

Lecture 9

Main Memory II

Lecture Information

Ceng328 *Operating Systems* at April 20, 2010

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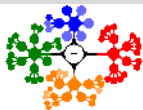
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Dr. Cem Özdoğan
Computer Engineering Department
Çankaya University

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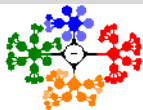
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Basic Method

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- The process of associating program instructions and data to physical memory addresses is called *address binding*, or *relocation*.



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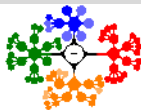
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- The process of associating program instructions and data to physical memory addresses is called *address binding*, or *relocation*.
- Addresses may be represented in different ways during these steps.



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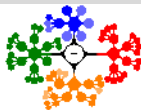
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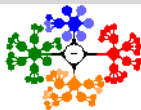
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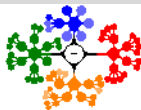
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 - A compiler will typically bind these symbolic addresses to **relocatable addresses** (such as "14 bytes from the beginning of this module").
 - The linkage editor or loader will in turn bind the **relocatable addresses** to **absolute addresses** (such as 74014).
 - Each binding is a mapping from one address space to another.



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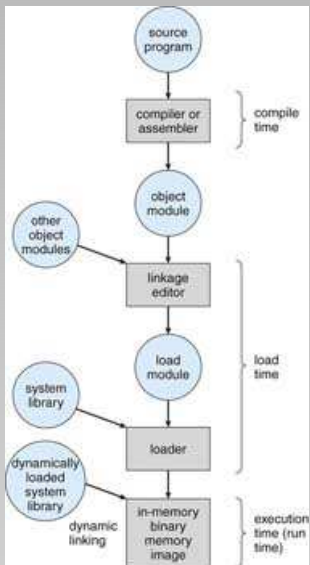
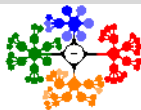


Figure: Multistep processing of a user program.



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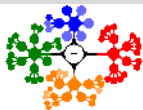
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Logical Versus Physical Address Space

- An address generated by the CPU is commonly referred to as a **logical address**,



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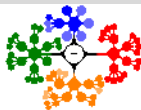
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- An address generated by the CPU is commonly referred to as a **logical address**,
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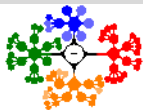
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- The compile-time and load-time address-binding methods generate identical logical and physical addresses.



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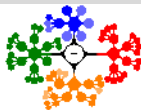
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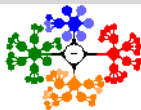
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- In this case, we usually refer to the logical address as a **virtual address**.



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- However the execution-time address-binding scheme results in differing logical and physical addresses.
- In this case, we usually refer to the logical address as a **virtual address**.
- The run-time mapping from virtual to physical addresses is done by a hardware device called the **memory-management unit (MMU)**.



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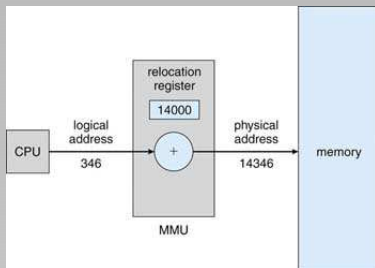
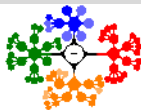


Figure: Dynamic relocation using a relocation register.

- A simple MMU scheme, which is a generalization of the base-register scheme (see Fig. 2)).



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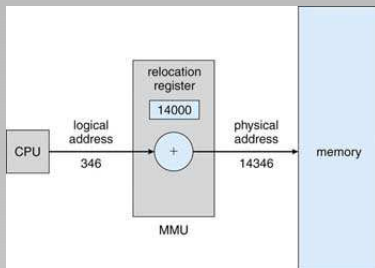
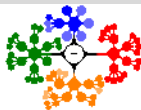


Figure: Dynamic relocation using a relocation register.

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 - The base register is now called a **relocation register**.



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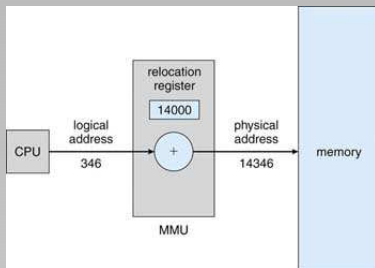
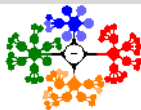


Figure: Dynamic relocation using a relocation register.

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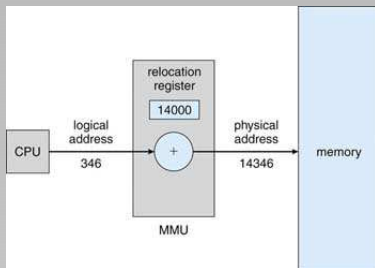
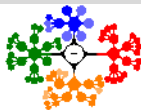


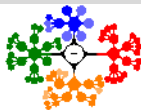
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 - The base register is now called a **relocation register**.
 - The value in the relocation register is added to every address generated by a user process at the time it is sent to memory
- The concept of a logical address space that is bound to a separate physical address space is central to proper memory management.



Swapping I

- A process can be **swapped** temporarily out of memory to a backing store (disk) and then brought back into memory for continued execution.



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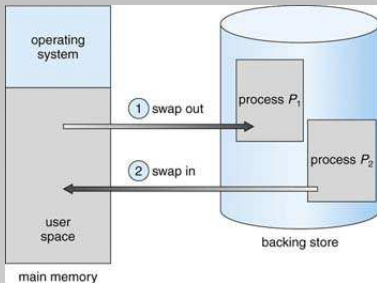
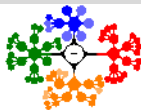


Figure: Swapping of two processes using a disk as a backing store.



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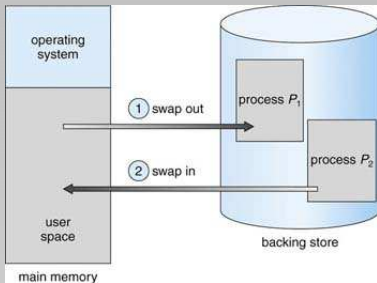
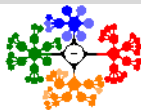


Figure: Swapping of two processes using a disk as a backing store.

- The quantum must be large enough to allow reasonable amounts of computing to be done between swaps.



Swapping II

- Normally, a process that is swapped out will be swapped back into the same memory space it occupied previously.



