# Operating System Concepts

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# Contents





# Chapter 8. Memory-Management Strategies

# Following Schedule

- Dec. 26 : Lecture
  - Project deadline: at 17:00 on 2018-12-26
- Jan. 2: Lecture
- Jan. 3: 大四專題成果展
  - 當天有去看大四專題展，每組心得100字以上，且至少寫五組的同學總成績加兩分
  - 一月十二號中午12:00前寄給助教
  - 信件標題: OS 專題心得 學號
  - 檔案名稱: OS-專題心得-學號.pdf or doc/docx
    - 所有心得放在同一個檔案裡即可
- Jan. 9: Final Exam
  - Jan. 16: Grading result announcement



# Objectives

- To provide a detailed description of various ways of organizing memory hardware
- To discuss various memory-management techniques, including paging and segmentation

# Background

- Program must be brought (from disk) into memory and placed within a process for it to be run
- Main memory and registers are the storages which CPU can access directly
- Register access is in one CPU clock (or less)
- Main memory access can take cycles, causing a **stall**
- **Cache** sits between main memory and CPU registers

# Storage-Device Hierarchy

## Primary Storage

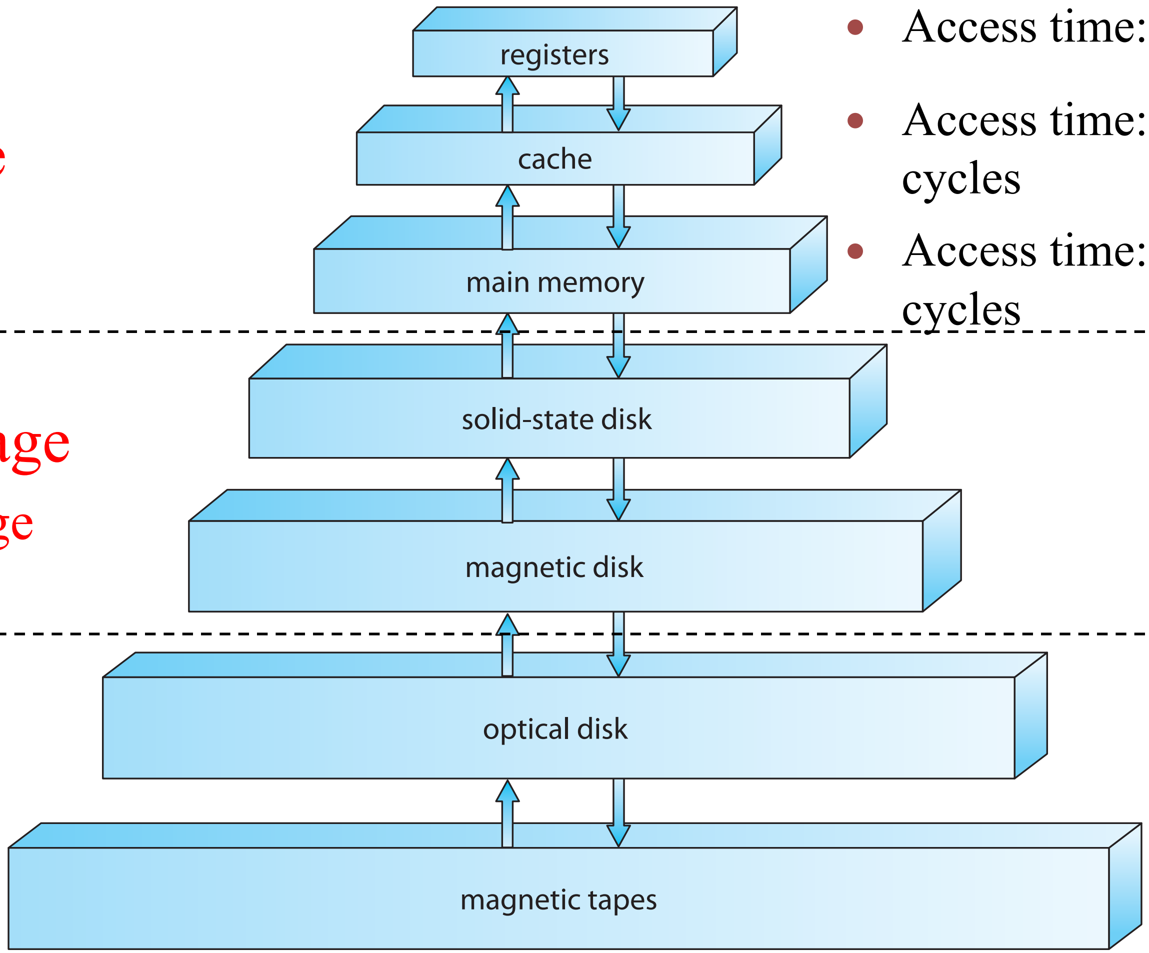
- volatile storage

## Secondary Storage

- nonvolatile storage

## Tertiary Storage

- removable media




- Access time: a cycle
- Access time: several cycles
- Access time: many cycles

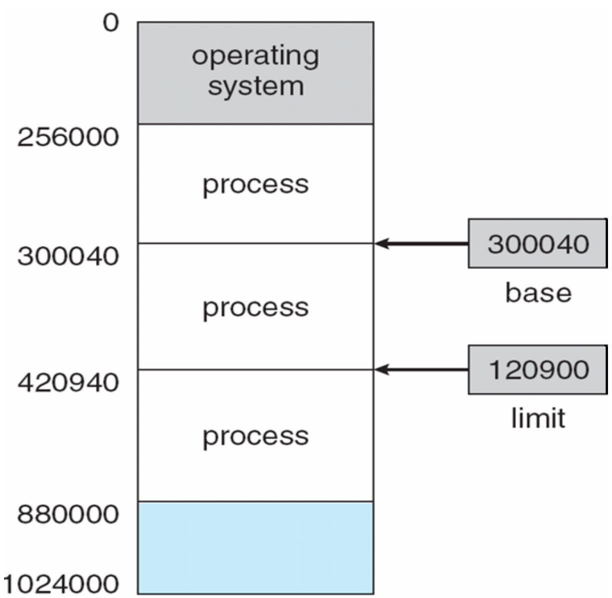


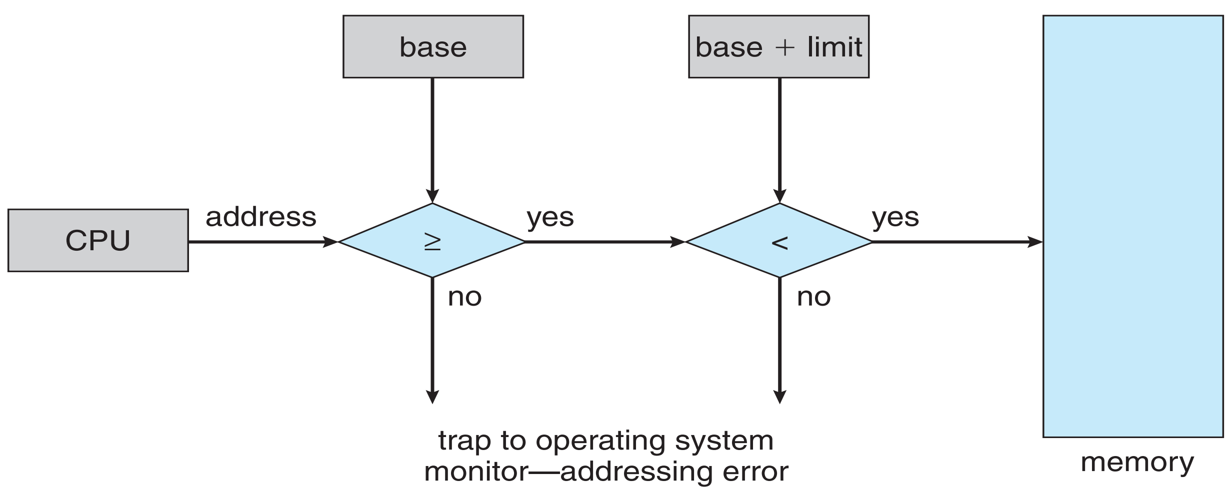
# Memory Management

- Motivation
  - Keep several processes in memory to improve a system's performance
- Selection of different memory management methods
  - Application-dependent
  - Hardware-dependent
- Memory – A large array of words or bytes, each with its own address
  - Memory is always too small
- What should be done
  - Know which areas are free or used
  - Decide which processes to get memory
  - Perform allocation and de-allocation

