

06. Memory Management

9th ed: Ch. 8, 9

10th ed: Ch. 9, 10

Objectives

- To describe the hardware required for memory protection
- To introduce the concepts of logical and physical addresses
- To discuss the problem of address binding
- To introduce the concept of segmentation
- To understand the problem of fragmentation

Outline

- Memory protection
- Memory allocation

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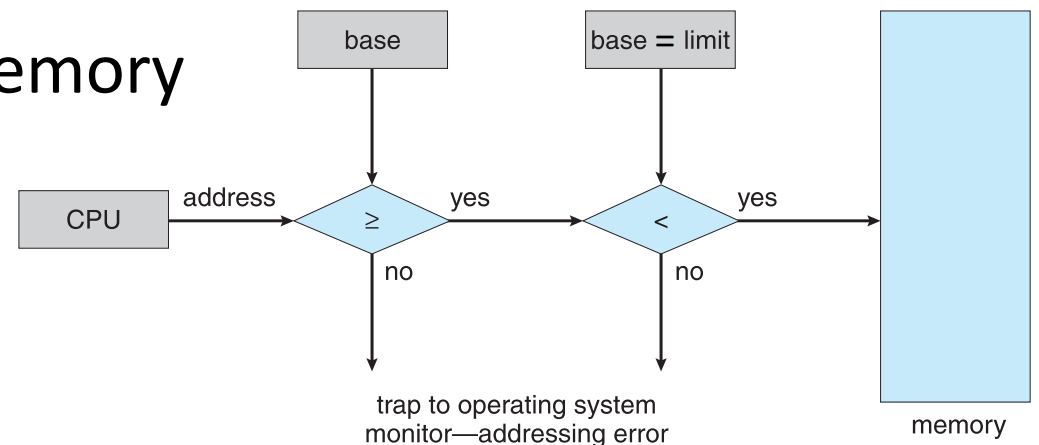
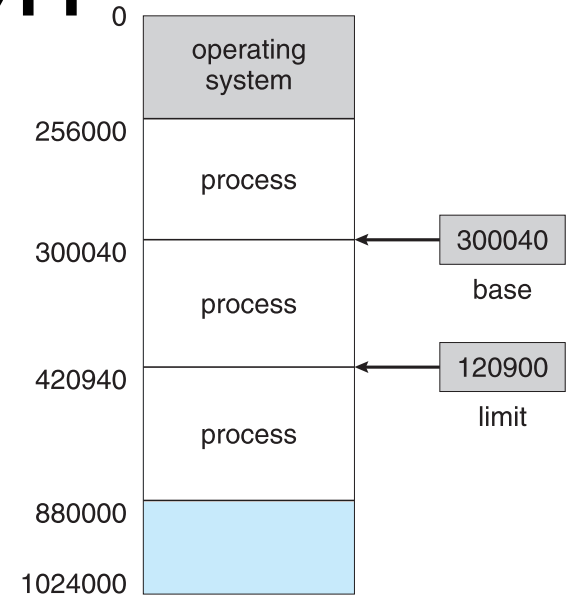
- Memory protection
 - Address binding
 - Logical and physical addresses
 - Memory Management Unit (MMU)
 - Linking and loading
- Memory allocation

Memory management

- Will have many programs in memory simultaneously
 - Program code loaded from storage
- The CPU can only access registers and main memory directly
 - Register access in a single cycle, but memory access takes many cycles
 - Multiple levels of cache attempt to hide main memory latency (L1, L2, L3)
- Memory unit sees only a stream of
 - Address plus read request
 - Address plus data plus write request
- Need to protect memory accesses to prevent malicious or just buggy user programs corrupting other programs, including the kernel

Hardware address protection

- **Base** and **limit** registers define the logical address space
 - Base is the smallest legal address, e.g., 300040
 - Limit is the size of the range, e.g., 120900
 - Thus program can access addresses in the range [300040, 420940)
- CPU must check every user-mode memory access to ensure it is in that range
 - Exception raised to OS if not



Address binding

- Programs on disk are brought into memory to create running processes – but where in memory to put them given program code will refer to memory locations?