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Swapping III

- For efficient CPU utilization, we want *the execution time for each process to be long relative to the swap time.*



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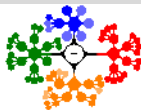
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Swapping III

- For efficient CPU utilization, we want *the execution time for each process to be long relative to the swap time.*
- Thus, the time quantum should be substantially larger than 0.516 seconds.



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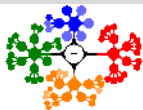
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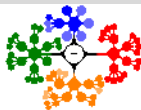
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- For efficient CPU utilization, we want *the execution time for each process to be long relative to the swap time.*
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- Notice that the major part of the swap time is transfer time.



Swapping III

- For efficient CPU utilization, we want *the execution time for each process to be long relative to the swap time*.
- Thus, the time quantum should be substantially larger than 0.516 seconds.
- Notice that the major part of the swap time is transfer time.
- **Generally, swap space is allocated as a chunk of disk, separate from the file system, so that its use is as fast as possible.**



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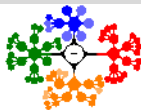
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- **Currently, standard swapping is used in few systems. A modification of swapping is used in many versions of UNIX.**



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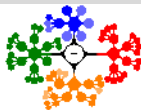
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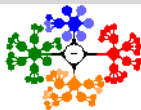
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- Currently, standard swapping is used in few systems. A modification of swapping is used in many versions of UNIX.
 - Swapping is normally disabled but will start if many processes are running and are using a threshold amount of memory.
 - **Swapping is again halted when the load on the system is reduced.**



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Memory Mapping and Protection I

- We need to consider how to allocate available memory to the processes that are in the input queue waiting to be brought into memory.



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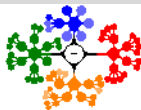
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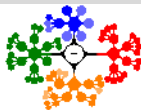
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- With **relocation** and **limit** registers, each logical address must be less than the limit register;



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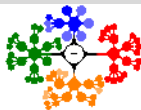
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- In the contiguous memory allocation, each process is contained in a single contiguous section of memory.
- With **relocation** and **limit** registers, each logical address must be less than the limit register;
- The MMU maps the logical address dynamically by adding the value in the relocation register. This mapped address is sent to memory (see Fig. 4).

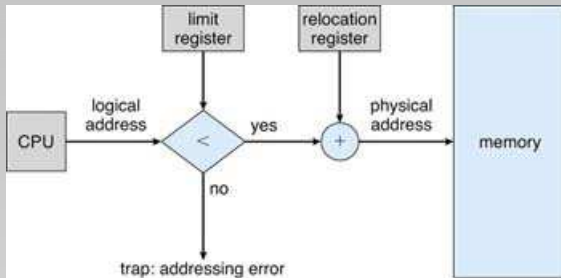
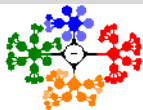


Figure: Hardware support for relocation and limit registers.

Memory Mapping and Protection II

- When the CPU scheduler selects a process for execution, the dispatcher loads the relocation and limit registers with the correct values as part of the context switch.



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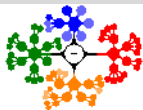
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- When the CPU scheduler selects a process for execution, the dispatcher loads the relocation and limit registers with the correct values as part of the context switch.
- The relocation-register scheme provides an effective way to allow the OS size to change dynamically.

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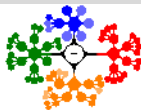
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Memory Mapping and Protection II

- When the CPU scheduler selects a process for execution, the dispatcher loads the relocation and limit registers with the correct values as part of the context switch.
- The relocation-register scheme provides an effective way to allow the OS size to change dynamically.
- For example, the OS contains code and buffer space for device drivers.



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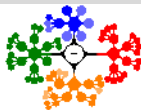
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- The relocation-register scheme provides an effective way to allow the OS size to change dynamically.
- For example, the OS contains code and buffer space for device drivers.
 - If a device driver (or other OS service) is not commonly used, we do not want to keep the code and data in memory.

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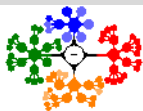
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Memory Mapping and Protection II



- When the CPU scheduler selects a process for execution, the dispatcher loads the relocation and limit registers with the correct values as part of the context switch.
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- For example, the OS contains code and buffer space for device drivers.
 - If a device driver (or other OS service) is not commonly used, we do not want to keep the code and data in memory.
 - Such code is sometimes called **transient OS code**; it comes and goes as needed.

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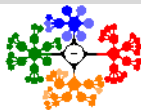
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- The relocation-register scheme provides an effective way to allow the OS size to change dynamically.
- For example, the OS contains code and buffer space for device drivers.
 - If a device driver (or other OS service) is not commonly used, we do not want to keep the code and data in memory.
 - Such code is sometimes called **transient** OS code; it comes and goes as needed.
 - Thus, using this code changes the size of the OS during program execution.

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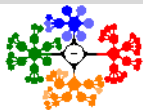
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- One of the simplest methods for allocating memory is to divide memory into several fixed-sized partitions.

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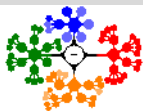
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- One of the simplest methods for allocating memory is to divide memory into several fixed-sized partitions.
- Each partition may contain exactly one process.

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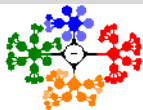
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Basic Method

Hardware

- One of the simplest methods for allocating memory is to divide memory into several fixed-sized partitions.
- Each partition may contain exactly one process.
- Thus, the *degree of multiprogramming* is bound by the number of partitions.



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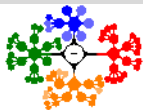
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- One of the simplest methods for allocating memory is to divide memory into several fixed-sized partitions.
- Each partition may contain exactly one process.
- Thus, the *degree of multiprogramming* is bound by the number of partitions.
- In this **multiple-partition** method,



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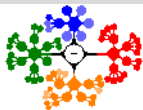
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Basic Method

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- Each partition may contain exactly one process.
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- In this **multiple-partition** method,
 - When a partition is free, a process is selected from the input queue and is loaded into the free partition.

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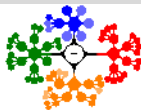
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Basic Method

Hardware



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- Each partition may contain exactly one process.
- Thus, the *degree of multiprogramming* is bound by the number of partitions.
- In this **multiple-partition** method,
 - When a partition is free, a process is selected from the input queue and is loaded into the free partition.
 - When the process terminates, the partition becomes available for another process.