# 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 is between base and limit for that user



# 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 is 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



# Logical and Physical Address Space

- **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 and physical addresses differ in execution-time address-binding scheme
- **Logical address space** is the set of all logical addresses generated by a program
- **Physical address space** is the set of all physical addresses generated by a program



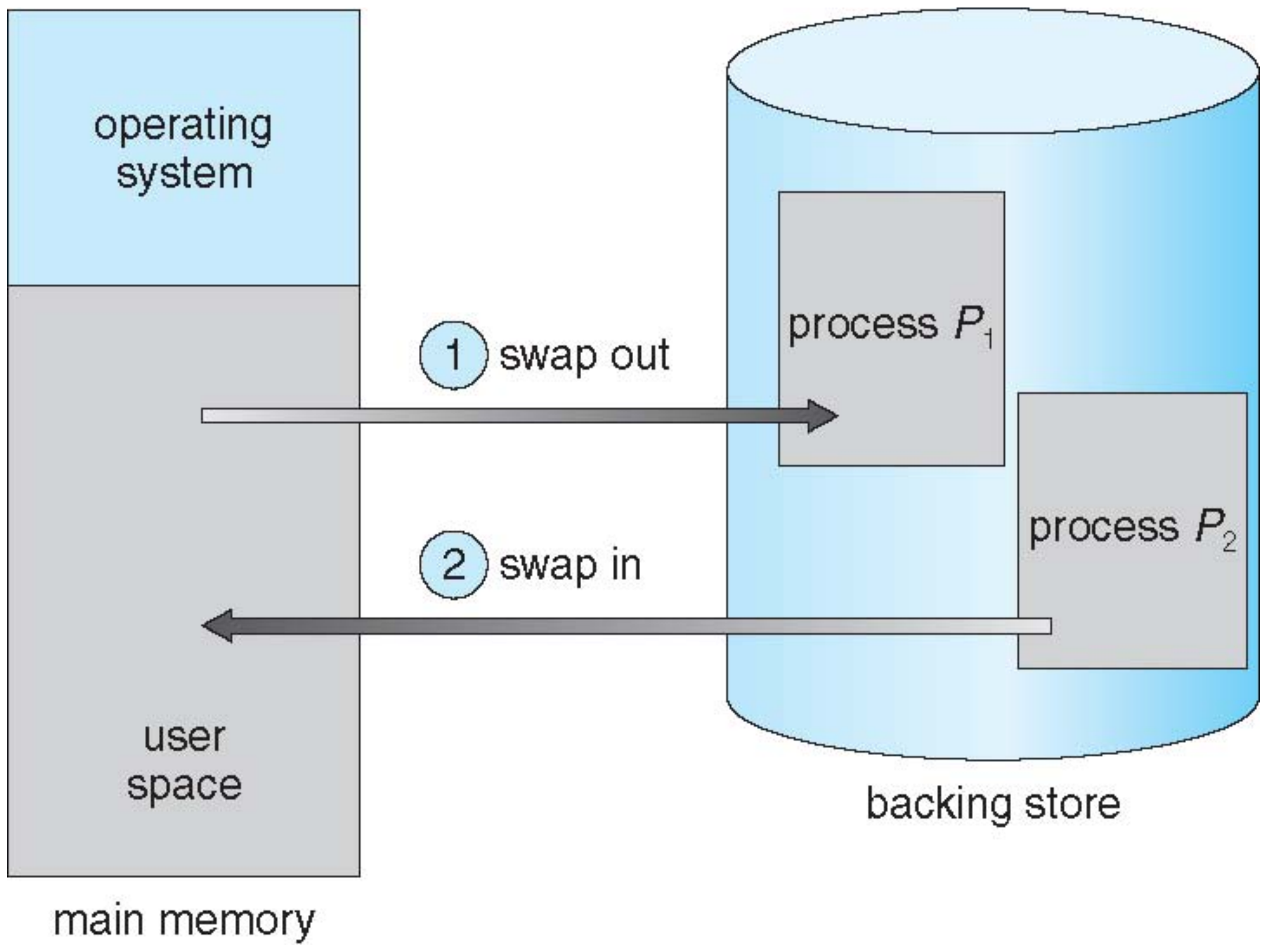
# Dynamic Linking

- Static linking – system libraries and program code combined by the loader into the binary program image
- 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
- Dynamic linking is particularly useful for shared libraries

# Swapping

- A process can be swapped temporarily out of memory to a backing store, and then brought back into memory for continued execution
- Does the swapped out process need to swap back in to the same physical addresses?
- Modified versions of swapping are found on many systems (i.e., UNIX, Linux, and Windows)
  - Swapping normally disabled
  - Started if more than threshold amount of memory allocated
  - Disabled again once memory demand reduced below threshold

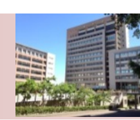
# Schematic View of Swapping



# Swapping on Mobile Systems

- 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 it is 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



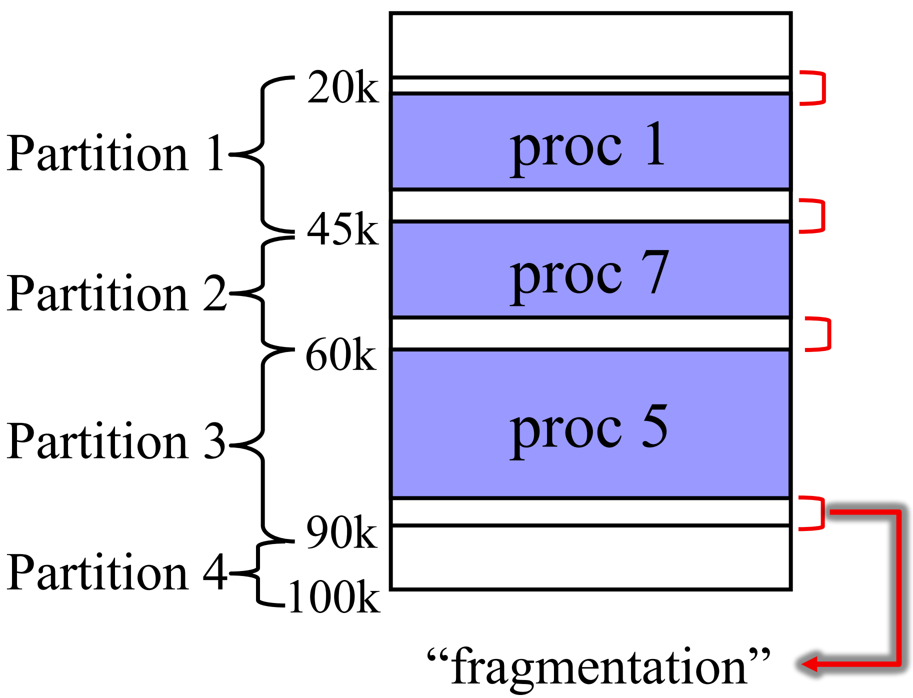


# Contiguous Allocation (1/2)

- Fixed Partitions
  - Memory is divided into fixed partitions, e.g., OS/360
  - A process is allocated on an entire partition

