UNIT IV

Operating

Systems

MEMORY MANAGEMENT



MEMORY MANAGEMENT

Memory management strategies

- Background
- Swapping
- Contiguous Memory Allocation
- Segmentation
- Paging
- Structure of Page Table

Virtual Memory Management

- Background
- Demand paging
- Copy on write
- Page replacement algorithms
- Allocation of frames
- Thrashing.

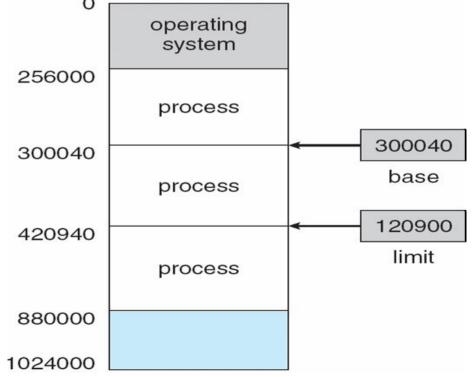
 Program must be brought (from disk) into memory and placed within a process for it to be run

Background

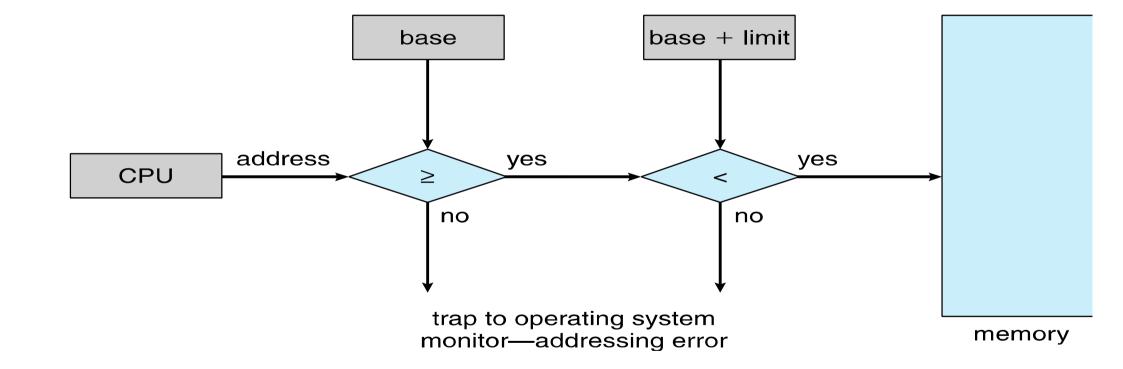
- Main memory and registers are only storage CPU can access directly
- Memory unit only sees a stream of addresses + read requests, or address + data and write requests
- Register access in one CPU clock (or less)
- Main memory can take many cycles, causing a stall
- Cache sits between main memory and CPU registers
- Protection of memory required to ensure correct operation



- A pair of **base** and **limit registers** define the logical address space
- CPU must check every memory access generated in user mode to be sure it is between base and limit for that user







