



OPERATING SYSTEMS

INTRODUCTION TO MEMORY MANAGEMENT

8 Memory Management

In a multiprogramming system, in order to share the processor, a number of processes must be kept in memory. Memory management is achieved through memory management algorithms. Each memory management algorithm requires its own hardware support. First we'll look requirements for memory management, and then techniques.

8 Memory Management

Introduction to memory management

- ▣ Requirements
 - Relocation
 - Protection
 - Sharing
 - Logical Organization
 - Physical Organization
- ▣ Techniques for mechanism of memory management
 - Partitioning
 - Paging
 - Segmentation

8.1 Requirements

- ▣ Requirements
 - Relocation
 - Protection
 - Sharing
 - Logical Organization
 - Physical Organization

8.1.1 Relocation

- ▣ Why
 - programmer does not know in advance where the program will be placed in memory when it is first loaded
 - while the program is executing, it may be swapped to disk and returned to main memory at a different location
- ▣ Consequences
 - memory references must be translated in the code to actual physical memory address. There are two type of relocation:
 - **Static** relocation is performed before or during the loading of program into memory
 - **Dynamic** relocation is performed during the execution of the program

8.1.2 Protection

- ▣ Why
 - Protect process from interference by other processes which requires **permission** to access its address space.
- ▣ Consequences
 - impossible to check addresses in advance since the program could be relocated
 - **must be checked at run time**

8.1.3 Sharing

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- Why
 - Some processes can use the same programs or data. That leads to wasteful use of the memory.

- Consequences
 - Allow several processes to access the same data
 - Allow multiple programs to share the same program text

8.1.4 Logical Organization

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- Programs organized into modules
 - stack, text, uninitialized data, libraries, etc.
- Modules may be compiled independently
- Different degrees of protection given to each modules
 - read-only, execute-only
- And thus modules may be shared

8.1.4 Physical Organization

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- Memory organized into two levels:
 - *main and secondary memory.*
- Main memory relatively fast, expensive and volatile
- Secondary memory relatively slow, cheaper, larger capacity, and non-volatile
- Since sometimes main memory may be insufficient for a program with its data, secondary memory is used by OS without asking anything from users.

8.2 Partitioning

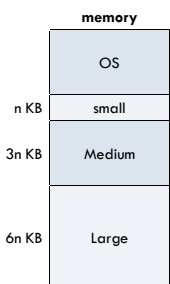
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We will see two type of partitioning with their terms:

- Fixed Partitioning
 - Swapping
 - Fragmentation
- Variable Partitioning
 - First Fit
 - Best Fit
 - Worst Fit
 - Compaction

8.2.1 Fixed Partitioning

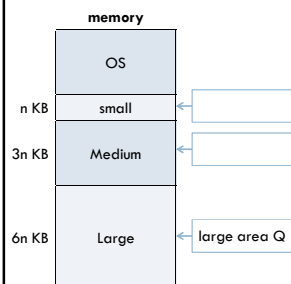
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- In this method, memory is divided into partitions whose sizes are fixed.
- OS is placed into the lowest bytes of memory.
- Relocation of processes is not needed

8.2.1 Fixed Partitioning

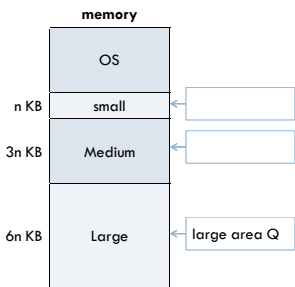
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- Processes are classified on entry to the system according to their memory they requirements.
- We need one *Process Queue (PQ)* for each class of process.

8.2.1 Fixed Partitioning

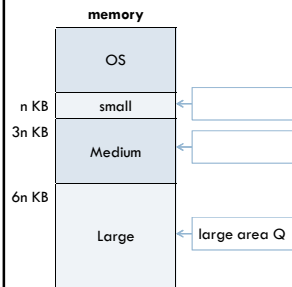
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- If a process is selected to allocate memory, then it goes into memory and competes for the processor.
- The number of fixed partition gives the degree of multiprogramming.
- Since each queue has its own memory region, there is no competition between queues for the memory.

8.2.1 Fixed Partitioning

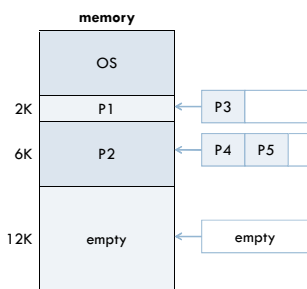
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- The main problem with the fixed partitioning method is how to determine the number of partitions, and how to determine their sizes.

Fixed Partitioning with Swapping

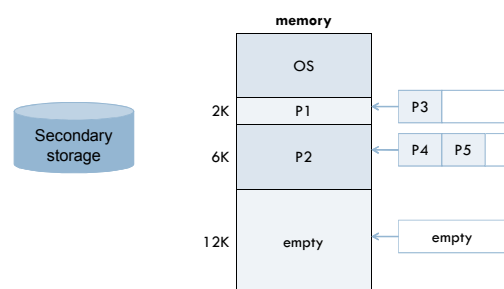
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- This is a version of fixed partitioning that uses RRS with some time quantum.
- When time quantum for a process expires, it is swapped out of memory to disk and the next process in the corresponding process queue is swapped into the memory.