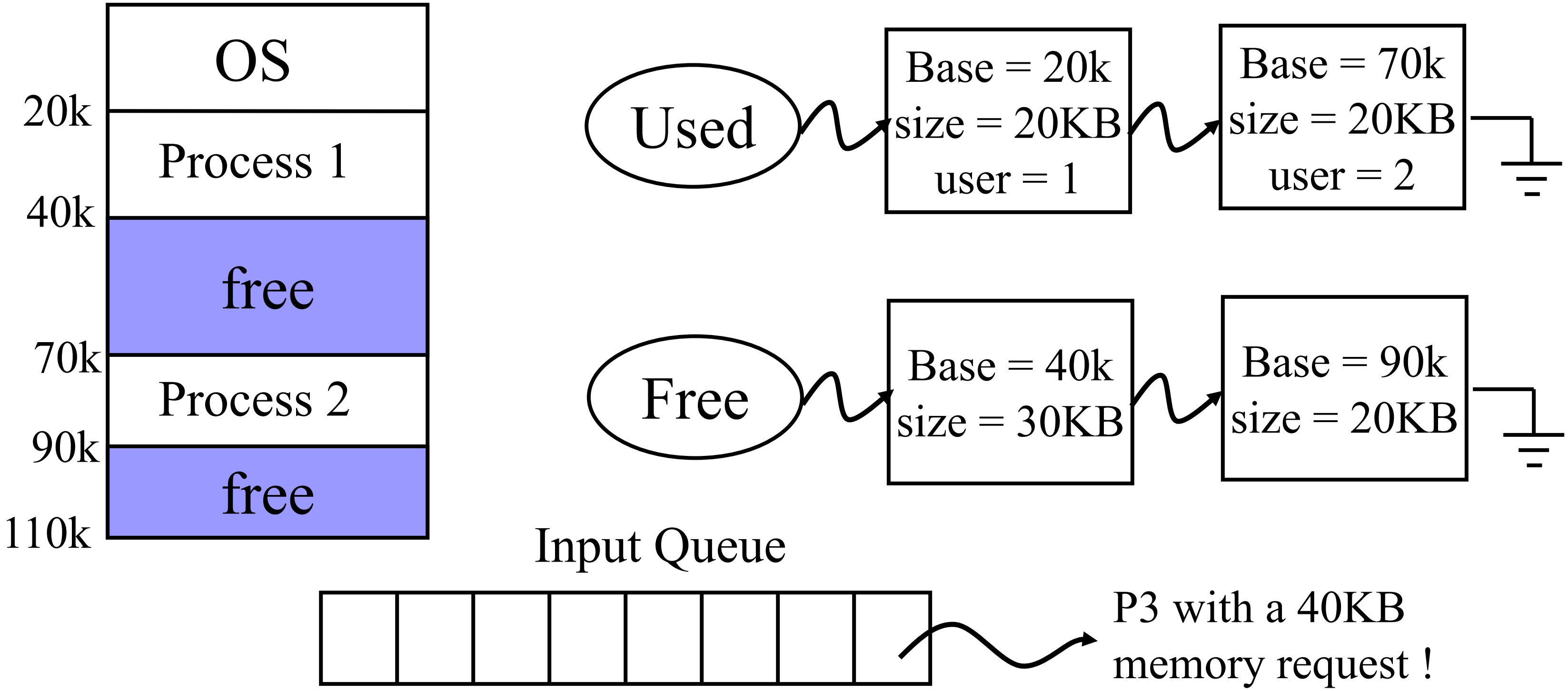
Partitions

| number | size | location | status |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 25KB | 20k | Used |
| 2 | 15KB | 45k | Used |
| 3 | 30KB | 60k | Used |
| 4 | 10KB | 90k | Free |



# Contiguous Allocation (2/2)

- Dynamic Partitions
  - Partitions are dynamically created
  - OS tables record free and used partitions



# Dynamic Allocation

- **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 are better than worst-fit in terms of speed and storage utilization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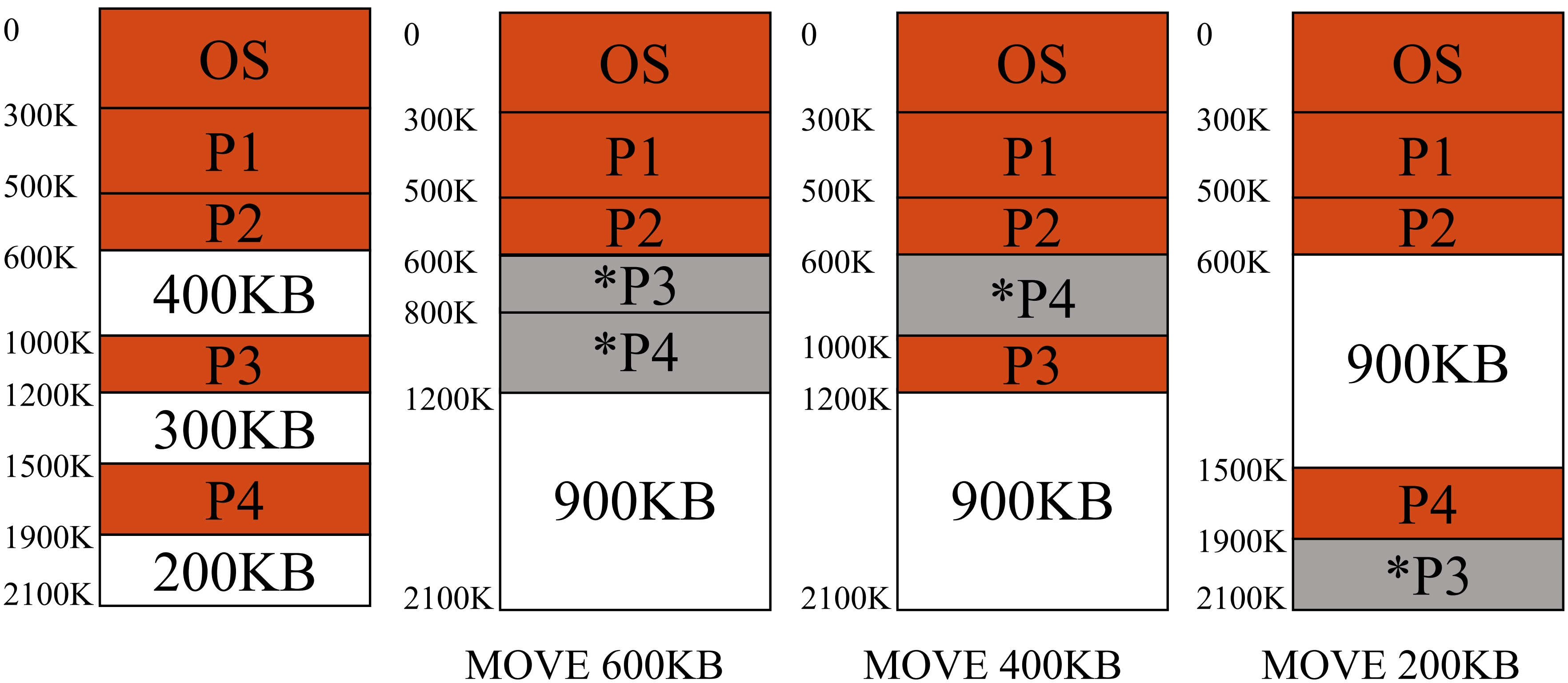
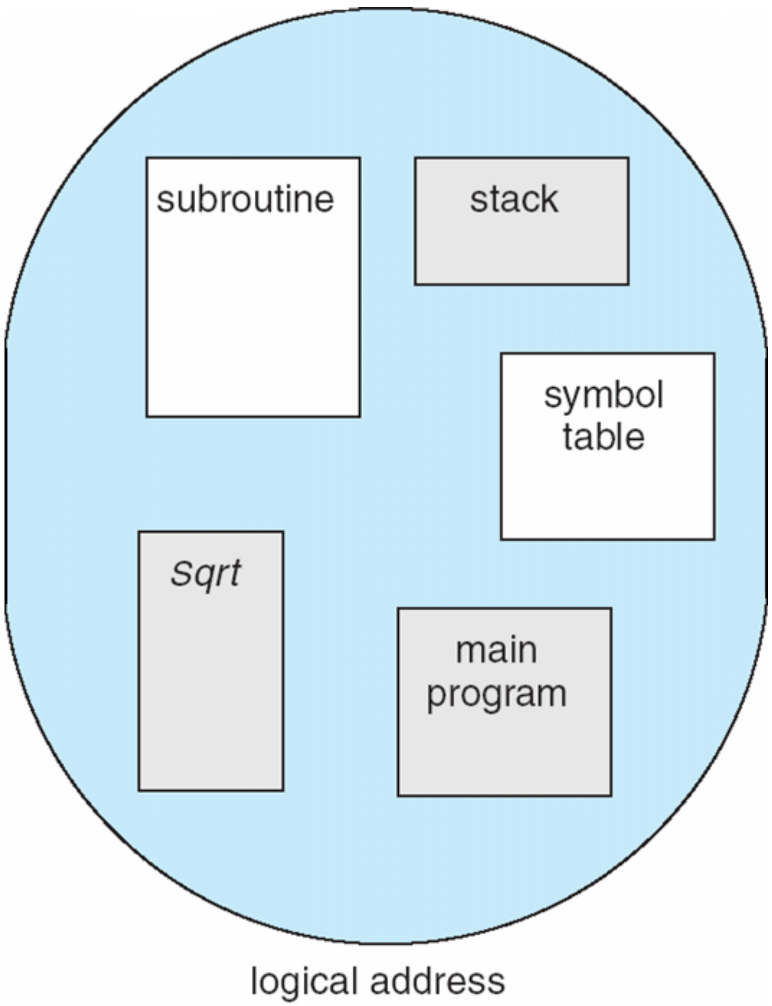
# Fragmentation

- **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
- First fit analysis reveals that given *N* blocks allocated, 0.5 *N* blocks lost to fragmentation
  - 1/3 may be unusable -> **50-percent rule**

