

Chapter 8: Main Memory



Chapter 8: Memory Management

- Background
- Contiguous Memory Allocation
- Paging
- Structure of the Page Table
- Swapping
- Example: The Intel 32 and 64-bit Architectures
- Example: ARMv8 Architecture

Objectives

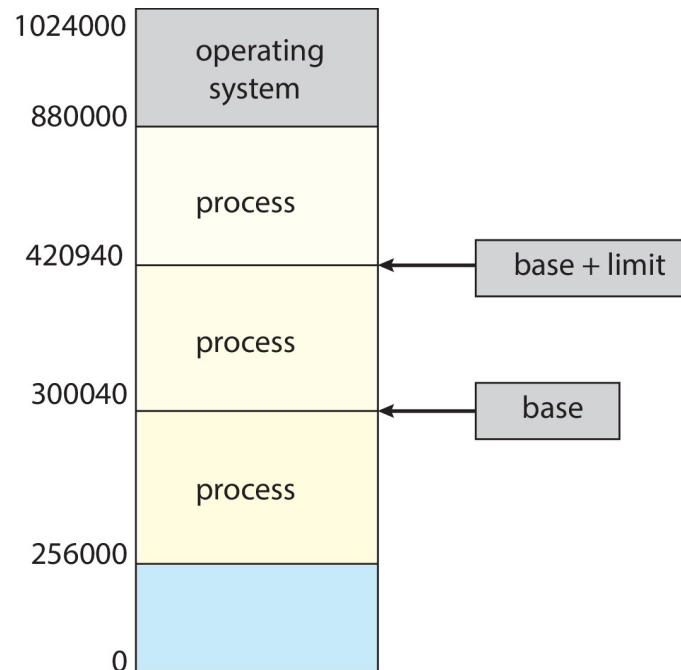
- To provide a detailed description of various ways of organizing memory hardware
- To discuss various memory-management techniques,
- To provide a detailed description of the Intel Pentium, which supports both pure segmentation and segmentation with paging

Background

- Program must be brought (from disk) into memory and placed within a process for it to be run
- Main memory and registers are only storage CPU can access directly
- Memory unit only sees a stream of:
 - addresses + read requests, or
 - address + data and write requests
- Register access is done in one CPU clock (or less)
- Main memory can take many cycles, causing a **stall**
- **Cache** sits between main memory and CPU registers
- Protection of memory required to ensure correct operation

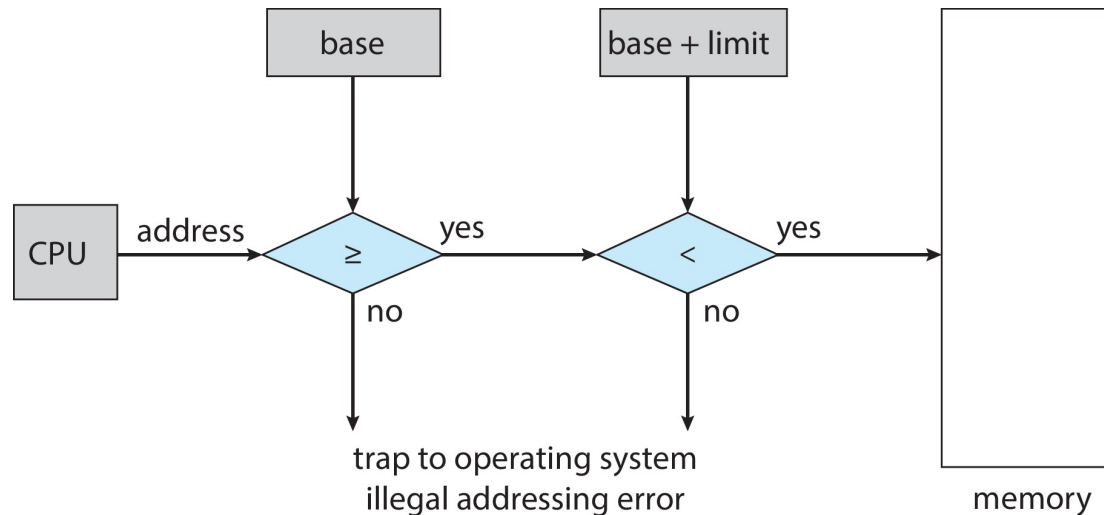
Protection

- Need to ensure that a process can access only those addresses in its address space.
- We can provide this protection by using a pair of **base** and **limit registers** to define the logical address space of a process



Hardware Address Protection

- CPU must check every memory access generated in user mode to be sure it is between base and limit for that user