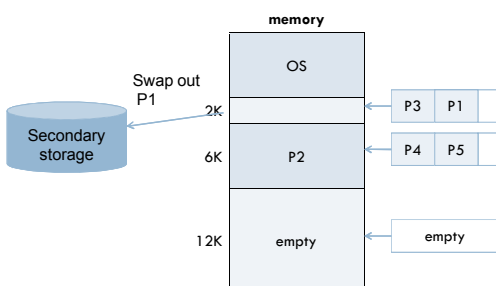
Fixed Partitioning with Swapping

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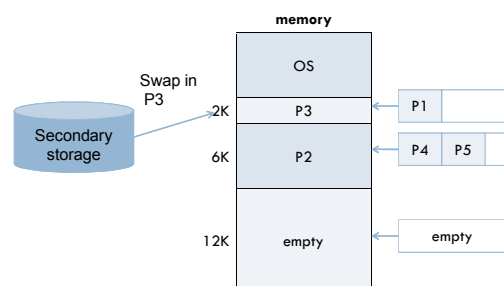
Fixed Partitioning with Swapping

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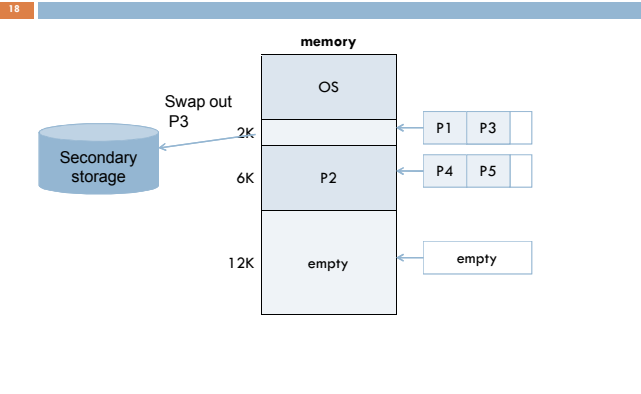


Fixed Partitioning with Swapping

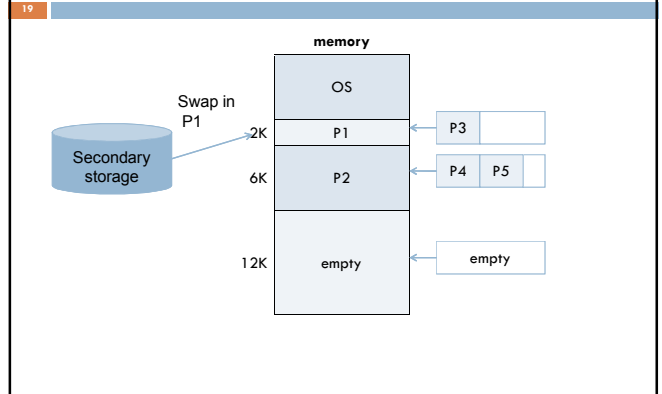
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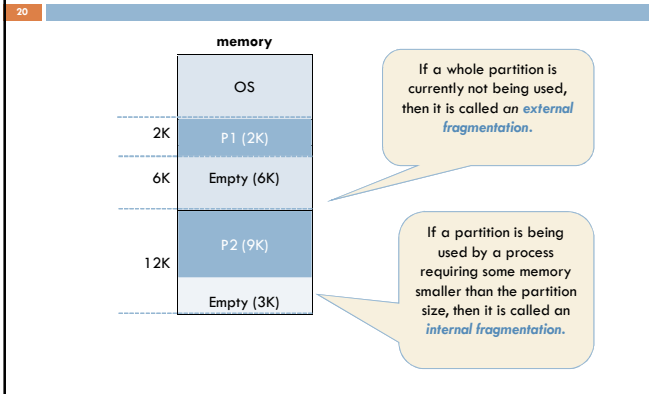
Fixed Partitioning with Swapping



Fixed Partitioning with Swapping



Fragmentation



8.2.2 Variable Partitioning

- 21
- With fixed partitions we have to deal with the problem of determining the number and sizes of partitions to minimize internal and external fragmentation.
 - If we use variable partitioning instead, then partition sizes may vary dynamically.
 - In the variable partitioning method, we keep a table (linked list) indicating used/free areas in memory.

8.2.2 Variable Partitioning

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- Initially, the whole memory is free and it is considered as one large block.
 - When a new process arrives, the OS searches for a block of free memory large enough for that process.
 - We keep the rest available (free) for the future processes.
 - If a block becomes free, then the OS tries to merge it with its neighbors if they are also free.

8.2.2 Variable Partitioning

- 23
- There are three algorithms for searching the list of free blocks for a specific amount of memory.
- First Fit
 - Best Fit
 - Worst Fit

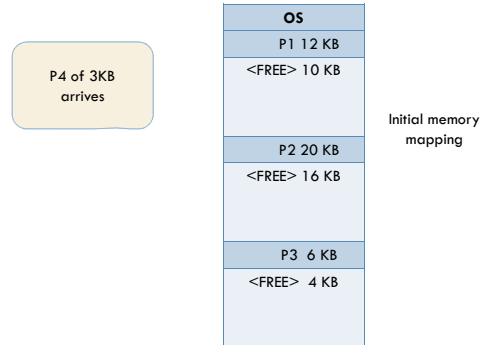
First fit

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- Allocate the first free block that is large enough for the new process.
- This is a fast algorithm.