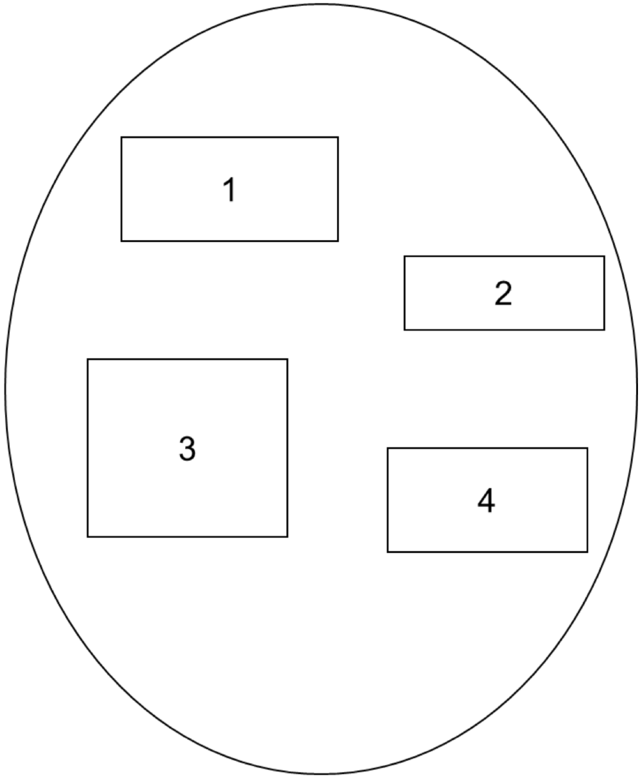
# Fragmentation — Compaction



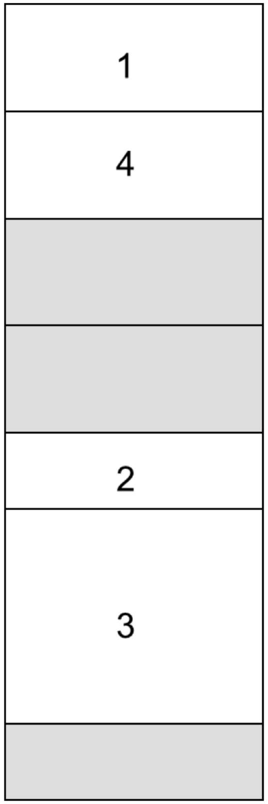
# User’s View of a Program



# Logical View of Segmentation




user space




physical memory space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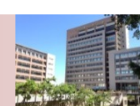
# Segmentation

- Segmentation is a memory management scheme that supports the user view of memory
  - A logical address space is a collection of segments with variable lengths
- Logical address consists of a tuple:

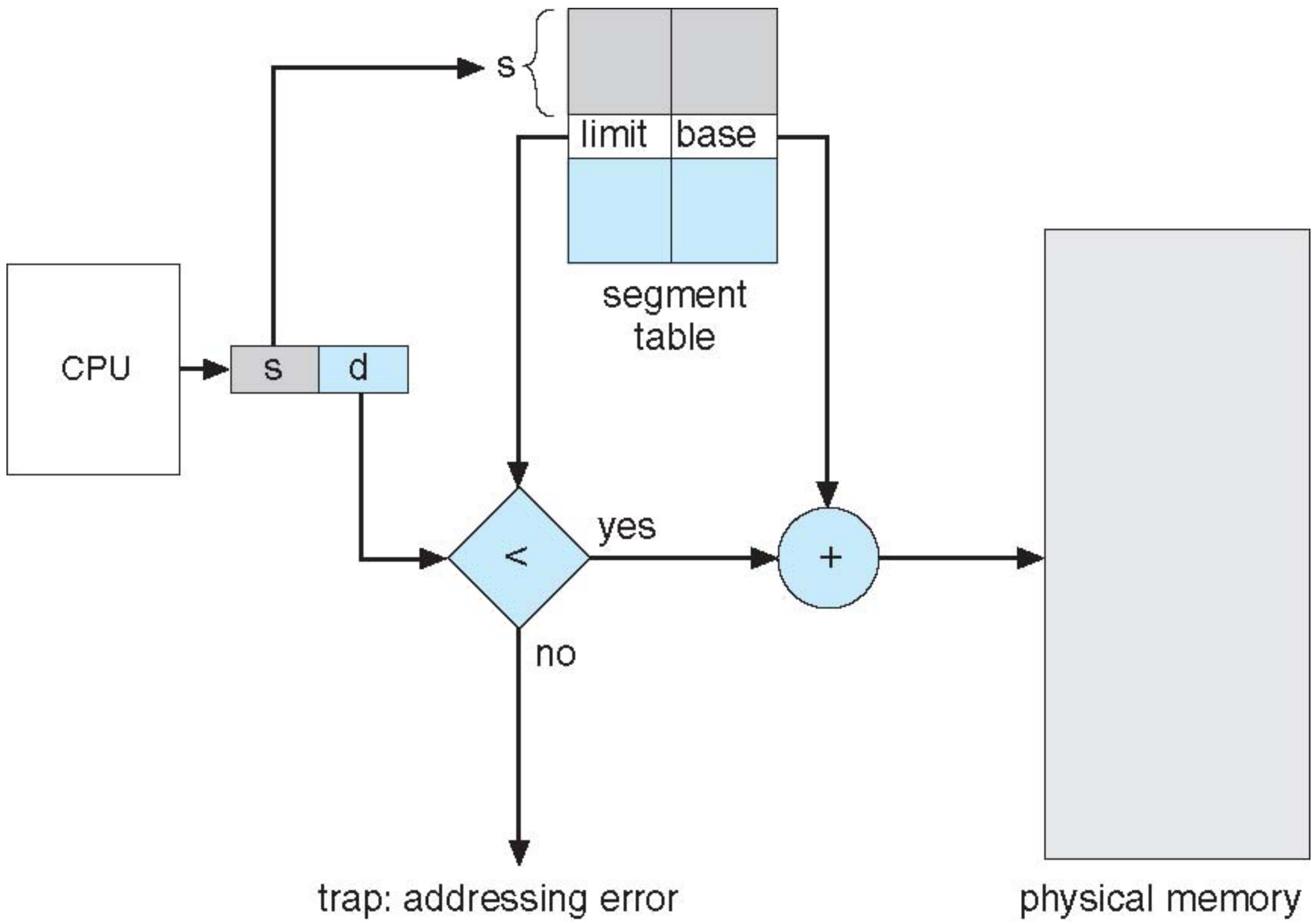
  $\langle$segment-number, offset$\rangle$

- **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





# Segmentation Architecture



# Paging

- Objective
  - Users see a logically contiguous address space although its physical addresses are throughout physical memory
- Units of Memory and Backing Store
  - Physical memory is divided into fixed-sized blocks called frames
  - The logical memory space of each process is divided into blocks of the same size called pages
  - The backing store is also divided into blocks of the same size if used