- Consider a simple program and the assembly code it might generate

- [Rx] means
the contents of memory at address Rx

```
int x, y;  
x = 5;  
y = x + 3;
```

```
str #5, [Rx]    ; store 5 into x  
ldr R1, [Rx]    ; load value of x from memory  
add R2, R1, #3   ; and add 3 to it  
str R2, [Ry]     ; and store result in y
```

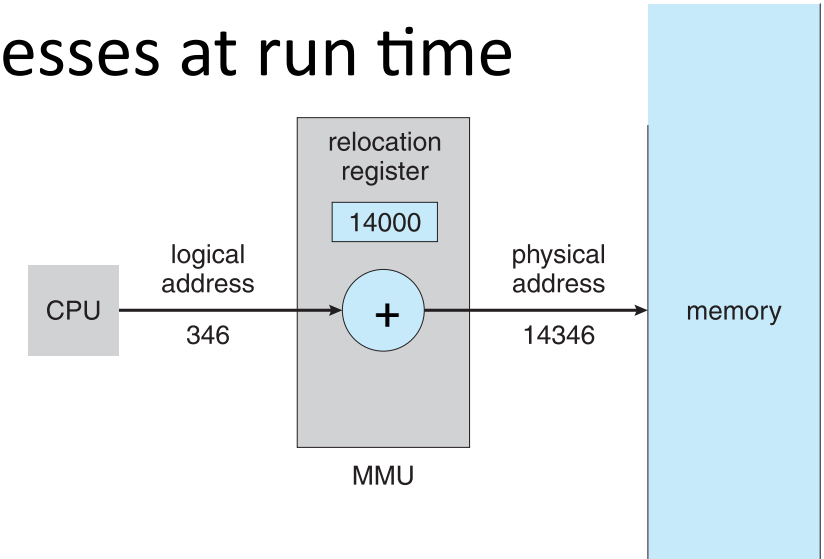
- Address binding happens at three different points
 - **Compile time:** If memory location known *a priori*, absolute code can be generated; requires recompilation if base location changes
 - **Load time:** Need to generate relocatable code if memory location is not known at compile time
 - **Execution time:** Binding delayed until run time if the process can be moved during its execution from one memory segment to another
- Bindings map one address space to another – requires hardware support

Logical vs physical addresses

- The concept of a logical address space that is bound to a separate physical address space is central to proper memory management
 - **Logical (virtual) address** – as generated by the CPU
 - **Physical address** – address seen by the memory unit
 - Identical in compile-time and load-time address-binding schemes
 - Differ in execution-time address-binding schemes
- The logical/physical address space is the set of all logical/physical addresses generated by a program
- Need hardware support to perform the mapping from logical to physical addresses at run time

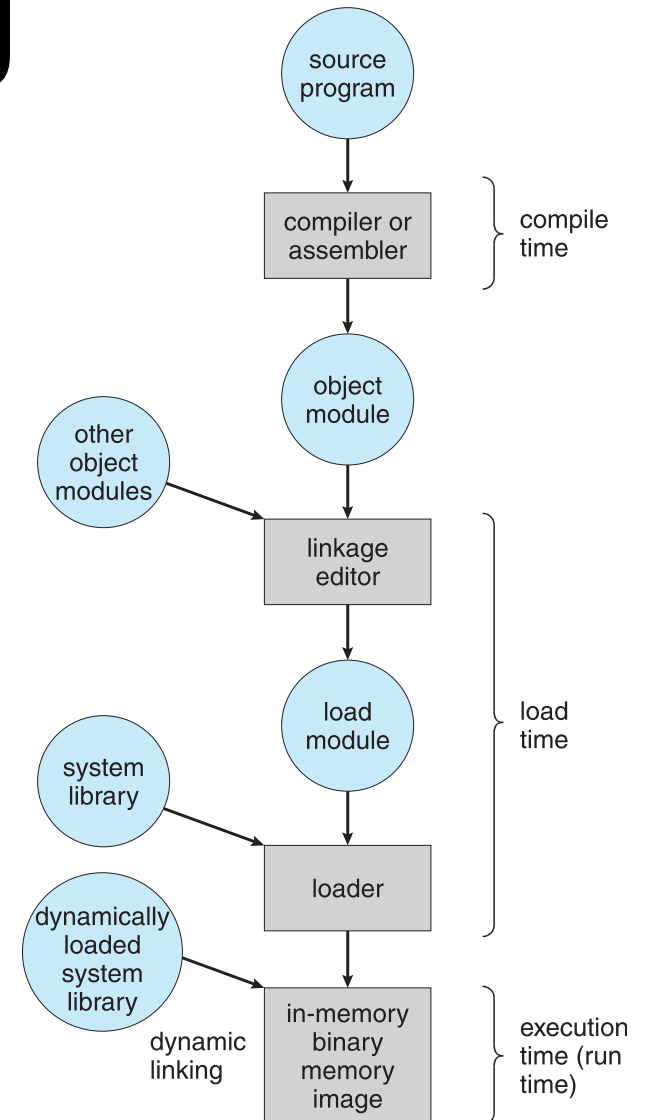
Memory Management Unit (MMU)