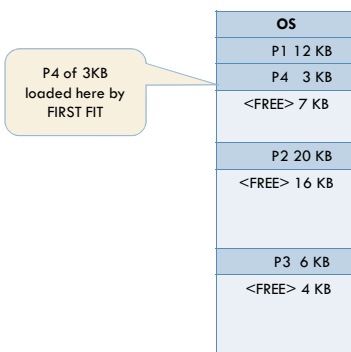
First fit

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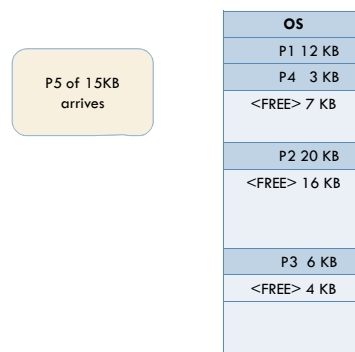
First fit

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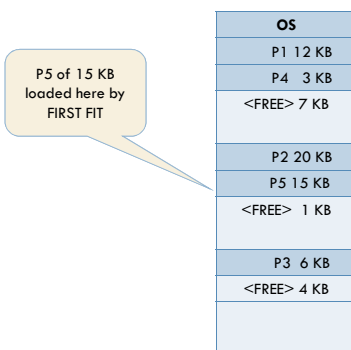
First fit

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First fit

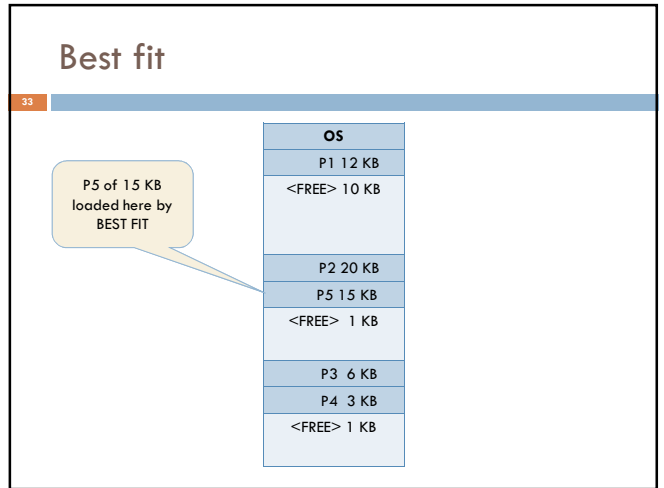
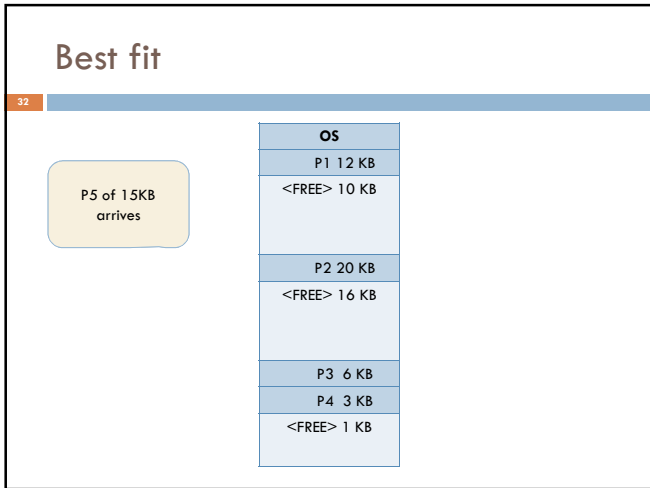
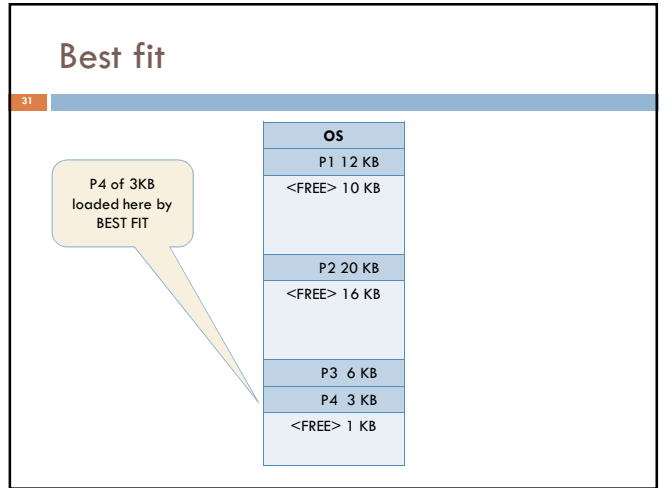
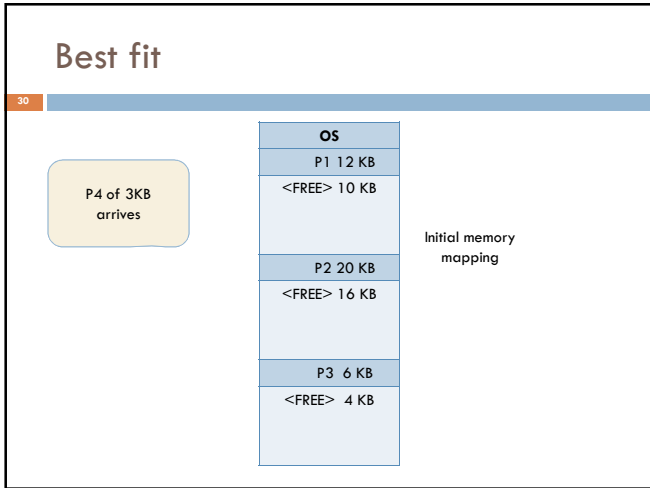
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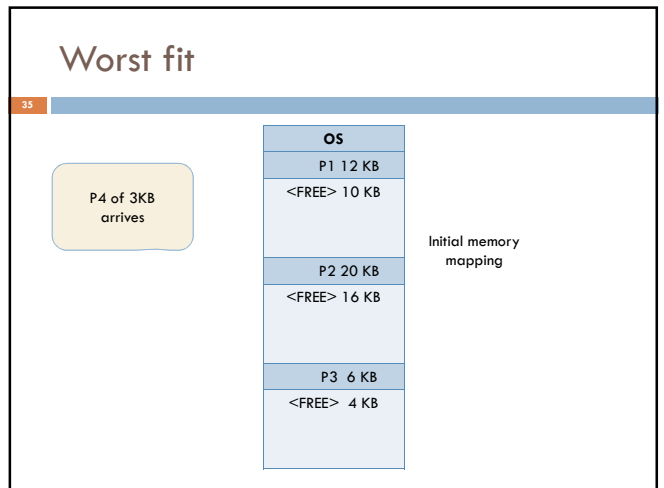
Best fit

