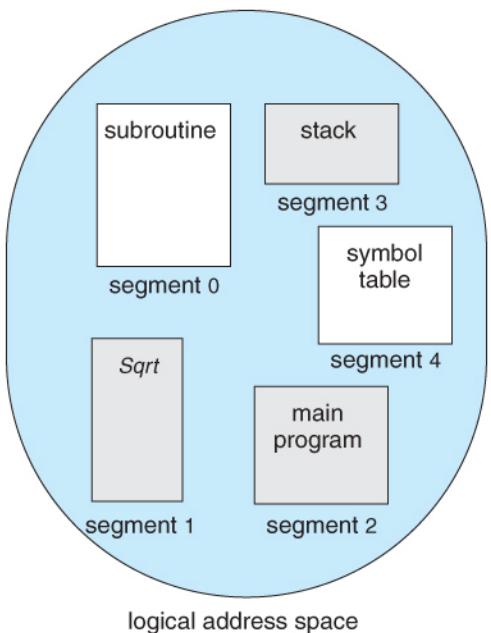


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Segment Table, instead, must store a very limited amount of segments per process (3÷5)

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- Additional HW (like TLB cache) might be needed if programs use many logical segments

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Try to get the best of both world

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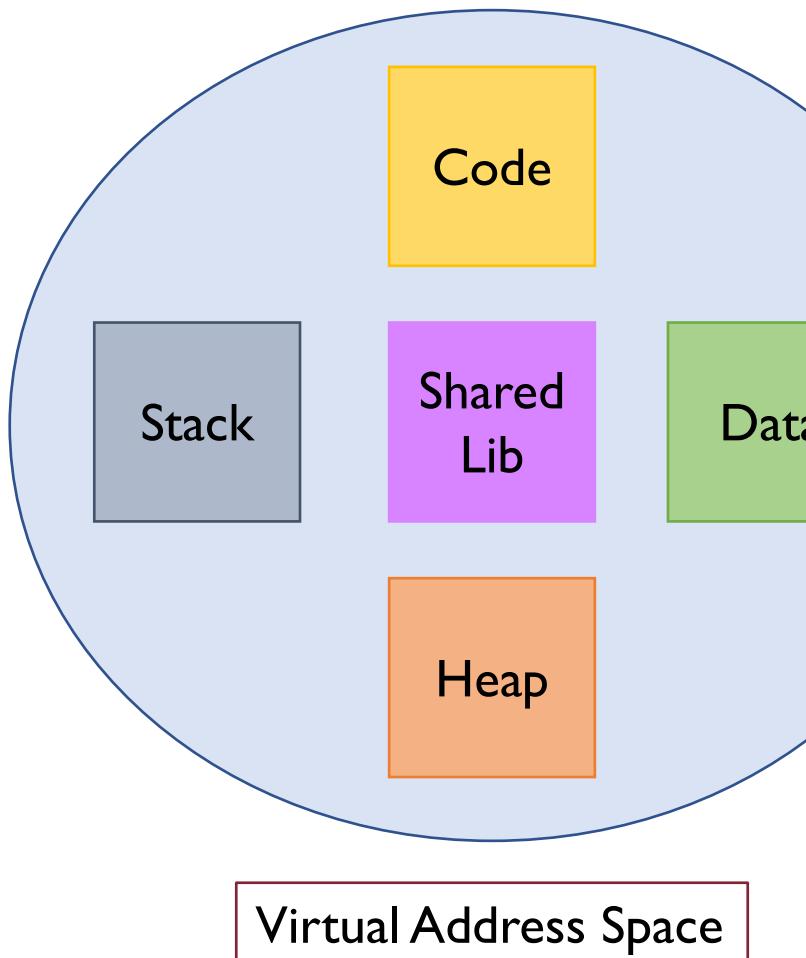
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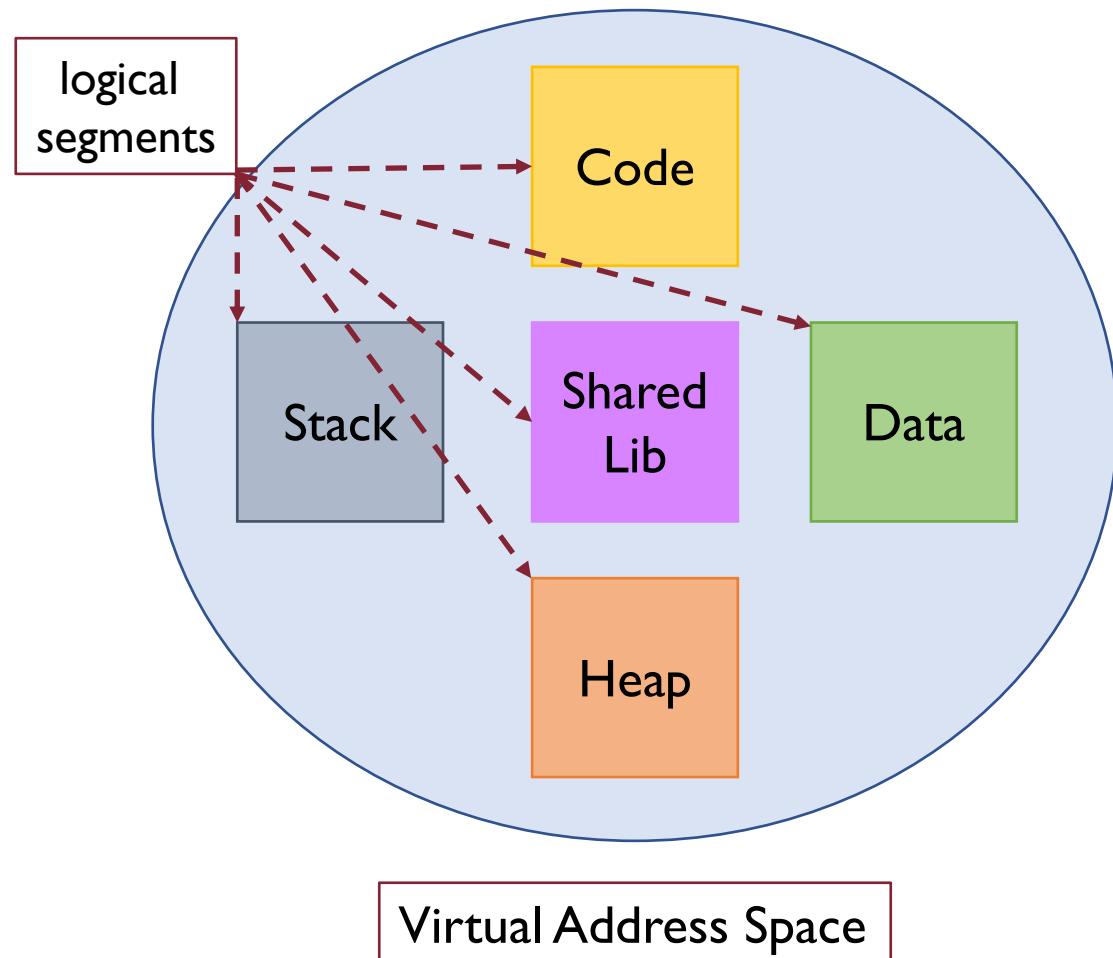