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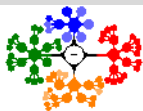
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Basic Method

Hardware



- One of the simplest methods for allocating memory is to divide memory into several fixed-sized partitions.
- Each partition may contain exactly one process.
- Thus, the *degree of multiprogramming* is bound by the number of partitions.
- In this **multiple-partition** method,
 - When a partition is free, a process is selected from the input queue and is loaded into the free partition.
 - When the process terminates, the partition becomes available for another process.
- This method is no longer in use.

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Memory Allocation II

- The next method is a generalization of the fixed-partition scheme (called MVT, Multiprogramming with Variable Partitions).



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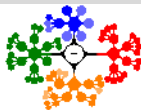
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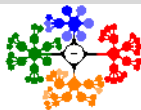
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- The next method is a generalization of the fixed-partition scheme (called MVT, Multiprogramming with Variable Partitions).
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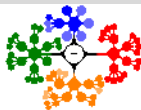
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 - Initially, all memory is available for user processes and is considered one large block of available memory, a hole.



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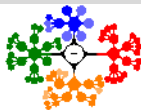
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 - **When a process arrives and needs memory, we search for a hole large enough for this process.**



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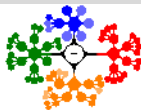
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 - When a process arrives and needs memory, we search for a hole large enough for this process.
 - **If we find one, we allocate only as much memory as is needed, keeping the rest available to satisfy future requests.**



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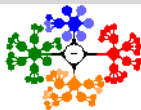
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Basic Method

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- In the fixed-partition scheme,
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 - Initially, all memory is available for user processes and is considered one large block of available memory, a hole.
 - When a process arrives and needs Mapping memory, we search for a hole large enough for this process.
 - If we find one, we allocate only as much memory as is needed, keeping the rest available to satisfy future requests.
- At any given time, we have a list of available block sizes and the input queue.



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 - When a process arrives and needs Mapping memory, we search for a hole large enough for this process.
 - If we find one, we allocate only as much memory as is needed, keeping the rest available to satisfy future requests.
- At any given time, we have a list of available block sizes and the input queue.
- The OS can order the input queue according to a scheduling algorithm.



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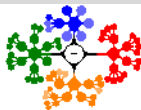
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Memory Allocation III

- This procedure is a particular instance of the general **dynamic storage-allocation** problem, which concerns how to satisfy a request of size n from a list of free holes. There are many solutions to this problem.



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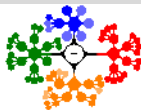
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Memory Allocation III

- This procedure is a particular instance of the general **dynamic storage-allocation** problem, which concerns how to satisfy a request of size n from a list of free holes. There are many solutions to this problem.
 - **First fit.** Allocate the first hole that is big enough. Searching can start either at the beginning of the set of holes or where the previous first-fit search ended. We can stop searching as soon as we find a free hole that is large enough.



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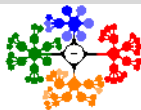
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 - **Best fit.** Allocate the smallest hole that is big enough. We must search the entire list, unless the list is ordered by size. This strategy produces the *smallest leftover hole*.



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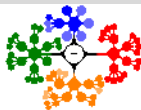
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 - **Worst fit.** Allocate the largest hole. Again, we must search the entire list, unless it is sorted by size. This strategy produces the *largest leftover hole*, which may be more useful than the smaller leftover hole from a best-fit approach.



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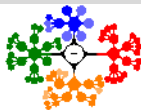
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- Simulations have shown that both first fit and best fit are better than worst fit in terms of decreasing time and storage utilization.



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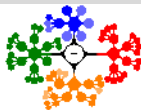
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 - **Worst fit.** Allocate the largest hole. Again, we must search the entire list, unless it is sorted by size. This strategy produces the *largest leftover hole*, which may be more useful than the smaller leftover hole from a best-fit approach.
- Simulations have shown that both first fit and best fit are better than worst fit in terms of decreasing time and storage utilization.
- **Neither first fit nor best fit is clearly better than the other in terms of storage utilization, but first fit is generally faster.**



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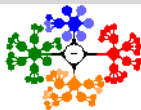
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Fragmentation I

- Both the first-fit and best-fit strategies for memory allocation suffer from **external fragmentation**.



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Fragmentation I

- Both the first-fit and best-fit strategies for memory allocation suffer from **external fragmentation**.
- External fragmentation exists when there is enough total memory space to satisfy a request, but the available spaces are not contiguous.



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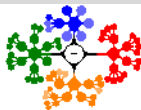
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Fragmentation I

- Both the first-fit and best-fit strategies for memory allocation suffer from **external fragmentation**.
- External fragmentation exists when there is enough total memory space to satisfy a request, but the available spaces are not contiguous.
- **Storage is fragmented into a large number of small holes.**



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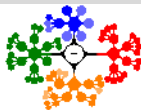
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Fragmentation I

- Both the first-fit and best-fit strategies for memory allocation suffer from **external fragmentation**.
- External fragmentation exists when there is enough total memory space to satisfy a request, but the available spaces are not contiguous.
- Storage is fragmented into a large number of small holes.
- **Memory fragmentation can be internal as well as external.**



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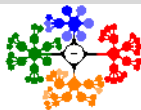
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Fragmentation I

- Both the first-fit and best-fit strategies for memory allocation suffer from **external fragmentation**.
- External fragmentation exists when there is enough total memory space to satisfy a request, but the available spaces are not contiguous.
- Storage is fragmented into a large number of small holes.
- Memory fragmentation can be **internal** as well as external.
 - Consider a multiple-partition allocation scheme with a hole of 18,464 bytes.



