memory management

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summary

- goals and requirements
- techniques that do not involve virtual memory

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memory management

- tracking used and free memory
- primitives
  - **allocation** of a certain amount of memory
  - **de-allocation** of what allocated or garbage collectors, permit reuse of de-allocated memory
- reason for **allocation request**
  - data structures (e.g. array, objects, ecc.)
    - kernel data structures (allocator implemented in the kernel)
    - process data structures (allocator implemented by language runtime libraries, e.g. C/C++ malloc)
  - processes (within an O.S.)

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summary and applicability

- many techniques and concepts in memory management equally apply to memory allocation for processes and for data
  - fixed partitioning, dynamic compaction, fragmentation, placement algorithms, buddy system
  - the book talks about a “process” but it may be any kind of allocation request
- hardware supported techniques apply only to processes
  - virtual memory, paging, segmentation

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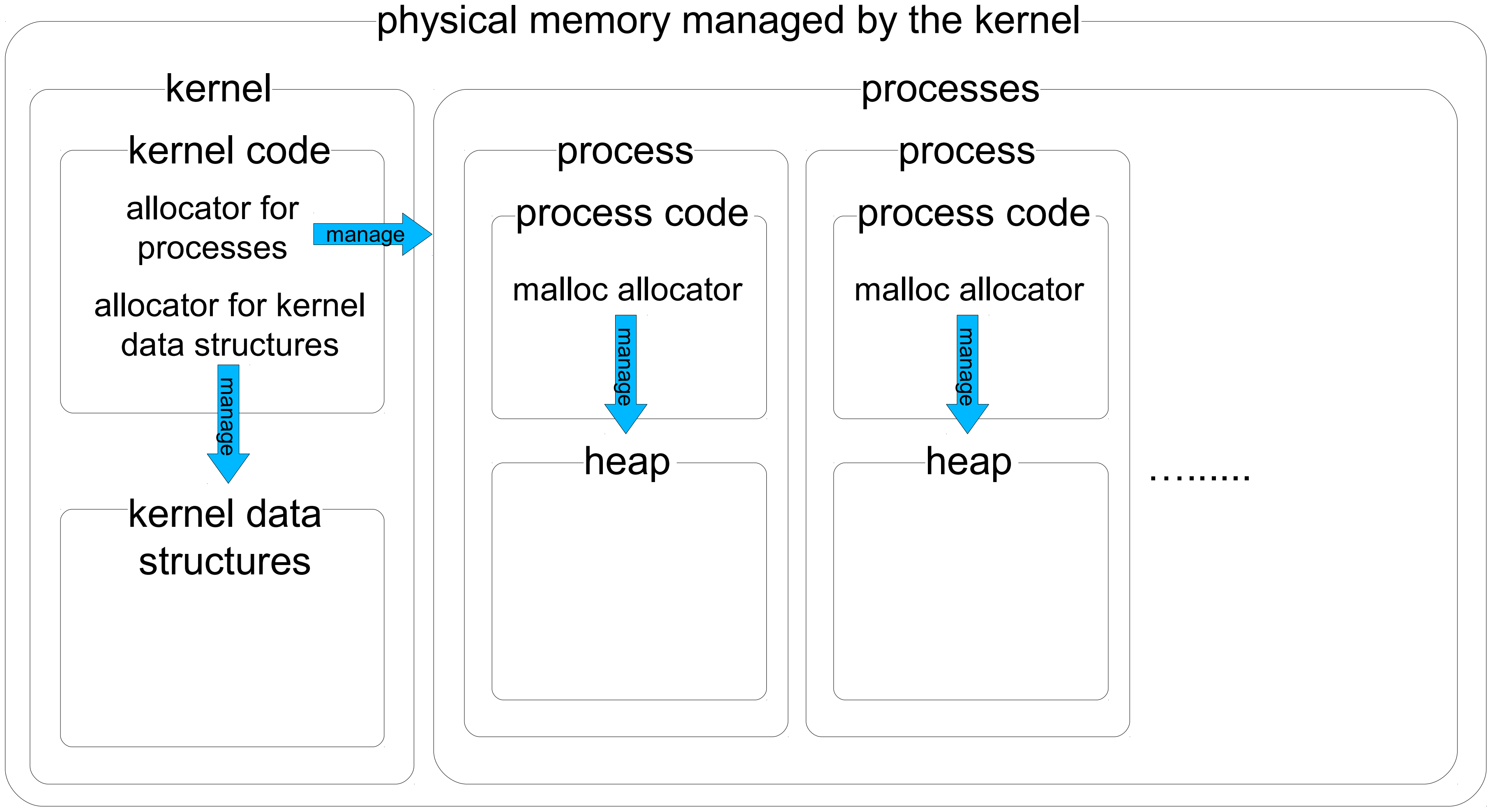
kinds of memory and allocators



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allocators inventory

- in a process
  - heap managed by malloc
    - allocate data structures for the process
- kernel
  - “sort of heap” managed by a “sort of malloc” in the kernel
    - allocate data structures for the kernel
    - remember that the kernel cannot use libraries!
    - in linux this is provided by a buddy-system plus a slab allocator
  - allocation of images of the processes
    - for old OSes adopt the same approaches for data structures
    - in modern OSes relies on paging and virtual memory

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memory management techniques that do not involves virtual memory

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Fixed Partitioning

- Equal-size partitions
  - Any process or data whose size is less than or equal to the partition size can be loaded into an available partition
  - If all partitions are full, the operating system can swap a process out of a partition
  - A process/data may not fit in a partition.
    - For processes, the programmer must design the program with overlays
  - still used in hard disk partitioning
    - LVM overcome such limitation (linux)

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Fixed Partitioning

- Main memory use is inefficient. Any program, no matter how small, occupies an entire partition. This is called **internal fragmentation**.

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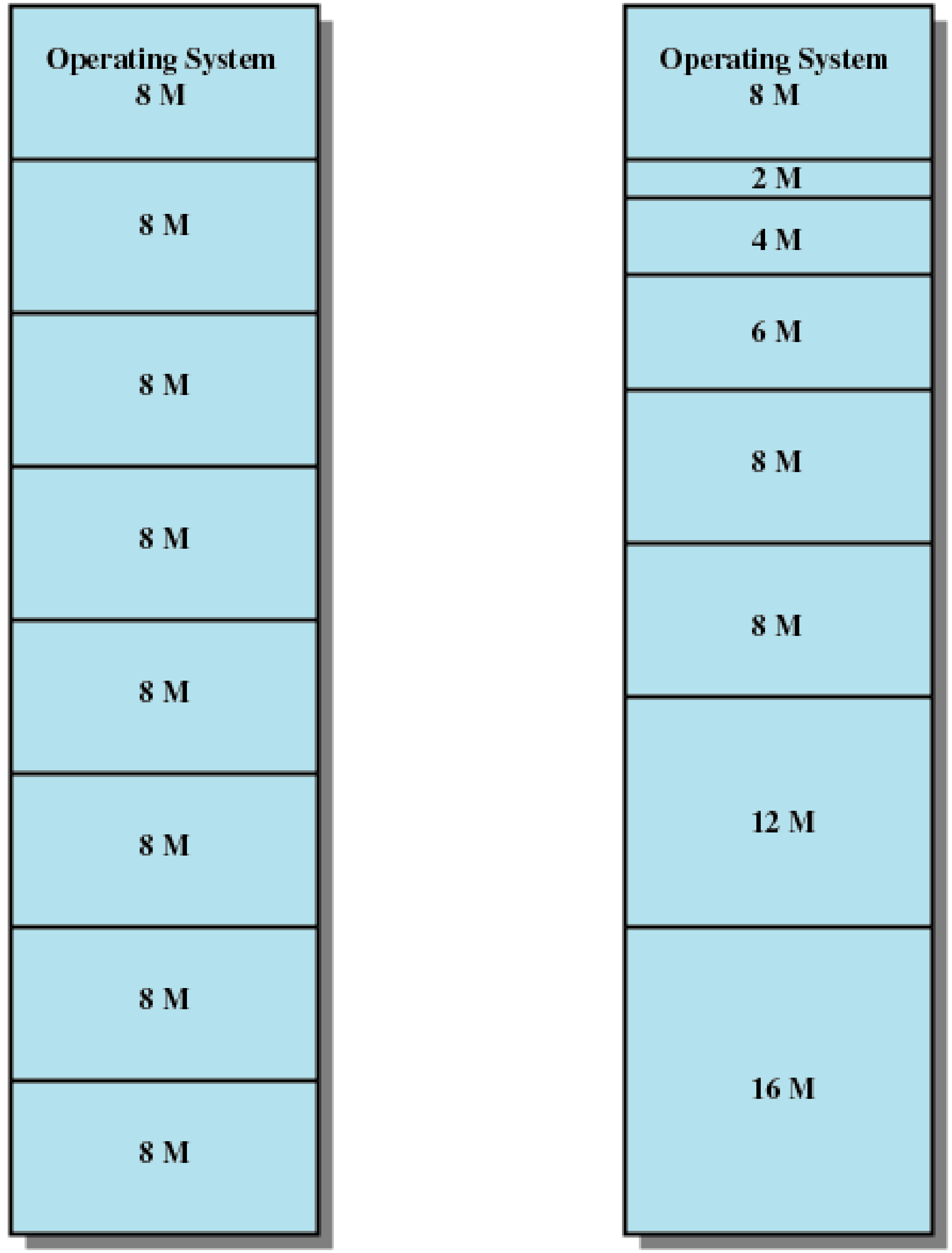
partitions size