Map a logical segment onto multiple page frames

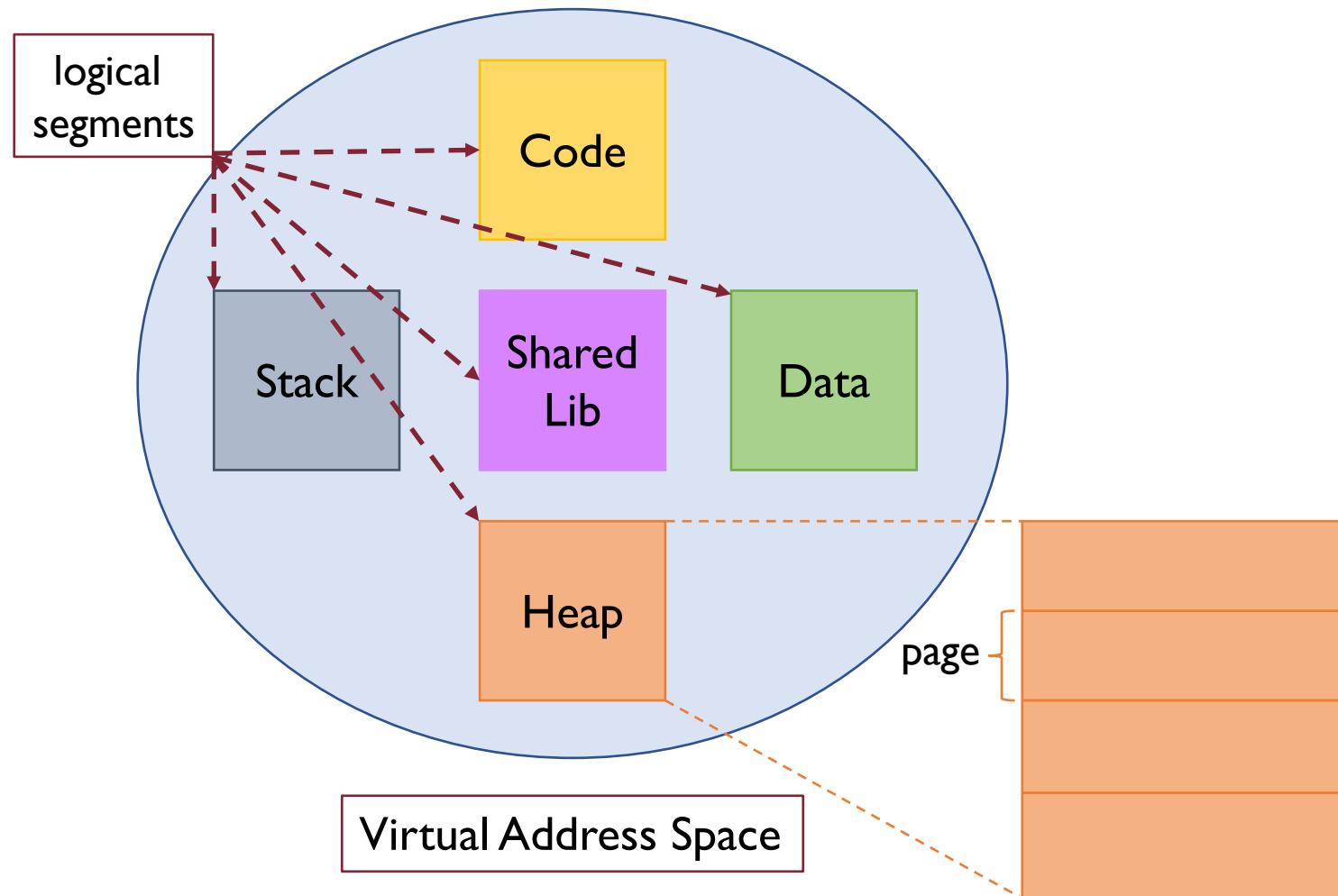
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