- the instructions to loading the base and limit registers are privileged

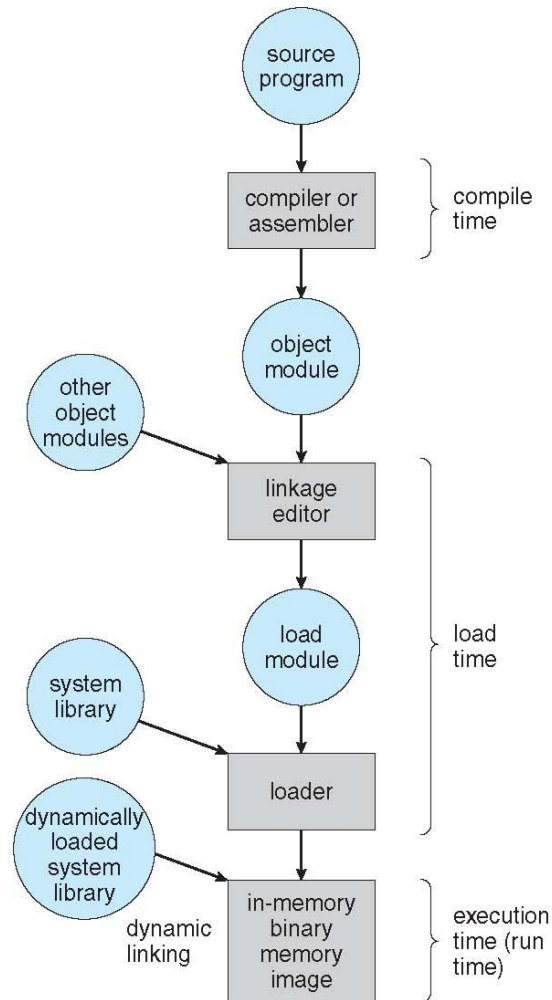
Address Binding

- Programs on disk, ready to be brought into memory to execute form an **input queue**
 - Without support, must be loaded into address 0000
- Inconvenient to have first user process physical address always at 0000
 - How can it not be?
- Addresses represented in different ways at different stages of a program's life
 - Source code addresses usually symbolic
 - Compiled code addresses **bind** to relocatable addresses
 - 4 i.e. "14 bytes from beginning of this module"
 - Linker or loader will bind relocatable addresses to absolute addresses
 - 4 i.e. 74014
 - Each binding maps one address space to another

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
 - 4 Need hardware support for address maps (e.g., base and limit registers)

Multistep Processing of a User Program

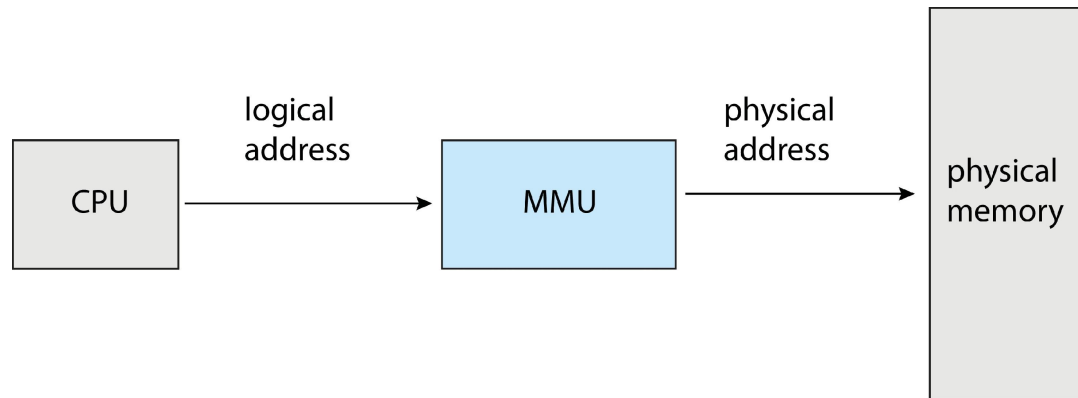


Logical vs. Physical Address Space

- 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
- **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

Memory-Management Unit (MMU)

- Hardware device that at run time maps virtual to physical address



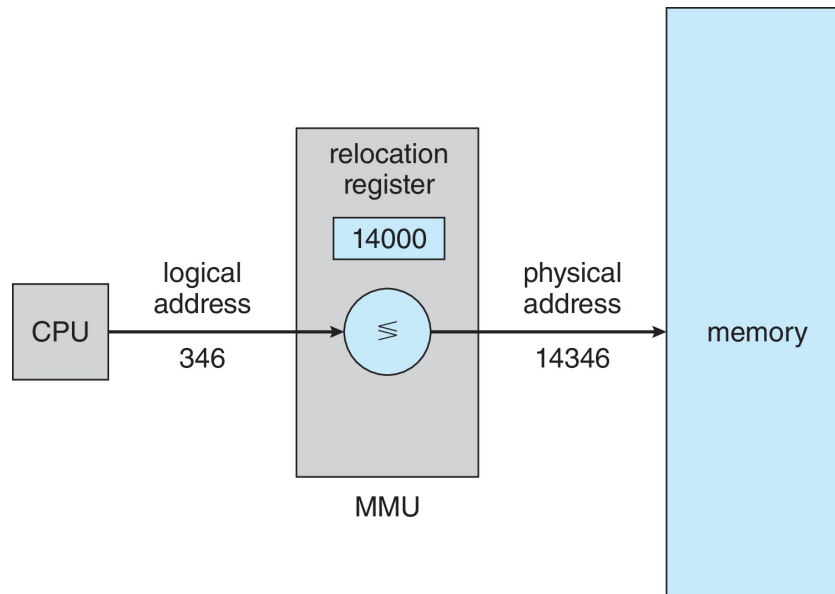
- Many methods possible, covered in the rest of this chapter

Memory-Management Unit (Cont.)

- Consider simple scheme. which is a generalization of the base-register scheme.
- The base register now called **relocation register**
- 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
- Execution-time binding occurs when reference is made to location in memory
- Logical address bound to physical addresses

Memory-Management Unit (Cont.)