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Placement Algorithm with Partitions

- Equal-size partitions
  - Because all partitions are of equal size, it does not matter which partition is used
- Unequal-size partitions
  - Can assign each process/data to the smallest partition it will fit into
  - Queue for each partition
  - Processes/data are assigned in such a way as to minimize wasted memory within a partition

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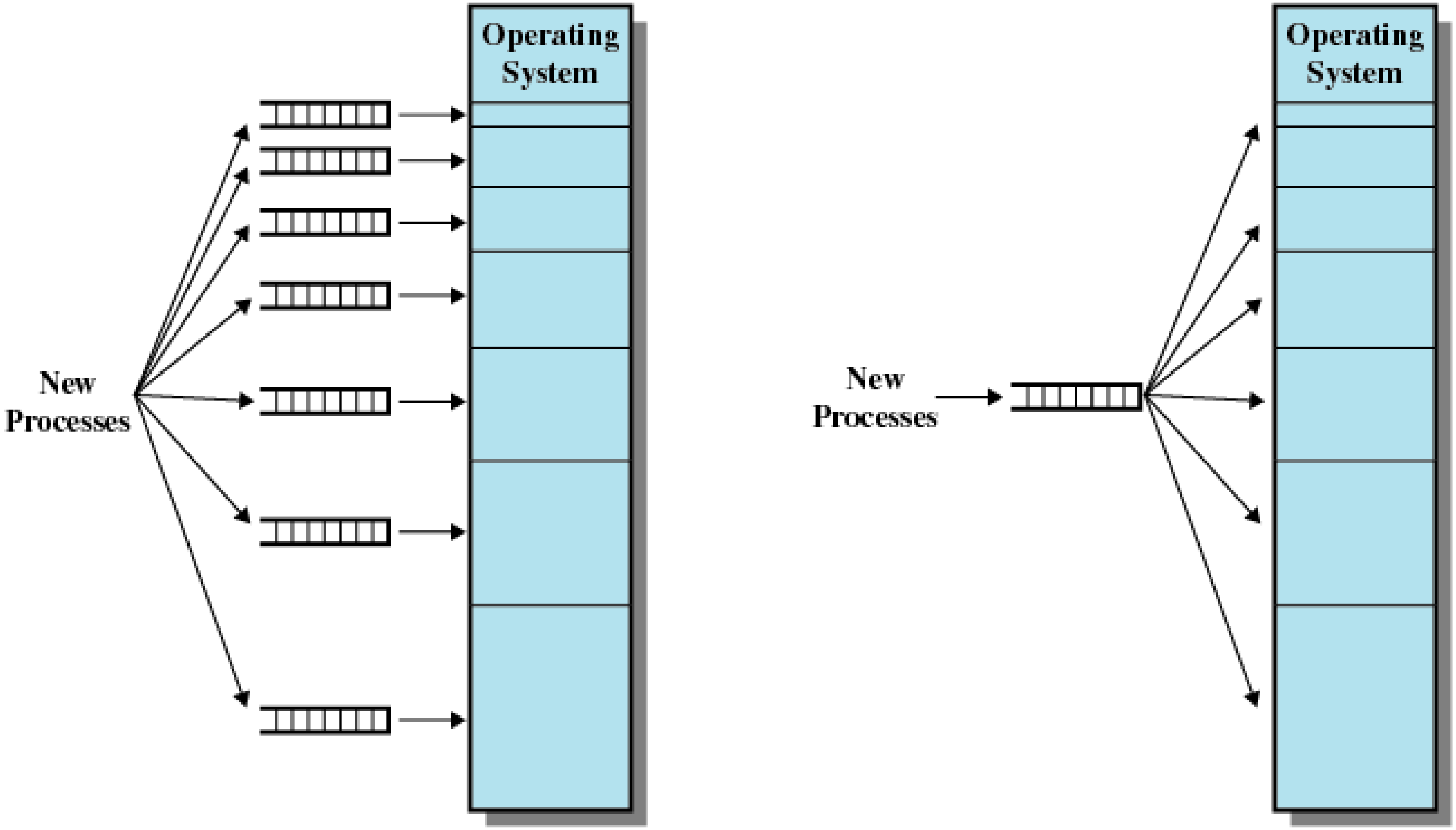
Placement Algorithm with Partitions



(a) One process queue per partition

(b) Single queue

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dynamic partitioning

- Partitions are of variable length and number
- Process/data is allocated exactly as much memory as required
- Eventually get holes in the memory. This is called **external fragmentation**

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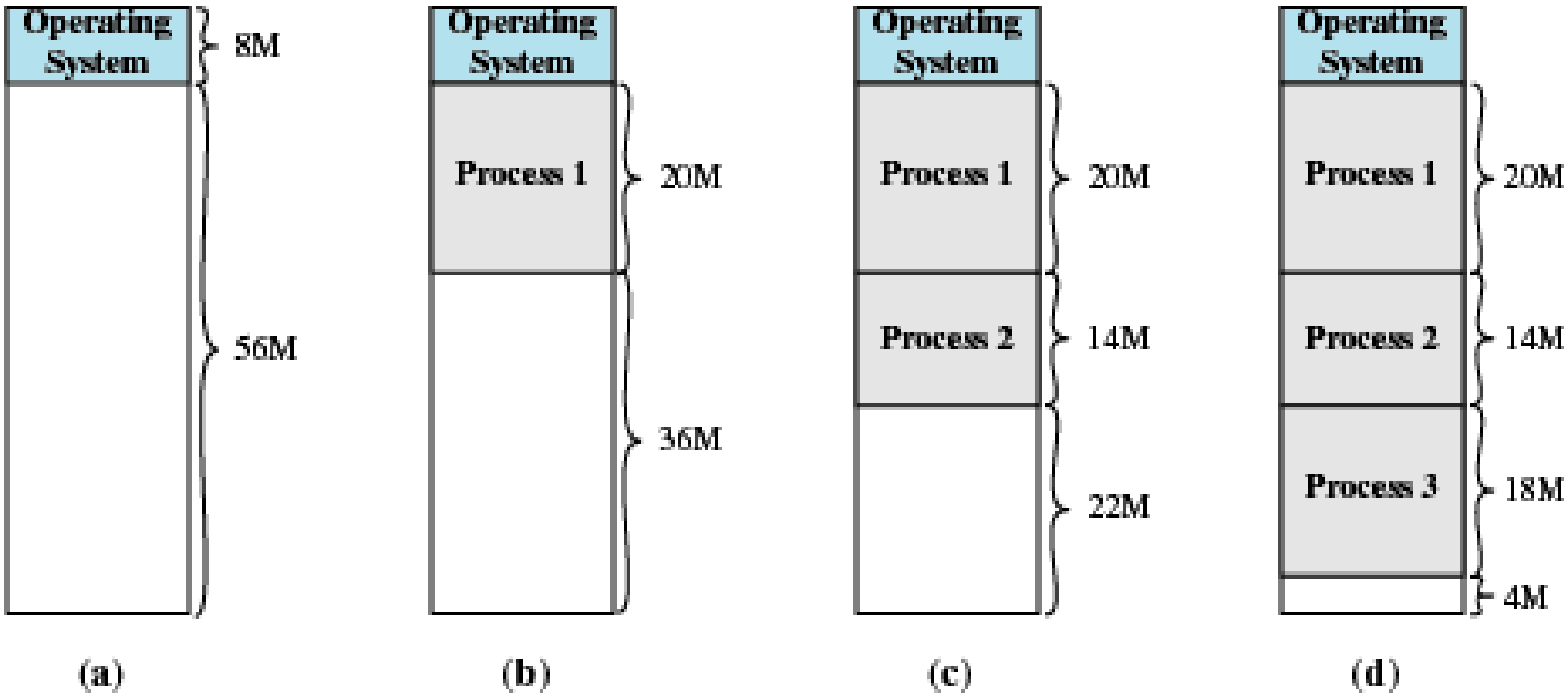
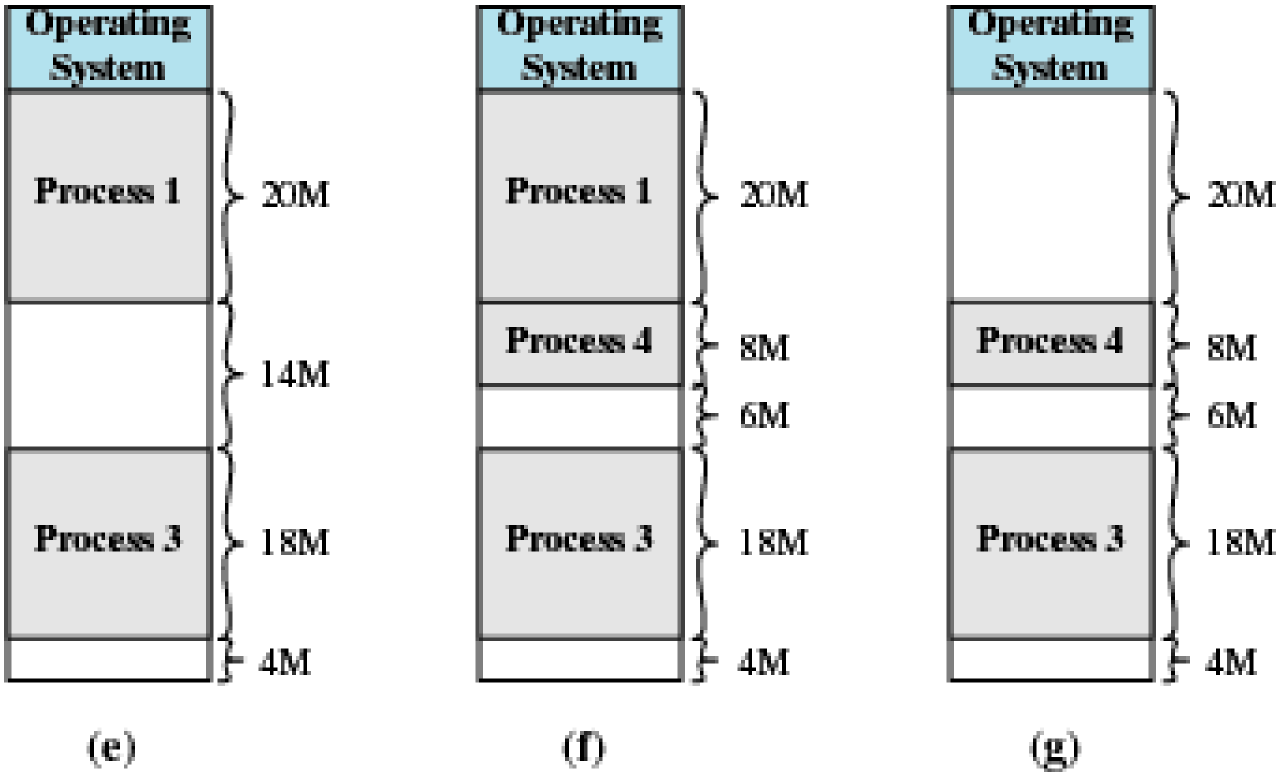
external fragmentation



