#### Recap

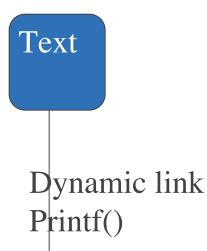
int m = m + 1; printf(" $m = %s\n", m$ );



Data (const)

- Need data storage space for m (modifiable)
- Need data storage space for "m = %s\n". This is a constant and not modifiable

Remember the memory hierarchy





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## **Contiguous Allocation**

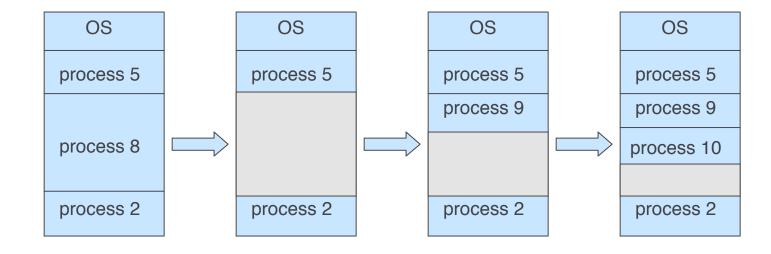
- Main memory usually into two partitions:
  - Resident operating system, usually held in low memory with interrupt vector
  - User processes then held in high memory
- Single-partition allocation
  - Relocation-register scheme used to protect user processes from each other, and from changing operating-system 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



## Contiguous Allocation (Cont.)

#### Multiple-partition allocation

- 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
- 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
- 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



#### Paging for noncontiguous allocation

- 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
- ▶ This scheme will create internal fragmentation

