

- Routine is not loaded until it is called
- Better memory-space utilization; unused routine is never loaded
- All routines kept on disk in relocatable load format
- Useful when large amounts of code are needed to handle infrequently occurring cases
- No special support from the operating system is required
 - Implemented through program design
 - OS can help by providing libraries to implement dynamic loading







Dynamic Linking

- Static linking system libraries and program code combined by the loader into the binary program image
- Dynamic linking linking postponed until execution time
- Small piece of code, stub, used to locate the appropriate memory-resident library routine
- Stub replaces itself with the address of the routine, and executes the routine
- Operating system checks if routine is in processes' memory address
 - If not in address space, add to address space
- Dynamic linking is particularly useful for libraries
- System also known as shared libraries





Swapping

- A process can be **swapped** temporarily out of memory to a backing store, and then brought back into memory for continued execution
 - Total physical memory space of processes can exceed physical memory
- Major part of swap time is transfer time; total transfer time is directly proportional to the amount of memory swapped
- System maintains a ready queue of ready-to-run processes which have memory images on disk







Context Switch Time including Swapping

- If next processes to be put on CPU is not in memory, need to swap out a process and swap in target process
- Context switch time can then be very high
- 100MB process swapping to hard disk with transfer rate of 50MB/sec
 - Swap out time of 2000 ms
 - Plus swap in of same sized process
 - Total context switch swapping component time of 4000ms (4 seconds)





Swapping on Mobile Systems

- Not typically supported
 - Flash memory based
 - Small amount of space
 - Limited number of write cycles
 - Poor throughput between flash memory and CPU on mobile platform
- Instead use other methods to free memory if low
 - iOS asks apps to voluntarily relinquish allocated memory
 - Read-only data thrown out and reloaded from flash if needed
 - Failure to free can result in termination
 - Android terminates apps if low free memory, but first writes application state to flash for fast restart





Contiguous Allocation

- Main memory must support both OS and user processes
- Limited resource, must allocate efficiently
- Contiguous allocation is one early method
- Main memory usually into two partitions:
 - Resident operating system, usually held in low memory with interrupt vector
 - User processes then held in high memory
 - Each process contained in single contiguous section of memory





Multiple-partition allocation

- Multiple-partition allocation
 - Degree of multiprogramming limited by number of partitions
 - Variable-partition sizes for efficiency (sized to a given process' needs)
 - 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
 - Process exiting frees its partition, adjacent free partitions combined
 - Operating system maintains information about:
 a) allocated partitions
 b) free partitions (hole)



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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





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





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Logical View of Segmentation



user space



physical memory space





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





Segmentation Hardware





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Segmentation Architecture (Cont.)





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