

Main Memory (Part I)

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Motivation and Background

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 - **Machine instructions** may take **memory addresses** as arguments, but not disk addresses.
- ▶ The CPU fetches **instructions** from memory according to the value of the **program counter**.
- ▶ These instructions may cause **additional loading** from and storing to specific memory addresses.

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- ▶ Main memory can take many cycles, causing a stall.
- ▶ Cache sits between main memory and registers.

- ▶ We must protect the OS from access by user processes.

Address Protection

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- ▶ We must protect user processes from one another.

Address Protection

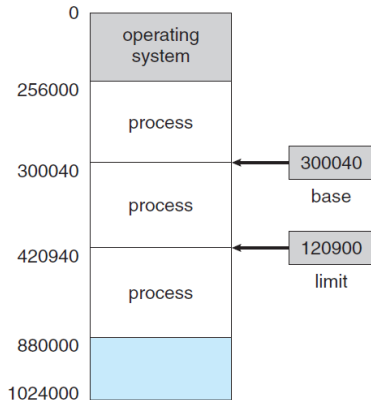
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- ▶ This protection is provided by the hardware.
- ▶ A separate memory space for each process.
 - Determining the range of legal addresses that the process may access.

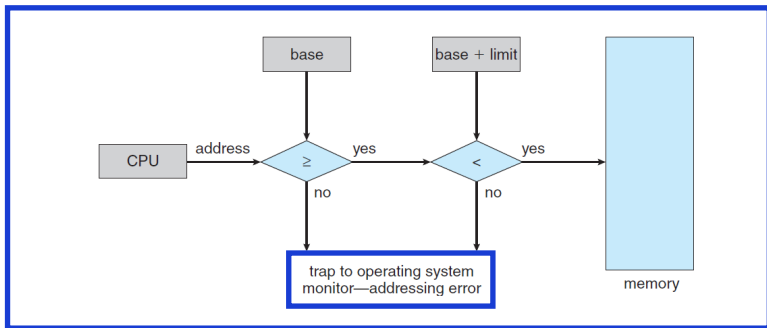
Base and Limit Registers

- ▶ A pair of **base** and **limit** registers define the **logical address space**.
- ▶ **CPU must check** every memory access generated in user mode to be sure it is **between base and limit** for that user.



Hardware Address Protection

- Any attempt by a user program to access OS memory or other users' memory results in a trap to the OS, which treats the attempt as a fatal error.



Address Binding

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- ▶ A user process can reside in any part of the physical memory.
 - Without support, must be loaded into address 00000.

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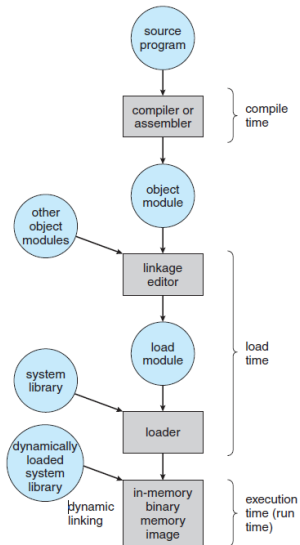
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 - **Linker or loader** will bind relocatable addresses to **absolute** addresses, e.g., 74014.

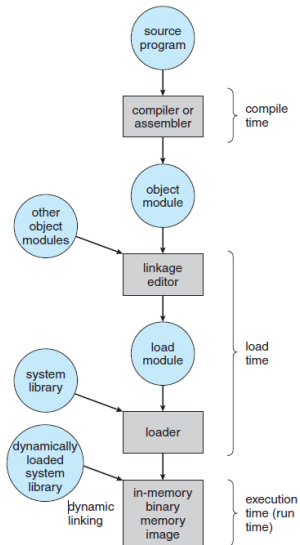
Binding of Instructions and Data to Memory (1/3)

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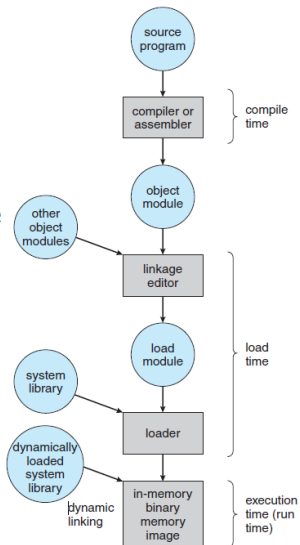
Binding of Instructions and Data to Memory (1/3)

- ▶ 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.