# 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

| page number | page offset |
|---|---|
| *p* | *d* |
| *m* - *n* | *n* |

  - For given logical address space $2^m$ and page size $2^n$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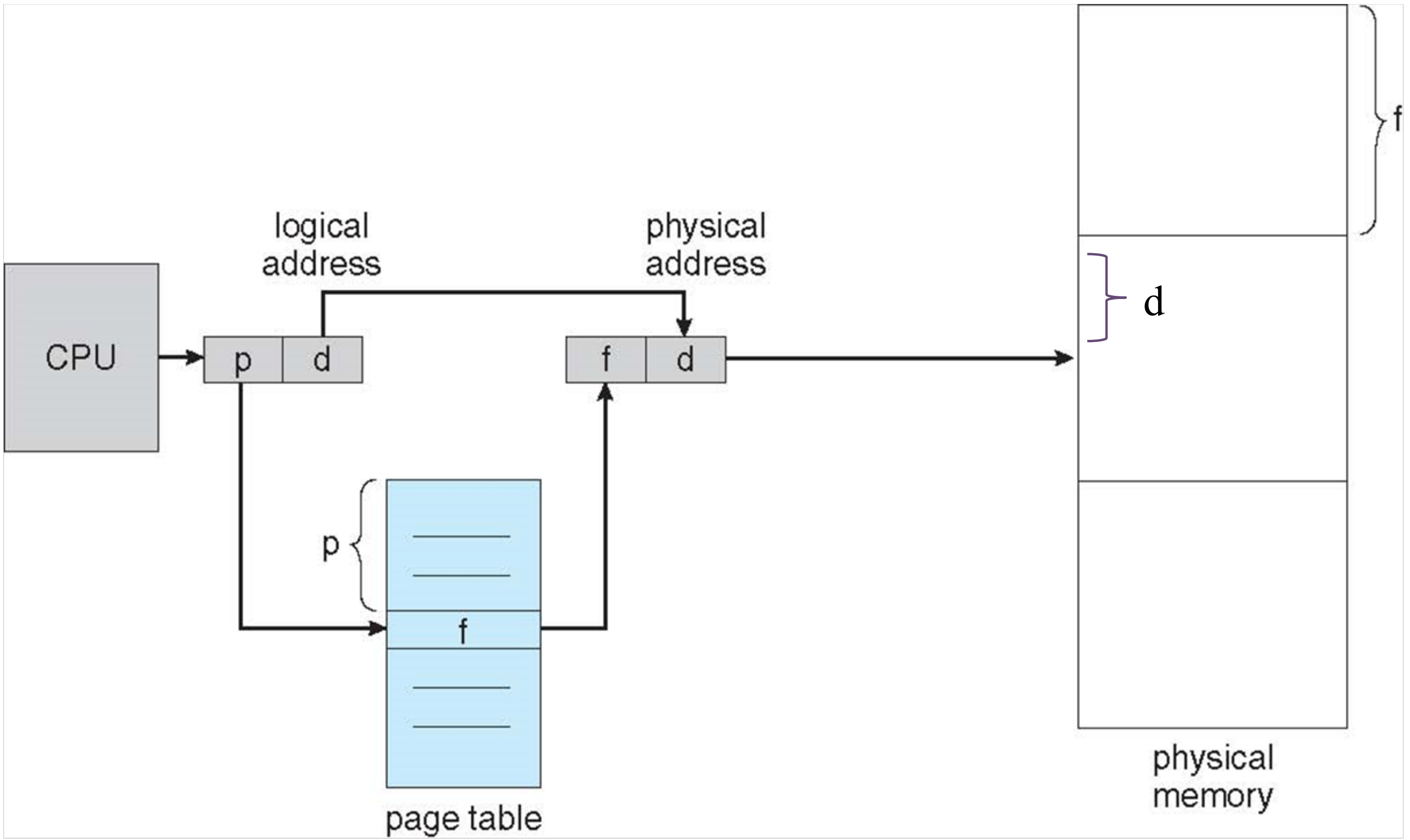
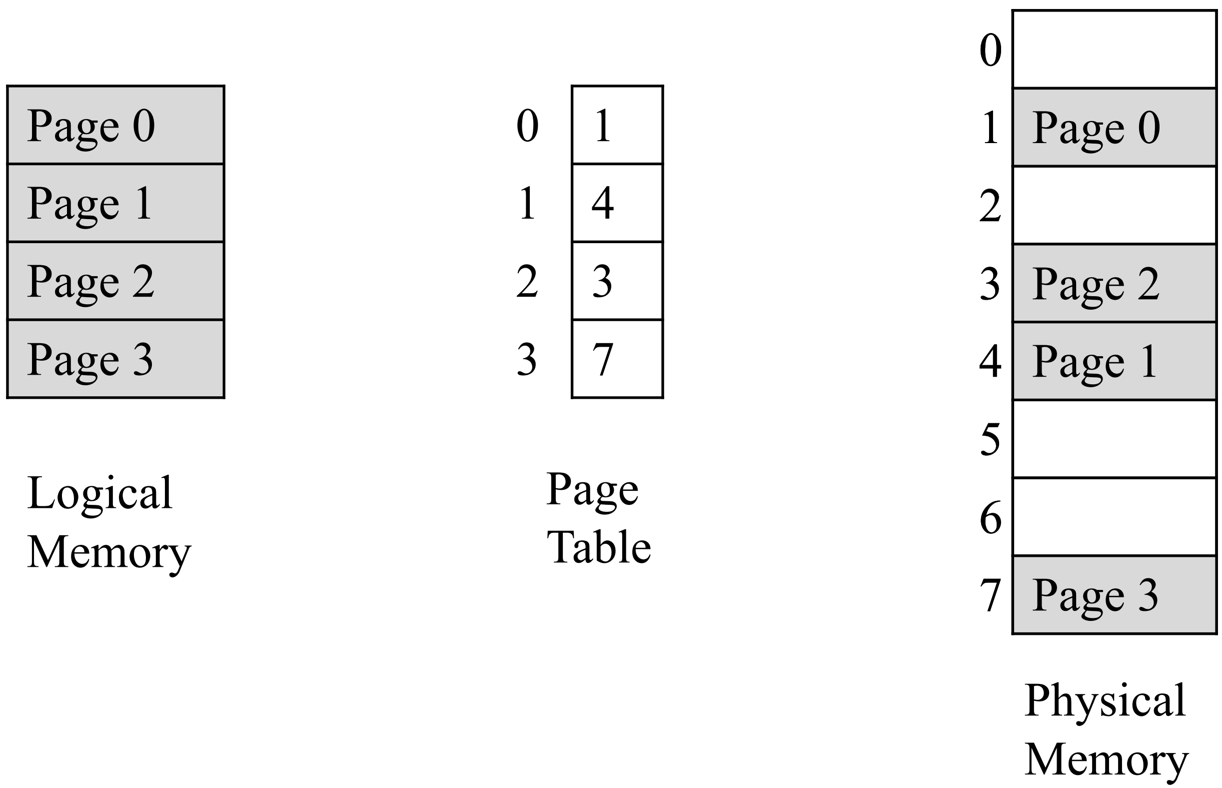
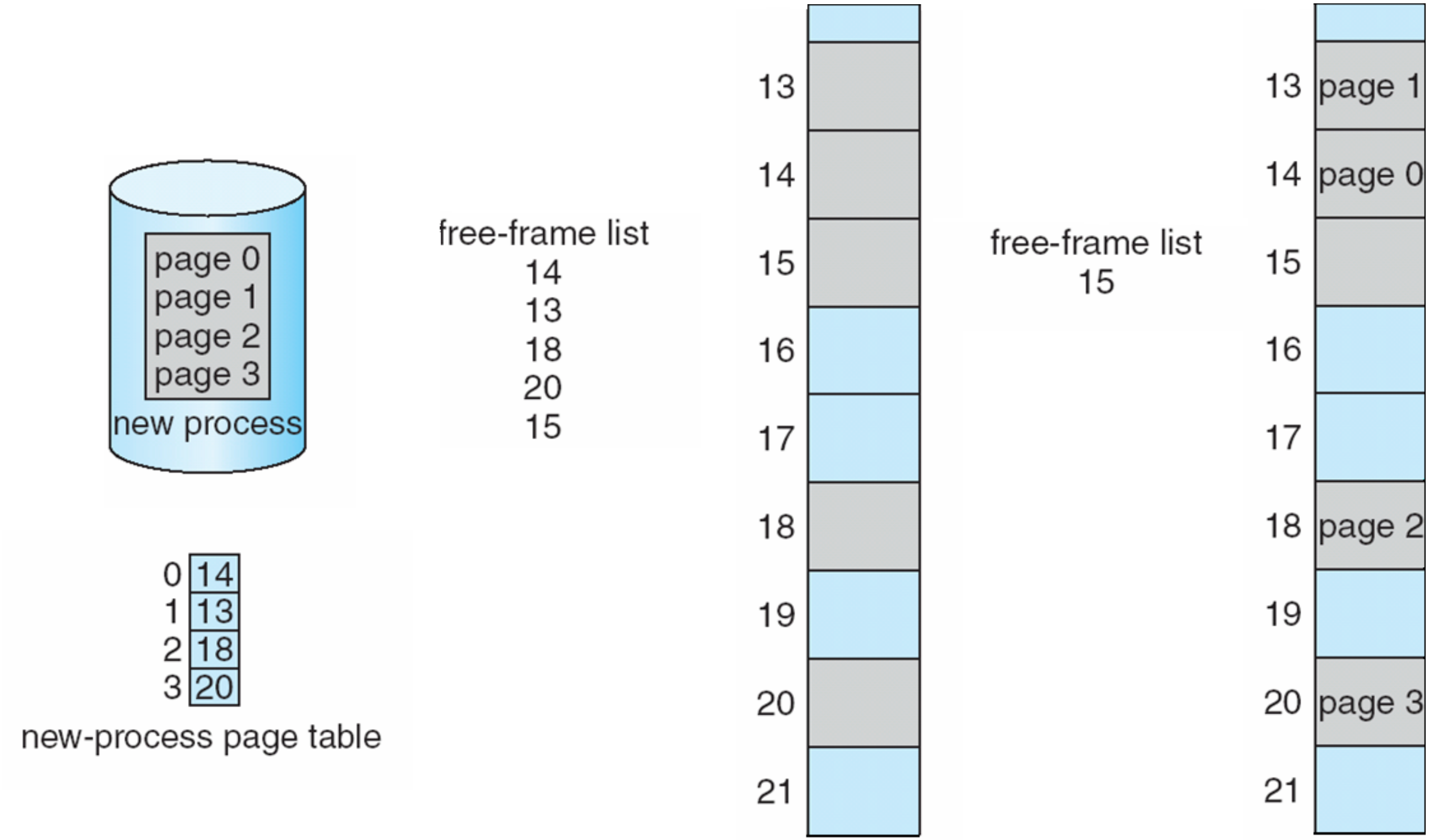
# Paging Hardware