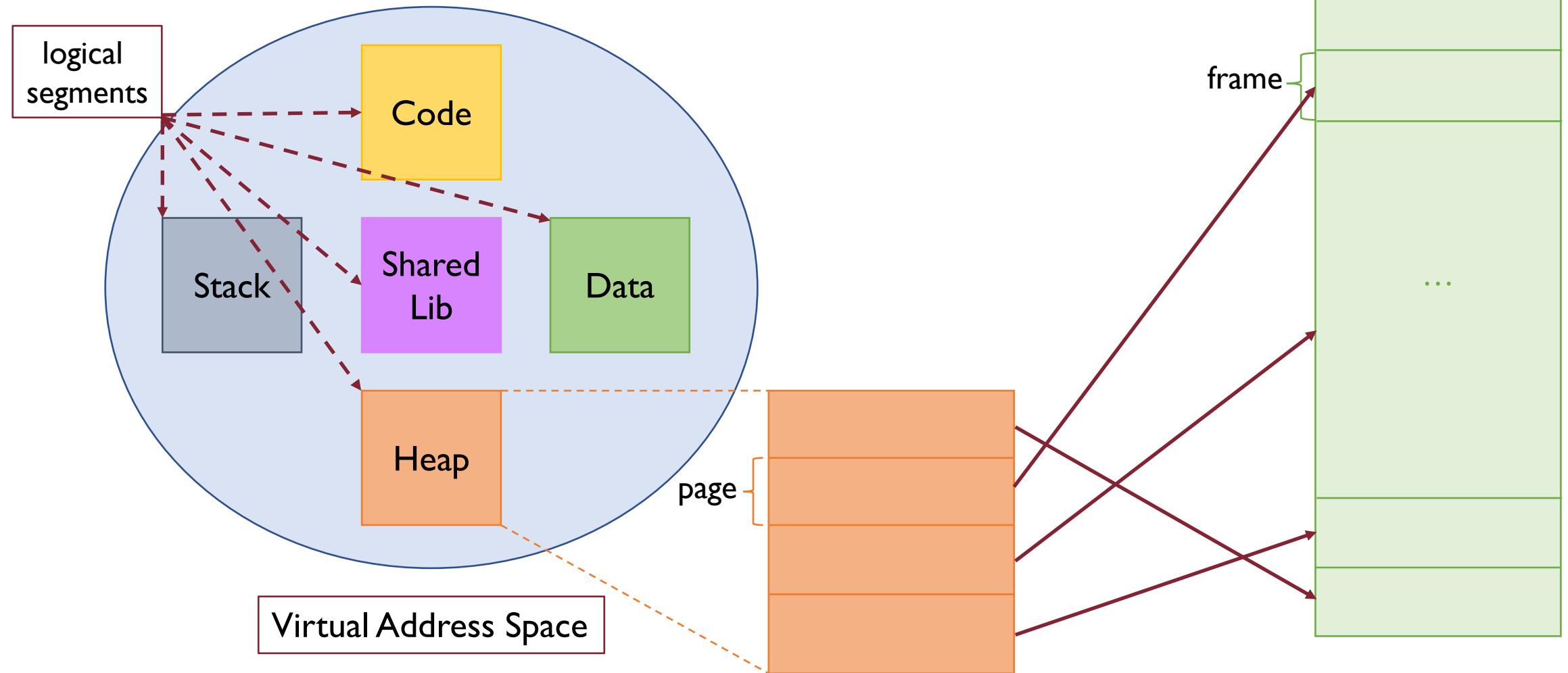
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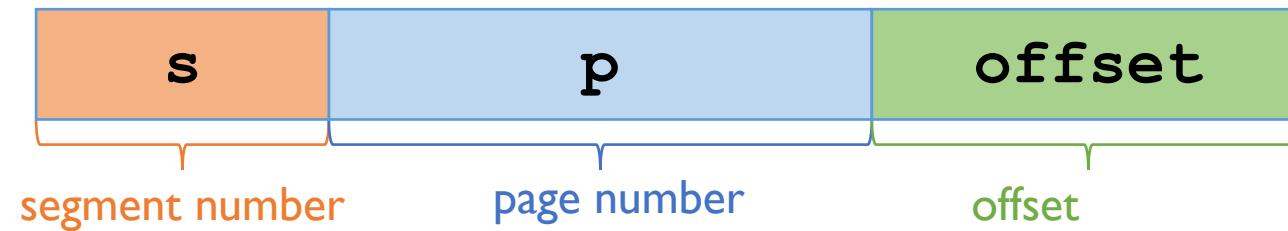