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- Allocate the smallest block among those that are large enough for the new process.
- In this method, the OS has to search the entire list, or it can keep it sorted and stop when it hits an entry which has a size larger than the size of new process.
- This algorithm produces the smallest left over block.
- However, it requires more time for searching all the list or sorting it
- If sorting is used, merging the area released when a process terminates to neighboring free blocks, becomes complicated.



- ### Worst fit
- 34
- Allocate the largest block among those that are large enough for the new process.
 - Again a search of the entire list or sorting it is needed.
 - This algorithm produces the largest over block.



Worst fit

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P4 of 3KB Loaded here by WORST FIT

OS
P1 12 KB
<FREE> 10 KB
P2 20 KB
P4 3 KB
<FREE> 13 KB
P3 6 KB
<FREE> 4 KB

Worst fit

37

No place to load P5 of 15K

OS
P1 12 KB
<FREE> 10 KB
P2 20 KB
P4 3 KB
<FREE> 13 KB
P3 6 KB
<FREE> 4 KB

Worst fit

38

No place to load P5 of 15K

Compaction is needed !!

OS
P1 12 KB
<FREE> 10 KB
P2 20 KB
P4 3 KB
<FREE> 13 KB
P3 6 KB
<FREE> 4 KB

Compaction

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- Compaction is a method to overcome the external fragmentation problem.
- All free blocks are brought together as one large block of free space.
- Compaction requires dynamic relocation.
- Certainly, compaction has a cost and selection of an optimal compaction strategy is difficult.
- One method for compaction is swapping out those processes that are to be moved within the memory, and swapping them into different memory locations

Compaction

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Memory mapping before compaction

OS
P1 12 KB
<FREE> 10 KB
P2 20 KB
P4 3 KB
<FREE> 13 KB
P3 6 KB
<FREE> 4 KB

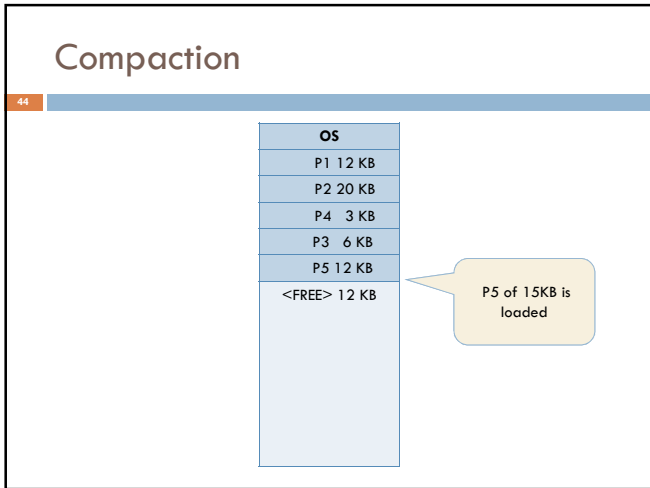
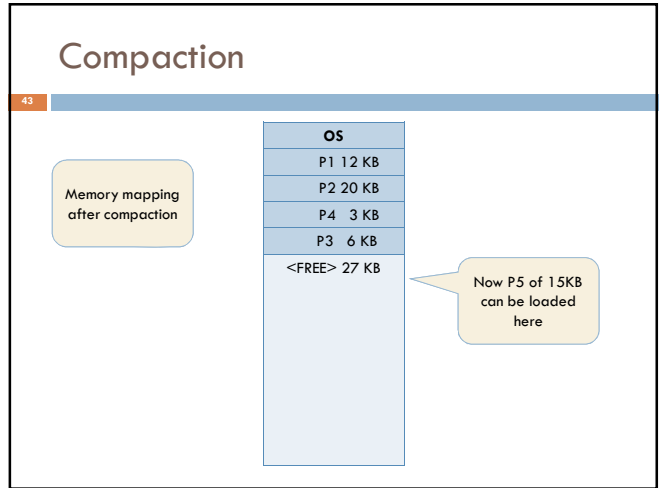
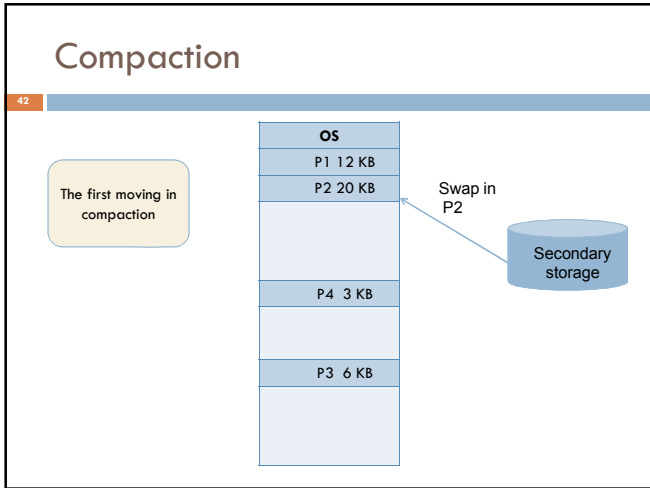
Compaction