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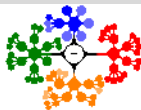
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Fragmentation I

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- External fragmentation exists when there is enough total memory space to satisfy a request, but the available spaces are not contiguous.
- Storage is fragmented into a large number of small holes.
- Memory fragmentation can be **internal** as well as external.
 - Consider a multiple-partition allocation scheme with a hole of 18,464 bytes.
 - **Suppose that the next process requests 18,462 bytes.**



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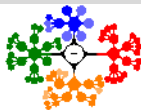
Segmentation

Basic Method

Hardware

Fragmentation I

- Both the first-fit and best-fit strategies for memory allocation suffer from **external fragmentation**.
- External fragmentation exists when there is enough total memory space to satisfy a request, but the available spaces are not contiguous.
- Storage is fragmented into a large number of small holes.
- Memory fragmentation can be **internal** as well as external.
 - Consider a multiple-partition allocation scheme with a hole of 18,464 bytes.
 - Suppose that the next process requests 18,462 bytes.
 - **If we allocate exactly the requested block, we are left with a hole of 2 bytes.**



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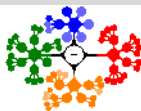
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Basic Method

Hardware

Fragmentation I

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 - Consider a multiple-partition allocation scheme with a hole of 18,464 bytes.
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 - If we allocate exactly the requested block, we are left with a hole of 2 bytes.
 - **The difference between these two numbers is internal fragmentation; memory that is internal to a partition but is not being used.**



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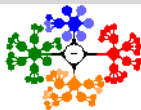
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- External fragmentation exists when there is enough total memory space to satisfy a request, but the available spaces are not contiguous.
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 - Consider a multiple-partition allocation scheme with a hole of 18,464 bytes.
 - Suppose that the next process requests 18,462 bytes.
 - If we allocate exactly the requested block, we are left with a hole of 2 bytes.
 - The difference between these two numbers is internal fragmentation; memory that is internal to a partition but is not being used.
- The general approach to avoiding this problem is to break the physical memory into fixed-sized blocks and allocate memory in units based on block size.



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- One solution to the problem of external fragmentation is **compaction**.



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- One solution to the problem of external fragmentation is **compaction**.
- The goal is to shuffle the memory contents so as to place all free memory together in one large block.



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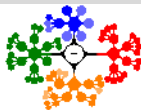
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- One solution to the problem of external fragmentation is **compaction**.
- The goal is to shuffle the memory contents so as to place all free memory together in one large block.
- Another possible solution to the external-fragmentation problem is to permit the logical address space of the processes to be **non-contiguous**, thus allowing a process to be allocated physical memory wherever the latter is available.



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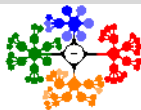
Shared Pages

Segmentation

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Hardware

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- Two complementary techniques achieve this solution:



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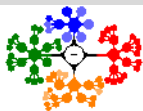
Protection

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 - **paging**

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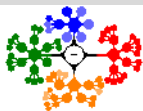
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- Two complementary techniques achieve this solution:
 - paging
 - **segmentation**

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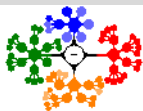
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- Two complementary techniques achieve this solution:
 - paging
 - segmentation
- These techniques can also be combined.

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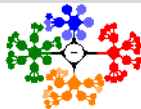
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- Paging is a memory-management scheme that permits the physical address space of a process to be non-contiguous.



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- Paging is a memory-management scheme that permits the physical address space of a process to be non-contiguous.
- Paging avoids the considerable problem of fitting memory chunks of varying sizes onto the backing store.



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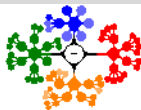
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Hardware

- Paging is a memory-management scheme that permits the physical address space of a process to be non-contiguous.
- Paging avoids the considerable problem of fitting memory chunks of varying sizes onto the backing store.
- The backing store also has the fragmentation problems discussed in connection with main memory, except that access is much slower, so compaction is impossible!



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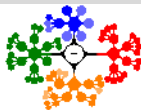
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- **Because of its advantages over earlier methods, paging in its various forms is commonly used in most OSs.**



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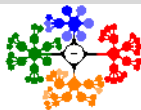
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- Because of its advantages over earlier methods, paging in its various forms is commonly used in most OSs.
- **Traditionally, support for paging has been handled by hardware.**



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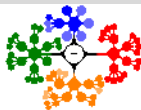
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Hardware

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- Because of its advantages over earlier methods, paging in its various forms is commonly used in most OSs.
- Traditionally, support for paging has been handled by hardware.
- However, recent designs have implemented paging by closely integrating the hardware and OS, especially on 64-bit microprocessors.



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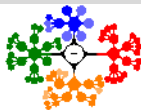
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Basic Method I

- The basic method for implementing paging involves



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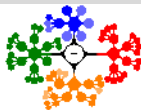
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Basic Method I

- The basic method for implementing paging involves
 - breaking physical memory into fixed-sized blocks called frames



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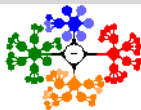
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Basic Method I

- The basic method for implementing paging involves
 - breaking physical memory into fixed-sized blocks called frames
 - breaking logical memory into blocks of the same size called pages.



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Basic Method I

- The basic method for implementing paging involves
 - breaking physical memory into fixed-sized blocks called frames
 - breaking logical memory into blocks of the same size called pages.
- *The backing store is divided into fixed-sized blocks that are of the same size as the memory frames.*

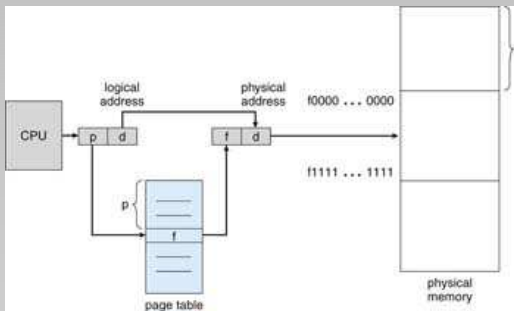
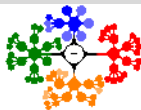


Figure: Paging hardware.



Basic Method I

- The basic method for implementing paging involves
 - breaking physical memory into fixed-sized blocks called frames
 - breaking logical memory into blocks of the same size called pages.
- *The backing store is divided into fixed-sized blocks that are of the same size as the memory frames.*

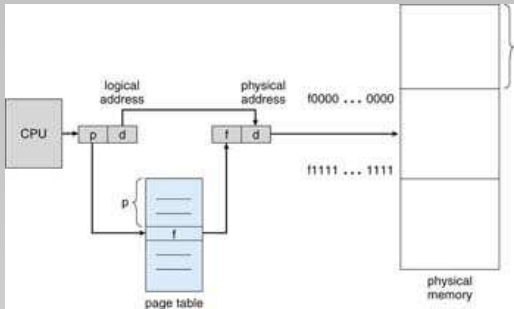


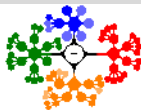
Figure: Paging hardware.

- The hardware support for paging is illustrated in Fig. 5.



Basic Method II

- Every address generated by the CPU is divided into two parts: a **page number** (p) and a **page offset** (d).



