CSC 4103 - Operating Systems Spring 2007

LECTURE - XII
MAIN MEMORY - II

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Roadmap

- Dynamic Loading & Linking
- Contiguous Memory Allocation
- Fragmentation
- Paging
- Segmentation



Dynamic Loading

- Used to increase memory space utilization
- · A routine is not loaded until it is called
 - All routines do not need to be in memory all time
 - Unused routines never loaded
- Useful when large amounts of code are needed to handle infrequently occurring cases
- No special support from the operating system is required to implement
- When a routine needs to call another routine:
 - Caller first checks if that routine is already in memory
 - If not, loader is called
 - New routine is loaded, and program's address tables updated

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Dynamic Linking

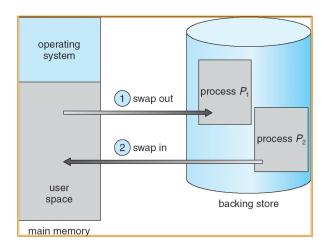
- Linking postponed until execution time
- Otherwise each program should have a copy of its language library in its executable image
- Small piece of code, *stub*, used to locate the appropriate memory-resident library routine or how to load it
- Stub replaces itself with the address of the routine, and executes the routine
- The next time, library routine is executed directly, without need to reload
- All processes that use a language library execute only one copy of the library code
- · Also useful for library updates and bug fixes
- · Dynamic linking requires support from OS

Swapping

- A process must be in memory for execution
- A process can be swapped temporarily out of memory to a backing store, and then brought back into memory for continued execution
- 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; lowerpriority process is swapped out so higher-priority process can be loaded and executed

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Schematic View of Swapping



Swapping (cont.)

- A swapped out process will be swapped back into the same memory space occupied previously.
- Ready queue: processes whose memory images are in the backing store or in memory and ready to run
- When the CPU decides to execute a process, it calls the dispatcher.
- The dispatcher checks if the process is in the memory.

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Swapping (cont.)

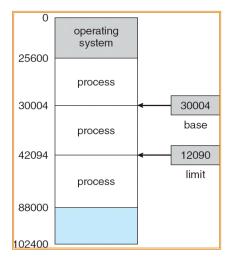
- Average swap time for a 10MB process
 → ~ ½ seconds
- Major part of swap time is transfer time; total transfer time is directly proportional to the amount of memory swapped
- Time quantum in multiprogramming should be substantially larger than swap time
- Modified versions of swapping are found on many systems (i.e., UNIX, Linux, and Windows)

Contiguous Allocation

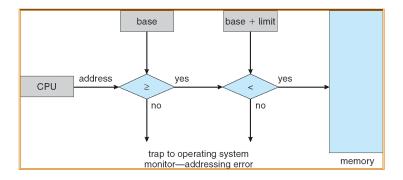
- Main memory usually divided into two partitions:
 - Resident operating system, usually held in low memory with interrupt vector
 - User processes then held in high memory
- Single-partition allocation
 - Relocation-register scheme used to protect user processes from each other, and from changing operating-system code and data
 - Relocation register contains value of smallest physical address; limit register contains range of logical addresses - each logical address must be less than the limit register

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A base and a limit register define a logical address space



HW address protection with base and limit registers



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Contiguous Allocation (Cont.)

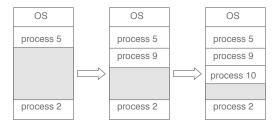
- Multiple-partition allocation
 - Divide memory into fixed-size partitions
 - Each partition contains exactly one process
 - The degree of multi programming is bound by the number of partitions
 - When a process terminates, the partition becomes available for other processes

→no longer in use

process 5
process 9
process 10
process 2

Contiguous Allocation (Cont.)

- Fixed-partition Scheme
 - When a process arrives, search for a hole large enough for this process
 - Hole block of available memory; holes of various size are scattered throughout memory
 - Allocate only as much memory as needed
 - Operating system maintains information about:
 a) allocated partitions
 b) free partitions (hole)



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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 (in average ~50% lost)
- Internal Fragmentation allocated memory may be slightly larger than requested memory; this size difference is memory internal to a partition, but not being used
- 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
 - Latch job in memory while it is involved in I/O
 - Do I/O only into OS buffers

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Paging

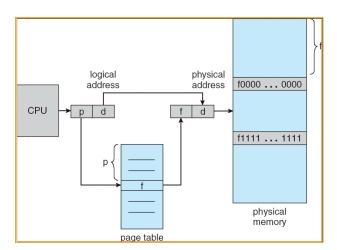
- Logical address space of a process can be noncontiguous; process is allocated physical memory whenever the latter is available
- Divide physical memory into fixed-sized blocks called frames (size is power of 2, between 512 bytes and 8192 bytes)
- Divide logical memory into blocks of same size called 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
- Internal fragmentation

Address Translation Scheme

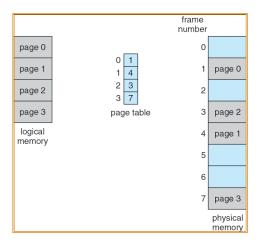
- Address generated by CPU is divided into:
 - Page number (p) used as an index into a page table which contains base address of each page in physical memory
 - Page offset (d) combined with base address to define the physical memory address that is sent to the memory unit

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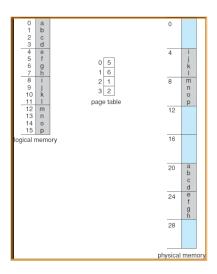
Address Translation Architecture