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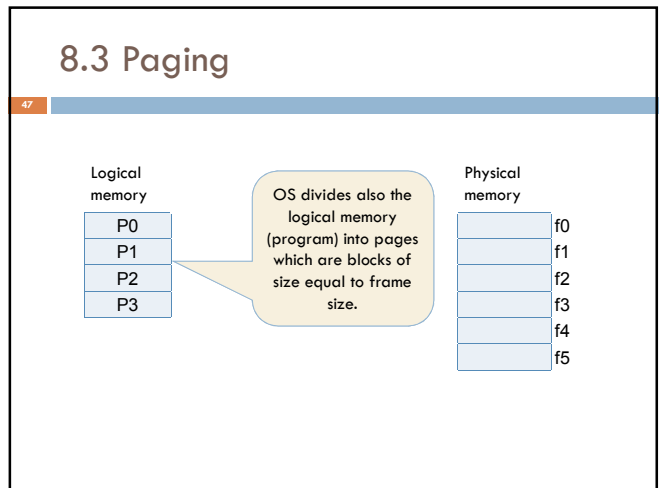
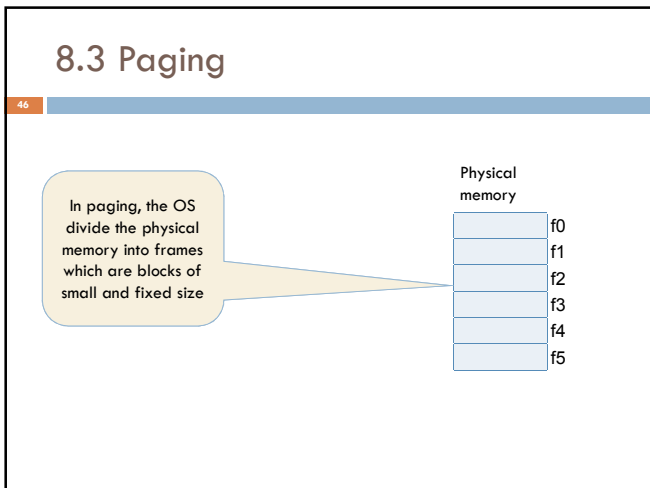
The first moving in compaction

Swap out P2

OS
P1 12 KB
<FREE> 10 KB
P2 20 KB
P4 3 KB
<FREE> 13 KB
P3 6 KB
<FREE> 4 KB

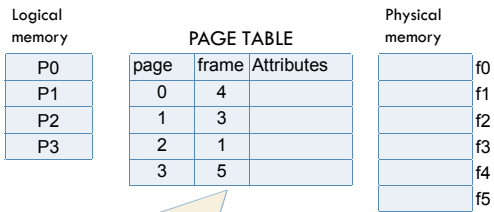


- ### 8.3 Paging
- 45
- Partition methods leads fragmentation problems.
 - For dealing with them, logical memory (process) is divided into pieces of same size which are called pages,
 - Physical memory is also divided into pieces called frames having the size of page.
 - Then every page can be assigned into each frame.
 - There will be only internal fragmentation especially in the last page of the process.



8.3 Paging

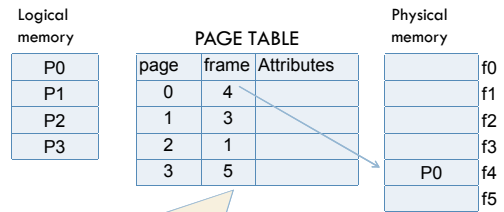
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The OS uses a page table to map program pages to memory frames.

8.3 Paging

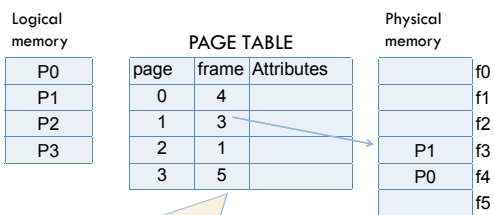
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The OS uses a page table to map program pages to memory frames.

8.3 Paging

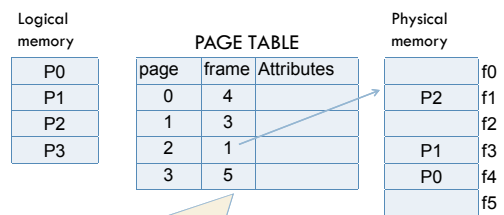
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The OS uses a page table to map program pages to memory frames.