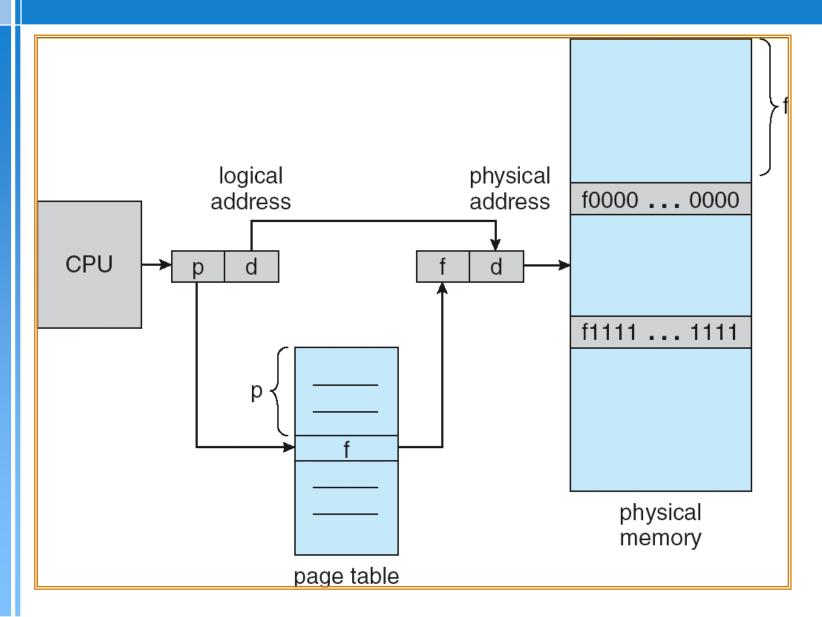


#### **Address Translation Scheme**

- 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

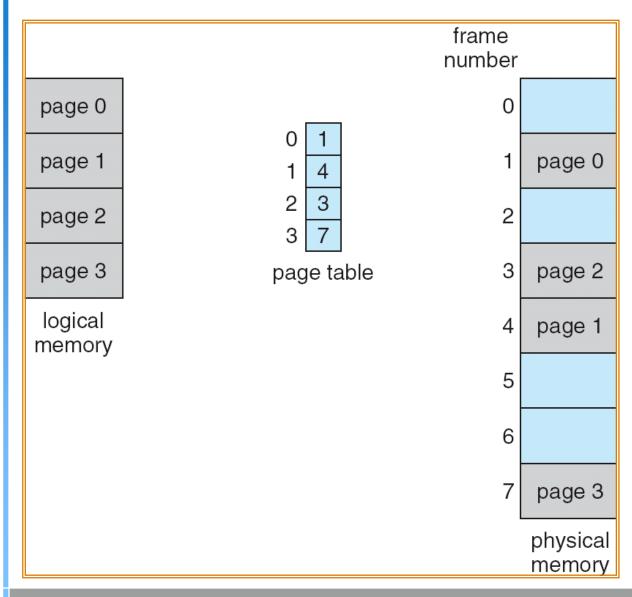


#### **Address Translation Architecture**



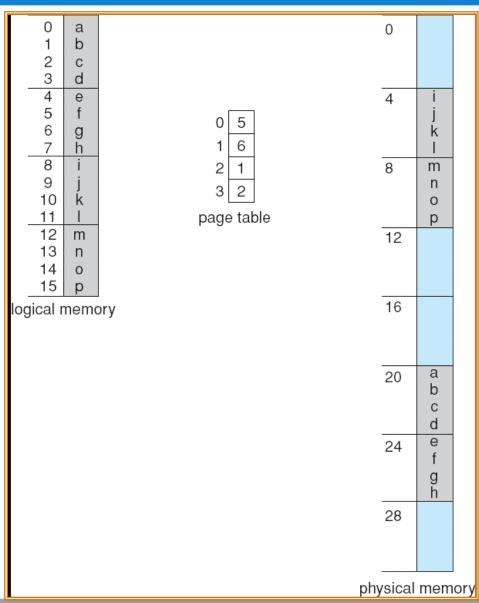


# Paging Example



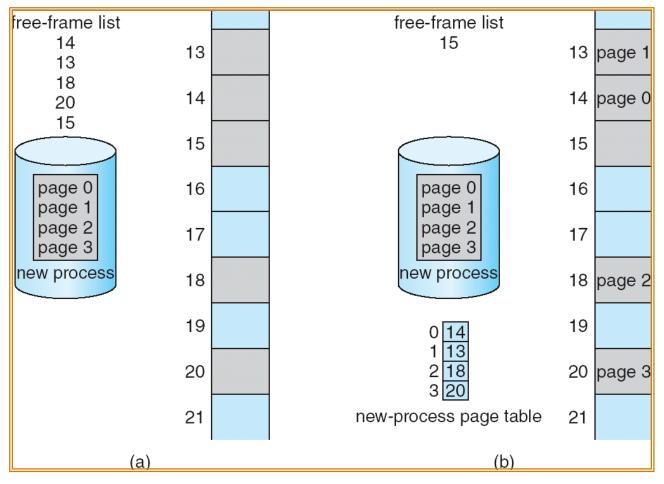


# Paging Example





## Free Frames



Before allocation

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 (PRLR) 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 associative memory or translation lookaside buffers (TLBs)