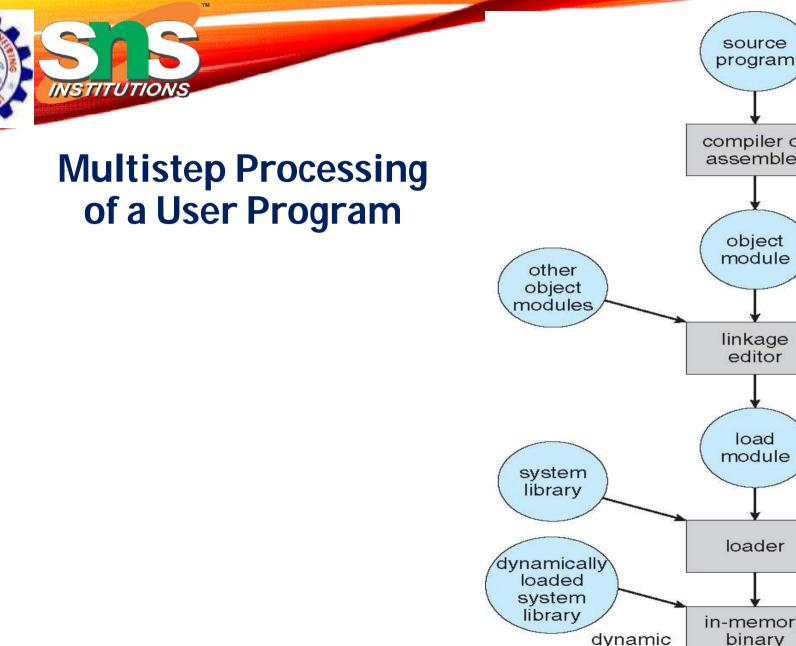
Address Binding

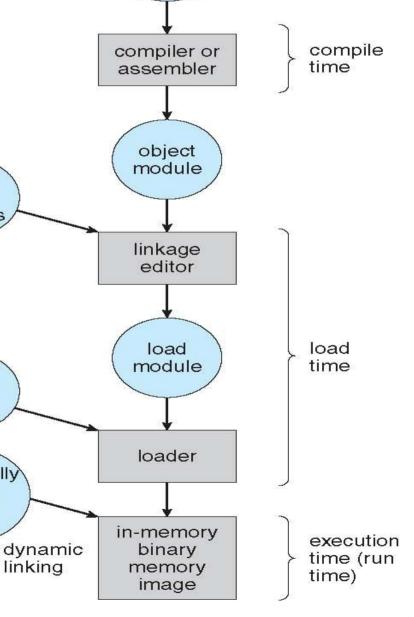
- Programs on disk, ready to be brought into memory to execute form an input queue
 - Without support, must be loaded into address 0000
- Inconvenient to have first user process physical address always at 0000
- Further, addresses represented in different ways at different stages of a program's life
 - Source code addresses usually symbolic
 - **Compiled code** addresses **bind** to relocatable addresses
 - i.e. "14 bytes from beginning of this module"
 - Linker or loader will bind relocatable addresses to absolute addresses i.e. 74014
 - Each binding maps one address space to another



Address binding of instructions and data to memory addresses can happen at three different stages

- **Compile time**: If memory location known a priori, **absolute code** can be generated; must recompile code if starting location changes
- Load time: Must generate relocatable code if memory location is not known at compile time
- Execution time: Binding delayed until run time if the process can be moved during its execution from one memory segment to another
 - Need hardware support for address maps (e.g., base and limit registers)





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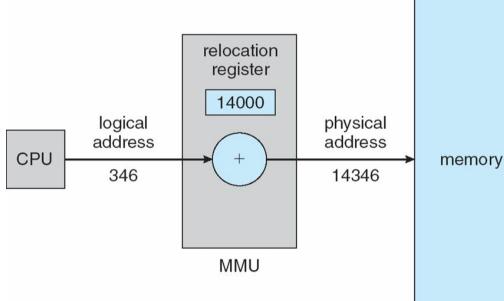
- The concept of a logical address space that is bound to a separate physical address space is central to proper memory management
 - Logical address generated by the CPU; also referred to as virtual address
 - Physical address address seen by the memory unit
- Logical and physical addresses are the **same in** compile-time and load-time address-binding schemes; logical (virtual) and physical addresses **differ in** execution-time address-binding scheme
- Logical address space is the set of all logical addresses generated by a program
- Physical address space is the set of all physical addresses generated by a program

Memory-Management Unit (мми)

- Hardware device that at run time maps virtual to physical address
- To start, consider simple scheme where the value in the relocation register is added to every address generated by a user process at the time it is sent to memory
 - Base register now called **relocation register**
 - MS-DOS on Intel 80x86 used 4 relocation registers
- The user program deals with *logical* addresses; it never sees the *real* physical addresses
 - Execution-time binding occurs when reference is made to location in memory
 - Logical address bound to physical addresses

Dynamic relocation using a relocation register

- 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



INSTITUTION:



- 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
- Dynamic linking is particularly useful for libraries
- System also known as shared libraries



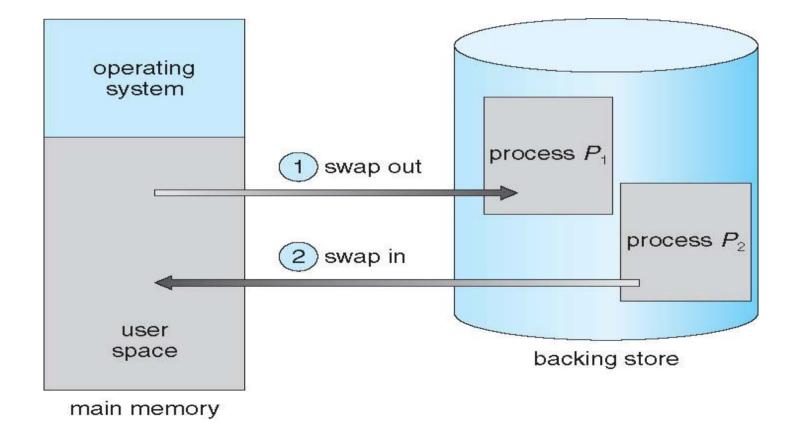


- A process can be **swapped** temporarily out of memory to a backing store, and then brought back into memory for continued execution
- **Backing store** fast disk large enough to accommodate copies of all memory images for all users; must provide direct access to these memory images
- Roll out, roll in swapping variant used for priority-based scheduling algorithms; lower-priority process is swapped out so higher-priority process can be loaded and executed
- Major part of swap time is transfer time; total transfer time is directly proportional to the amount of memory swapped

Swapping (Cont.)