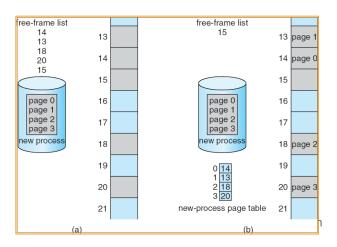




Paging Example



Free Frames



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Shared Pages

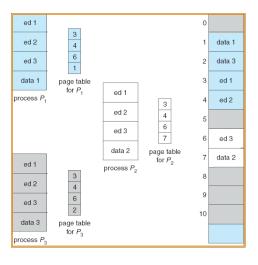
Shared code

- One copy of read-only (reentrant) code shared among processes (i.e., text editors, compilers, window systems).
- Shared code must appear in same location in the logical address space of all processes

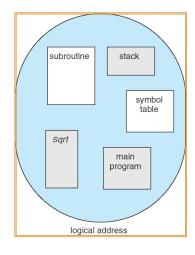
· Private code and data

- 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





User's View of a Program



Segmentation

- 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,
method,
object,
local variables, global variables,
common block,
stack,
symbol table, arrays
```

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Logical View of Segmentation 1 4 2 3 4 physical memory space

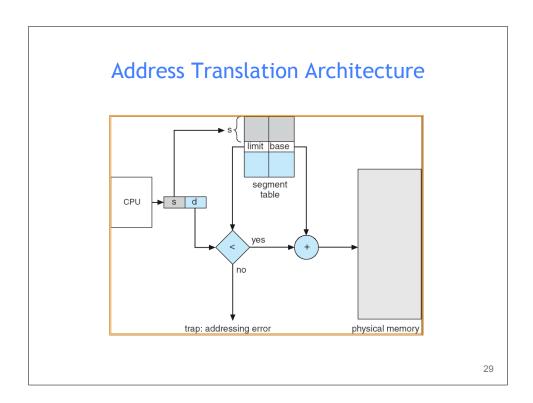
Segmentation Architecture

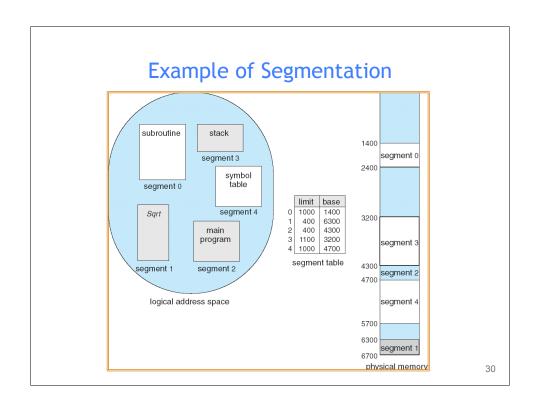
- Logical address consists of a two tuple: <segment-number, offset>,
- **Segment table** maps two-dimensional physical addresses; each table entry has:
 - base contains the starting physical address where the segments reside in memory
 - limit specifies the length of the segment
- Segment-table base 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

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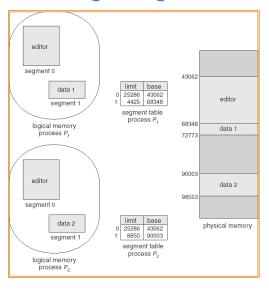
Segmentation Architecture (Cont.)

- Protection. With each entry in segment table associate:
 - validation bit = $0 \Rightarrow$ illegal segment
 - read/write/execute privileges
- Protection bits associated with segments; code sharing occurs at segment level
- Since segments vary in length, memory allocation is a dynamic storage-allocation problem
- A segmentation example is shown in the following diagram





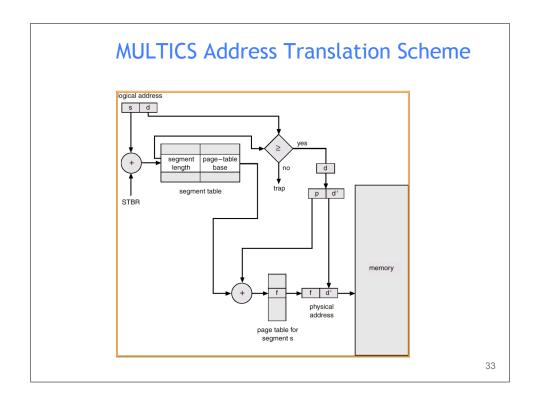
Sharing of Segments

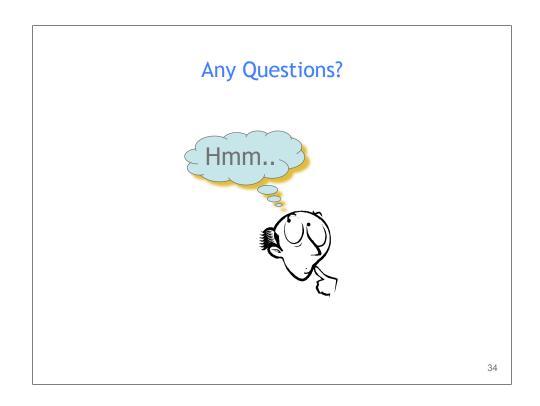


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Segmentation with Paging

 Modern architectures use segmentation with paging (or paged-segmentation) for memory management.





Reading Assignment

• Read chapter 8 from Silberschatz.

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Acknowledgements

• "Operating Systems Concepts" book and supplementary material by Silberschatz, Galvin and Gagne.