

## **Memory Management**

Memory management is the functionality of an operating system which handles or manages primary memory and moves processes back and forth between main memory and disk during execution. Memory management keeps track of each and every memory location, regardless of either it is allocated to some process or it is free. It checks how much memory is to be allocated to processes. It decides which process will get memory at what time. It tracks whenever some memory gets freed or unallocated and correspondingly it updates the status.

## **Contiguous & Noncontiguous Memory**

### **Comparison Chart**

<b>BASIS THE COMPARISON</b>	<b>CONTIGUOUS MEMORY ALLOCATION</b>	<b>NONCONTIGUOUS MEMORY ALLOCATION</b>
Basic	Allocates consecutive blocks of	Allocates separate blocks of memory to a process.

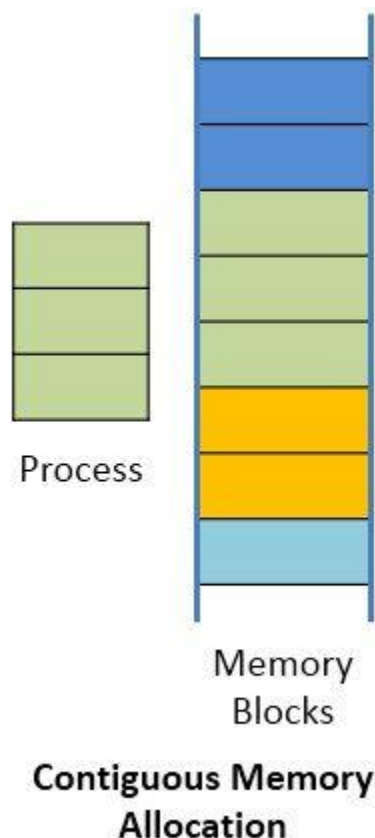
BASIS THE COMPARISON	CONTIGUOUS MEMORY ALLOCATION	NONCONTIGUOUS MEMORY ALLOCATION
	memory to a process.	
Overheads	Contiguous memory allocation does not have the overhead of address translation while execution of a process.	Noncontiguous memory allocation has overhead of address translation while execution of a process.

<b>BASIS THE COMPARISON</b>	<b>CONTIGUOUS MEMORY ALLOCATION</b>	<b>NONCONTIGUOUS MEMORY ALLOCATION</b>
Execution rate	A process executes faster in contiguous memory allocation	A process executes quite slower comparatively in noncontiguous memory allocation.
Solution	The memory space must be divided into the fixed-sized partition and each partition is allocated to a	Divide the process into several blocks and place them in different parts of the memory according to the availability of

<b>BASIS THE COMPARISON</b>	<b>CONTIGUOUS MEMORY ALLOCATION</b>	<b>NONCONTIGUOUS MEMORY ALLOCATION</b>
	single process only.	memory space available.
Table	A table is maintained by operating system which maintains the list of available and occupied partition in the memory space	A table has to be maintained for each process that carries the base addresses of each block which has been acquired by a process in memory.

## Definition of Contiguous Memory Allocation

The operating system and the user's processes both must be accommodated in the main memory. Hence the main memory is **divided into two** partitions: at one partition the operating system resides and at other the user processes reside. In usual conditions, the several user processes must reside in the memory at the same time, and therefore, it is important to consider the allocation of memory to the processes.

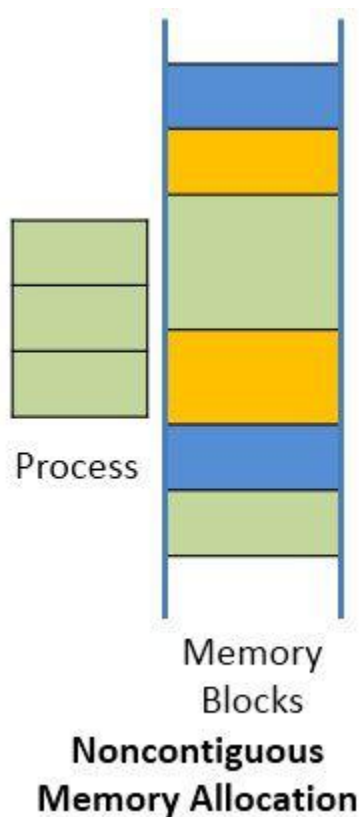


## Definition Non-Contiguous Memory Allocation

The Non-contiguous memory allocation allows a process to **acquire the several memory blocks at the different location in the memory** according to its

requirement. The noncontiguous memory allocation also **reduces** the **memory wastage** caused due to internal and external fragmentation. As it utilizes the memory holes, created during internal and external fragmentation.