Binding of Instructions and Data to Memory (2/3)

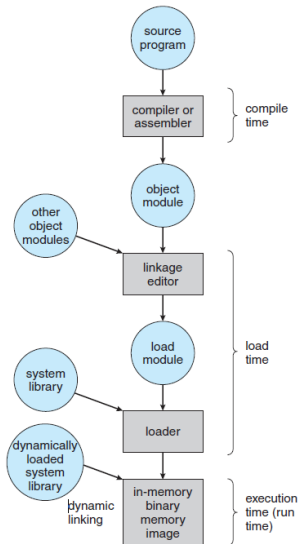
- **Load time:** must generate relocatable code if memory location is not known at **compile** time.
 - Final binding is delayed until load time.
 - If the starting address changes, we need only reload the user code to incorporate this changed value.



Binding of Instructions and Data to Memory (3/3)

► **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



Logical vs. Physical Address Space (1/2)

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 - Physical address space is the set of all physical addresses generated by a program.
- ▶ The concept of a logical address space that is bound to a separate physical address space is central to proper memory management.

Logical vs. Physical Address Space (2/2)

why?

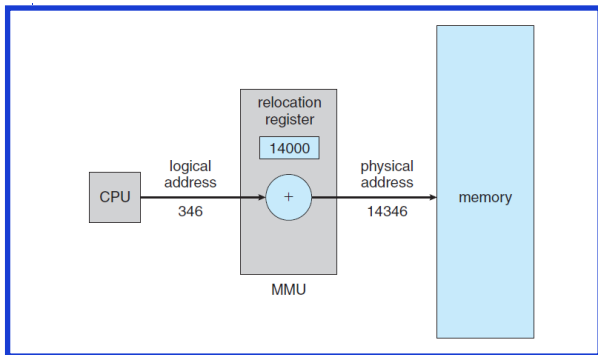
- ▶ Logical and physical addresses are the same in compile-time and load-time address-binding schemes.
- ▶ Logical and physical addresses differ in execution-time address-binding scheme.

Memory-Management Unit (MMU) (1/2)

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

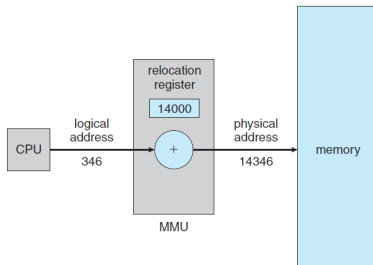
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- ▶ **Hardware device** that at run time **maps virtual to physical** address.
- ▶ As a simple scheme, the value in the **relocation register** is **added** to every **address** generated by a user process at the time it is sent to memory.
 - **Base register** now called **relocation register**.



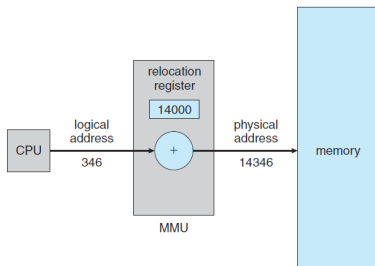
Memory-Management Unit (MMU) (2/2)

- ▶ Two different types of addresses:
 - Logical addresses: range 0 to max
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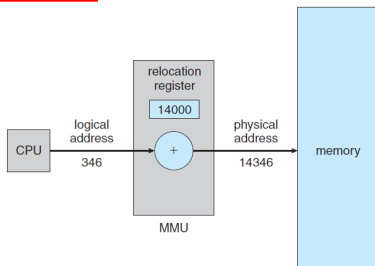
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- ▶ These logical addresses must be mapped to physical addresses before they are used.



Dynamic Linking and Loading

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- ▶ All routines kept on disk in relocatable load format.

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- ▶ No special support from the OS is required.
- ▶ Implemented through program design.
- ▶ OS can help by providing libraries to implement dynamic loading.

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- ▶ **Stub:** small piece of code, used to locate the appropriate memory-resident library routine.
- ▶ **?** Stub replaces itself with the address of the routine, and executes the routine.

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- ▶ **Dynamic linking** is particularly **useful** for **shared libraries**.

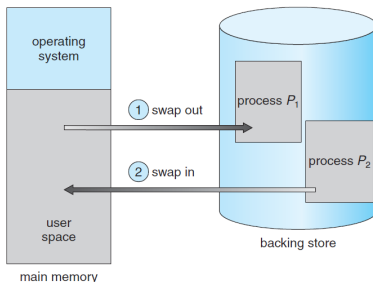
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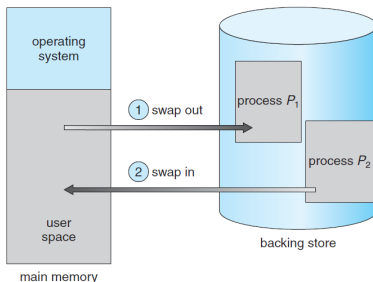
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- ▶ **Backing store**: **fast disk large enough** to accommodate copies of all memory images for all users; must provide direct access to these memory images.
- ▶ Total **memory space of processes** can **exceed physical memory**.