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Dynamic Loading

- The entire program does need to be in memory to execute
- Routine is not loaded until it is called
- Better memory-space utilization; unused routine is never loaded
- All routines kept on disk in relocatable load format
- 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
 - OS can help by providing libraries to implement dynamic loading

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
- Operating system checks if routine is in processes' memory address
 - If not in address space, add to address space
- Dynamic linking is particularly useful for libraries
- System also known as **shared libraries**
- Consider applicability to patching system libraries
 - Versioning may be needed

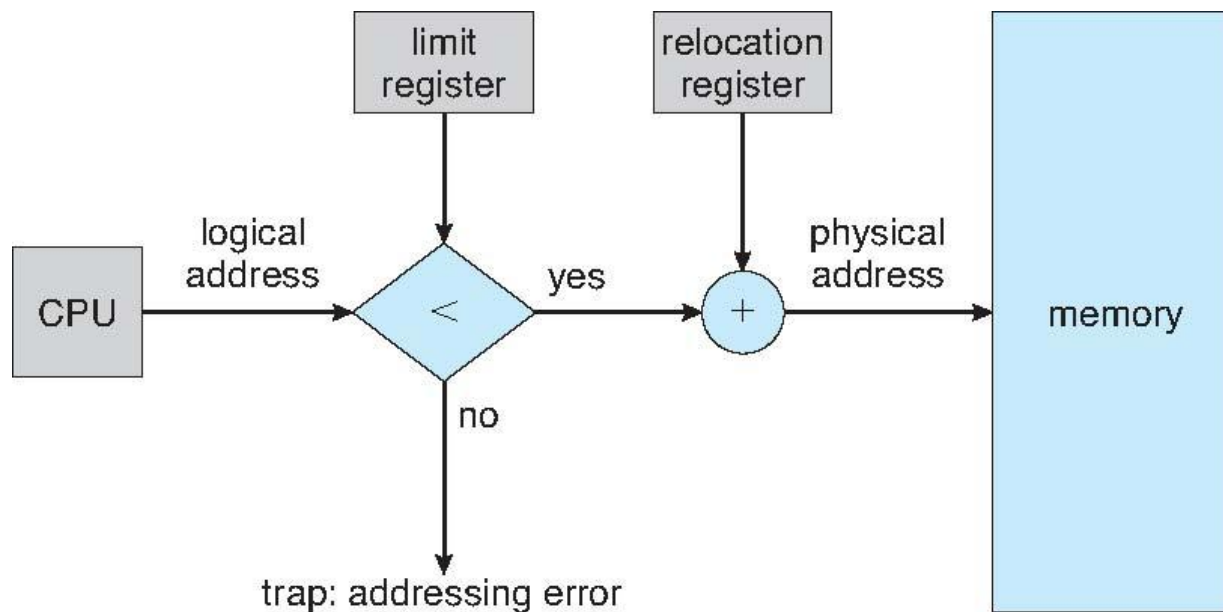
Contiguous Allocation

- Main memory must support both OS and user processes
- Limited resource, must allocate efficiently
- Contiguous allocation is one early method
- Main memory usually into two **partitions**:
 - Resident operating system, usually held in low memory with interrupt vector
 - User processes then held in high memory
 - Each process contained in single contiguous section of memory

Contiguous Allocation (Cont.)

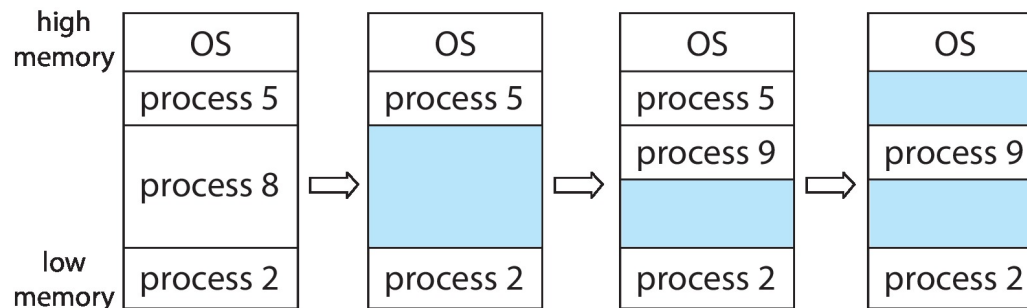
- Relocation registers used to protect user processes from each other, and from changing operating-system code and data
 - Base register contains value of smallest physical address
 - Limit register contains range of logical addresses – each logical address must be less than the limit register
 - MMU maps logical address *dynamically*
 - Can then allow actions such as kernel code being **transient** and kernel changing size

Hardware Support for Relocation and Limit Registers



Variable Partition

- Multiple-partition allocation
 - Degree of multiprogramming limited by number of partitions
 - **Variable-partition** sizes for efficiency (sized to a given process' needs)
 - **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
 - Process exiting frees its partition, adjacent free partitions combined
 - Operating system maintains information about:
 - a) allocated partitions b) free partitions (hole)



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

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 (Cont.)