external fragmentation



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compaction

- external fragmentation solution
- compaction shifts allocated blocks so they are contiguous and all free memory is in one block
  - in the general case compaction may be unfeasible
  - e.g. for C/C++ memory allocators: need for re-directing all pointers
    - but location of pointers is unknown!
    - tracking and redirecting pointers is inefficient
    - C/C++ are designed to be very very efficient
- so compaction is never used, all dynamic allocation systems stand with external fragmentation

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Dynamic Partitioning Placement Algorithm

- allocators must decide which free block to allocate to an allocation request
- Best-fit algorithm
  - Chooses the block that is closest in size to the request
  - Worst performer overall
    - since smallest block is found for the request, the smallest amount of fragmentation is left
  - Memory compaction must be done more often

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Dynamic Partitioning Placement Algorithm

- First-fit algorithm
  - Scans memory form the beginning and chooses the first available block that is large enough
  - Fastest
  - May have many requestes loaded in the front end of memory that must be searched over when trying to find a free block

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Dynamic Partitioning Placement Algorithm

- Next-fit
  - Scans memory from the location of the last placement
  - More often allocate a block of memory at the end of memory where the largest block is found
  - The largest block of memory is broken up into smaller blocks
  - Compaction is required to obtain a large block at the end of memory

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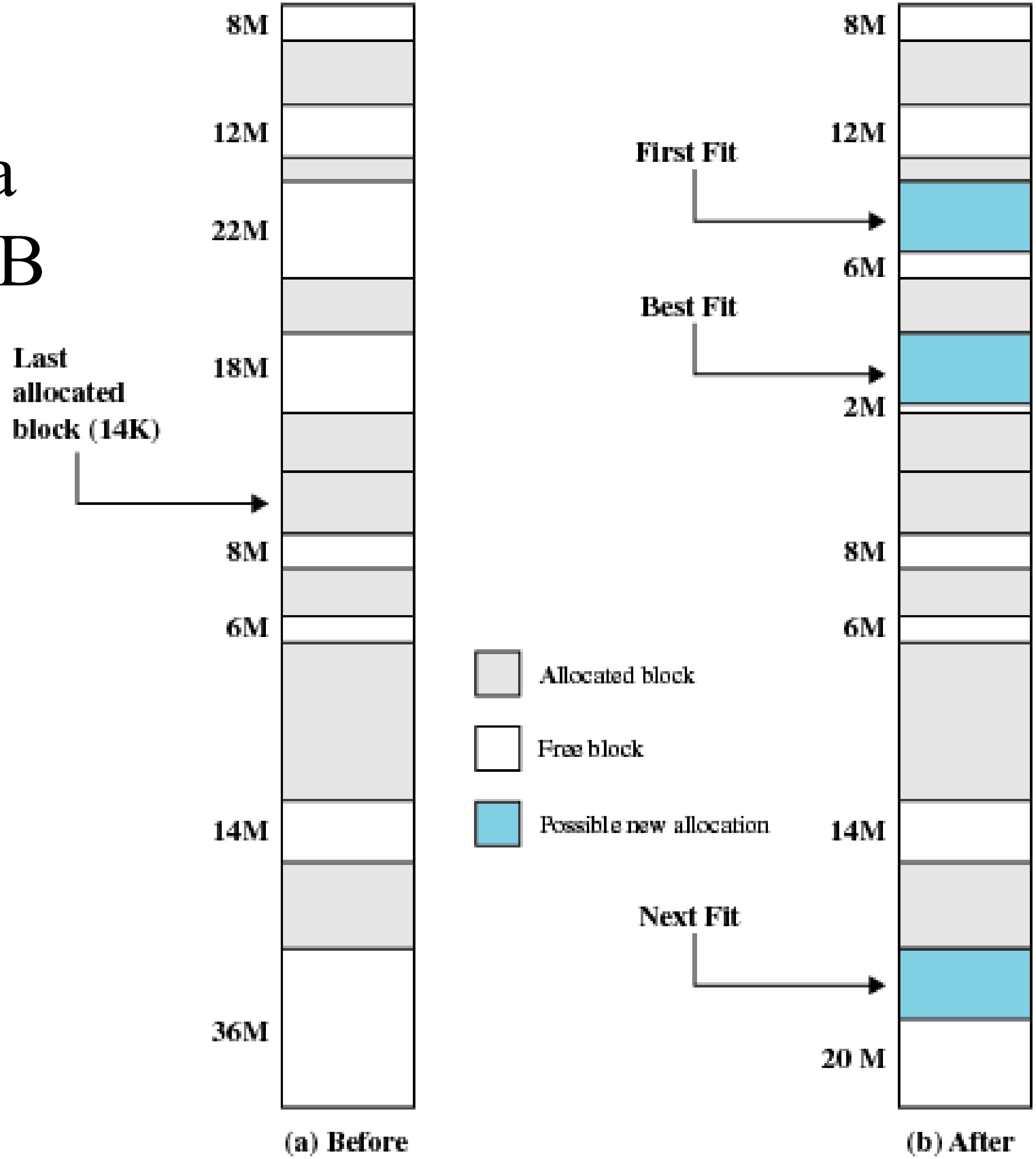
examples

- allocation of a block of 16MB



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Buddy System

- simple but powerful allocator
- widely used in O.S. to allocate large chunks of fixed size
  - e.g. 4KB pages in today architectures (x86_32)
- it can be used as a base for a more fine grainded allocator
  - which is called slab allocator in Linux and Solaris and is used for kernel data structures

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Buddy System

- entire space available is treated as a single block of 2^U
- a request of *s* bytes returns a block of ceil($\log_2 s$) bytes
  - if a request of size *s* such that $2^{i-1} < s <= 2^i$, a block of length 2^i is allocated
  - a 2^i block can be split into two equal **buddies** of 2^{i-1} *bytes*
  - for each request a "big" block is found and split until the smallest block greater than or equal to *s* is generated

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Buddy System

- it maintains a lists L_i (*i=1..U*) of unallocated blocks (*holes*) of size 2^i
  - splitting: remove a hole from L_{i+1} split it, and put the two buddies it into L_i
  - coalescing: remove two unallocated buddies from L_i and put it into L_{i+1}