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- ? ▶ Pending I/O: cannot swap out as I/O would occur to wrong process.
 - Or always transfer I/O to kernel space, then to I/O device.
 - Known as double buffering, adds overhead.

Swapping (3/3)

- ▶ Standard swapping **not used** in modern OSs, but modified version is common.
- ▶ Swap only when free memory extremely low.
- ▶ Disabled again once memory demand reduced below threshold.

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- ▶ Example:
 - **100MB** process swapping to hard disk with transfer rate of **50MB/sec**.
 - **Swap out** time of **2s** + **swap in** of same sized process.
 - Total context switch swapping component time of **4s**.

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- ▶ Flash memory based
 - Small amount of space
 - Limited number of write cycles
 - Poor throughput between flash memory and CPU on mobile platform

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- ▶ Android terminates apps if low free memory, but first writes application state to flash for fast restart.

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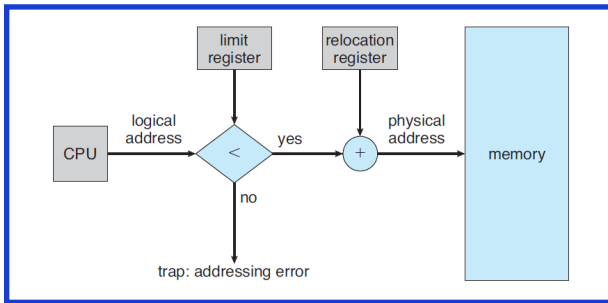
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- ▶ **Contiguous allocation** is one early method.
- ▶ Main memory usually into two partitions:
 - Resident OS, usually held in low memory with interrupt vector.
 - User processes then held in high memory.
 - Each process contained in single contiguous section of memory.

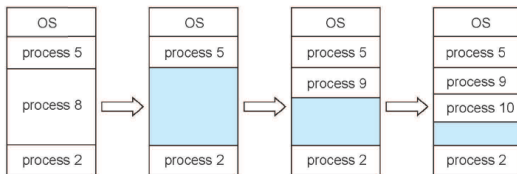
Contiguous Allocation (2/2)

- ▶ Relocation registers used to protect user processes from each other, and from changing OS code and data.
 - Base register contains value of smallest physical address.
 - Limit register contains range of logical addresses.
 - MMU maps logical address dynamically.



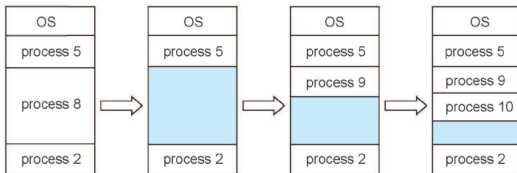
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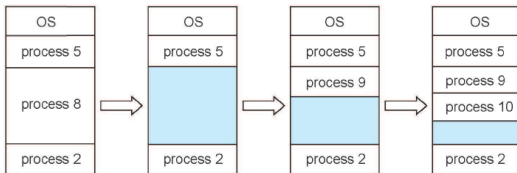
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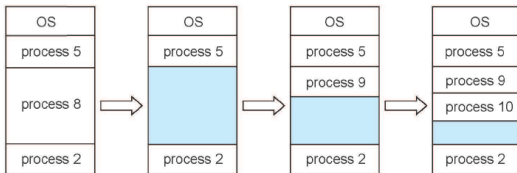
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- ▶ **Each partition** may contain **exactly one process**.
- ▶ **Degree of multiprogramming** **limited** by **number of partitions**.
- ▶ When a partition is **free**, a process is selected from the input queue and is loaded into the free partition.



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- ▶ 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
- ▶ OS maintains information about: allocated partitions and free partitions (hole)

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- ▶ **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.

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- ▶ **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, $0.5N$ blocks lost to fragmentation: 50-percent rule

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page 364

- ▶ **Compaction**: a solution to the problem of external fragmentation.
- ▶ **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**
 - Latch job in memory while it is involved in I/O
 - Do I/O only into OS buffers.