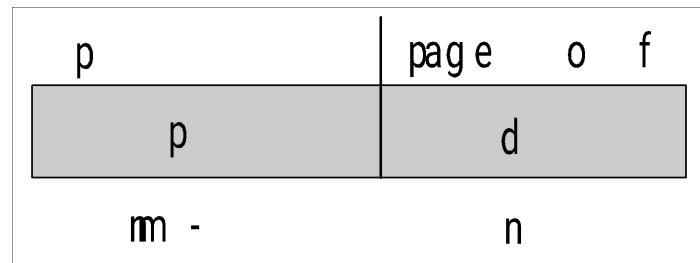
- Reduce external fragmentation by **compaction**
 - Shuffle memory contents to place all free memory together in one large block
 - Compaction is possible *only* if relocation is dynamic, and is done at execution time
 - I/O problem
 - 4 Latch job in memory while it is involved in I/O
 - 4 Do I/O only into OS buffers
- Now consider that backing store has same fragmentation problems

Paging

- Physical address space of a process can be noncontiguous; process is allocated physical memory whenever the latter is available
 - Avoids external fragmentation
 - Avoids problem of varying sized memory chunks
- Divide physical memory into fixed-sized blocks called **frames**
 - Size is power of 2, between 512 bytes and 16 Mbytes
- Divide logical memory into blocks of same size called **pages**
- Keep track of all free frames
- To run a program of size N pages, need to find N free frames and load program
- Set up a **page table** to translate logical to physical addresses
- Backing store likewise split into pages
- Still have Internal fragmentation