- Hardware that maps logical to physical addresses at run time
- Conceptually simple scheme: replace base register with **relocation register**
- Add the value in the relocation register to every address generated by a user process at the time it is sent to memory
 - User programs deal with logical addresses, never seeing physical addresses
- Execution-time binding occurs when reference is made to location in memory
 - Logical address is bound to physical address by the MMU



Dynamic linking and loading

- Linking combines different object code modules to create a program
 - **Static linking** – all libraries and program code combined into the binary program image
 - **Dynamic linking** – postpone linking to execution time
- Dynamic linking is particularly useful for **system** or **shared** libraries
 - May need to track versions
- Calls replaced with a **stub**
 - A small piece of code to locate the appropriate in-memory routine
- Stub replaces itself with the address of the routine, and executes the routine
 - Operating system checks if routine is in processes' memory address, adding it if not
- Dynamic loading avoids loading routines until they're called
 - Better memory usage as unused routines are never loaded
 - Requires they be compiled with relocatable addresses
 - Useful when large amounts of code are needed infrequently
- OS can help by providing libraries to implement dynamic loading

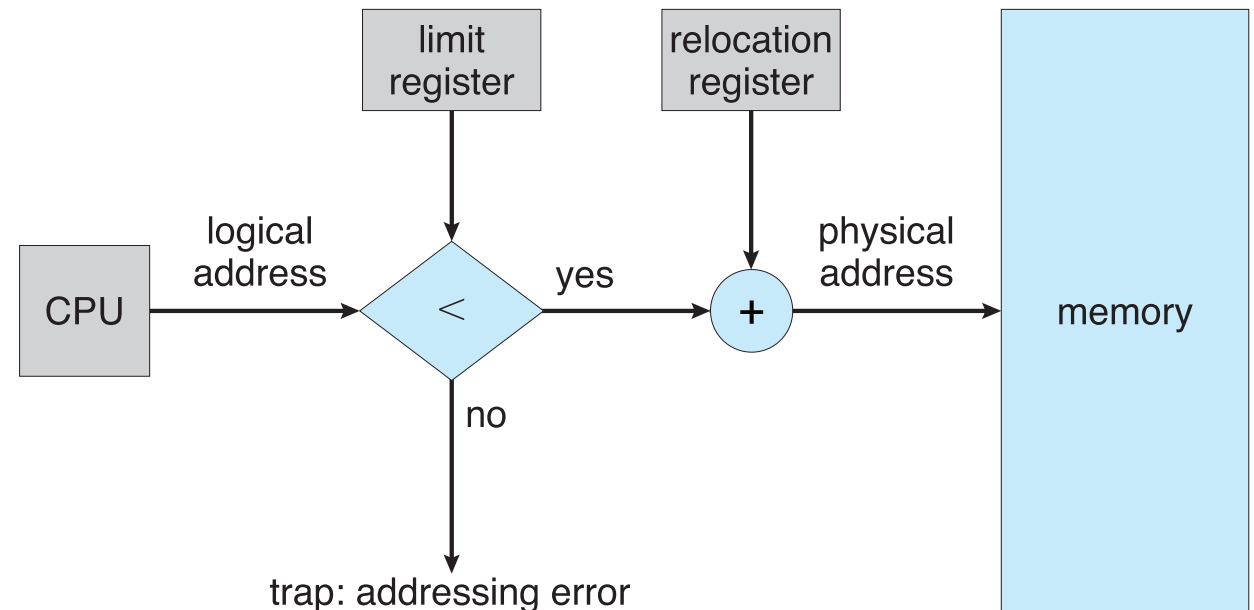


Outline

- Memory protection
- Memory allocation
 - Swapping
 - Dynamic allocation
 - Fragmentation