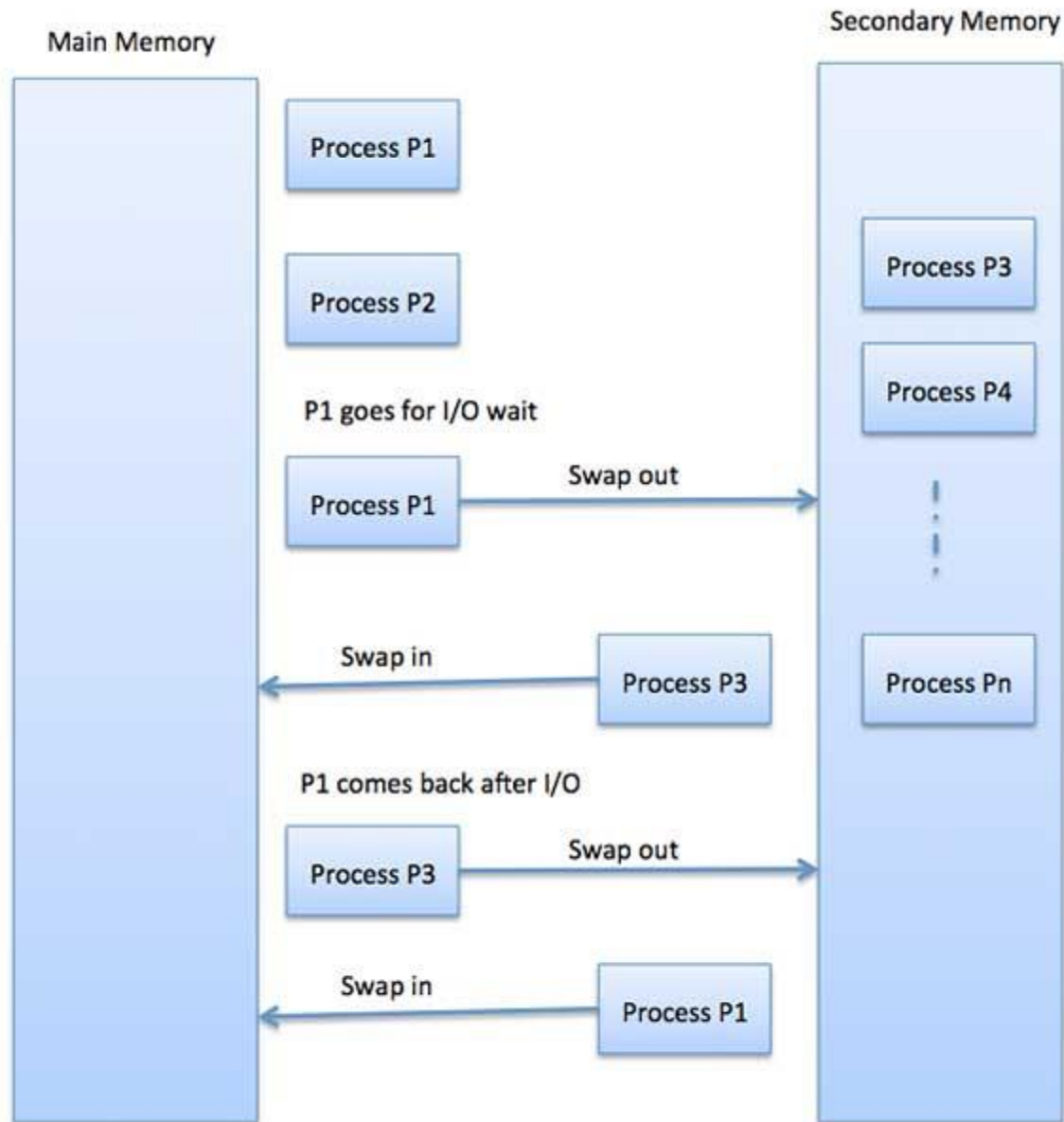
**Paging and segmentation** are the two ways which allow a process's physical address space to be non-contiguous. In non-contiguous memory allocation, the process is divided into **blocks** (pages or segments) which are placed into the different area of memory space according to the availability of the memory.



## **Swapping**

Swapping is a mechanism in which a process can be swapped temporarily out of main memory (or move) to secondary storage (disk) and make that memory available to other processes. At some later time, the system swaps back the process from the secondary storage to main memory.

Though performance is usually affected by swapping process but it helps in running multiple and big processes in parallel and that's the reason **Swapping is also known as a technique for memory compaction.**



The total time taken by swapping process includes the time it takes to move the entire process to a secondary disk and then to copy the process back to memory, as well as the time the process takes to regain main memory.

Let us assume that the user process is of size 2048KB and on a standard hard disk where swapping will take place has a data transfer rate around 1 MB per second. The



actual transfer of the 1000K process to or from memory will take

2048KB / 1024KB per second

= 2 seconds

= 2000 milliseconds

Now considering in and out time, it will take complete 4000 milliseconds plus other overhead where the process competes to regain main memory

## **Fragmentation**

As processes are loaded and removed from memory, the free memory space is broken into little pieces. It happens after sometimes that processes cannot be allocated to memory blocks considering their small size and memory blocks remains unused. This problem is known as Fragmentation.

Fragmentation is of two types –

S.N.	Fragmentation & Description
1	<b>External fragmentation</b> Total memory space is enough to satisfy a request or to reside a process in it, but it is not contiguous, so it cannot be used.
2	<b>Internal fragmentation</b> Memory block assigned to process is bigger. Some portion of memory is left unused, as it cannot be used by another process.