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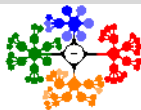
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Basic Method II

- Every address generated by the CPU is divided into two parts: a **page number** (p) and a **page offset** (d).
- The page number is used as an index into a page table.



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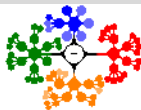
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Basic Method II

- Every address generated by the CPU is divided into two parts: a **page number** (p) and a **page offset** (d).
- The page number is used as an index into a page table.
- **The page table contains the base address of each page in physical memory.**



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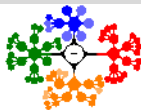
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- The page number is used as an index into a page table.
- The page table contains the base address of each page in physical memory.
- This base address is combined with the page offset to define the physical memory address.



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Basic Method II

- Every address generated by the CPU is divided into two parts: a **page number** (p) and a **page offset** (d).
- The page number is used as an index into a page table.
- The page table contains the base address of each page in physical memory.
- This base address is combined with the page offset to define the physical memory address.
- **The paging model of memory is shown in Fig. 6.**

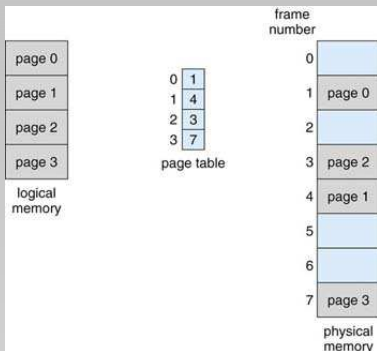
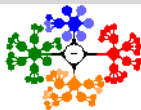


Figure: Paging model of logical and physical memory.

- The size of a page is typically a power of 2, varying between 512 bytes and 16 MB per page, depending on the computer architecture.



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- The size of a page is typically a power of 2, varying between 512 bytes and 16 MB per page, depending on the computer architecture.
- Consider the memory in Fig. 7. It is shown that how the user's view of memory can be mapped into physical memory.



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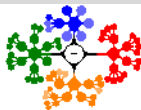
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- Consider the memory in Fig. 7. It is shown that how the user's view of memory can be mapped into physical memory.
 - Using a page size of 4 bytes and a physical memory of 32 bytes (8 pages).



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 - Using a page size of 4 bytes and a physical memory of 32 bytes (8 pages).
 - Logical address 0 is page 0, offset 0. Indexing into the page table, we find that page 0 is in frame 5. Thus, logical address 0 maps to physical address 20 ($= (5 \times 4) + 0$).



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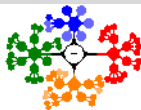
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 - Logical address 3 (page 0, offset 3) maps to physical address 23 ($= (5 \times 4) + 3$).



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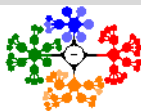
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 - Using a page size of 4 bytes and a physical memory of 32 bytes (8 pages).
 - Logical address 0 is page 0, offset 0. Indexing into the page table, we find that page 0 is in frame 5. Thus, logical address 0 maps to physical address 20 ($= (5 \times 4) + 0$).
 - Logical address 3 (page 0, offset 3) maps to physical address 23 ($= (5 \times 4) + 3$).
 - Logical address 4 is page 1, offset 0; according to the page table, page 1 is mapped to frame 6. Thus, logical address 4 maps to physical address 24 ($= (6 \times 4) + 0$).



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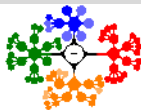
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 - Logical address 3 (page 0, offset 3) maps to physical address 23 ($= (5 \times 4) + 3$).
 - Logical address 4 is page 1, offset 0; according to the page table, page 1 is mapped to frame 6. Thus, logical address 4 maps to physical address 24 ($= (6 \times 4) + 0$).
 - **Logical address 13 maps to physical address 9.**



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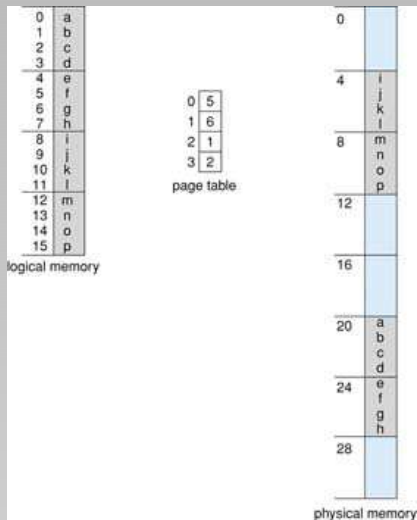
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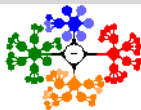
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Figure: Paging example for a 32-byte memory with 4-byte pages.

- Using paging is similar to using a table of base (or relocation) registers, one for each frame of memory.



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- Using paging is similar to using a table of base (or relocation) registers, one for each frame of memory.
- When we use a paging scheme, we have no external fragmentation:



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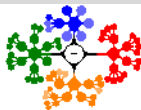
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- Using paging is similar to using a table of base (or relocation) registers, one for each frame of memory.
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 - Any free frame can be allocated to a process that needs it.



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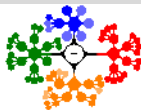
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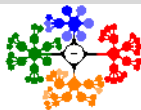
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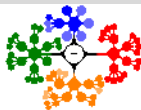
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- If the memory requirements of a process do not happen to coincide with page boundaries, the last frame allocated may not be completely full.
- For example, if page size is 2,048 bytes, a process of 72,766 bytes would need 35 pages plus 1,086 bytes.



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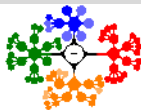
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- For example, if page size is 2,048 bytes, a process of 72,766 bytes would need 35 pages plus 1,086 bytes.
- It would be allocated 36 frames, resulting in an internal fragmentation of $2,048 - 1,086 = 962$ bytes.



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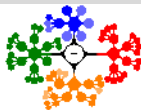
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- For example, if page size is 2,048 bytes, a process of 72,766 bytes would need 35 pages plus 1,086 bytes.
- It would be allocated 36 frames, resulting in an internal fragmentation of $2,048 - 1,086 = 962$ bytes.
- In the worst case, a process would need n pages plus 1 byte. It would be allocated $n + 1$ frames, resulting in an internal fragmentation of almost an entire frame.



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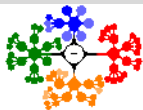
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- What about page size?

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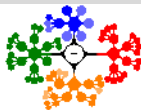
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- What about page size?
- Generally, page sizes have grown over time as processes, data sets, and main memory have become larger.