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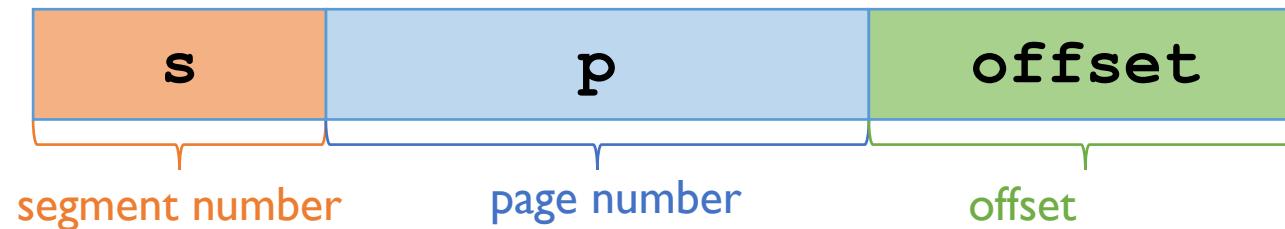
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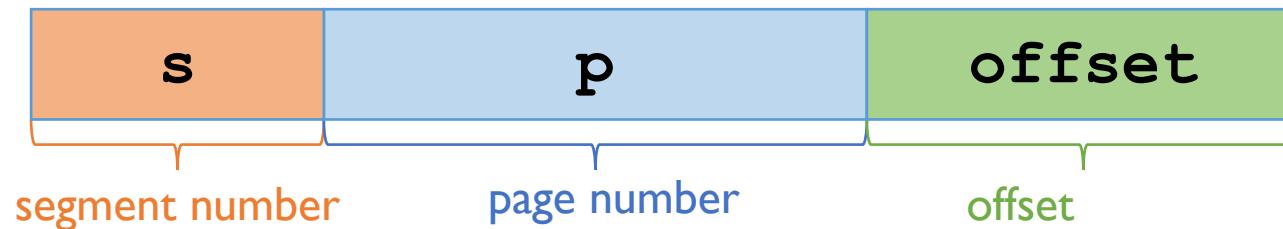
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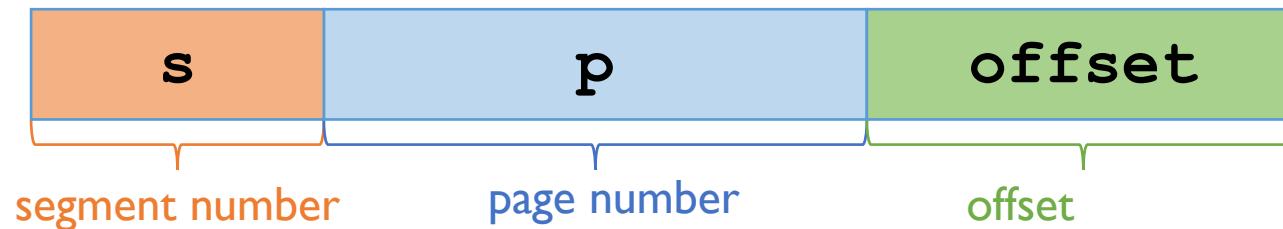
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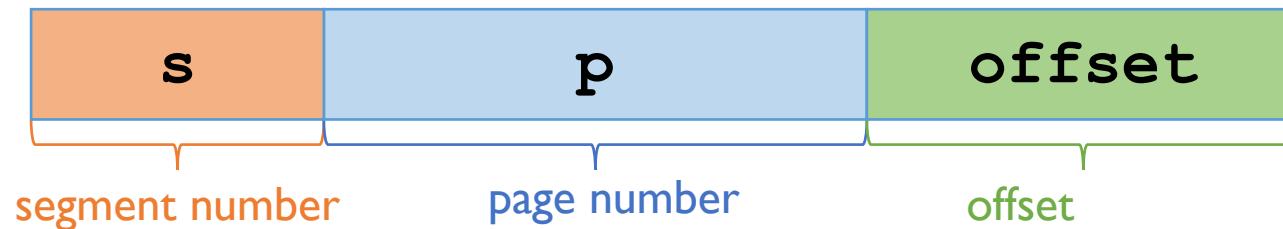
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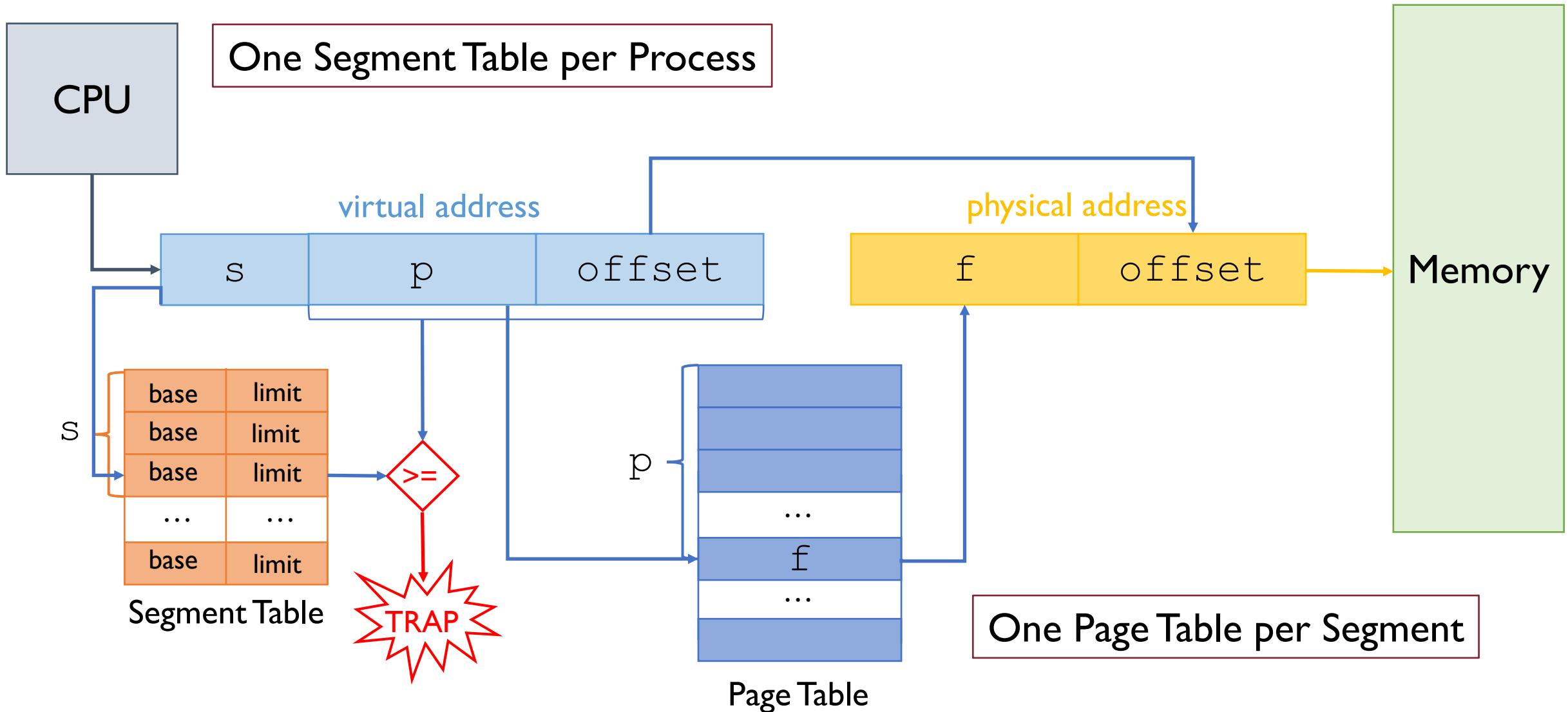
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## Option 2

both segment tables and page tables in main memory with TLB cache

TLB lookup done using segment index and page index

# Segmented Paging: Implementation Issues

Where are **segment tables** and **page tables** stored?