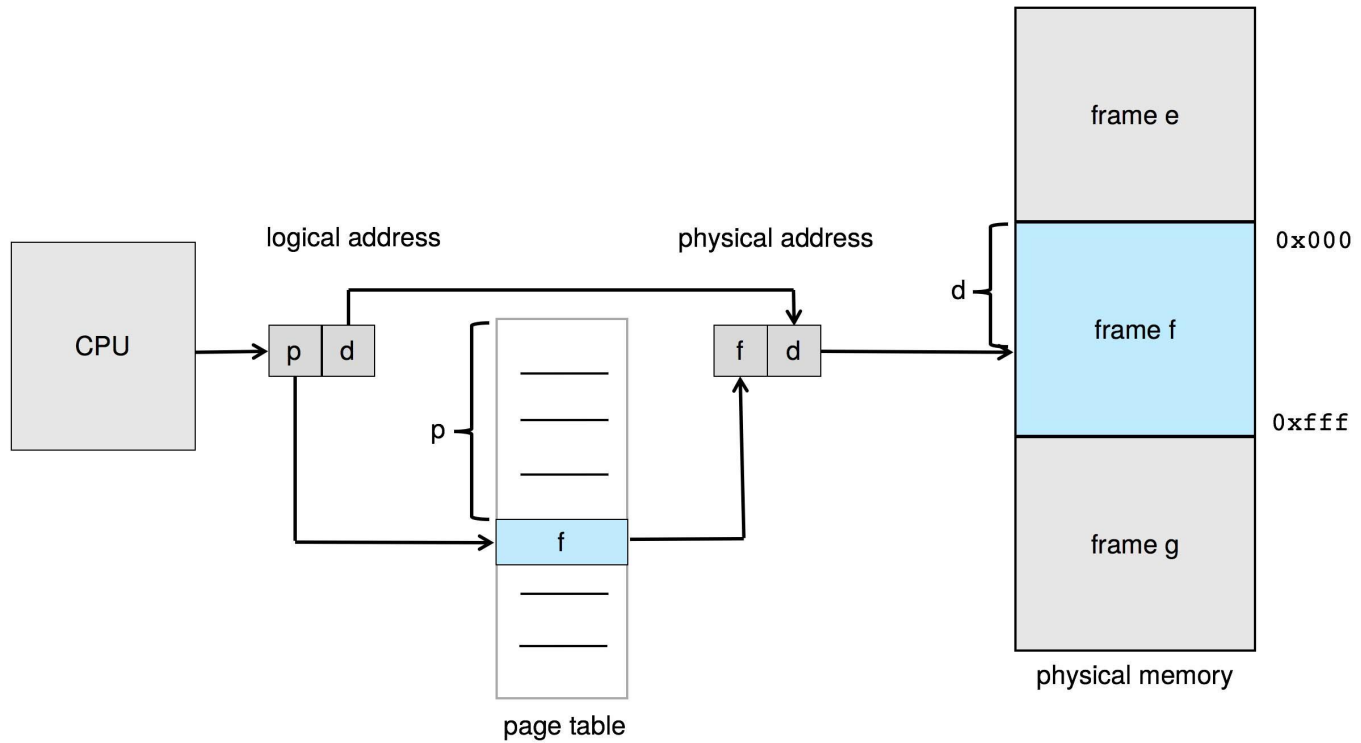
Address Translation Scheme

- 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

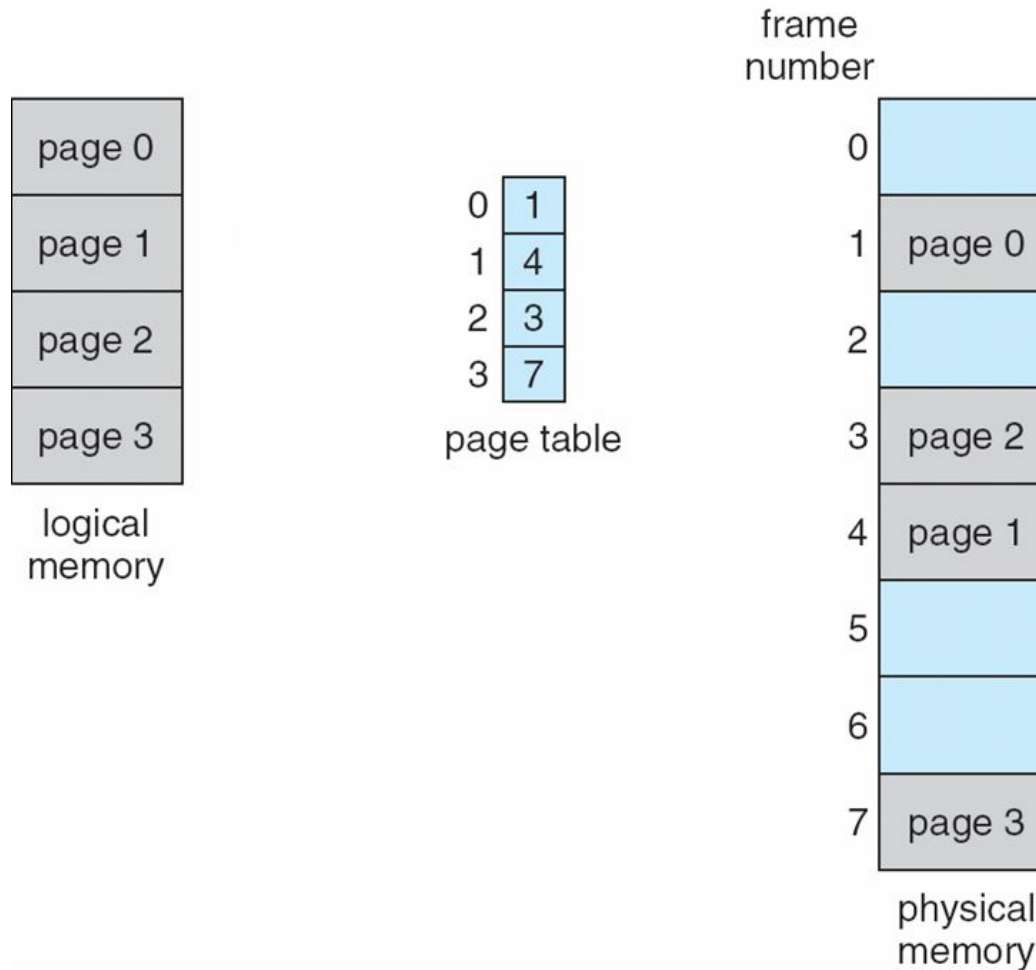


- For given logical address space 2^m and page size 2^n

Paging Hardware

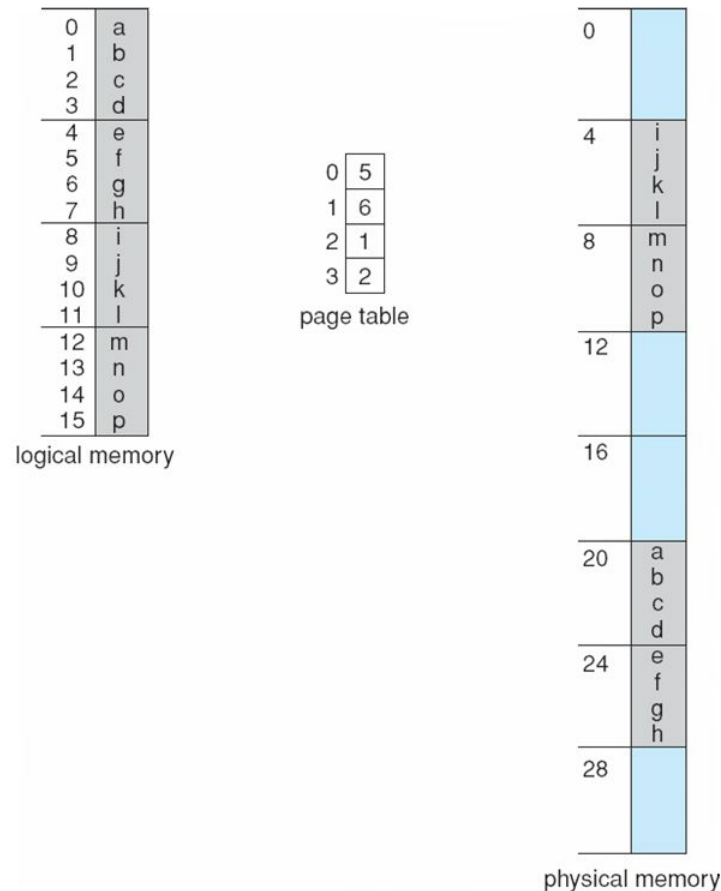


Paging Model of Logical and Physical Memory



Paging Example

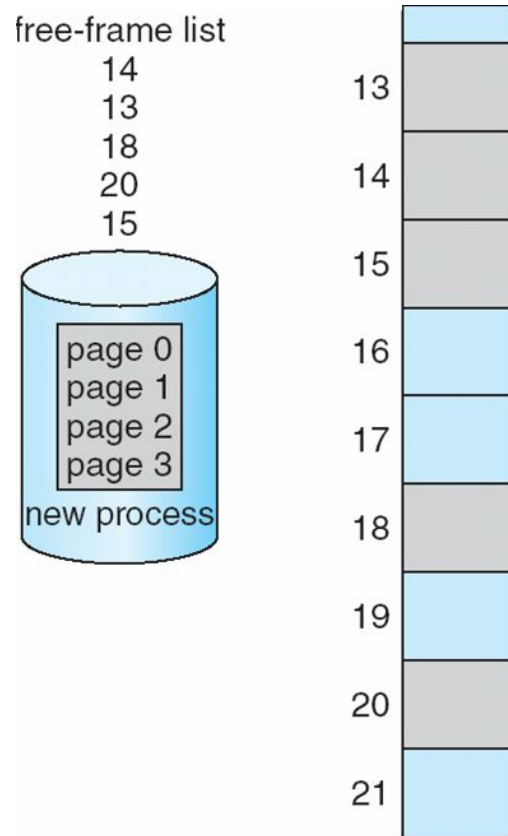
- Logical address: $n = 2$ and $m = 4$. Using a page size of 4 bytes and a physical memory of 32 bytes (8 pages)



Paging -- Calculating internal fragmentation

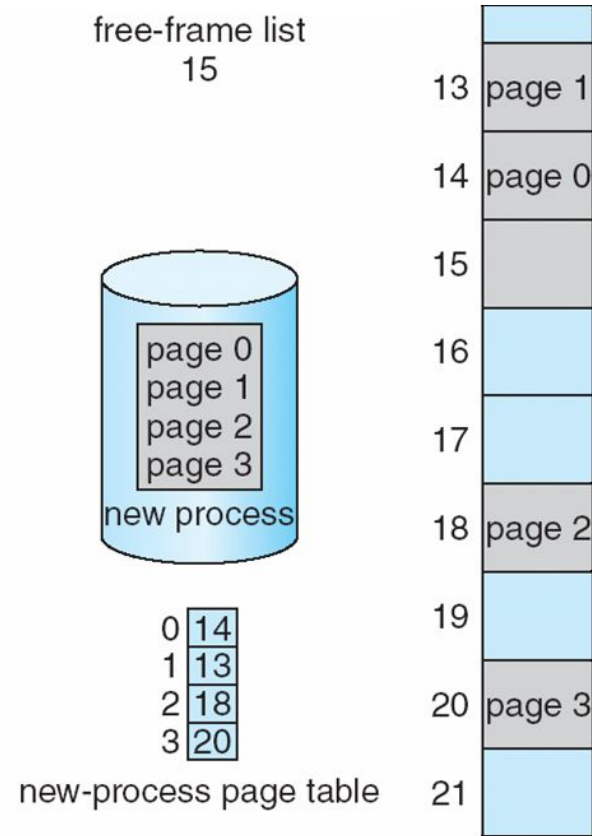
- Page size = 2,048 bytes
- Process size = 72,766 bytes
- 35 pages + 1,086 bytes
- Internal fragmentation of $2,048 - 1,086 = 962$ bytes
- Worst case fragmentation = 1 frame – 1 byte
- On average fragmentation = $1 / 2$ frame size
- So small frame sizes desirable?
- But each page table entry takes memory to track
- Page sizes growing over time
 - Solaris supports two page sizes – 8 KB and 4 MB

Free Frames



(a)

Before allocation



(b)

After allocation

Implementation of Page Table

- Page table is kept in main memory
 - **Page-table base register (PTBR)** points to the page table
 - **Page-table length register (PTLR)** indicates size of the page table
- In this scheme every data/instruction access requires two memory accesses
 - One for the page table and one for the data / instruction
- The two memory access problem can be solved by the use of a special fast-lookup hardware cache called **translation look-aside buffers (TLBs)** (also called **associative memory**).

Translation Look-Aside Buffer

- 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
- TLBs typically small (64 to 1,024 entries)
- On a TLB miss, value is loaded into the TLB for faster access next time
 - Replacement policies must be considered
 - Some entries can be **wired down** for permanent fast access