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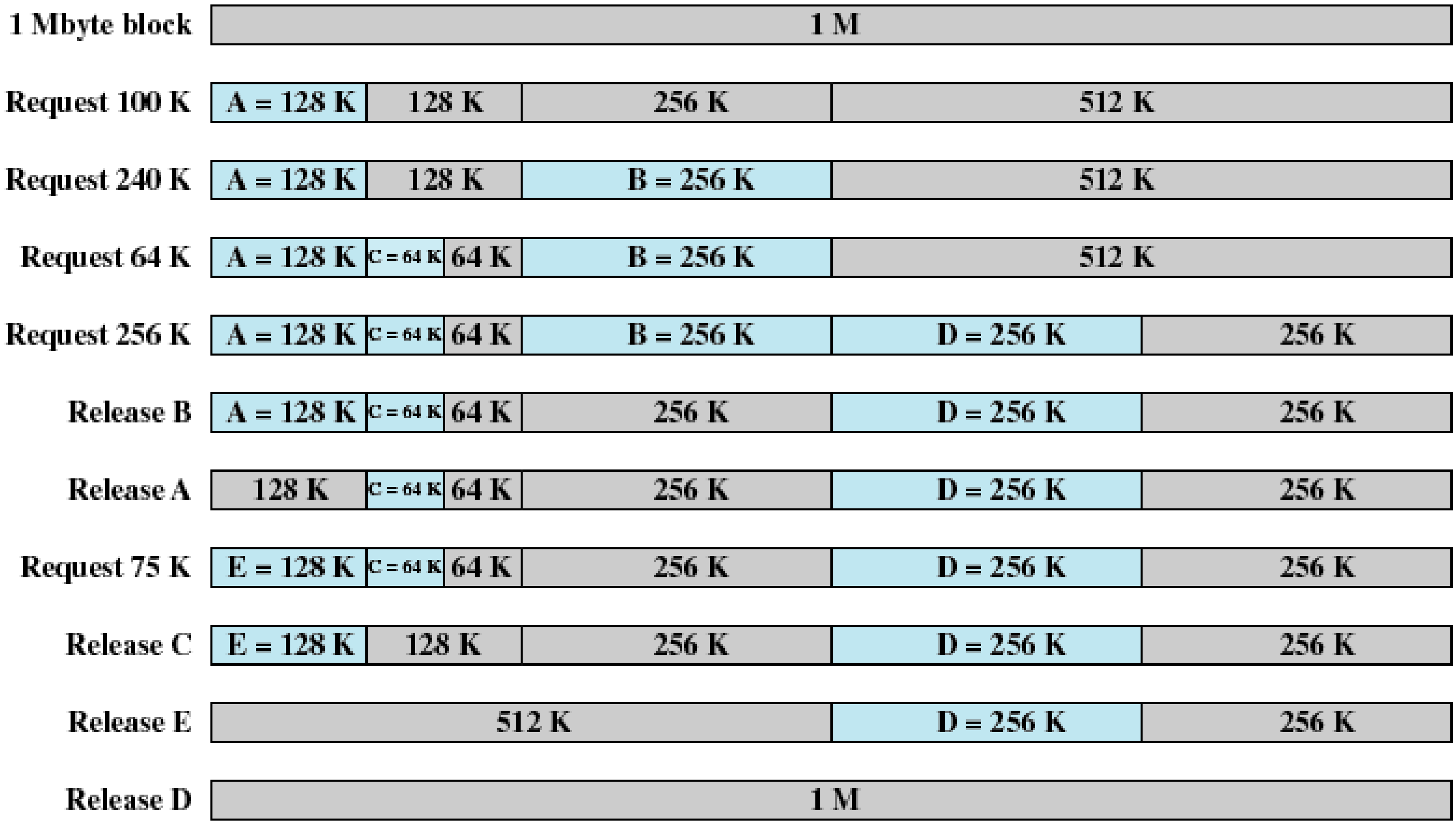
buddy system: example



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Buddy System

procedure **get_hole**

- input: *i* (precondition: $i \leq U$)
- output: a block *c* of size 2^i (postcondition: L_i does not contain *c*)

if (L_i is empty)

b= get_hole(i+1);

< split b into two buddies b_1 and b_2 >

< put b_1 and b_2 into L_i >

c= < first hole in L_i >

<remove c form L_i>

return c

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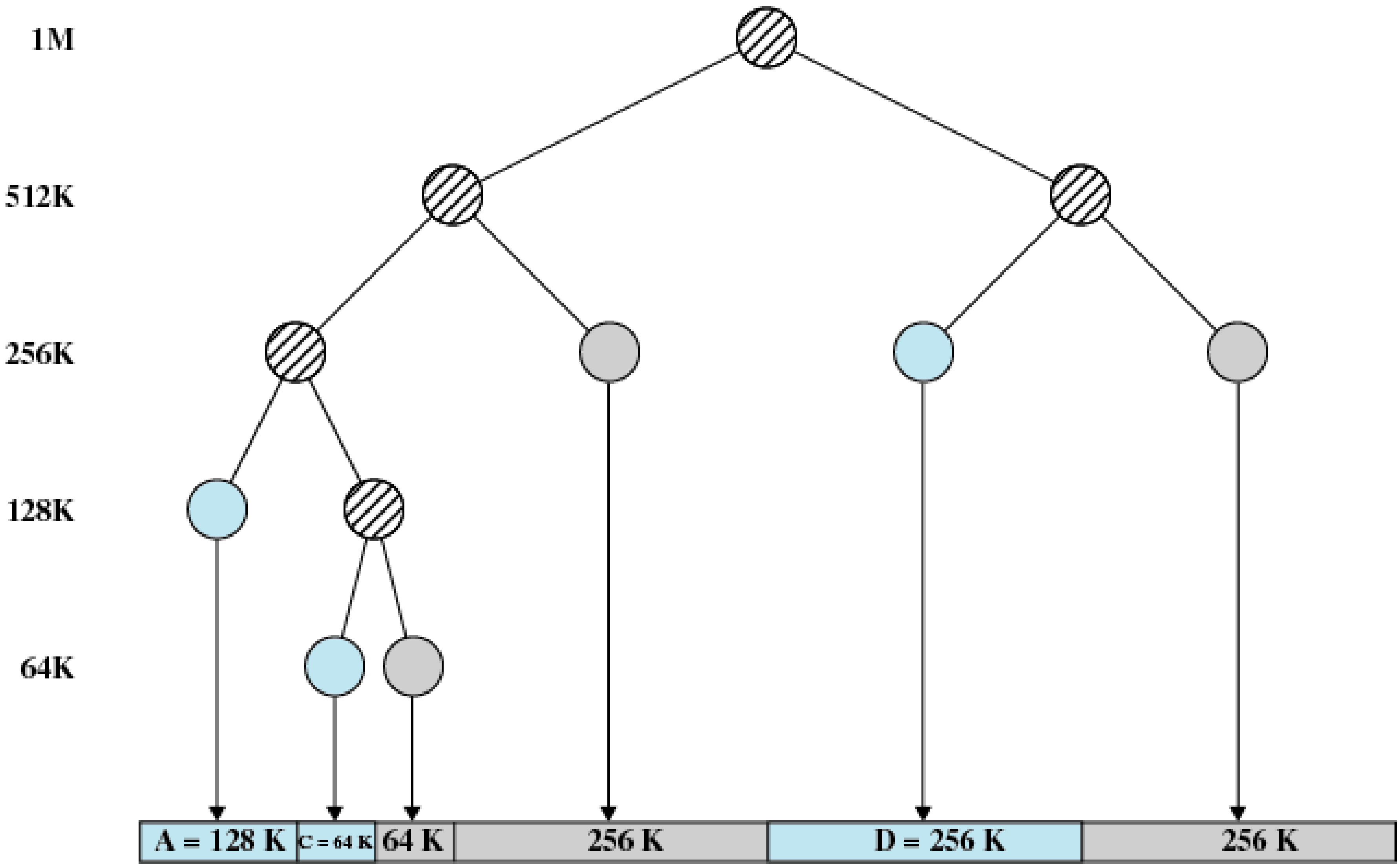
buddy system: tree representation



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memory requirements for processes