## **Associative Memory**

Associative memory – parallel search

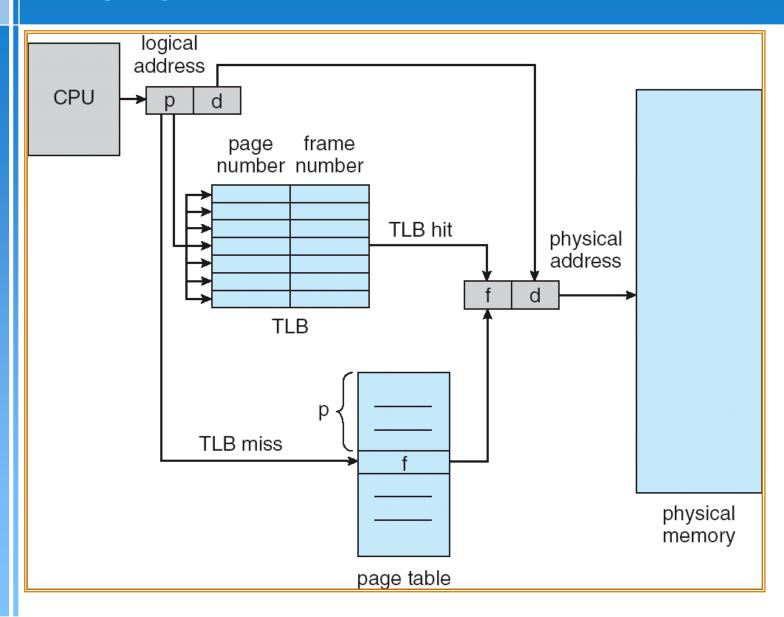
Page #	Frame #

#### Address translation (A', A'')

- If A´ is in associative register, get frame # out
- Otherwise get frame # from page table in memory



# Paging Hardware With TLB





#### **Effective Access Time**

- Associative Lookup =  $\varepsilon$  time unit
- Assume memory cycle time is 1 microsecond
- ▶ Hit ratio percentage of times that a page number is found in the associative registers; ration related to number of associative registers
- Hit ratio =  $\alpha$
- Effective Access Time (EAT)

EAT = 
$$(1 + \varepsilon) \alpha + (2 + \varepsilon)(1 - \alpha)$$
  
=  $2 + \varepsilon - \alpha$ 



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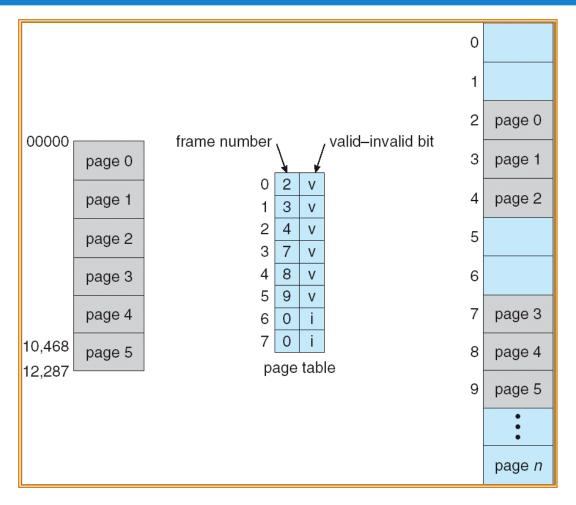
page 15

#### **Memory Protection**

- Memory protection implemented by associating protection bit with each frame
- 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



# Valid (v) or Invalid (i) Bit In A Page Table





#### Page Table Structure

- Problem is that page tables are per-process structure and they can be large. Discuss for 64 bit architecture.
- Hierarchical Paging
- Hashed Page Tables
- Inverted Page Tables



# Hierarchical Page Tables

Break up the logical address space into multiple page tables

▶ A simple technique is a two-level page table



#### Two-Level Paging Example

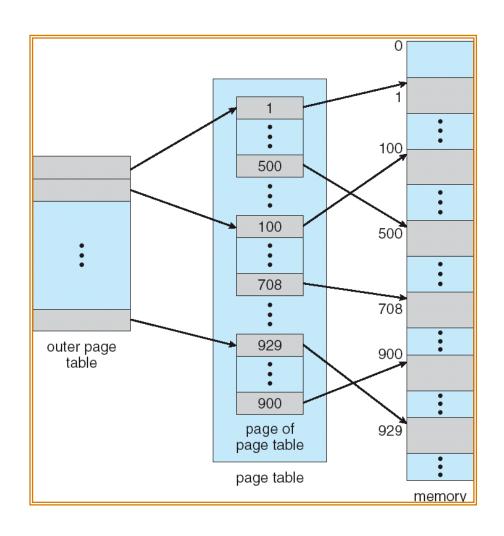
- A logical address (on 32-bit machine with 4K page size) is divided into:
  - a page number consisting of 20 bits
  - a page offset consisting of 12 bits
- Since the page table is paged, the page number is further divided into:
  - a 10-bit page number
  - a 10-bit page offset
- ▶ Thus, a logical address is as follows:

page number			page offset
	$p_{\rm i}$	$p_2$	d
	10	10	12

where  $p_i$  is an index into the outer page table, and  $p_2$  is the displacement within the page of the outer page table