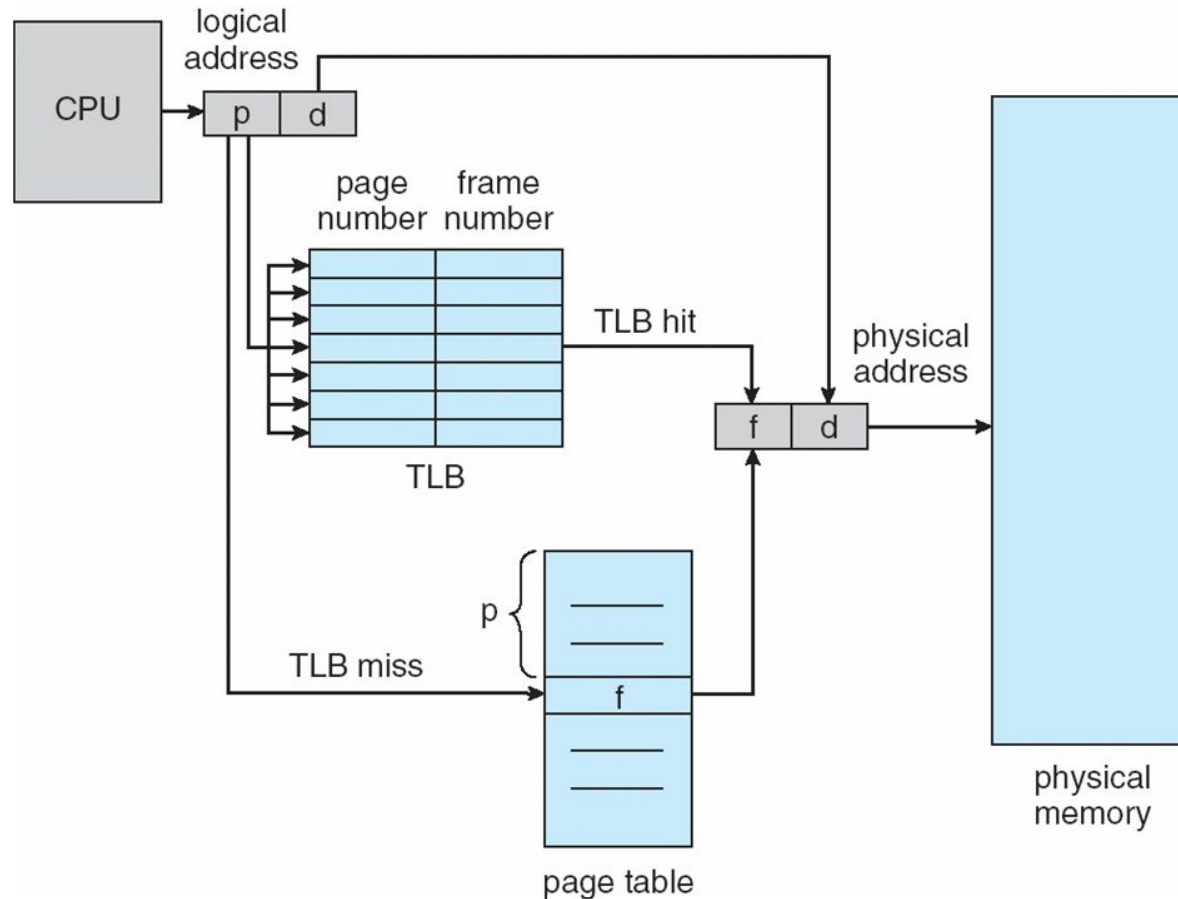
Hardware

- Associative memory – parallel search

Page #	Frame #

- Address translation (p, d)
 - If p is in associative register, get frame # out
 - Otherwise get frame # from page table in memory

Silberschatz, Galvin and Gagne



Effective Access Time

- Hit ratio – percentage of times that a page number is found in the TLB
- An 80% hit ratio means that we find the desired page number in the TLB 80% of the time.
- Suppose that 10 nanoseconds to access memory.
- If we find the desired page in TLB then a mapped-memory access take 10 ns
- Otherwise we need two memory access so it is 20 ns
- **Effective Access Time (EAT)**

$$\text{EAT} = 0.80 \times 10 + 0.20 \times 20 = 12 \text{ nanoseconds}$$

implying 20% slowdown in access time

- Consider amore realistic hit ratio of 99%,

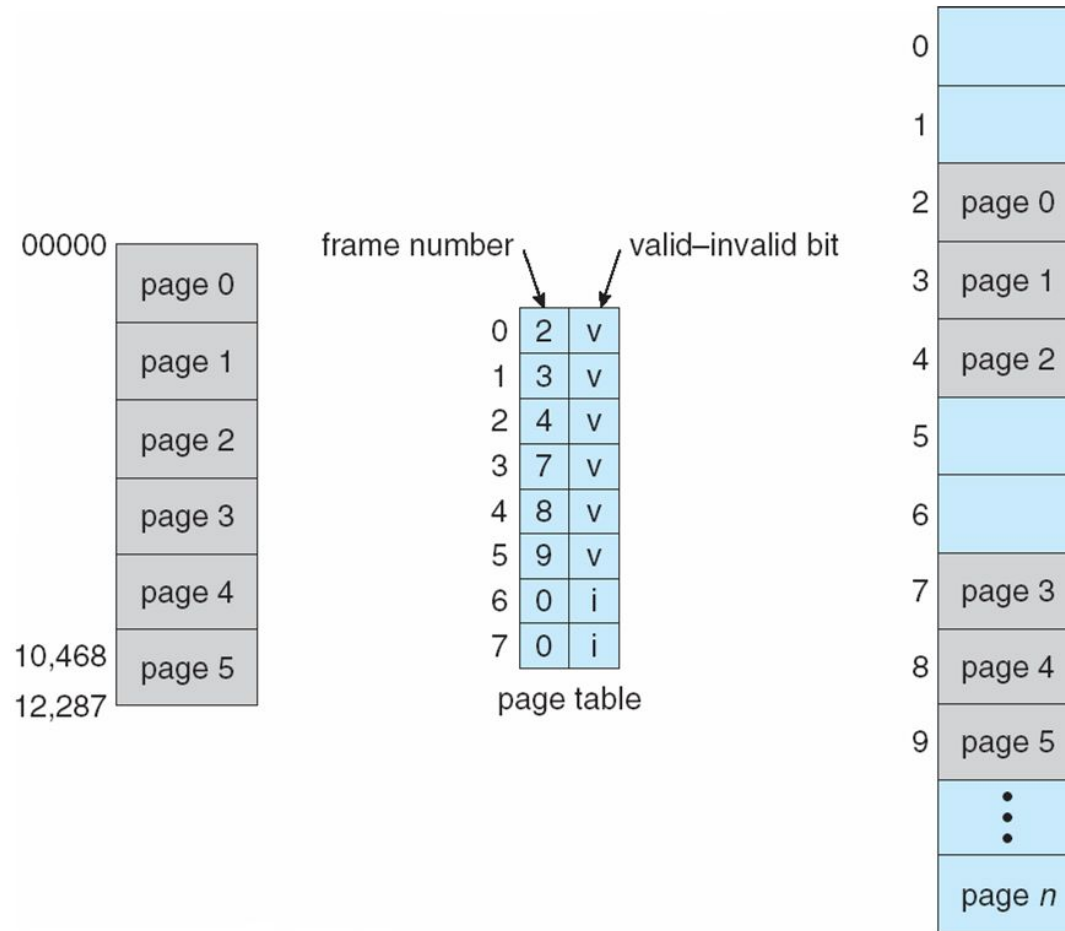
$$\text{EAT} = 0.99 \times 10 + 0.01 \times 20 = 10.1\text{ns}$$