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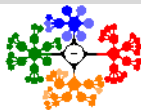
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- What about page size?
- Generally, page sizes have grown over time as processes, data sets, and main memory have become larger.
- Today, pages typically are between 4 KB and 8 KB in size, and some systems support even larger page sizes.

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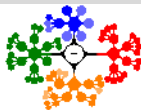
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- Generally, page sizes have grown over time as processes, data sets, and main memory have become larger.
- Today, pages typically are between 4 KB and 8 KB in size, and some systems support even larger page sizes.
- Usually, each page-table entry is 4 bytes long, but that size can vary as well. A 32-bit entry can point to one of 2^{32} physical page frames.



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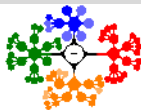
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- Usually, each page-table entry is 4 bytes long, but that size can vary as well. A 32-bit entry can point to one of 2^{32} physical page frames.
- If frame size is 4 KB, then a system with 4-byte entries can address 2^{44} ($4KB * 2^{32}$) bytes (or 16 TB) of physical memory.

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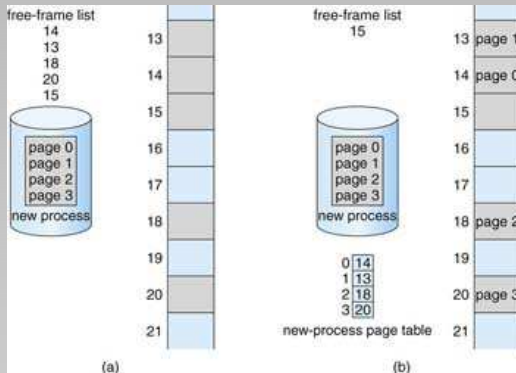
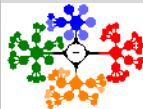


Figure: Free frames (a) before allocation and (b) after allocation.

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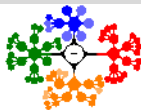
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- An important aspect of paging is the clear separation between the user's view of memory and the actual physical memory.



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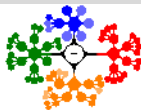
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- An important aspect of paging is the clear separation between the user's view of memory and the actual physical memory.
- The logical addresses are translated into physical addresses by the address-translation hardware.



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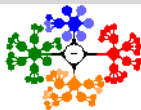
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- An important aspect of paging is the clear separation between the user's view of memory and the actual physical memory.
- The logical addresses are translated into physical addresses by the address-translation hardware.
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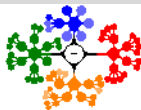
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- **Since the OS is managing physical memory, it must be aware of the allocation details of physical memory**



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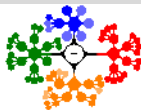
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 - which frames are allocated,



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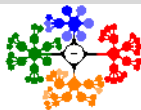
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 - which frames are allocated,
 - which frames are available,



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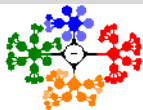
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 - which frames are allocated,
 - which frames are available,
 - **how many total frames there are, and so on.**



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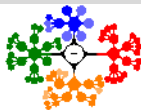
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- This information is generally kept in a data structure called a **frame table**.



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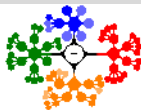
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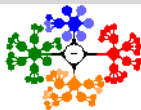
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Protection I

- Memory protection in a paged environment is accomplished by **protection bits** associated with each frame.



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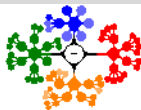
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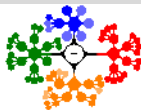
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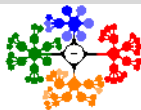
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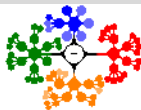
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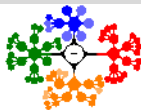
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 - When this bit is set to “valid”, the associated page is in the process’s logical address space and is thus a legal (or valid) page.
 - When the bit is set to “invalid”, the page is not in the process’s logical address space.



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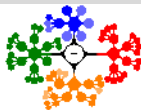
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- An attempt to write to a read-only page causes a hardware trap to the operating system (or memory-protection violation).
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 - When this bit is set to “valid”, the associated page is in the process’s logical address space and is thus a legal (or valid) page.
 - When the bit is set to “invalid”, the page is not in the process’s logical address space.
- **Illegal addresses are trapped by use of the valid-invalid bit.**



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Swapping

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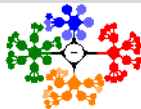
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Segmentation

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- Suppose, for example, that in a system with a 14-bit address space (0 to 16383), we have a program that should use only addresses 0 to 10468.



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Protection II

- Suppose, for example, that in a system with a 14-bit address space (0 to 16383), we have a program that should use only addresses 0 to 10468.
 - Given a page size of 2 KB (with 6 pages $2048 * 6 = 12288$).



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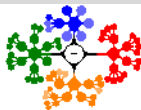
Segmentation

Basic Method

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Protection II

- Suppose, for example, that in a system with a 14-bit address space (0 to 16383), we have a program that should use only addresses 0 to 10468.
 - Given a page size of 2 KB (with 6 pages $2048 * 6 = 12288$).
 - **item Addresses in pages 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 are mapped normally through the page table.**



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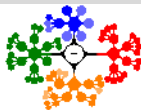
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 - Given a page size of 2 KB (with 6 pages $2048 * 6 = 12288$).
 - item Addresses in pages 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 are mapped normally through the page table.
 - Any attempt to generate an address in pages 6 or 7, however, will find that the valid-invalid bit is set to invalid, and the computer will trap to the OS (invalid page reference).



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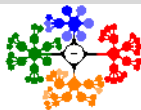
Shared Pages

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 - Any attempt to generate an address in pages 6 or 7, however, will find that the valid-invalid bit is set to invalid, and the computer will trap to the OS (invalid page reference).
- Because the program extends to only address 10468, any reference beyond that address is illegal.



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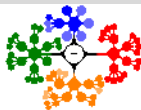
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 - Any attempt to generate an address in pages 6 or 7, however, will find that the valid-invalid bit is set to invalid, and the computer will trap to the OS (invalid page reference).
- Because the program extends to only address 10468, any reference beyond that address is illegal.
- However, references to page 5 are classified as valid, so accesses to addresses up to 12287 are valid.



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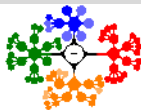
Segmentation

Basic Method

Hardware

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- Because the program extends to only address 10468, any reference beyond that address is illegal.
- However, references to page 5 are classified as valid, so accesses to addresses up to 12287 are valid.
- Only the addresses from 12288 to 16383 are invalid.