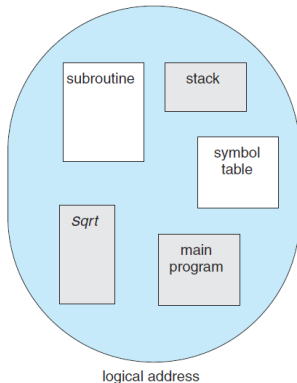
Fragmentation (3/3)

- ▶ Another possible solution to the external fragmentation problem: permit the logical address space of the processes to be noncontiguous.
- ▶ Two techniques:
 - Segmentation
 - Paging

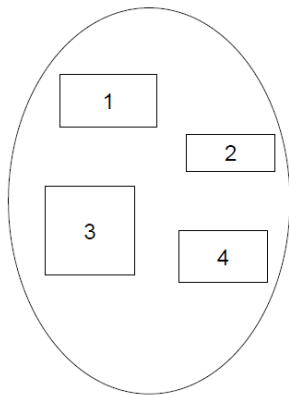
Segmentation

Fragmentation (2/2)

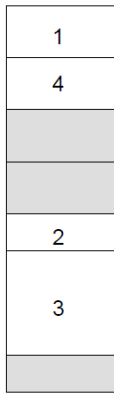
- ▶ Memory-management scheme that supports user view of memory.
- ▶ A program is a collection of segments.
- ▶ A segment is a logical unit such as:
 - Main program
 - Procedure
 - Function
 - Object
 - ...



Logical View of Segmentation



user space



physical memory space

Segmentation Architecture

- ▶ Logical address consists of a tuple: $\langle \text{segment_number}, \text{offset} \rangle$

Segmentation Architecture

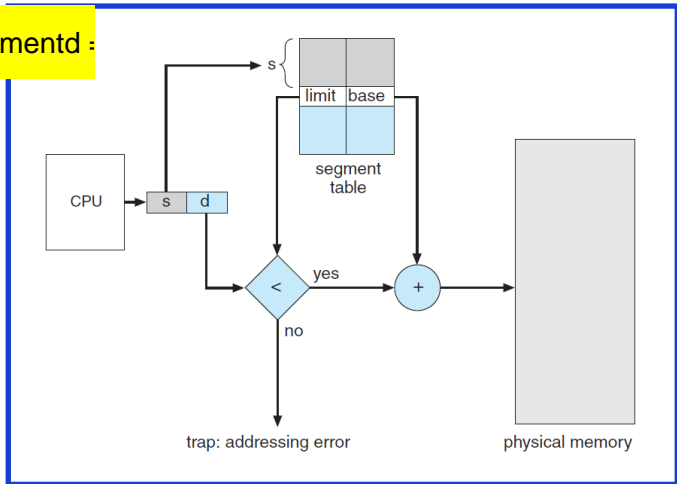
- ▶ Logical address consists of a tuple: $\langle \text{segment_number}, \text{offset} \rangle$
- ▶ **Segment table**: maps two-dimensional user-defined addresses into one-dimensional physical address.

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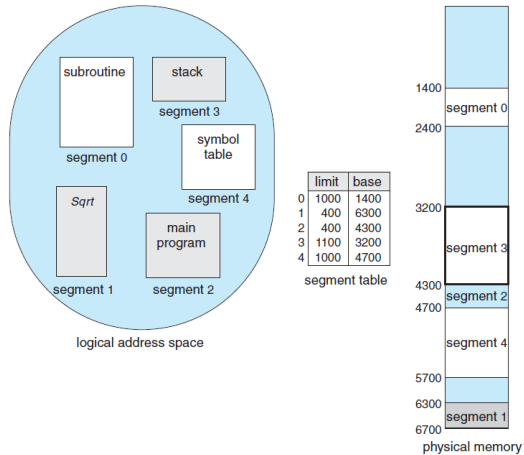
- ▶ Logical address consists of a tuple: $\langle \text{segment_number}, \text{offset} \rangle$
- ▶ **Segment table:** maps two-dimensional user-defined addresses into one-dimensional physical address.
- ▶ Each table entry has:
 - Base: contains the starting physical address where the segments reside in memory
 - Limit: specifies the length of the segment