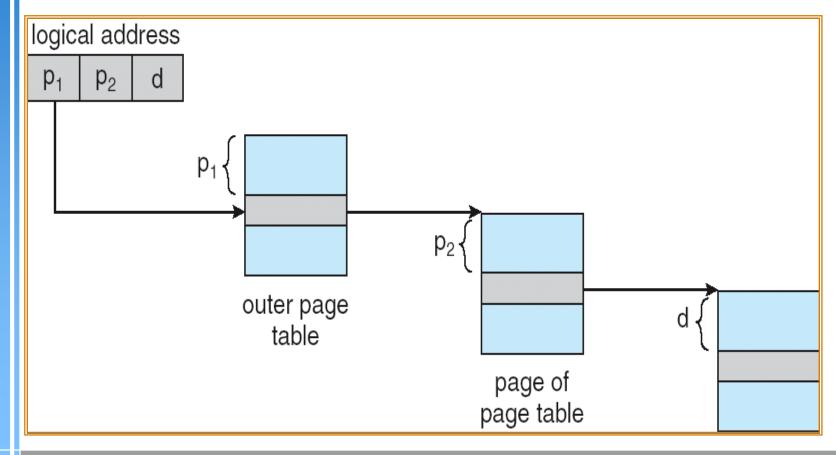
# Two-Level Page-Table Scheme





#### Address-Translation Scheme

Address-translation scheme for a two-level 32-bit paging architecture



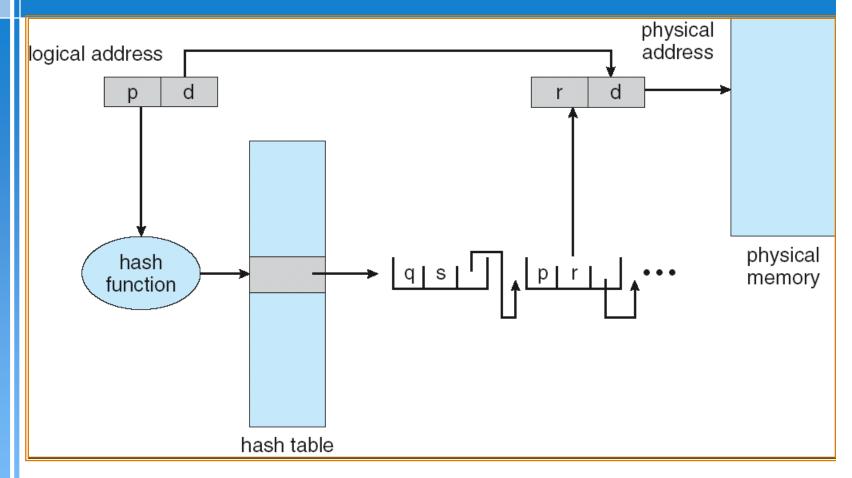


#### Hashed Page Tables

- Common in address spaces > 32 bits
- The virtual page number is hashed into a page table. This page table contains a chain of elements hashing to the same location.
- Virtual page numbers are compared in this chain searching for a match. If a match is found, the corresponding physical frame is extracted.