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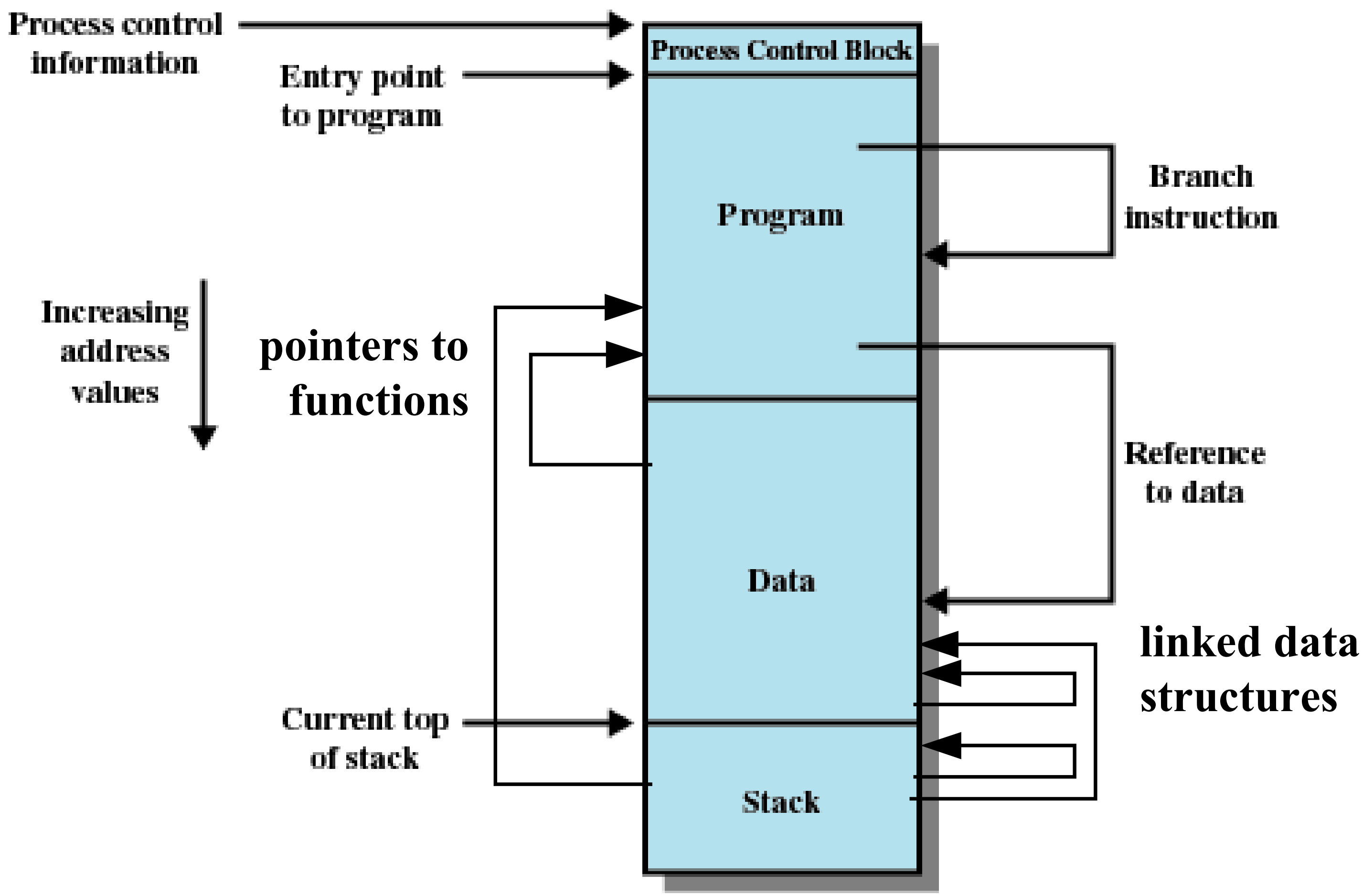
pointers in processes



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relocation for processes

- when a program is loaded into memory the absolute memory locations are determined
  - different execution may lead to different locations
  - memory references in the code must be translated to actual physical memory address
    - before run or on-the-fly
- on-the-fly relocation during execution
  - swap out and swap in
  - compaction of allocated partitions

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protection

- processes should not be able to reference memory locations in another process without permission
- references must be checked at run time
  - impossible to check memory references at compile time (may directly depend on the input)
  - exercise: given a generic input and program prove that reference check is not computable! (reduce stopping problem to it)
- memory protection requirement must be satisfied by the processor (hardware) rather than the operating system (software)
  - Operating system cannot anticipate all of the memory references a process will perform

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sharing

- allow several processes to access the same portion of memory
- better to allow each process access to the same copy of the program rather than have their own separate copy

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logical organization

- programs are written in modules
  - sw engineering reasons: divide the responsibility for development, maintenance, testing, ecc
- modules can be written and compiled independently
- different degrees of protection given to modules (read-only, execute-only)
- share modules among processes

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physical organization

- memory available for a program plus its data may be insufficient
  - overlaying allows various modules to be assigned the same region of memory
- programmer does not know how much memory will be available

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addresses in the program

- Physical
  - The absolute address or actual location in main memory
- Logical
  - Reference to a location in a “logical” memory independent of the current assignment of data to memory
  - Translation must be made to the physical address by the hardware (MMU)
- Relative (logical or physical)
  - Address expressed as a location relative to some known point

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hardware support for relocation

- Base register
  - Starting address for the process
- Bounds register
  - Ending location of the process
- These values are set when the process is loaded or when the process is swapped in

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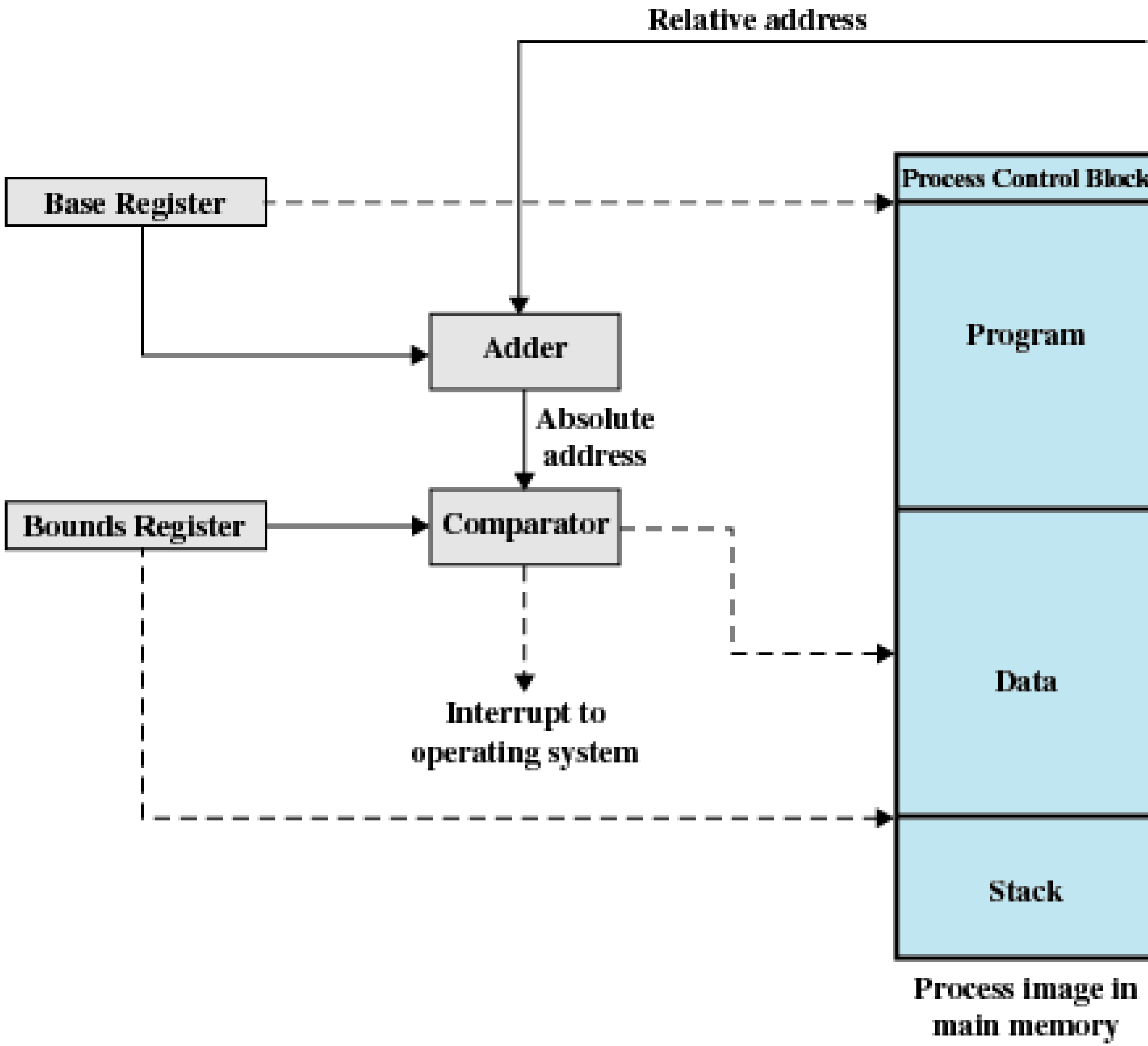
hardware support for relocation



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hardware support for relocation

- The value of the base register is added to a relative address to produce an absolute address
- The resulting address is compared with the value in the bounds register
- If the address is not within bounds, an interrupt is generated to the operating system
- If the address is ok it is used to access memory
- relocation is performed by setting appropriate value in the registers

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Paging

- Partition memory into small equal fixed-size chunks and divide each process into the same size chunks
- The chunks of a process are called **pages** and chunks of memory are called **frames**
- Operating system maintains a **page table** for each process
  - Contains the **frame location for each page** in the process
  - **Memory address consist of a page number and offset within the page**