## Option 1

segment tables in a small number of registers  
page tables in main memory with TLB cache

Faster but the number of segments is limited

## Option 2

both segment tables and page tables in main memory with TLB cache  
TLB lookup done using segment index and page index

Slower but more flexible

# Segmented Paging Hardware: Practical Example 3

Suppose a physical memory of 1024 addressable words (assuming 1 word = 1 byte)

Frame size is 64 words (i.e., 64 bytes)

Page table size (i.e., number of entries) is thus  $1024 \text{ bytes} / 64 \text{ bytes per frame} = 16$

8 logical segments

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**QI**

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**RI**

10 bits to address  $M = 1024 / 1 = 1024$  1-byte **words**

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**Q2**

How many bits are therefore needed for the virtual address?

**R2**

3 bits to address 8 logical segments (s)

4 bits to address 16 entries of the page table

6 bits to address 64 individual words (i.e., bytes) within each page

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- Even more flexible!

# Segmented Paging: Benefits and Costs

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- **Costs:**

- Slower context switches (why?)
- Slower address translation (why?)

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- The larger the page size the higher the chance of internal fragmentation

# Advanced Paging

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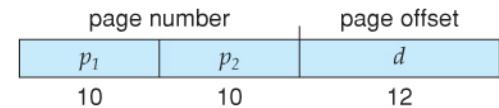
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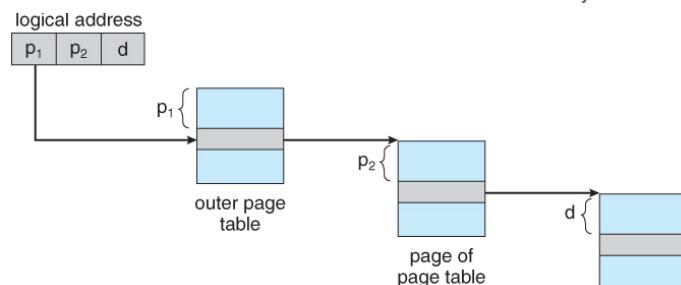
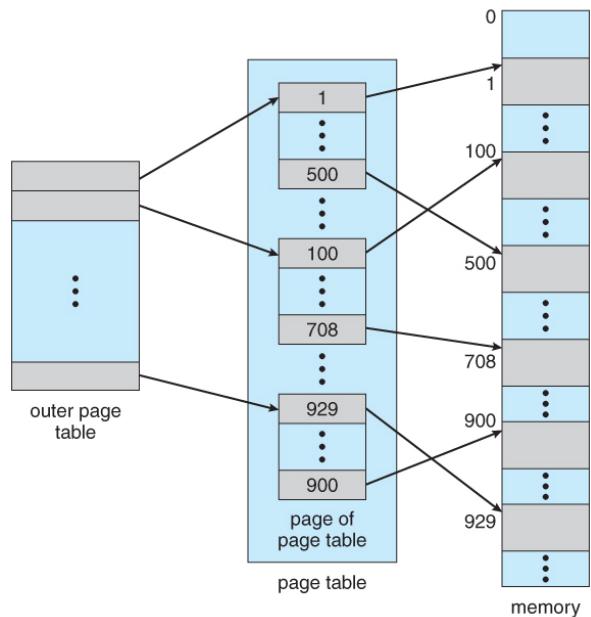


More advanced paging structures are needed!

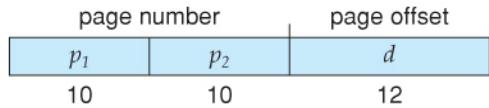
# Advanced Paging: Two-Tier Page Table



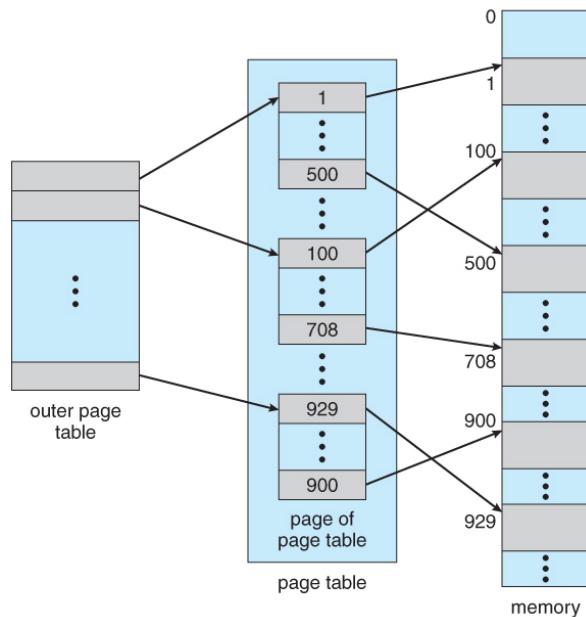
Let's page the page table!