8.3 Paging

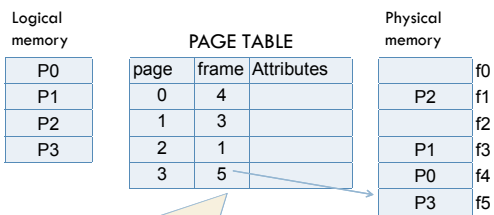
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The OS uses a page table to map program pages to memory frames.

8.3 Paging

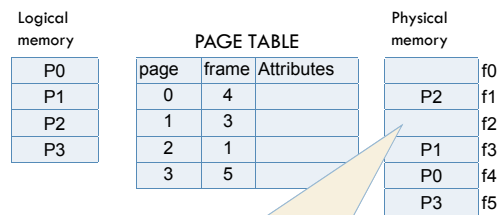
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The OS uses a page table to map program pages to memory frames.

8.3 Paging

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Paging permits a program to allocate noncontiguous blocks of memory

8.3 Paging

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- Page size (S) is defined by the hardware.
 - Generally page size is chosen as a power of 2 such as 512 words/page or 4096 words/page etc.
- With this arrangement, the words in the program have an address called as *logical address*. Every logical address is formed of $\langle p, d \rangle$ pair

* To handle data most efficiently, all processors have a characteristic data size known as the word size (words). It is usually a power of 2 bytes

8.3 Paging

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- Logical address: $\langle p, d \rangle$
 - p is page number
 - $p = \text{logical address} \div S$
 - d is displacement (offset)
 - $d = \text{logical address} \bmod S$

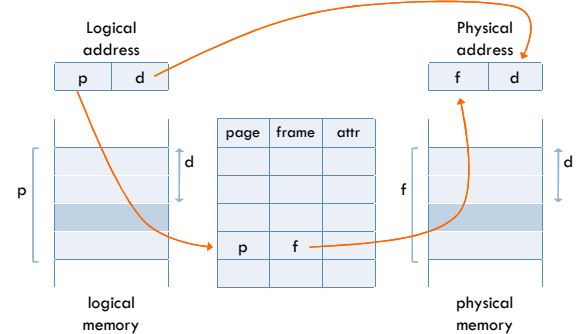
8.3 Paging

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- When a logical address $\langle p, d \rangle$ is generated by the processor,
- At first, the frame number f corresponding to page p is determined by using the page table
- And then the physical address is calculated as $(f \cdot S + d)$ and the memory is accessed.

8.3 Paging

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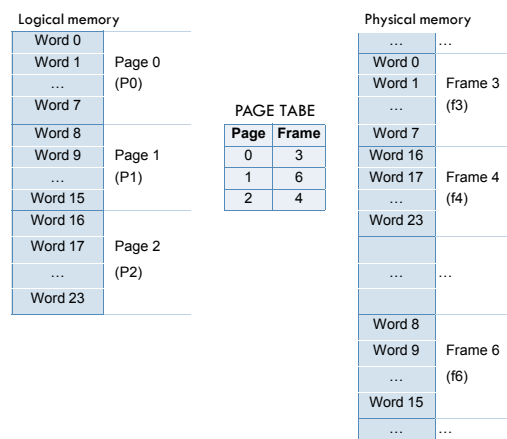
8.3 Paging

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Example

- Consider the following information to form a physical memory map.
- Page Size = 8 words $\rightarrow d : 3$ bits
- Physical Memory Size = 128 words
 - $= 128/8 = 16$ frames $\rightarrow f : 4$ bits
- Assume maximum program size is 4 pages $\rightarrow p : 2$ bits
- A program of 3 pages where $P_0 \rightarrow f_3$; $P_1 \rightarrow f_6$; $P_2 \rightarrow f_4$

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8.3 Paging

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Program Line	Logical Address	Offset
Word 0	00 000	000
Word 1	00 001	001
...
Word 7	00 111	111
Word 8	01 000	000
Word 9	01 001	001
...
Word 15	01 111	111
Word 16	10 000	000
Word 17	10 001	001
...
Word 23	10 111	111

8.3 Paging

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Program Line	Logical Address	Offset	Page Number
Word 0	00 000	000	00
Word 1	00 001	001	00
...
Word 7	00 111	111	00
Word 8	01 000	000	01
Word 9	01 001	001	01
...
Word 15	01 111	111	01
Word 16	10 000	000	10
Word 17	10 001	001	10
...
Word 23	10 111	111	10

8.3 Paging

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Program Line	Logical Address	Offset	Page Number	Frame Number
Word 0	00 000	000	00	0011
Word 1	00 001	001	00	0011
...
Word 7	00 111	111	00	0011
Word 8	01 000	000	01	0110
Word 9	01 001	001	01	0110
...
Word 15	01 111	111	01	0110
Word 16	10 000	000	10	0100
Word 17	10 001	001	10	0100
...
Word 23	10 111	111	10	0100

8.3 Paging

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Program Line	Logical Address	Offset	Page Number	Frame Number	Physical Address
Word 0	00 000	000	00	0011	0011 000
Word 1	00 001	001	00	0011	0011 001
...
Word 7	00 111	111	00	0011	0011 111
Word 8	01 000	000	01	0110	0110 000
Word 9	01 001	001	01	0110	0110 001
...
Word 15	01 111	111	01	0110	0110 111
Word 16	10 000	000	10	0100	0100 000
Word 17	10 001	001	10	0100	0100 001
...
Word 23	10 111	111	10	0100	0100 111

8.3 Paging

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- Every access to memory should go through the page table. Therefore, it must be implemented in an efficient way.
- The efficient ways to implement the page table
 - Using registers
 - Using main memory
 - Using associative registers

Using registers

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- Keep page table in fast registers. Only the OS is able to modify these registers.
- However, if the page table is large, this method becomes very expensive since requires too many registers.