Segmentation Hardware

s = # of segments

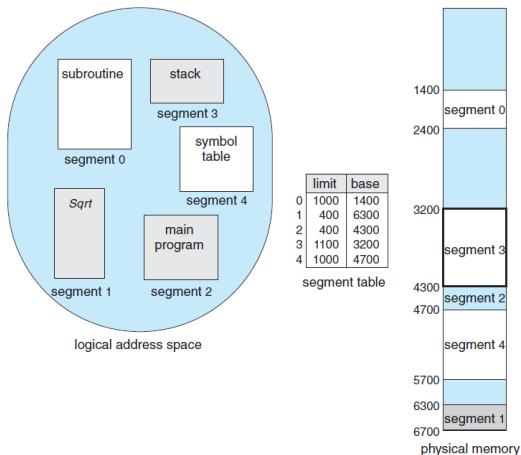


Segmentation Example



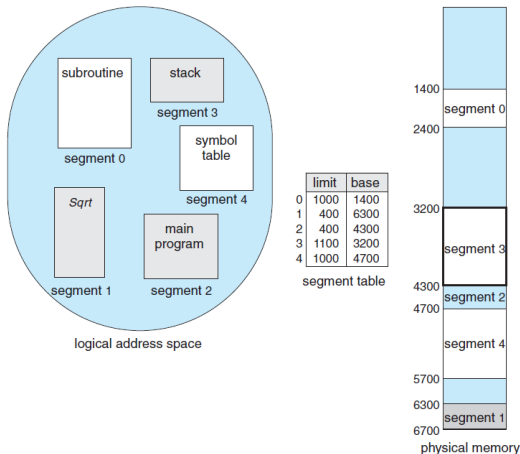
► A reference to byte 53 of segment 2:

Segmentation Example



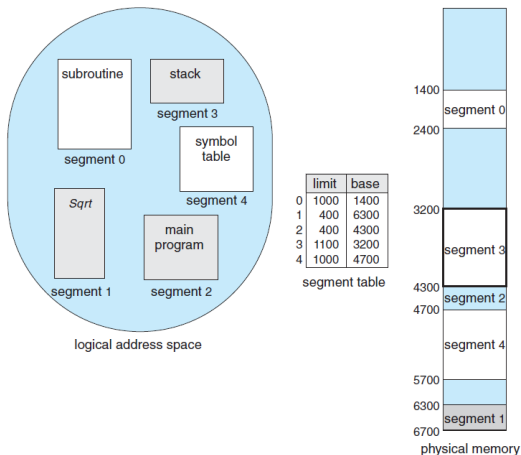
► A reference to byte 53 of segment 2: $4300 + 53 = 4353$

Segmentation Example



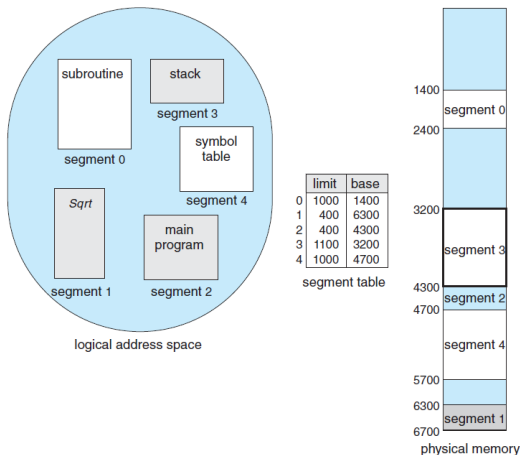
- ▶ A reference to byte 53 of segment 2: $4300 + 53 = 4353$
- ▶ A reference to byte 852 of segment 3:

Segmentation Example



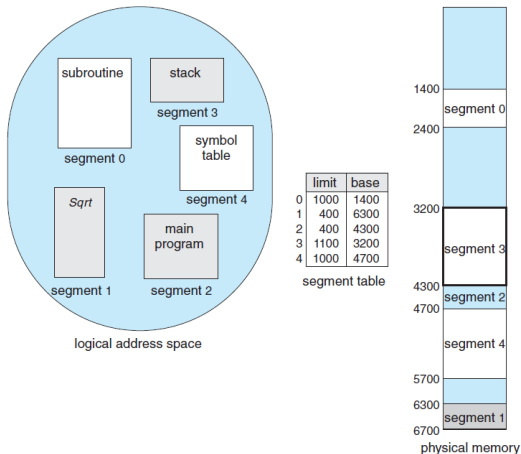
- ▶ A reference to byte 53 of segment 2: $4300 + 53 = 4353$
- ▶ A reference to byte 852 of segment 3: $3200 + 852 = 4052$

Segmentation Example



- ▶ A reference to byte 53 of segment 2: $4300 + 53 = 4353$
- ▶ A reference to byte 852 of segment 3: $3200 + 852 = 4052$
- ▶ A reference to byte 1222 of segment 0:

Segmentation Example



- ▶ A reference to byte 53 of segment 2: $4300 + 53 = 4353$
- ▶ A reference to byte 852 of segment 3: $3200 + 852 = 4052$
- ▶ A reference to byte 1222 of segment 0: **trap to OS**

Summary

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- ▶ External and internal fragmentation: compaction, segmentation, paging
- ▶ Segmentation: noncontiguous address, user view of memory

Questions?

Acknowledgements

Some slides were derived from Avi Silberschatz slides.