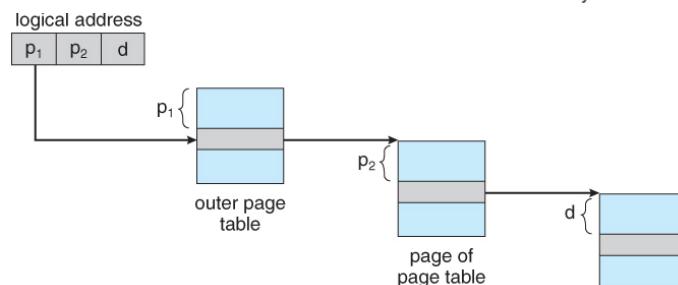
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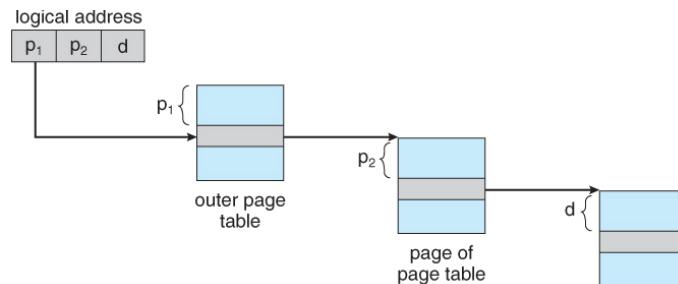
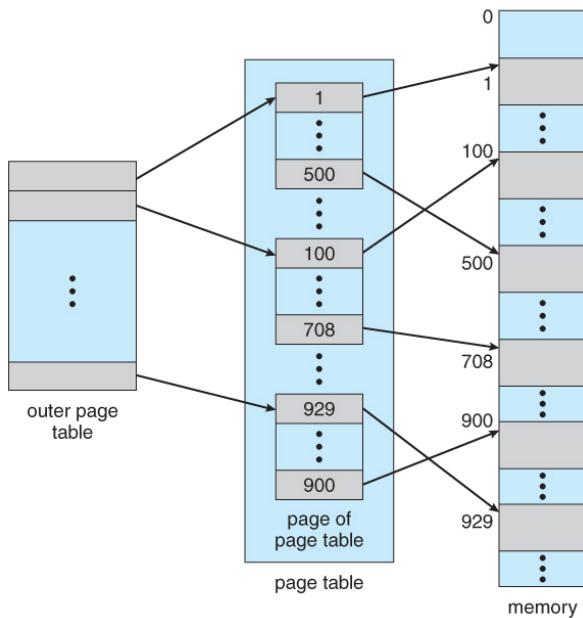
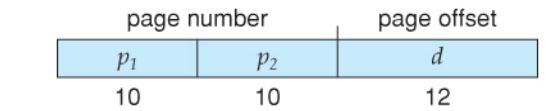
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20-bit page number broken into 2 10-bit page numbers



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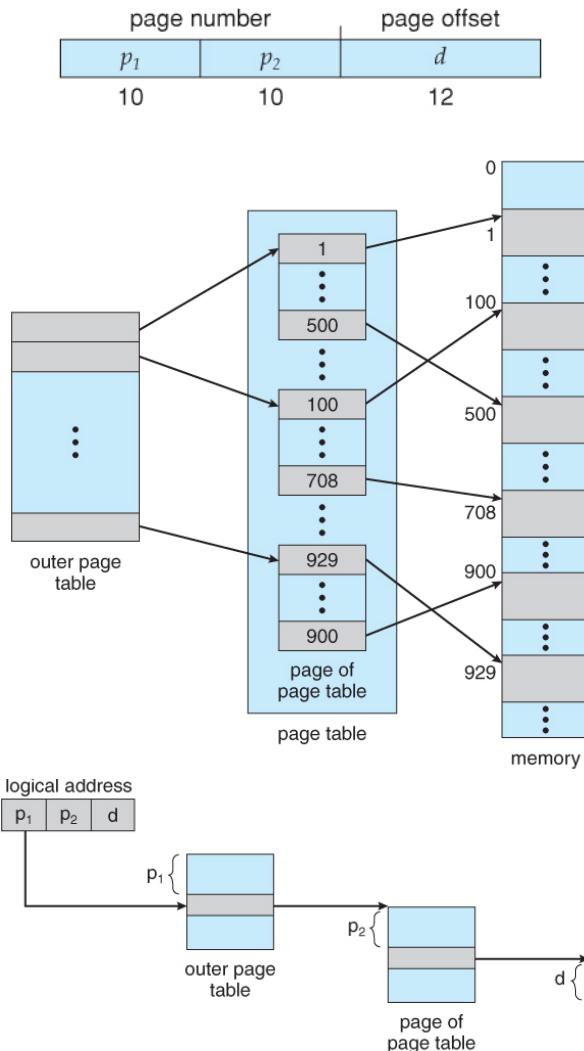