implying only 1% slowdown in access time.

Memory Protection

- Memory protection implemented by associating protection bit with each frame to indicate if read-only or read-write access is allowed
 - Can also add more bits to indicate page execute-only, and so on
- **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
 - Or use **page-table length register (PTLR)**
- Any violations result in a trap to the kernel

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 interprocess 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

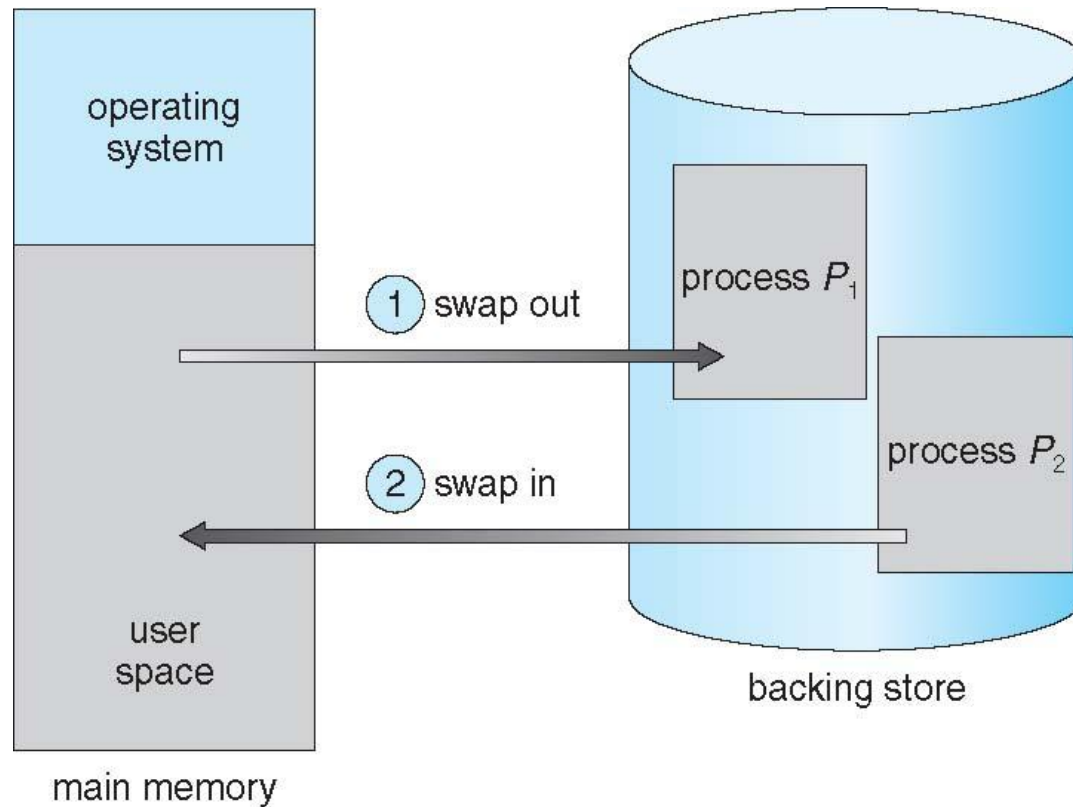
Swapping

- A process can be **swapped** temporarily out of memory to a backing store, and then brought back into memory for continued execution
 - Total physical memory space of processes can exceed physical memory
- **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
- System maintains a **ready queue** of ready-to-run processes which have memory images on disk

Swapping (Cont.)

- Does the swapped out process need to swap back in to same physical addresses?
- Depends on address binding method
 - Plus consider pending I/O to / from process memory space
- 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



Context Switch Time including Swapping

- If next processes to be put on CPU is not in memory, need to swap out a process and swap in target process
- Context switch time can then be very high
- 100MB process swapping to hard disk with transfer rate of 50MB/sec
 - Swap out time of 2000 ms
 - Plus swap in of same sized process
 - Total context switch swapping component time of 4000ms (4 seconds)
- Can reduce if reduce size of memory swapped – by knowing how much memory really being used
 - System calls to inform OS of memory use via `request_memory()` and `release_memory()`

Context Switch Time and Swapping (Cont.)

- Other constraints as well on swapping
 - Pending I/O – can't swap out as I/O would occur to wrong process
 - Or always transfer I/O to kernel space, then to I/O device
 - 4 Known as **double buffering**, adds overhead
- Standard swapping not used in modern operating systems
 - But modified version common
 - 4 Swap only when free memory extremely low

End of Chapter 8