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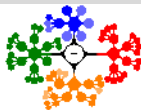
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 - Any attempt to generate an address in pages 6 or 7, however, will find that the valid-invalid bit is set to invalid, and the computer will trap to the OS (invalid page reference).
- Because the program extends to only address 10468, any reference beyond that address is illegal.
- However, references to page 5 are classified as valid, so accesses to addresses up to 12287 are valid.
- Only the addresses from 12288 to 16383 are invalid.
- This problem is a result of the 2-KB page size and reflects the internal fragmentation of paging.



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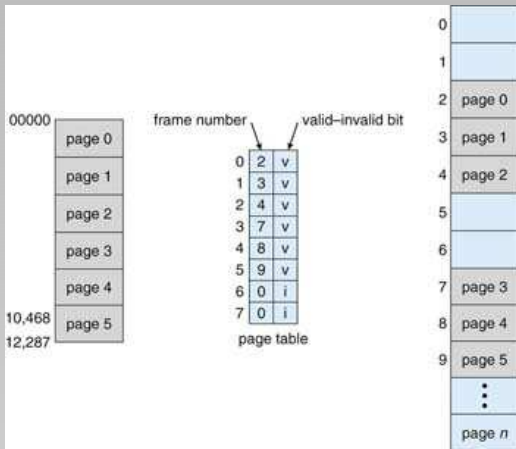
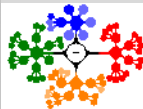


Figure: Valid (v) or invalid (i) bit in a page table.

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Shared Pages I

- An advantage of paging is the possibility of sharing common code.

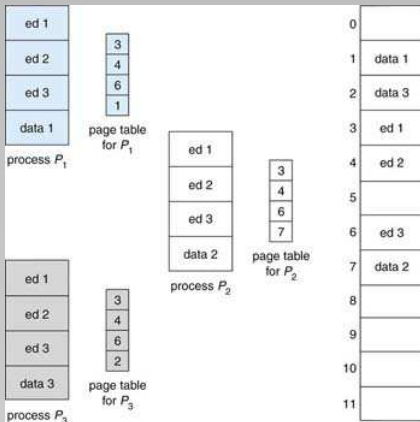
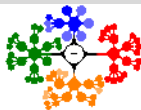


Figure: Sharing of code in a paging environment.



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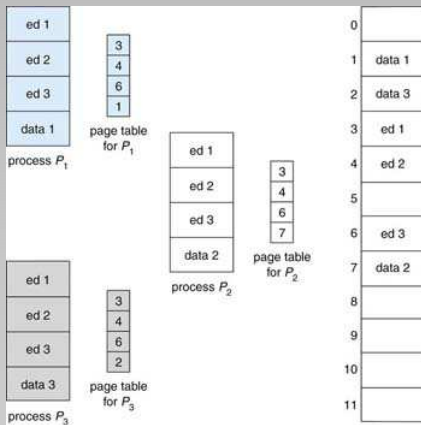
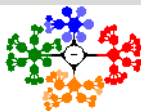


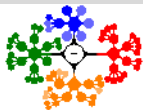
Figure: Sharing of code in a paging environment.

- Consider a system that supports 40 users, each of whom executes a text editor (see Fig. 10).



Shared Pages II

- If the text editor consists of 150 KB of code and 50 KB of data space, we need 8,000 KB to support the 40 users ($40 * (150KB + 50KB)$).



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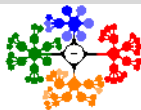
Shared Pages

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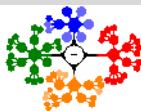
Shared Pages

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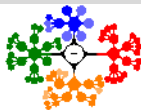
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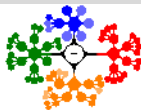
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- Thus, two or more processes can execute the same code at the same time.
- Each process has its own copy of registers and data storage to hold the data for the process's execution.



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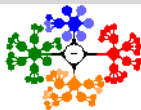
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- Thus, two or more processes can execute the same code at the same time.
- Each process has its own copy of registers and data storage to hold the data for the process's execution.
- **Only one copy of the editor need be kept in physical memory.**



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- Only one copy of the editor need be kept in physical memory.
- Each user's page table maps onto the same physical copy of the editor, but data pages are mapped onto different frames.



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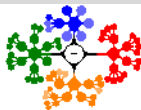
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- Each process has its own copy of registers and data storage to hold the data for the process's execution.
- Only one copy of the editor need be kept in physical memory.
- Each user's page table maps onto the same physical copy of the editor, but data pages are mapped onto different frames.
- Thus, to support 40 users, we need only one copy of the editor (150 KB), plus 40 copies of the 50 KB of data space per user.



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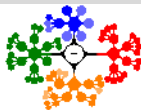
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- Only one copy of the editor need be kept in physical memory.
- Each user's page table maps onto the same physical copy of the editor, but data pages are mapped onto different frames.
- Thus, to support 40 users, we need only one copy of the editor (150 KB), plus 40 copies of the 50 KB of data space per user.
- **The total space required is now 2,150 KB instead of 8,000 KB-a significant savings.**



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- Users prefer to view memory as a collection of variable-sized segments, with no necessary ordering among segments (Figure 8.18).

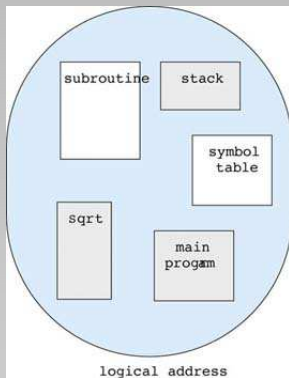
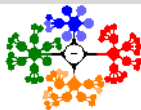


Figure: User's view of a program.



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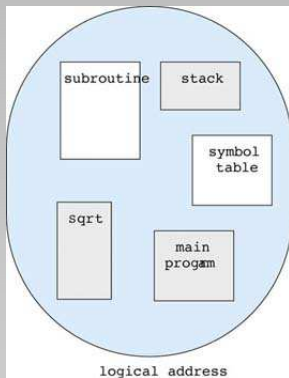
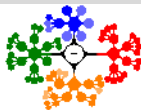


Figure: User's view of a program.

- Segmentation is a memory-management scheme that supports this user view of memory.