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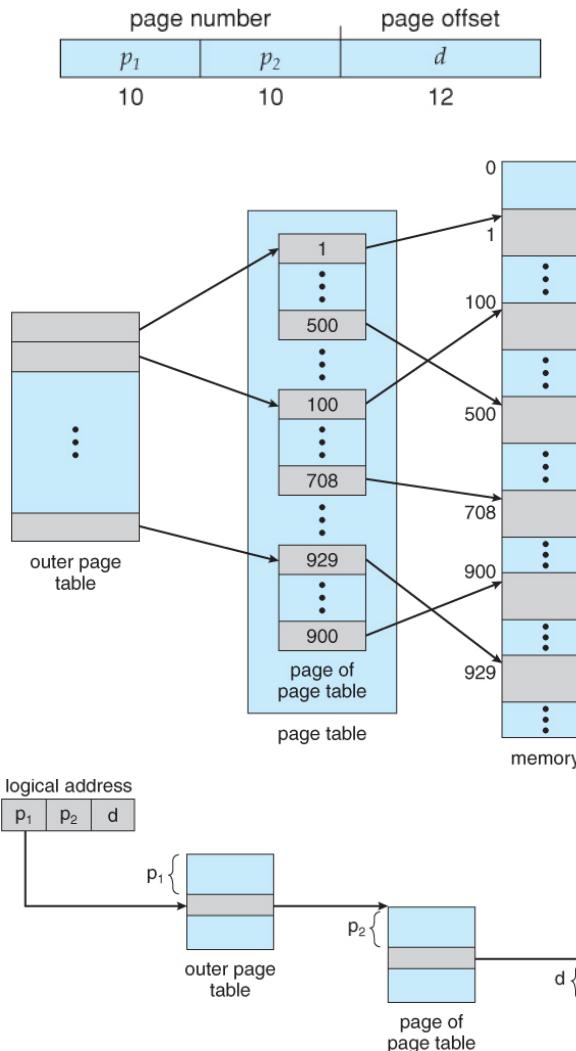
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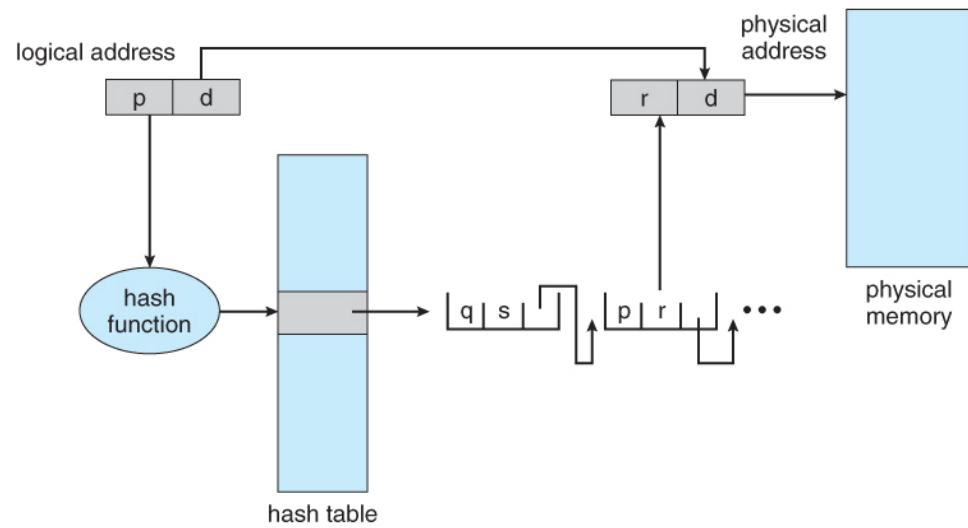
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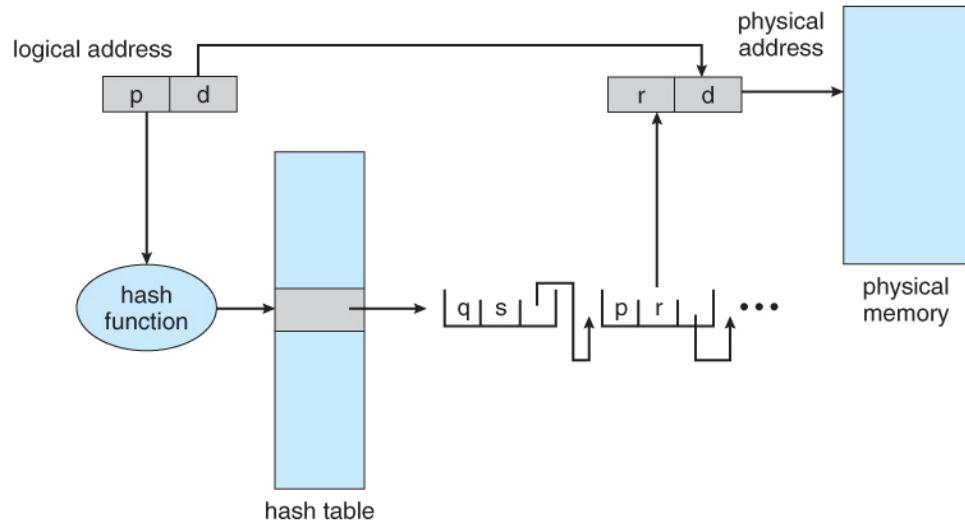
The remaining 12 bits of the 32-bit logical address are still the offset within the 4KiB frame

# Advanced Paging: Hashed Page Table



Use **hash tables** to store highly sparse page tables

# Advanced Paging: Hashed Page Table



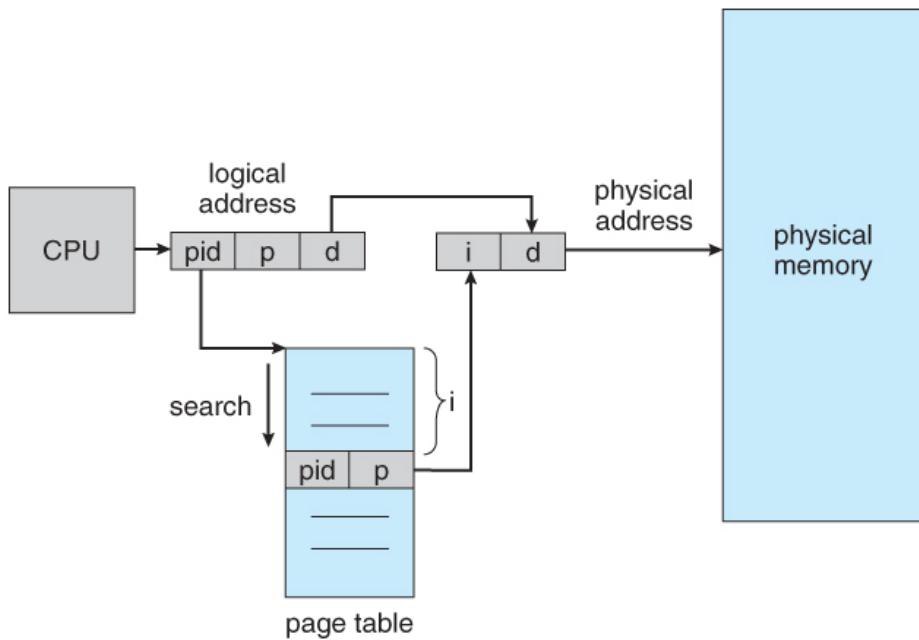
Use **hash tables** to store highly sparse page tables