 - Compaction
 - Segmentation

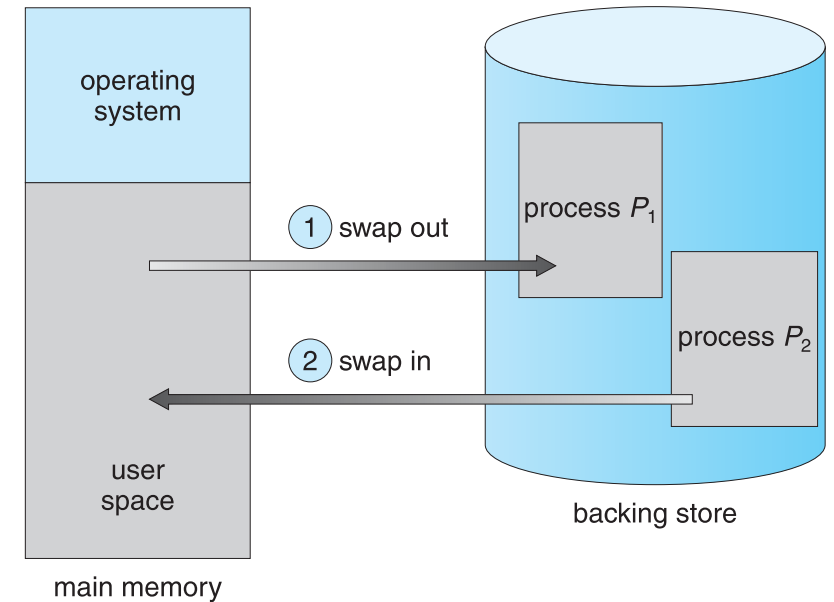
Memory allocation

- Main memory must support both kernel and user processes
 - Limited resource, must allocate efficiently
 - **Contiguous allocation** is early method putting each process in one chunk of memory
- How to determine chunks?
 - Multiple fixed-sized partitions limits the degree of multiprogramming; prefer **variable partitioning**
- Main memory usually partitioned into two
 - Resident kernel, usually held in low memory alongside interrupt vectors
 - User processes then held in high memory, each in a single contiguous section
- Relocation registers used to protect
 - User processes from each other, and
 - OS code and data from being modified
- Can then allow actions such as kernel code being transient and kernel changing size



Swapping

- When physical memory requested exceeds physical memory in machine, temporarily swap processes out
 - Move processes from main memory to storage
- Significant performance impact
 - Time to transfer process to/from storage directly proportional to the amount of memory swapped
 - Context switches can thus become very expensive
 - E.g., 100MB process with storage transfer rate of 50MB/s
- Swapping default disabled
 - Enabled only while allocated memory exceeds threshold
 - Plus consider pending I/O to or from process memory space
 - System maintains a ready queue of ready-to-run processes with memory images on disk
- Must swapped out processes be swapped into the same physical addresses?
 - Depends on address binding method