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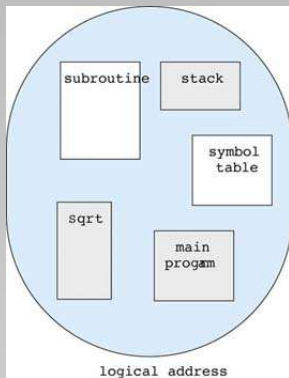


Figure: User's view of a program.

- Segmentation is a memory-management scheme that supports this user view of memory.
- A logical address space is a collection of segments.



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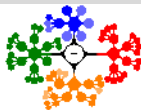
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- Each segment has a name and a length. The addresses specify both the segment name and the offset within the segment.



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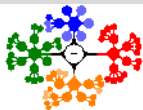
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- Although the user can now refer to objects in the program by a two-dimensional address, the actual physical memory is still, of course, a one-dimensional sequence of bytes.



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- Although the user can now refer to objects in the program by a two-dimensional address, the actual physical memory is still, of course, a one-dimensional sequence of bytes.
- Thus, we must define an implementation to map two-dimensional user-defined addresses into one-dimensional physical addresses.



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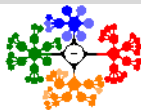
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- This mapping is effected by a **segment table**. Each entry in the segment table has a segment base and a segment limit.

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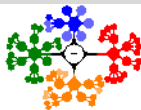
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- Thus, we must define an implementation to map two-dimensional user-defined addresses into one-dimensional physical addresses.
- This mapping is effected by a **segment table**. Each entry in the segment table has a segment base and a segment limit.
- The segment base contains the starting physical address where the segment resides in memory, whereas the segment limit specifies the length of the segment (see Fig. 12).

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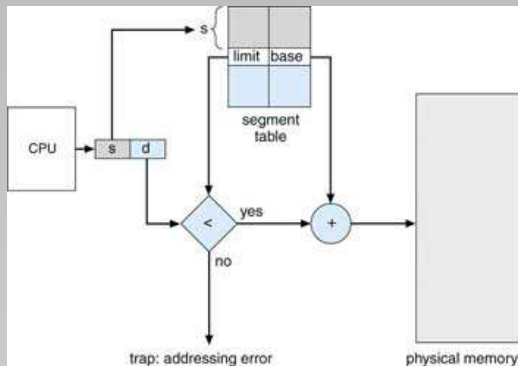
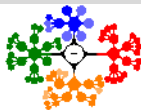


Figure: Segmentation hardware.

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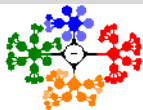
Shared Pages

Segmentation

Basic Method

Hardware

- The segment number is used as an index to the segment table.



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Paging

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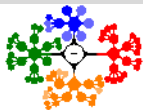
Shared Pages

Segmentation

Basic Method

Hardware

- The segment number is used as an index to the segment table.
- The offset d of the logical address must be between 0 and the segment limit.



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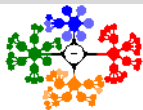
Shared Pages

Segmentation

Basic Method

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- The segment number is used as an index to the segment table.
- The offset d of the logical address must be between 0 and the segment limit.
- If it is not, we trap to the OS (logical addressing attempt beyond end of segment).



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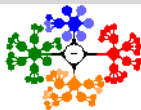
Shared Pages

Segmentation

Basic Method

Hardware

- The segment number is used as an index to the segment table.
- The offset d of the logical address must be between 0 and the segment limit.
- If it is not, we trap to the OS (logical addressing attempt beyond end of segment).
- When an offset is legal, it is added to the segment base to produce the address in physical memory of the desired byte.



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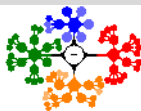
Basic Method
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Segmentation

Basic Method

Hardware

- The segment number is used as an index to the segment table.
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- If it is not, we trap to the OS (logical addressing attempt beyond end of segment).
- When an offset is legal, it is added to the segment base to produce the address in physical memory of the desired byte.
- The segment table is thus essentially an array of base-limit register pairs.



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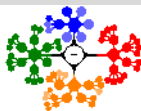
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Segmentation

Basic Method

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- The segment table is thus essentially an array of base-limit register pairs.
- As an example, consider the situation shown in Fig. 13.



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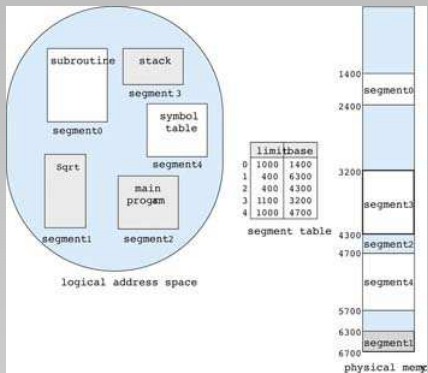
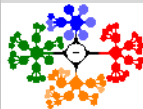
Paging

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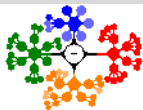
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Figure: Example of segmentation.



- We have five segments numbered from 0 through 4.

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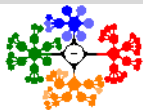
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Basic Method

Hardware



- We have five segments numbered from 0 through 4.
- The segment table has a separate entry for each segment, giving the beginning address of the segment in physical memory (or base) and the length of that segment (or limit).

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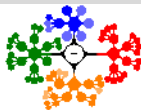
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- We have five segments numbered from 0 through 4.
- The segment table has a separate entry for each segment, giving the beginning address of the segment in physical memory (or base) and the length of that segment (or limit).
- For example, segment 2 is 400 bytes long and begins at location 4300.

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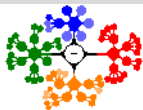
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- Thus, a reference to byte 53 of segment 2 is mapped onto location $4300 + 53 = 4353$.

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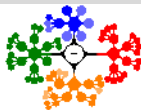
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- Thus, a reference to byte 53 of segment 2 is mapped onto location $4300 + 53 = 4353$.
- A reference to segment 3, byte 852, is mapped to 3200 (the base of segment 3) + $852 = 4052$.

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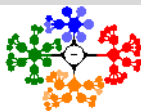
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- We have five segments numbered from 0 through 4.
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- For example, segment 2 is 400 bytes long and begins at location 4300.
- Thus, a reference to byte 53 of segment 2 is mapped onto location $4300 + 53 = 4353$.
- A reference to segment 3, byte 852, is mapped to 3200 (the base of segment 3) $+ 852 = 4052$.
- A reference to byte 1222 of segment would result in a trap to the OS, as this segment is only 1,000 bytes long.

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