# Paging Model of Logical and Physical Memory



# Free Frames

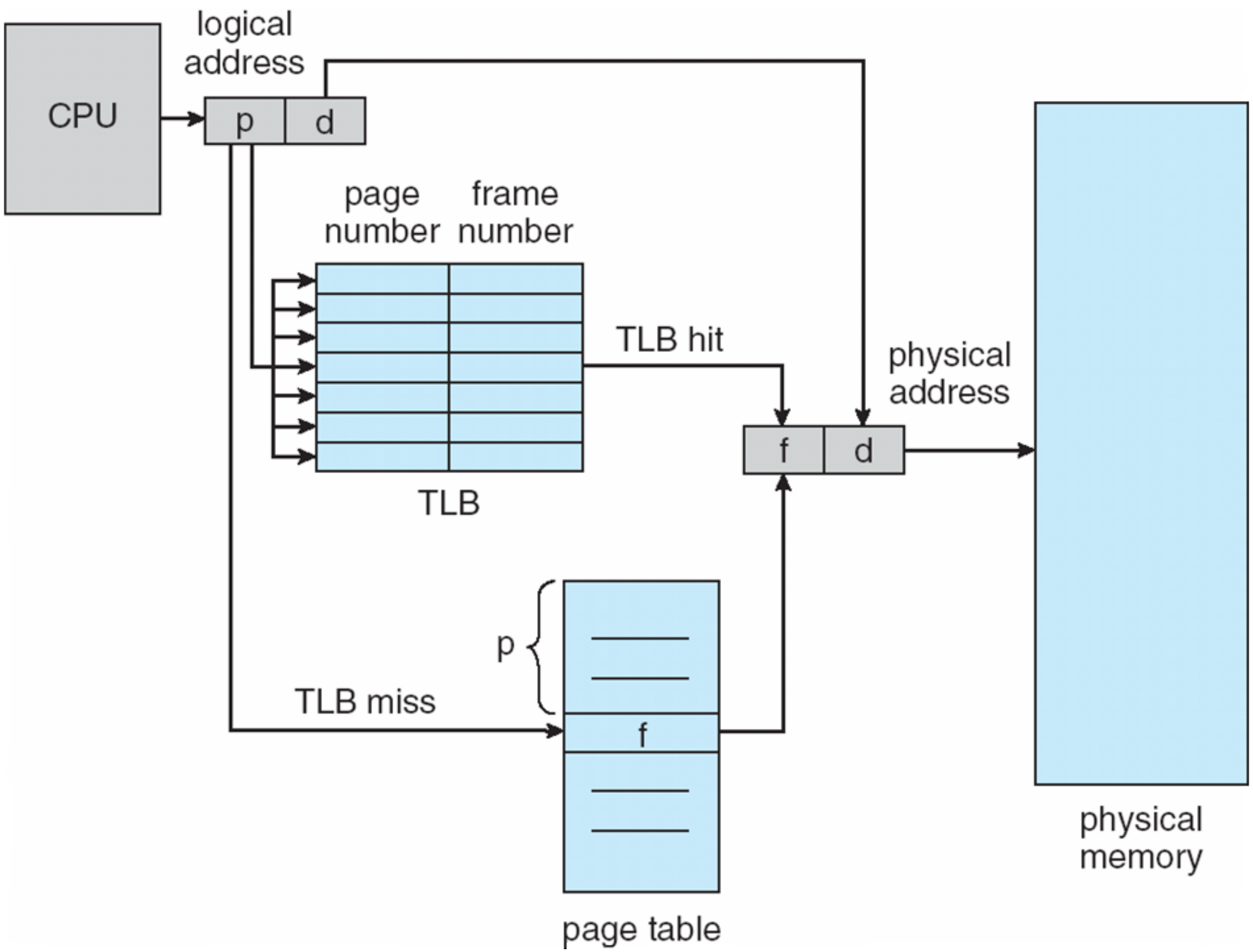

page 0
page 1
page 2
page 3
new process
0 14
1 13
2 18
3 20
new-process page table
free-frame list
14
13
18
20
15
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
free-frame list
15
13 page 1
14 page 0
15
16
17
18 page 2
19
20 page 3
21

# 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
- The two memory access problem can be solved by the use of a special fast-lookup hardware cache called **translation look-aside buffers (TLBs)**
- Some TLBs store **address-space identifiers (ASIDs)** in each TLB entry – uniquely identifies each process to provide address-space protection for that process
  - Otherwise need to flush at every context switch



# Paging Hardware With TLB



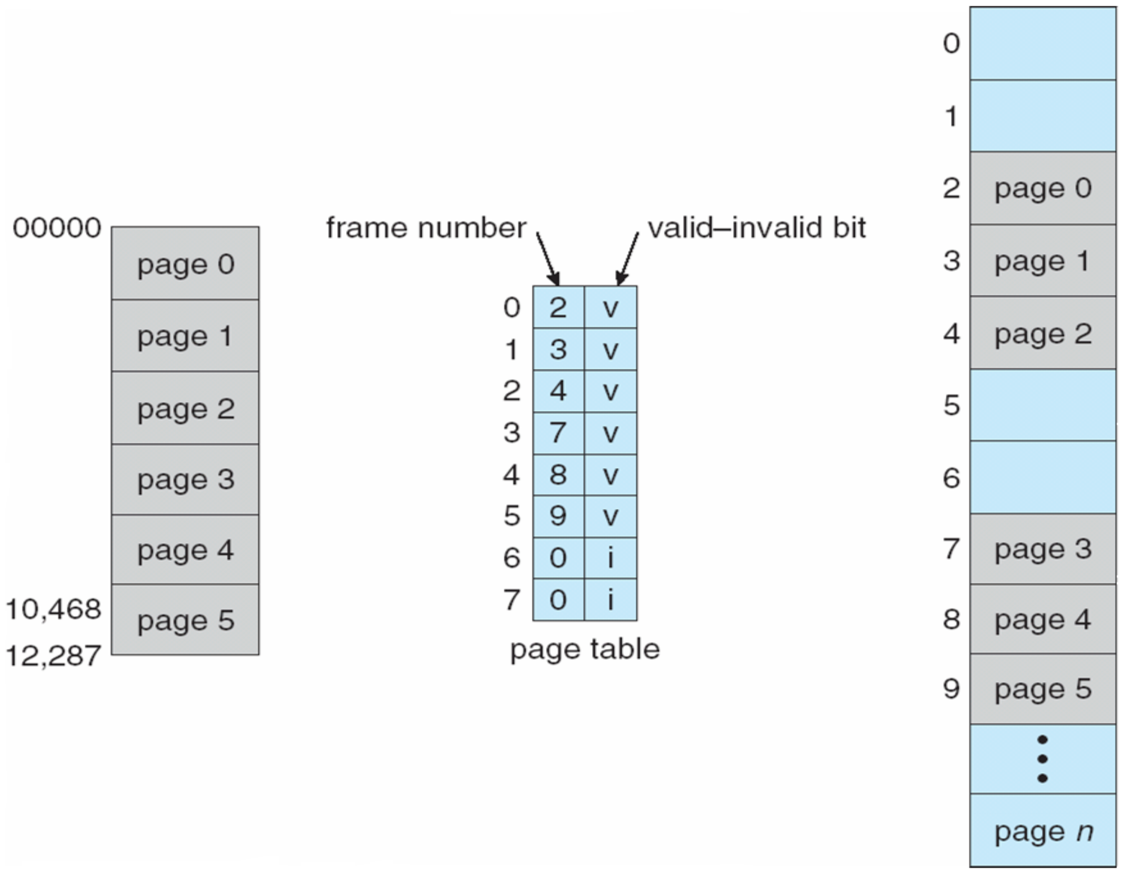
# Effective Access Time With TLB

- TLB Hit ratio = p
- Consider p = 80%, 100ns for memory access
  - Effective Access Time (EAT)
    = 0.80 x 100 + 0.20 x 200 = 120ns
- Consider more realistic hit ratio p = 99%, 100ns for memory access
  - EAT = 0.99 x 100 + 0.01 x 200 = 101ns