# Hashed Page Table



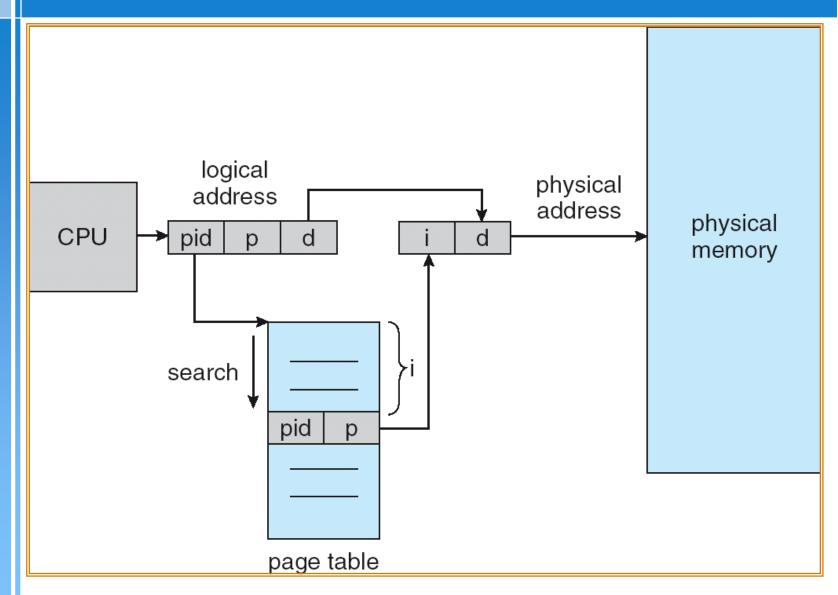


#### Inverted Page Table

- One entry for each real page of memory
- Entry consists of the virtual address of the page stored in that real memory location, with information about the process that owns that page
- Decreases memory needed to store each page table, but increases time needed to search the table when a page reference occurs
- Use hash table to limit the search to one or at most a few — page-table entries



# Inverted Page Table Architecture





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#### Shared Pages

#### Shared code

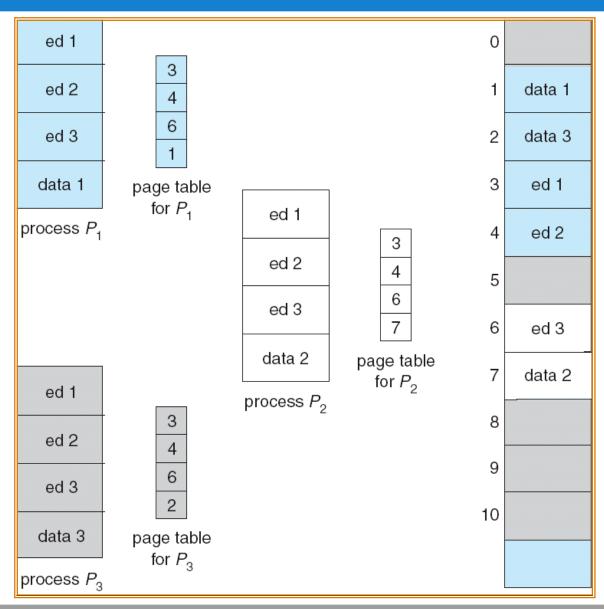
- One copy of read-only (reentrant) code shared among processes (i.e., text editors, compilers, window systems).
- Shared code must appear in same location in the logical address space of all processes

#### 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



# Shared Pages Example





#### 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,

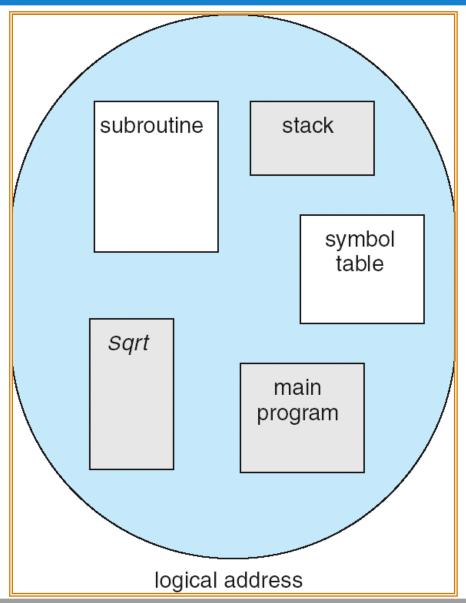
common block,

stack,

symbol table, arrays

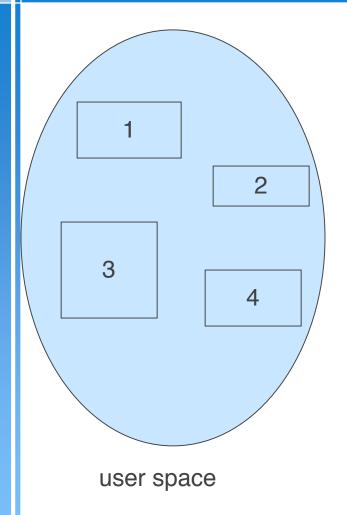


# User's View of a Program





# Logical View of Segmentation





physical memory space

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#### 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</p>