Multiple variable-partition allocation

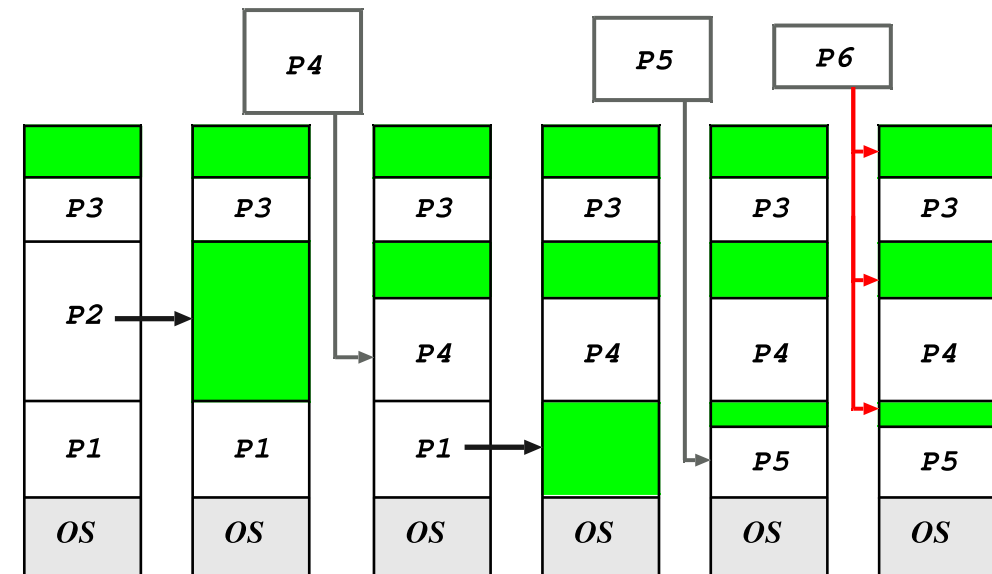
- **Holes**, blocks of available memory of various size are scattered throughout memory
 - When a process arrives, it is allocated memory from a hole large enough to accommodate it
 - Process exiting frees its partition, adjacent free partitions combined
- OS maintains information about:
 - allocated partitions and
 - free partitions (holes)

Dynamic allocation problem

- How to satisfy a request of size r 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
 - Requires searching entire list, unless maintained ordered by size
 - Produces the smallest leftover hole
- **Worst-fit**, allocate the largest hole
 - Also requires searching entire list, producing the largest leftover hole
- First-fit and best-fit better than worst-fit in terms of speed and storage utilization

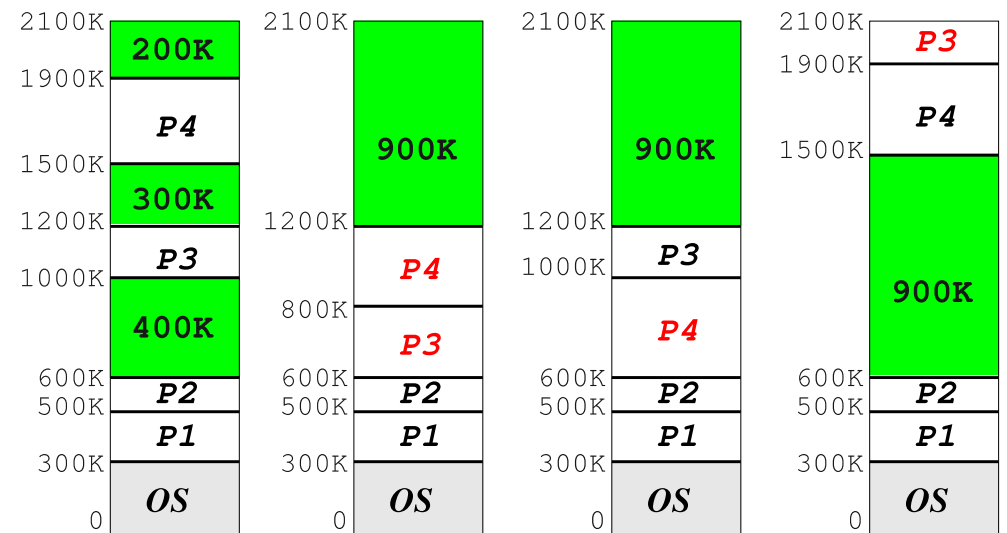
Fragmentation

- Fragmentation results in memory being unused and unusable
- **External Fragmentation**
 - Occurs when free memory exists to satisfy a request but it is not contiguous
 - Can eventually result in blocking as insufficient contiguous memory to swap any process in
- **Internal Fragmentation**
 - Occurs when allocated memory is slightly larger than requested memory
 - Memory internal to a partition, but unused
- Analysis of first-fit indicates that for N blocks allocated, $0.5 N$ blocks lost to fragmentation