Using main memory

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- In this second method, the OS keeps a page table in the memory, instead of registers.
- For every logical memory reference, two memory accesses are required:
 1. To access the page table in the memory, in order to find the corresponding frame number.
 2. To access the memory word in that frame
- This is cheap but a time consuming method.

Using associative registers

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- Associative registers (cache) contains most recently used page table entries
- Since all registers run in parallel, searching is fast
- Associative registers are quite expensive. So, a small number of them should be used
- If page table entry is present (called hit), found frame number is formed into real address
- Otherwise, the page number is used to index the process page table in main memory

Using associative registers

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Example: assume we have a paging system which uses associative registers. These associative registers have an access time (rat) of 30 ns, and the memory access time (mat) is 470 ns. On the other hand, the system has a hit ratio (h) of 90%.

- rat=30 ns
- mat=470ns
- h=0.9

Using associative registers

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rat=30 ns, mat=470ns, h=0.9

- Now, if the page number is found in one of the associative registers, then the effective memory access time:
- $emat_{HIT} = 30 + 470 = 500$ ns.
- Because one access to associative registers and one access to the main memory is sufficient.

Using associative registers

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rat=30 ns, mat=470ns, h=0.9

- On the other hand, if the page number is not found in associative registers, then the effective memory access time:
- $emat_{MISS} = 30 + (470+470) = 970$ ns.
- Since one access to associative registers and two accesses to the main memory are required.

Using associative registers

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rat=30 ns, mat=470ns, h=0.9

$emat_{HIT} = 500$ ns, $emat_{MISS} = 970$ ns.

- Then, the weighted emat is calculated as follows:
$$emat = h * emat_{HIT} + (1-h) * emat_{MISS}$$
$$= 0.9 * 500 + 0.1 * 970$$
$$= 450 + 97 = 547$$
 ns

Sharing Pages

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- Sharing is an important advantage of paging.
- It is possible to share system procedures or programs, user procedures or programs, and possibly data area.
- Sharing pages is advantageous especially in time-sharing systems.

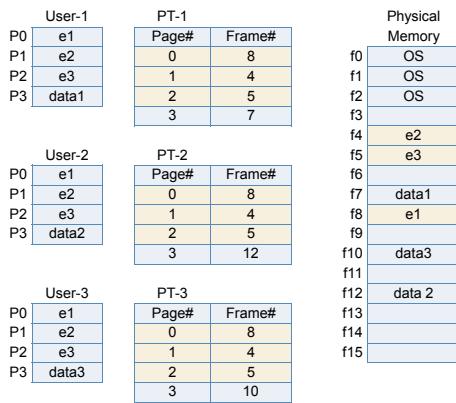
Sharing Pages

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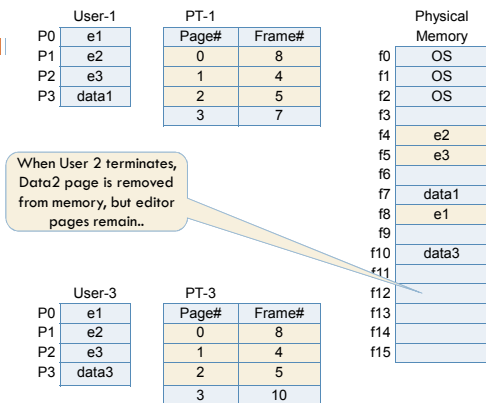
Example: Consider a system having page size=30 MB. There are 3 users executing an editor program which is 90 MB (3 pages) in size, with a 30 MB (1 page) data space.

- To support these 3 users, the OS must allocate $3 * (90+30) = 360$ MB space
- However, if the editor program is shared as read only, then all users can use it, and only one copy of the editor program is sufficient. Therefore, the OS must allocate only $90 + 30 * 3 = 180$ MB space

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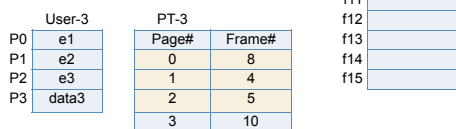


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When User 1 terminates, data1 is also removed from memory.



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When User 3 terminates, Data-3 and also editor segments are removed from memory.



8.4 Segmentation

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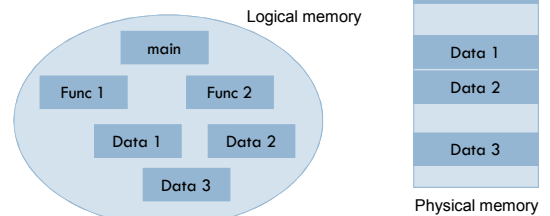
- By means of segmentation, programs can be divided into variable sized segments, as in variable partitioning.
- But programs are divided into small parts, as in paging.
- Every logical address is transformed into a segment value and an offset value.
- Programs are segmented automatically when they are compiled.

8.4 Segmentation

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Every C compiler may create segments for:

- the code of each function
- the local variables for each function
- the global variables.