## Segmentation Architecture (Cont.)

#### Relocation.

- dynamic
- by segment table

#### Sharing.

- shared segments
- same segment number

#### Allocation.

- first fit/best fit
- external fragmentation

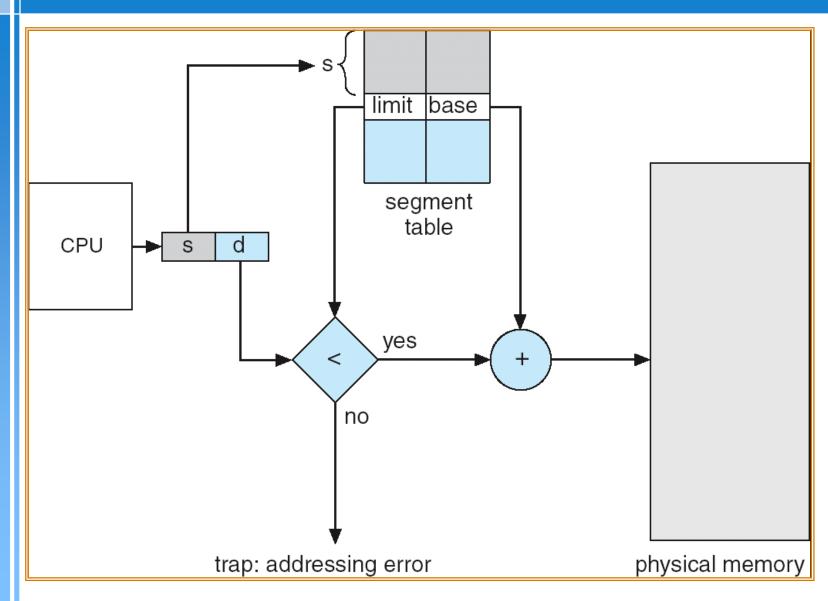


#### Segmentation Architecture (Cont.)

- 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

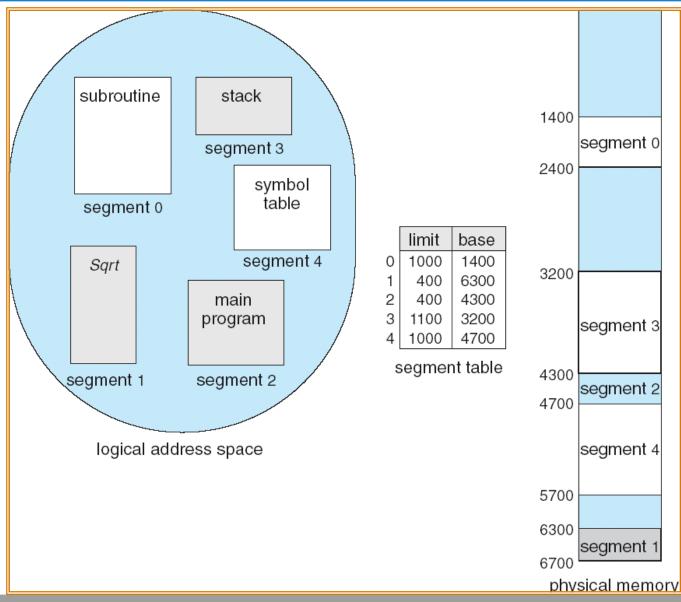


#### **Address Translation Architecture**



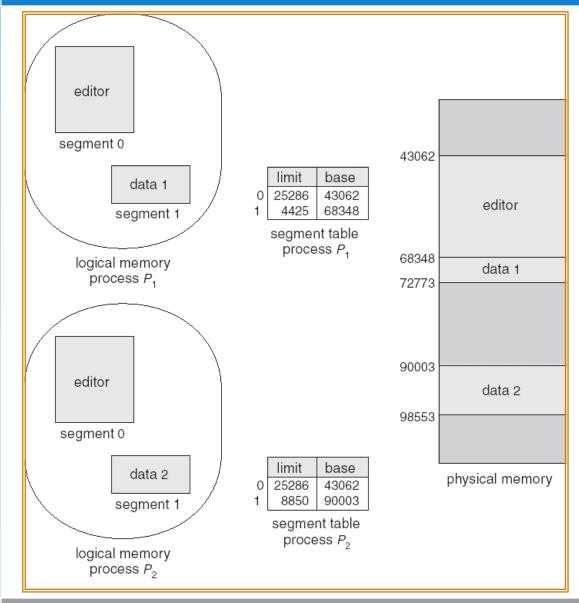


## Example of Segmentation





# **Sharing of Segments**



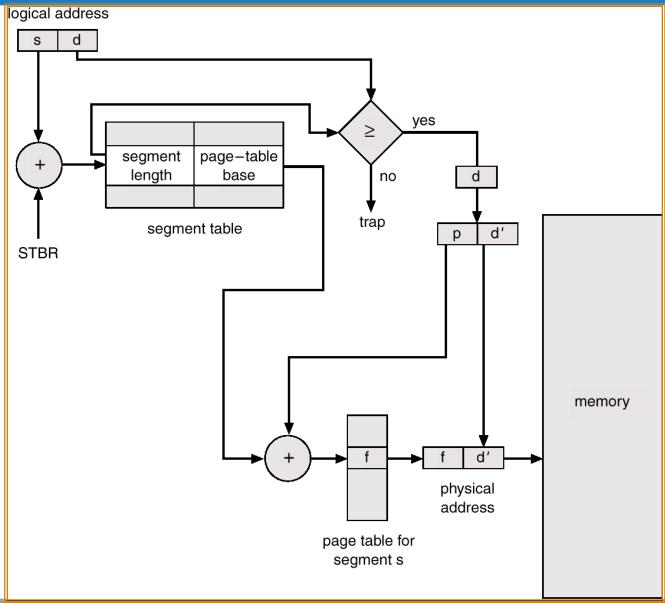


## Segmentation with Paging – MULTICS

- The MULTICS system solved problems of external fragmentation and lengthy search times by paging the segments