# Memory Protection

- Valid (v) or Invalid (i) Bit in A Page Table

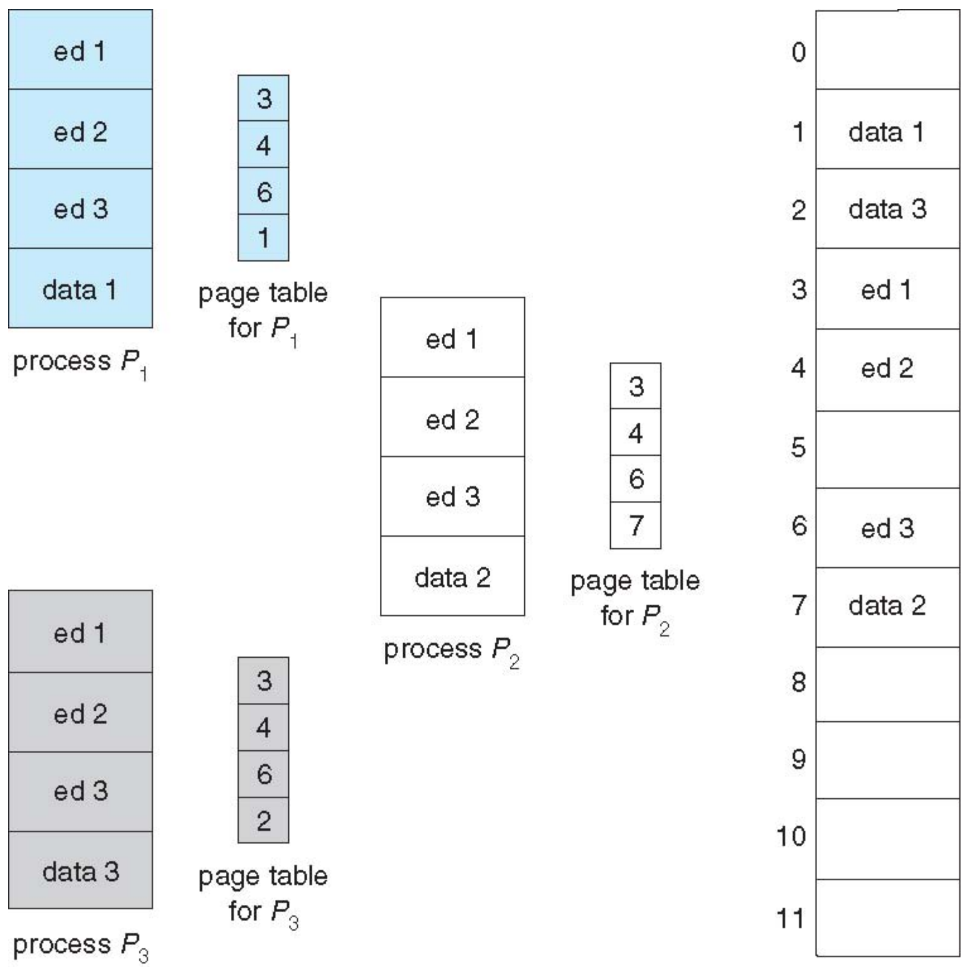


# Shared Pages

- Shared code
  - One copy of read-only (reentrant) code shared among processes (i.e., text editors, compilers, window systems)
  - Similar to multiple threads sharing the same process space
  - Also useful for inter-process communication if sharing of read-write pages is allowed
- 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



# An Example of Shared Pages



# Structure of the Page Table

- Memory structures for paging can get huge using straight-forward methods
  - Consider a 32-bit logical address space as on modern computers, and the page size is 4 KB ($2^{12}$)
  - Page table would have 1 million entries ($2^{32}$ / $2^{12}$)
  - If each entry is 4 bytes ➔ 4 MB of physical memory space for a page table
- Advanced structure of the page table
  - Hierarchical Paging
  - Hashed Page Tables
  - Inverted Page Tables



# Two-Level Page-Table Scheme

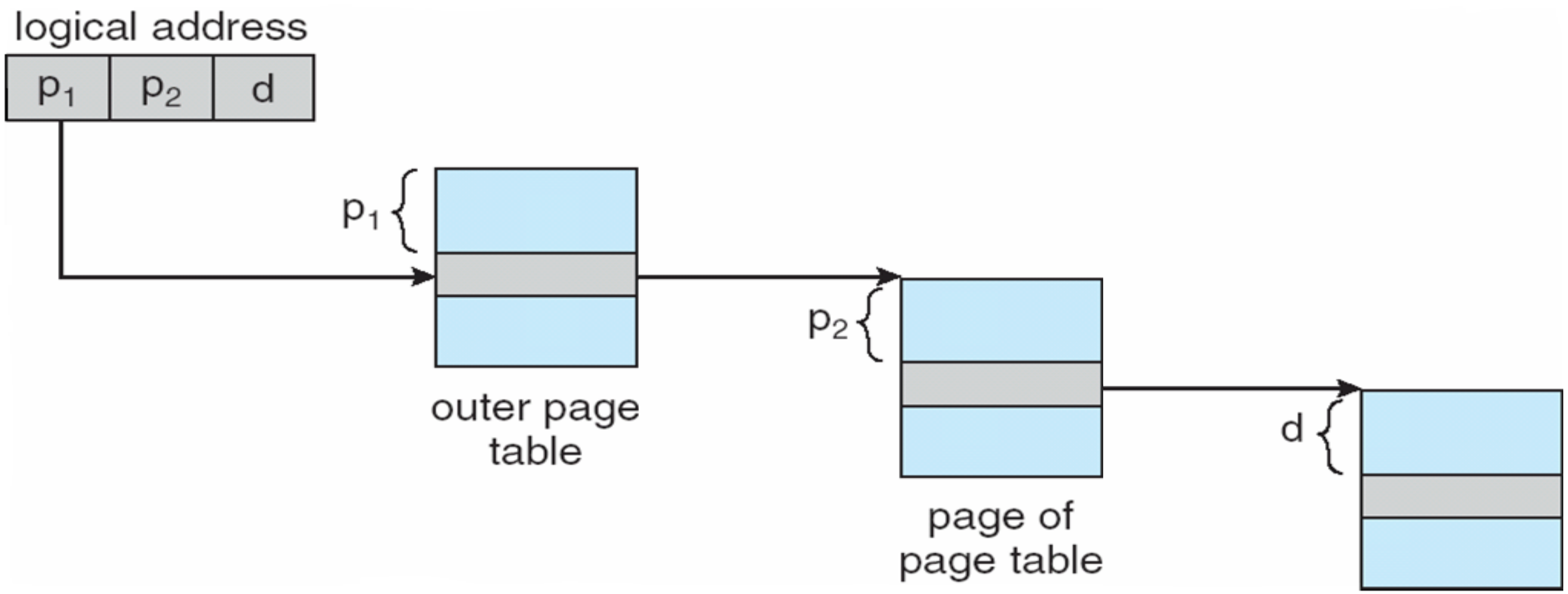
- A logical address on 32-bit machine with 4K page size is divided into:
  - a page number consisting of 20 bits
  - a page offset consisting of 12 bits
- Thus, a logical address is as follows:

| page number | | page offset |
|---|---|---|
| $p_1$ | $p_2$ | $d$ |
| 10 | 10 | 12 |

- Where $p_1$ is an index into the outer page table, and $p_2$ is the index into the inner page table