8.4 Segmentation

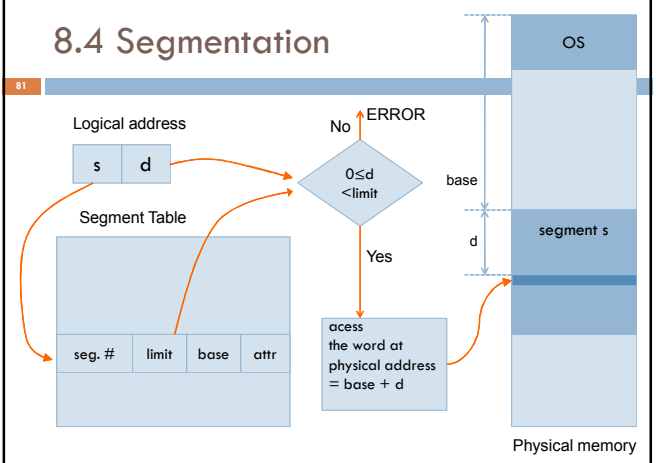
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For transforming address, a table is used. When a logical address $\langle s, d \rangle$ is generated:

1. Base and limit values corresponding to segment s are determined using this segment table
2. The OS checks whether d is in the limit
 - $0 \leq d < \text{limit}$
3. If so, then the physical address is calculated as
 - $\text{base} + d$

8.4 Segmentation

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8.4 Segmentation

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Example: By generating the memory map according to the given segment table, find the corresponding physical address for logical address of $\langle 3, 1123 \rangle$.

Segment	Limit	Base
0	1500	1000
1	200	5500
2	700	6000
3	2000	3500

8.4 Segmentation

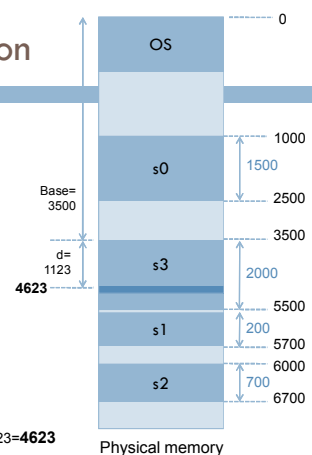
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Segment	Limit	Base
0	1500	1000
1	200	5500
2	700	6000
3	2000	3500

Logical address: $\langle 3, 1123 \rangle$
 $s=3, d=1123$

Check if $d < \text{limit}$
 $1123 < 2000 \dots \text{OK}$

Physical address (base+d) = $3500 + 1123 = 4623$



8.4 Segmentation

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How can we implement the segment table efficiently?

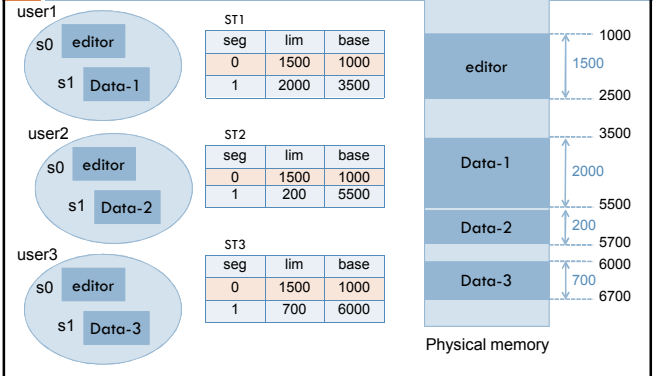
- Segment tables may be implemented in the main memory or in associative registers, in the same way it is done for page tables.

What about the sharing?

- Also sharing of segments is applicable as in paging. Shared segments should be read only and should be assigned the same segment number.

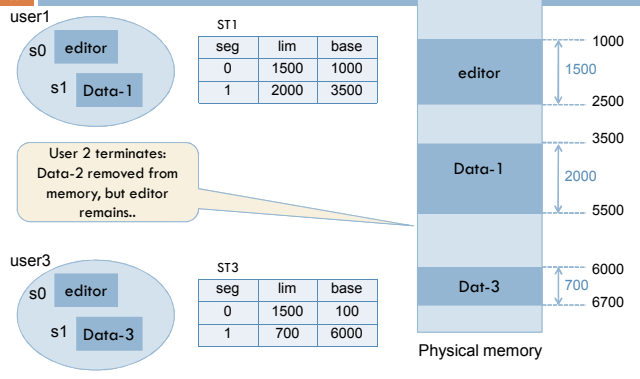
Sharing Segments

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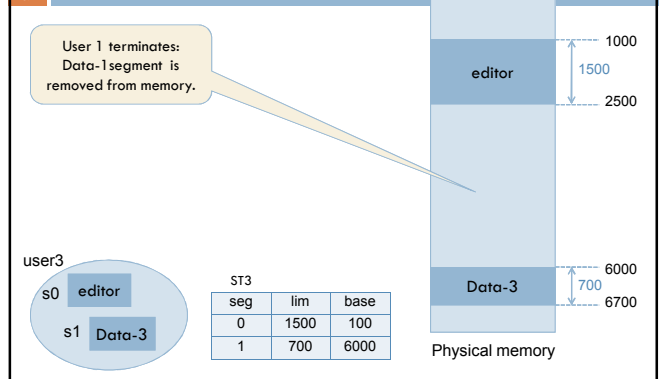
Sharing Segments

86



Sharing Segments

87



Sharing Segments

88