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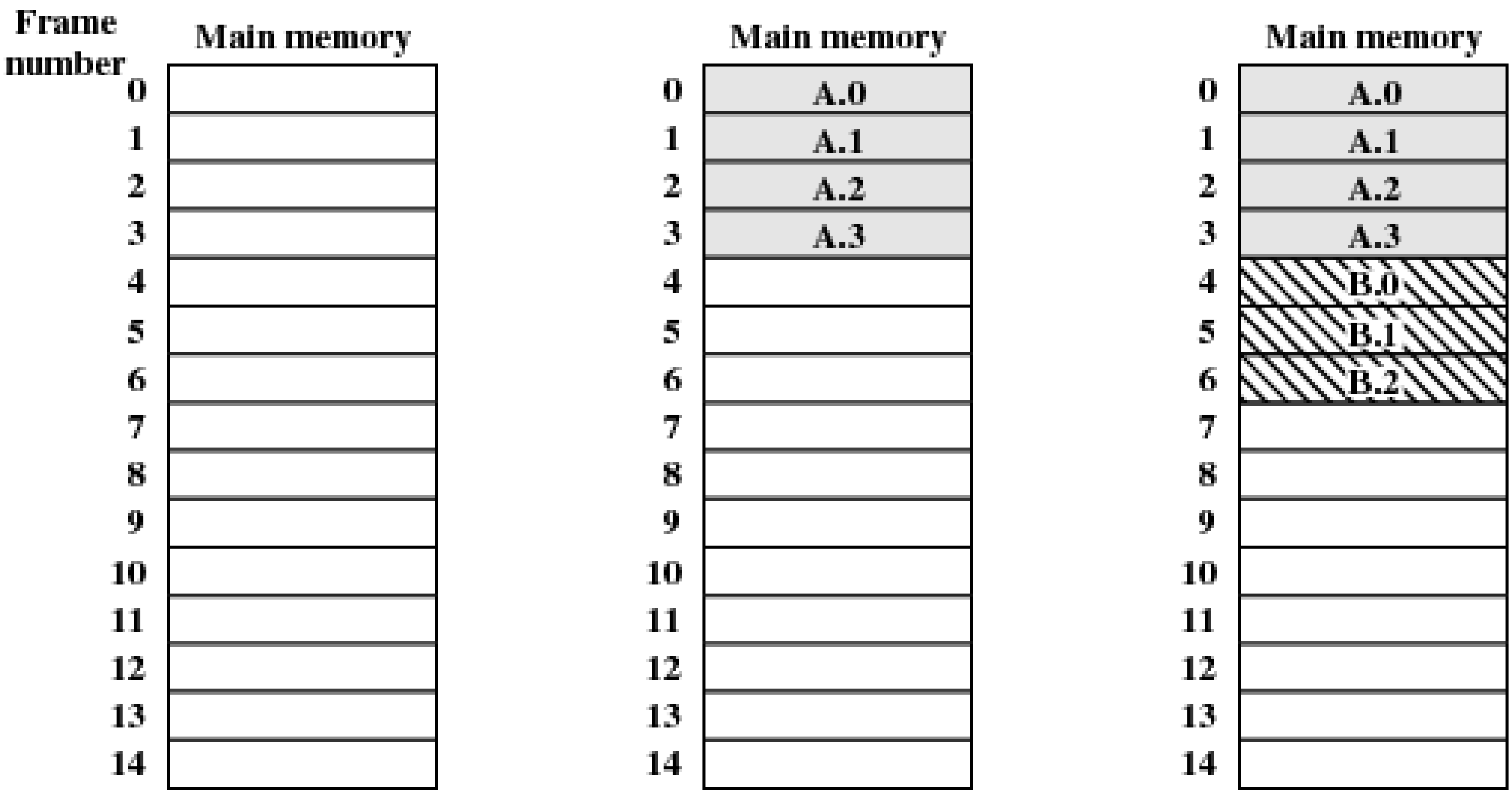
Assignment of Process Pages to Free Frames



(a) Fifteen Available Frames (b) Load Process A (c) Load Process B

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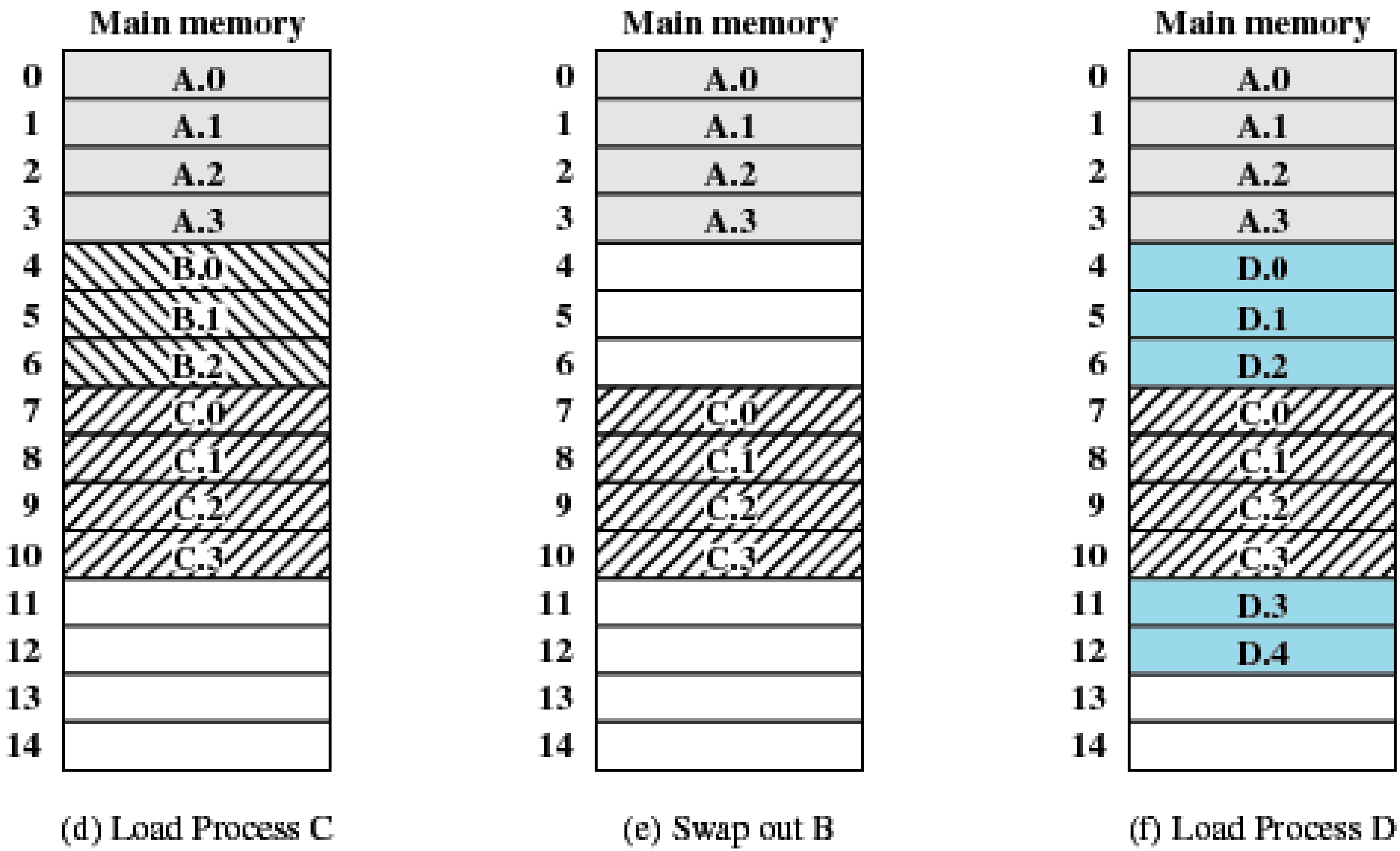
Assignment of Process Pages to Free Frames