Indexing via **hash function** rather than integers

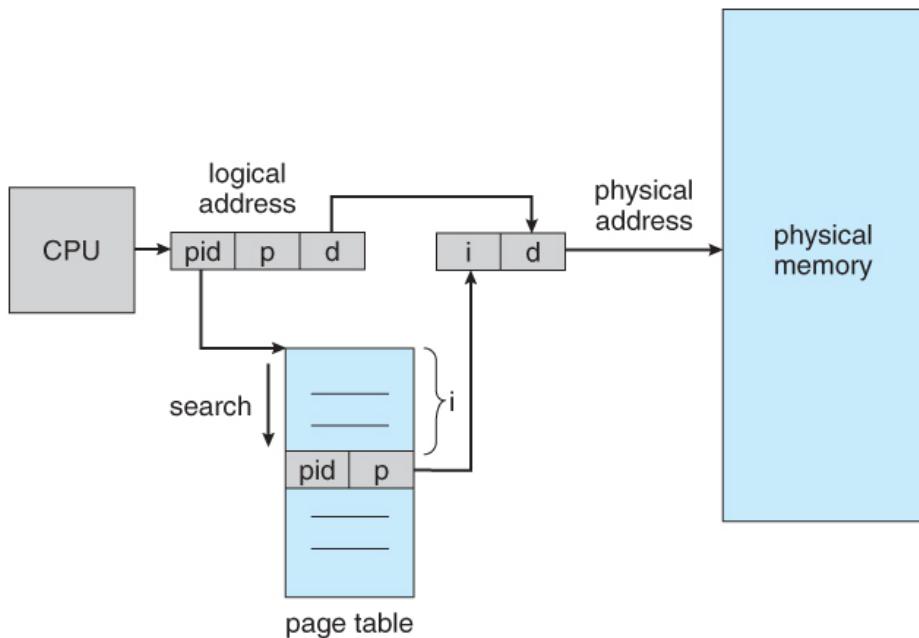
# Advanced Paging: Inverted Page Table

An inverted page table lists all of the pages currently loaded in memory, for all processes

Instead of a table listing all of the pages for a particular process



# Advanced Paging: Inverted Page Table



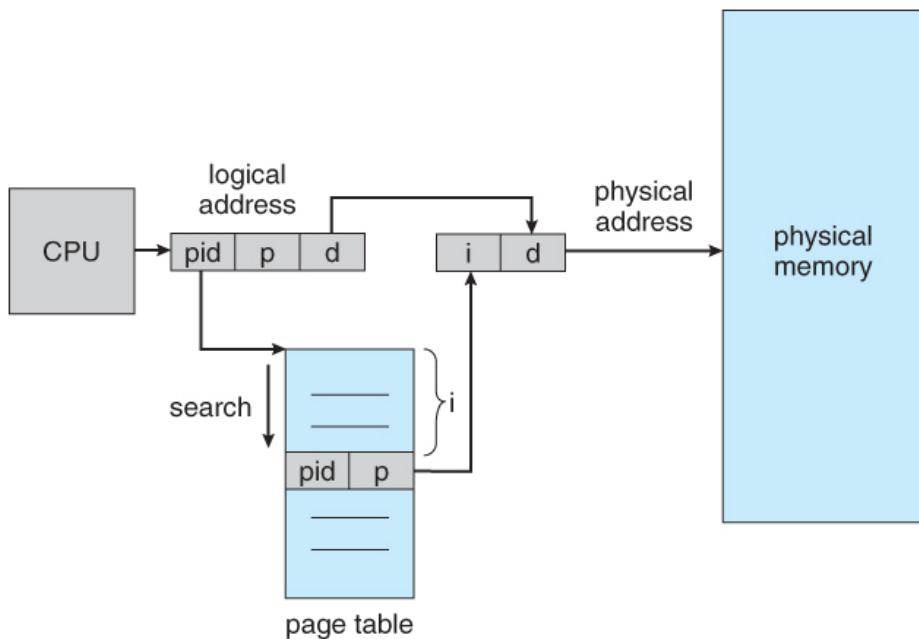
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Access to an inverted page table can be slow (linear search)

Hashing the table can help speedup the search process

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Access to an inverted page table can be slow (linear search)

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Inverted page tables do not easily allow mapping multiple logical pages to a common physical frame (page sharing)

Each frame is mapped to exactly one process

# Summary

- **Relocation** using base and limit registers
  - Simple yet inflexible

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- **Relocation** using base and limit registers
  - Simple yet inflexible
- **Segmentation**
  - Compiler's logical view of memory presented to the OS
  - Segment tables tend to be small enough to be stored in registers
  - Contiguous memory allocation is expensive and complicated (first-fit, best-fit, or worst-fit)
  - Compaction is needed to solve external fragmentation

# Summary

- **Paging**
  - Simplifies memory allocation by relaxing contiguous assumption
  - Each logical page can be allocated to any physical frame
  - Page tables can be extremely large

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- **Segmentation + Paging**

- Only need to allocate as many page table entries as needed
- Sharing either at the segment or at the page level
- Might increase internal fragmentation over pure paging
- 2 lookups per memory reference are needed