- Solution differs from pure segmentation in that the segment-table entry contains not the base address of the segment, but rather the base address of a page table for this segment



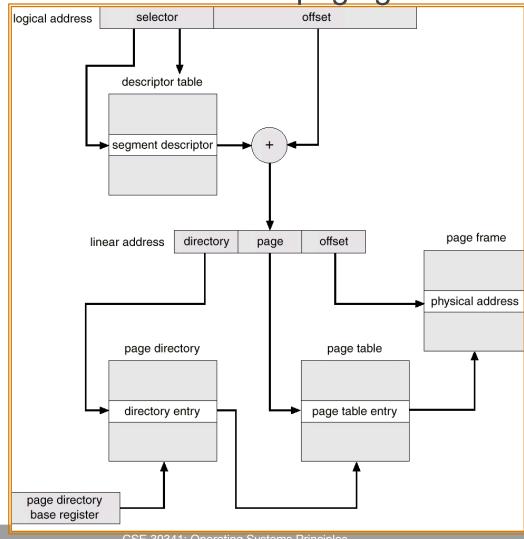
#### **MULTICS Address Translation Scheme**





#### Intel 30386 Address Translation

segmentation with paging for memory management with a two-level paging scheme





#### Linux on Intel 80x86

- Uses minimal segmentation to keep memory management implementation more portable
- Uses 6 segments:
  - Kernel code
  - Kernel data
  - User code (shared by all user processes, using logical addresses)
  - User data (likewise shared)
  - Task-state (per-process hardware context)
  - LDT

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- Uses 2 protection levels:
  - Kernel mode
  - User mode