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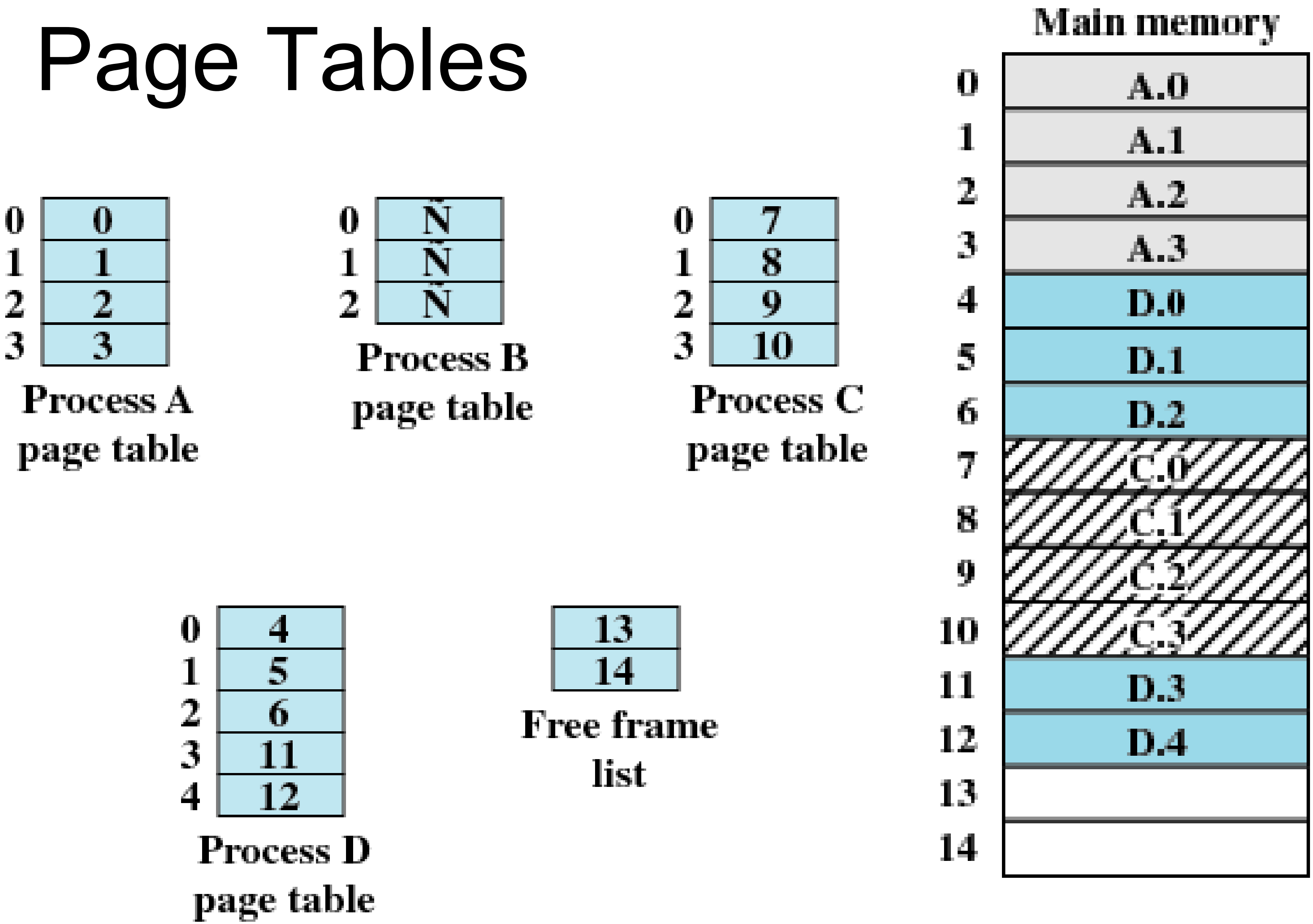
Page Tables



(f) Load Process D

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Segmentation

- All segments of all programs do **not** have to be of the **same length**
- There is a maximum segment length
- Addressing consist of two parts - a **segment number and an offset**
- Since segments are not equal, segmentation is similar to dynamic partitioning

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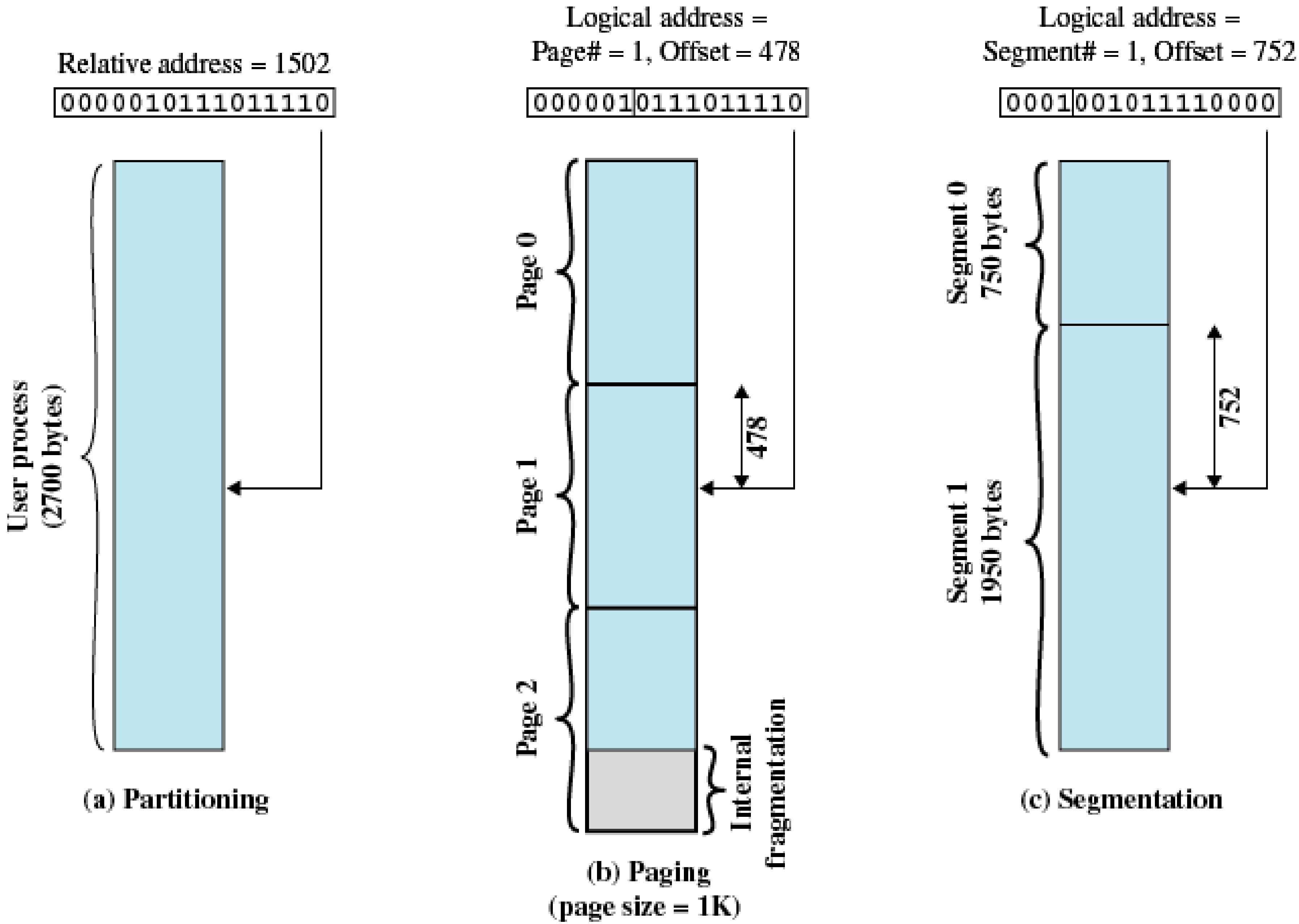
paging vs. segmentation



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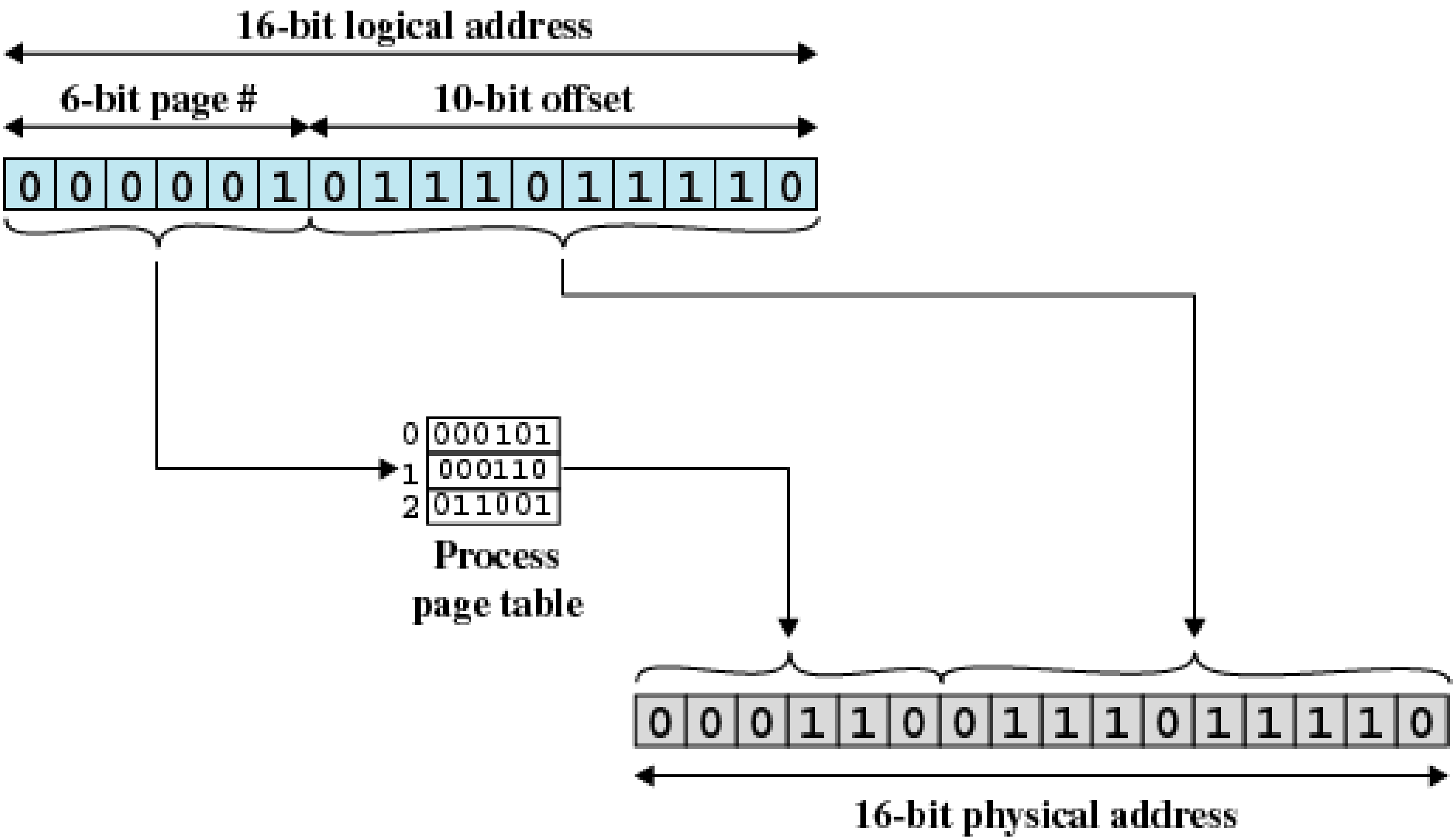
logical to physical translation