# Address Translation Scheme of Two-Level Paging



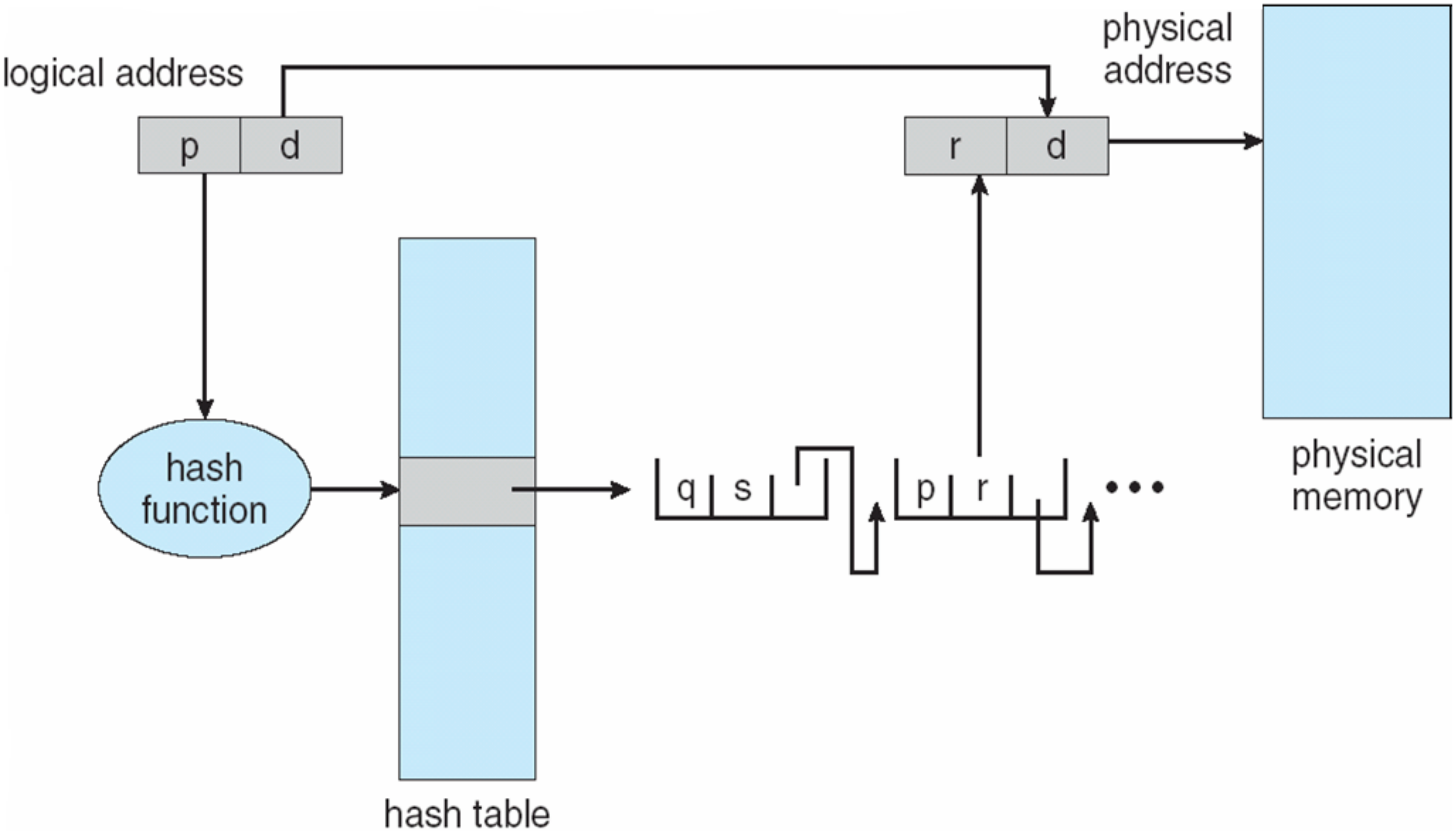

- The size of each table is 4KB if each entry has 4 Bytes
- The total size of the inner page tables is still 4MB, but each inner page table is created when it is used

# Hashed Page Tables (1/2)

- Objective:
  - To handle large address spaces
- Virtual address → hash function → a linked list of elements: (virtual page number, frame number, a pointer)
- Clustered Page Tables
  - Each entry contains the mappings for several physical-page frames, e.g., 16



# Hashed Page Tables (2/2)

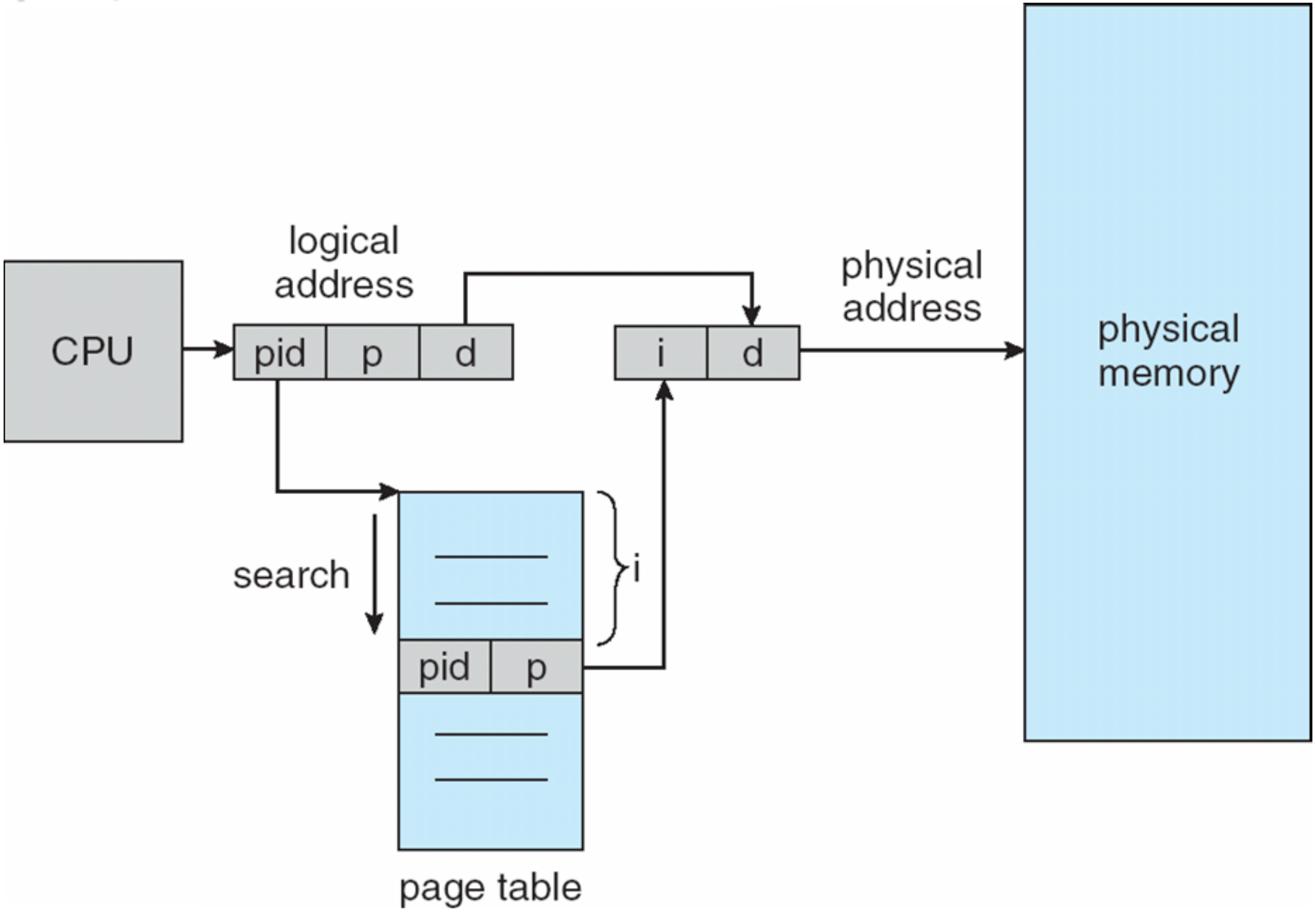


# Inverted Page Table Architecture (1/2)

- Only on page table for all processes
- Each entry corresponds to a physical frame.
  - Virtual Address: <Process ID, Page Number, Offset>
- Long search time to find out the match
- Difficult to implement with shared memory

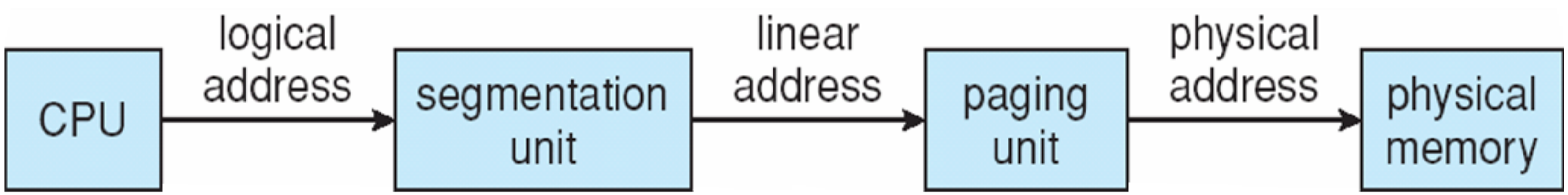


# Inverted Page Table Architecture (2/2)



# Example: The Intel IA-32 Architecture

- Supports both segmentation and paging
  - Each segment can be 4 GB
  - Up to 16 K segments per process




- Two-level paging