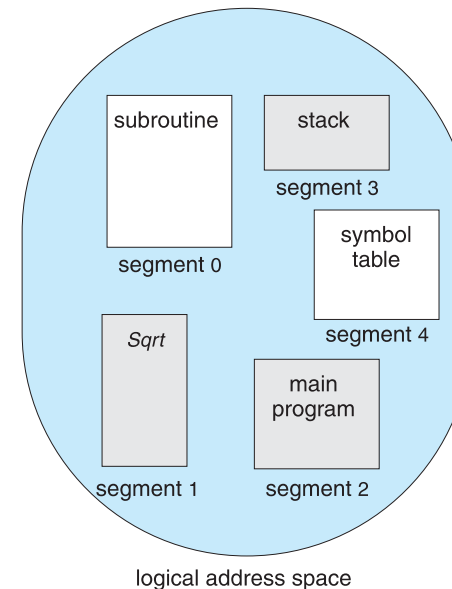
Compaction

- 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
 - done at execution time
- I/O problem
 - Pin job in memory while involved in I/O
 - Do I/O only into OS buffers
- Now consider that backing store has same fragmentation problems



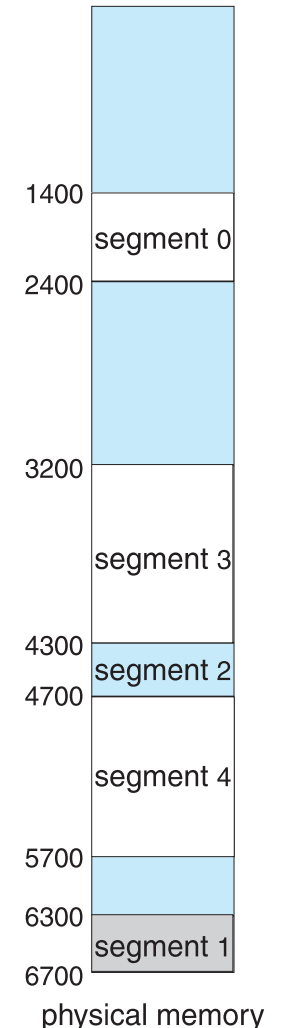
Segmentation

- Memory-management scheme supporting user view of memory
 - View a program as a collection of **segments**, logical program units such as the program, a procedure, an object, an array, etc
- Accessing memory requires user program to specify
 - **Segment name (number)** and
 - **Offset** within segment



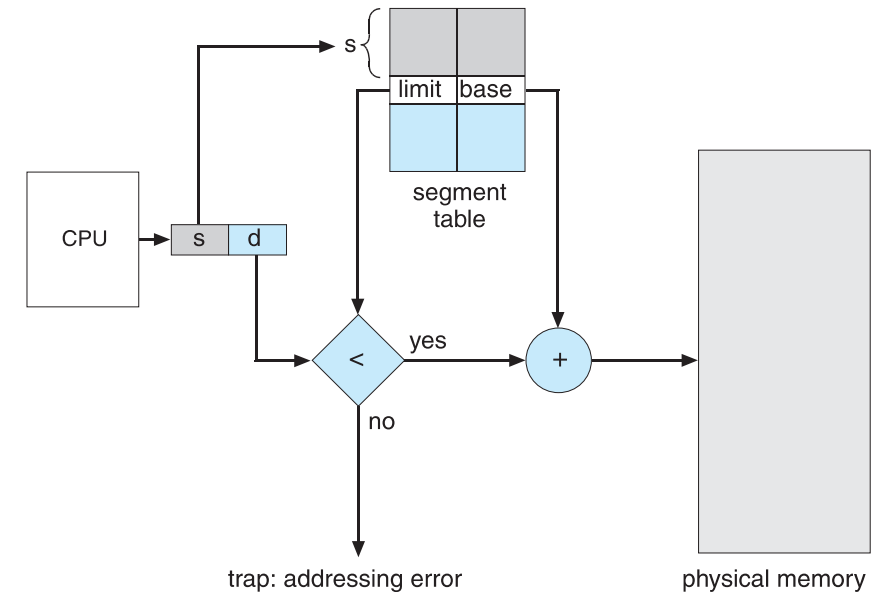
	limit	base
0	1000	1400
1	400	6300
2	400	4300
3	1100	3200
4	1000	4700