paging



(a) Paging

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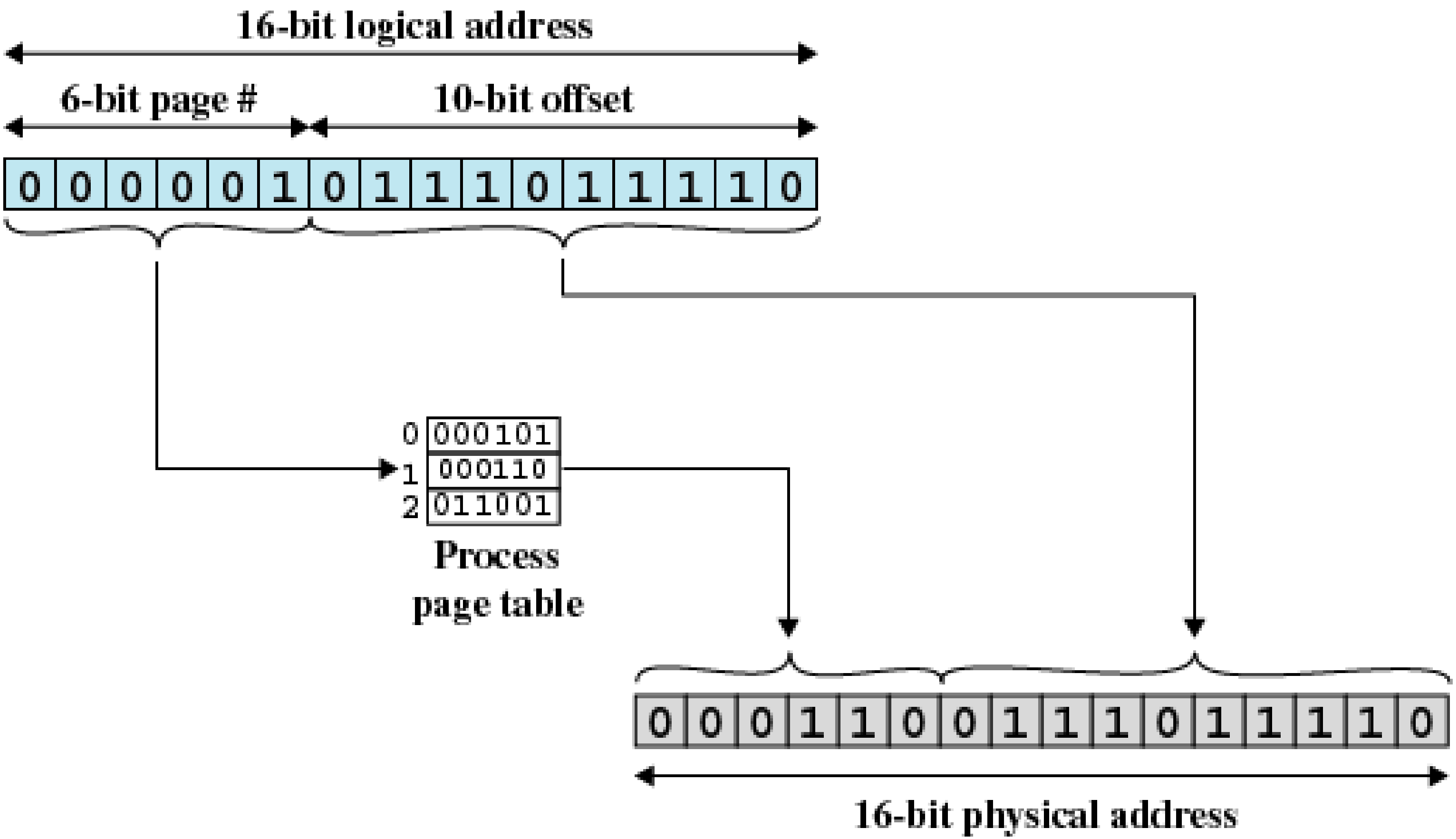
logical to physical translation

paging



(a) Paging

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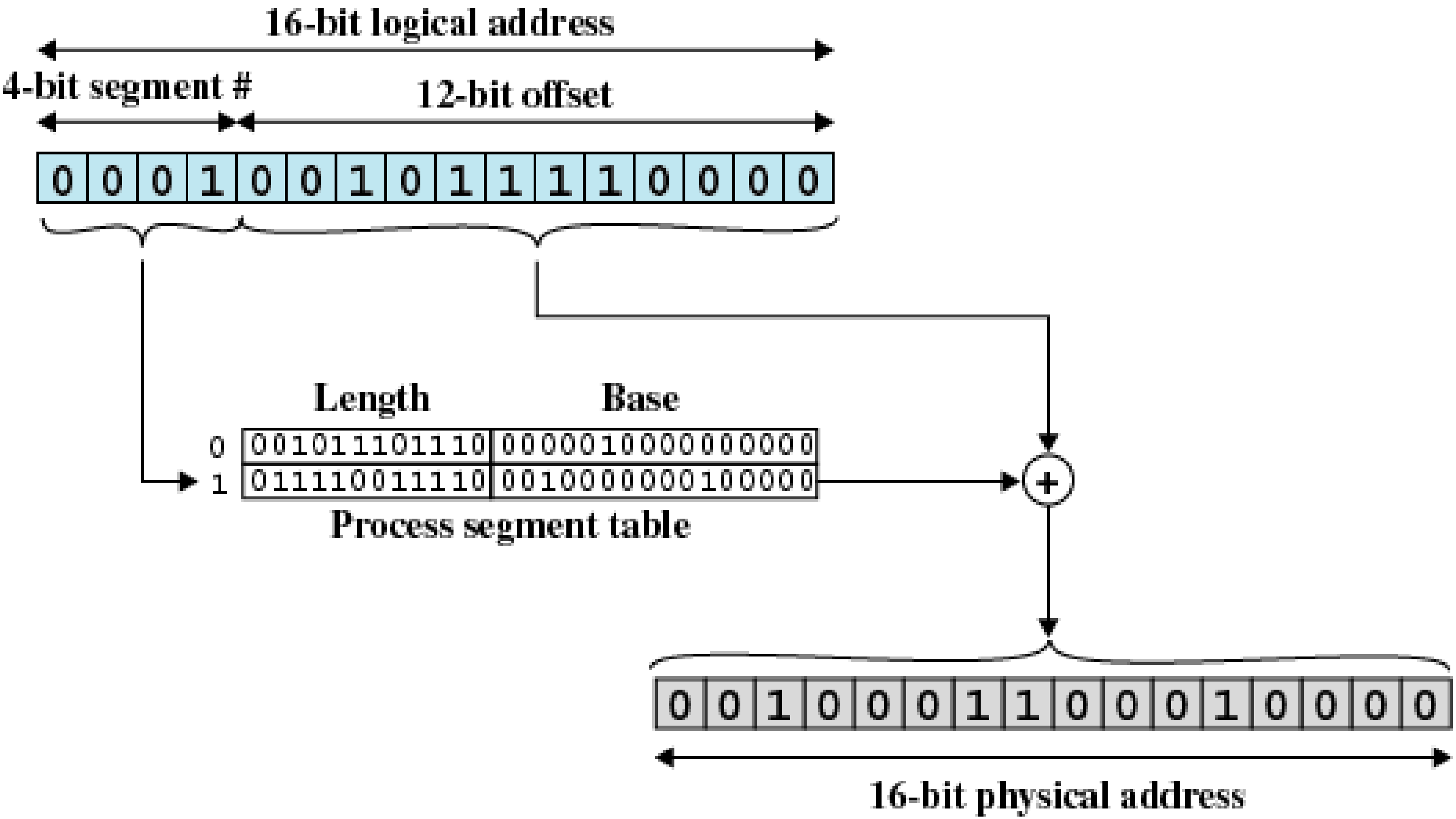
logical to physical translation

segmentation



(b) Segmentation