- System maintains a ready queue of ready-to-run processes which have memory images on disk
- Does the swapped out process need to swap back in to same physical addresses?
- Depends on address binding method
 - Plus consider pending I/O to / from process memory space
- Modified versions of swapping are found on many systems (i.e., UNIX, Linux, and Windows)
 - Swapping normally disabled
 - Started if more than threshold amount of memory allocated
 - Disabled again once memory demand reduced below threshold





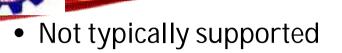


Context Switch Time including Swapping

- 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)
- Can reduce if reduce size of memory swapped by knowing how much memory really being used
 - System calls to inform OS of memory use via request_memory() and release_memory()



- Other constraints as well on swapping
 - Pending I/O can't swap out as I/O would occur to wrong process
 - Or always transfer I/O to kernel space, then to I/O device
 - Known as **double buffering**, adds overhead
- Standard swapping not used in modern operating systems
 - But modified version common
 - Swap only when free memory extremely low



• 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

Swapping on

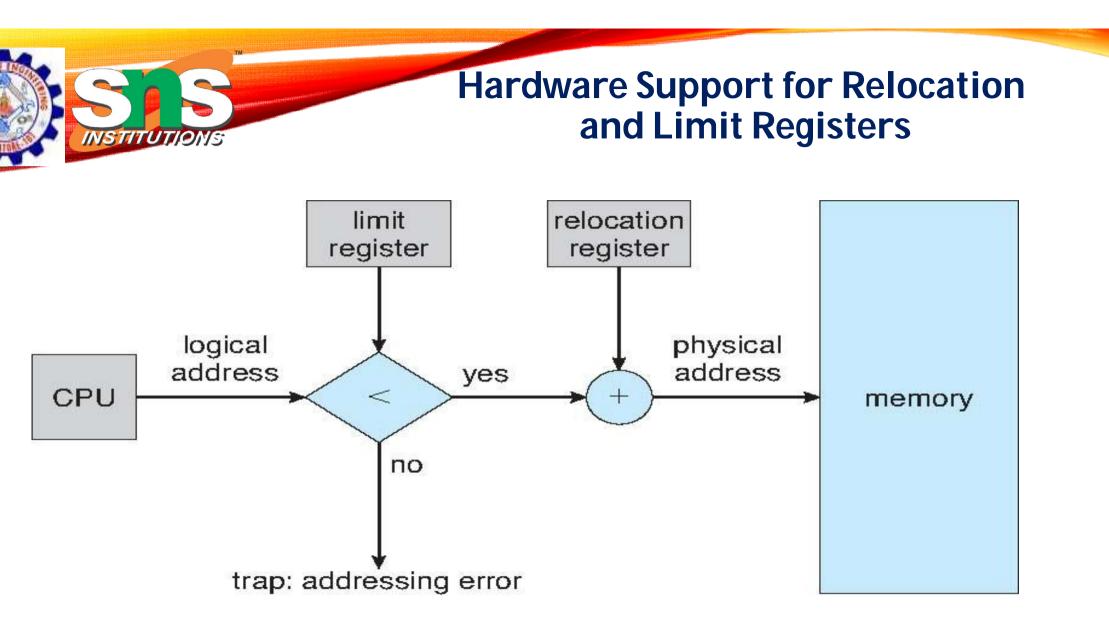
Mobile Systems



- 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



- Relocation registers used to protect user processes from each other, and from changing operating-system code and data
 - Base register contains value of smallest physical address
 - Limit register contains range of logical addresses each logical address must be less than the limit register
 - MMU maps logical address *dynamically*
 - Can then allow actions such as kernel code being transient and kernel changing size

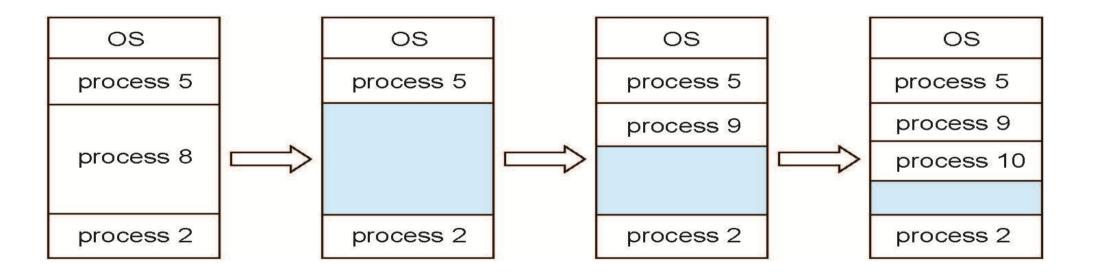


Multiple-partition allocation

- 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)





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
- First fit analysis reveals that given *N* blocks allocated, 0.5 *N* blocks lost to fragmentation
 - 1/3 may be unusable -> **50-percent rule**

Fragmentation (Cont.)

- Reduce external fragmentation by compaction
 - Shuffle memory contents to place all free memory together in one large block
 - Compaction is possible *only* if relocation is dynamic, and is done at execution time
 - I/O problem
 - Latch job in memory while it is involved in I/O
 - Do I/O only into OS buffers
- Now consider that backing store has same fragmentation problems



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- 3. P.C.Bhatt, "An Introduction to Operating Systems–Concepts and Practice", 4th Edition, Prentice Hall of India., 2013.

THANK YOU