segment table



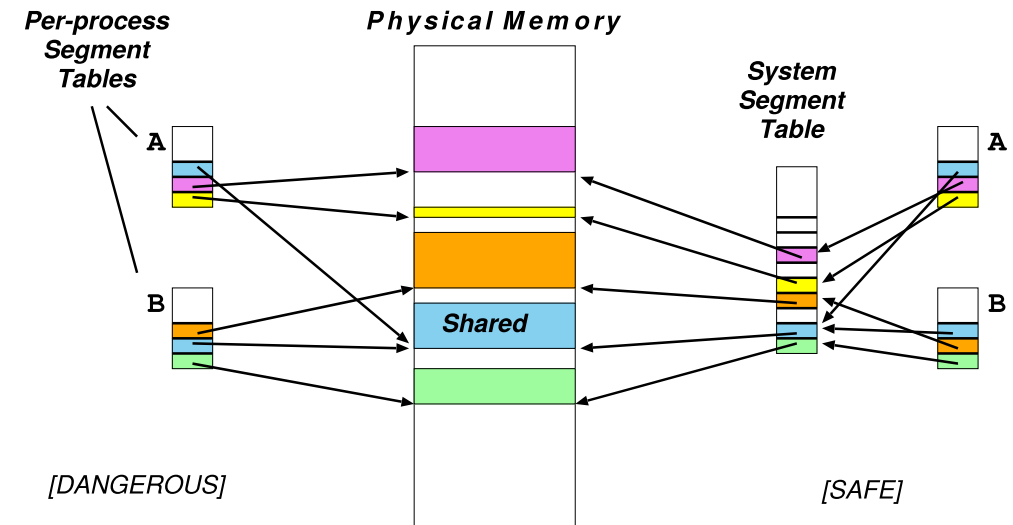
Segmentation hardware

- Logical address is now a pair $\langle \text{segment-number}, \text{offset} \rangle$
- **Segment table** maps to physical addresses via entries having
 - **Base**, the starting physical address where the segment resides
 - **Limit**, specifying 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 $s < \text{STLR}$
- Protection provided by associating with each entry in segment table
 - Validation bit indicating legal / illegal segment
 - Read/Write/Execute privileges
 - Associated with segments so code sharing occurs at segment level
- Segments vary in length so memory allocation is a dynamic storage-allocation problem



Sharing segments is subtle

- Consider jumps within shared code
 - Specified as a condition and a transfer address $\langle \text{segment-number}, \text{offset} \rangle$
 - *segment-number* is (of course) this one
- So all programs sharing this segment must use the same number to refer to it
 - The difficulty of finding a common shared segment number grows as the number of users sharing a segment
 - Thus, specify branches as PC-relative or relative to a register containing the current segment number
 - Read only segments containing no pointers may be shared with different segment numbers
- Wasteful to store common information on shared segment in each process segment table
 - Also dangerous as can get out of sync between processes
- Assign each segment a unique **System Segment Number (SSN)**
 - **Process Segment Table** then maps from a **Process Segment Number (PSN)** to SSN



Summary

- Memory protection
 - Address binding
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- Memory allocation
 - Swapping
 - Dynamic allocation
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