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



yes

no

address

CPU

yes

trap to operating system

monitor-addressing error

no

memory

Address binding

- Programs on disk is brought into memory to create running processes but where in memory to put them?
 - Multi-programming means they can't all be put at 0x0000, the default location
- Program code will refer to memory locations but how?
 - Consider a simple program and the assembly code it might generate
 - [Rx] means the contents of memory at address Rx



- 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 addresses by the MMU



Dynamic linking and loading

- Linking combines different object code modules to create a program's code
 - 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 libraries
 - 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 / 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 in to 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 *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
 - 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





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





Segmentation hardware

- Logical address is now a pair < segment-number, offset >
- Segment table maps to physical addresses via entries having
 - Base, the starting physical address where the segments reside
 - 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 < 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 < segment-number, offset >
 - 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
 - Logical and physical addresses
 - Memory Management Unit (MMU)
 - Linking and loading

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