The following diagram shows how fragmentation can cause waste of memory and a compaction technique can be used to create more free memory out of fragmented memory –

Fragmented memory before compaction



Memory after compaction



External fragmentation can be reduced by compaction or shuffle memory contents to place all free memory together in one large block. To make compaction feasible, relocation should be dynamic.

The internal fragmentation can be reduced by effectively assigning the smallest partition but large enough for the process.

## **Compaction**

- Compaction is a process in which the free space is collected in a large memory chunk to make some space available for processes.

- In memory management, swapping creates multiple fragments in the memory because of the processes moving in and out.
- Compaction refers to combining all the empty spaces together and processes.
- Compaction helps to solve the problem of fragmentation, but it requires too much of CPU time.
- It moves all the occupied areas of store to one end and leaves one large free space for incoming jobs, instead of numerous small ones.
- In compaction, the system also maintains relocation information and it must be performed on each new allocation of job to the memory or completion of job from memory.

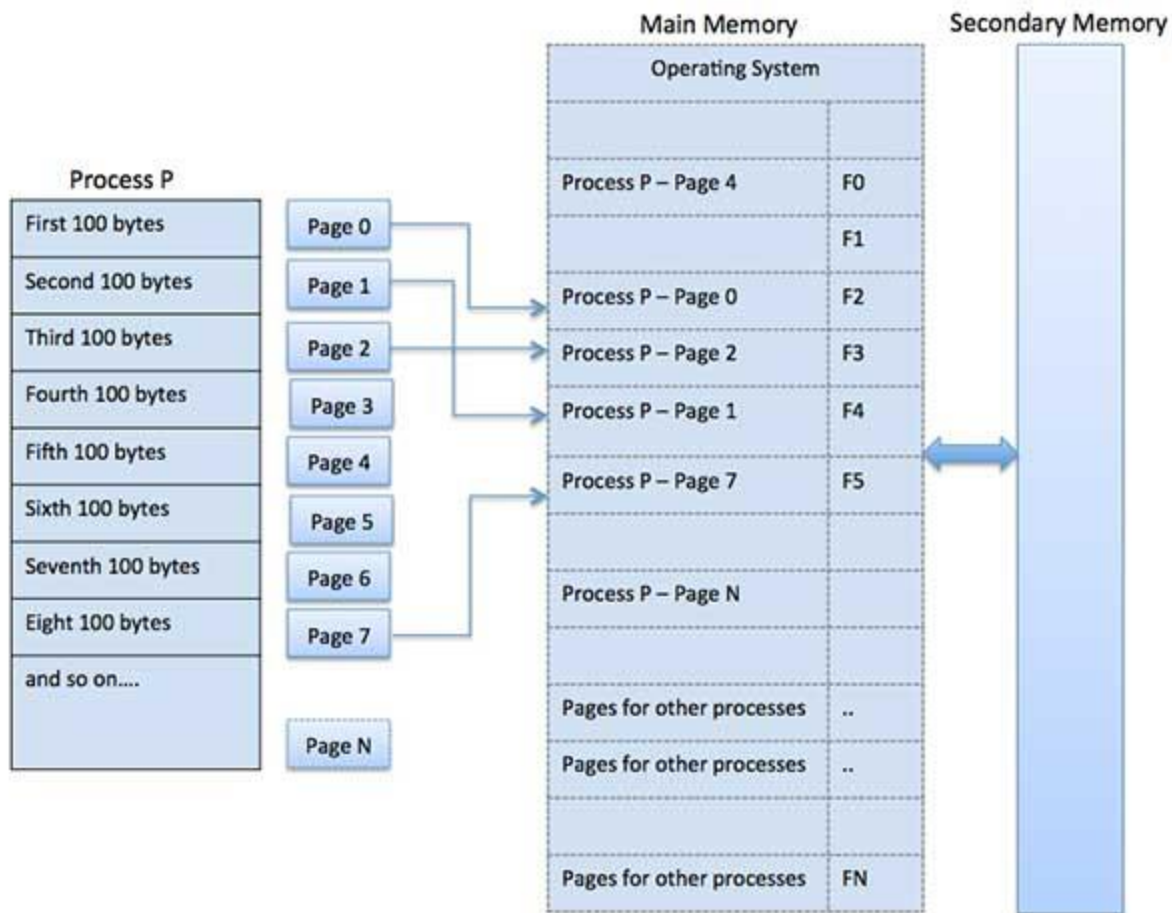
## **Paging**

A computer can address more memory than the amount physically installed on the system. This extra memory is actually called virtual memory and it is a section of a hard that's set up to emulate the computer's RAM. Paging technique plays an important role in implementing virtual memory.

Paging is a memory management technique in which process address space is broken into blocks of the same size called **pages** (size is power of 2, between 512 bytes and 8192 bytes). The size of the process is measured in the number of pages.

Similarly, main memory is divided into small fixed-sized blocks of (physical) memory called **frames** and the size of a frame is kept the same as that of a page to have

optimum utilization of the main memory and to avoid external fragmentation.



## Address Translation

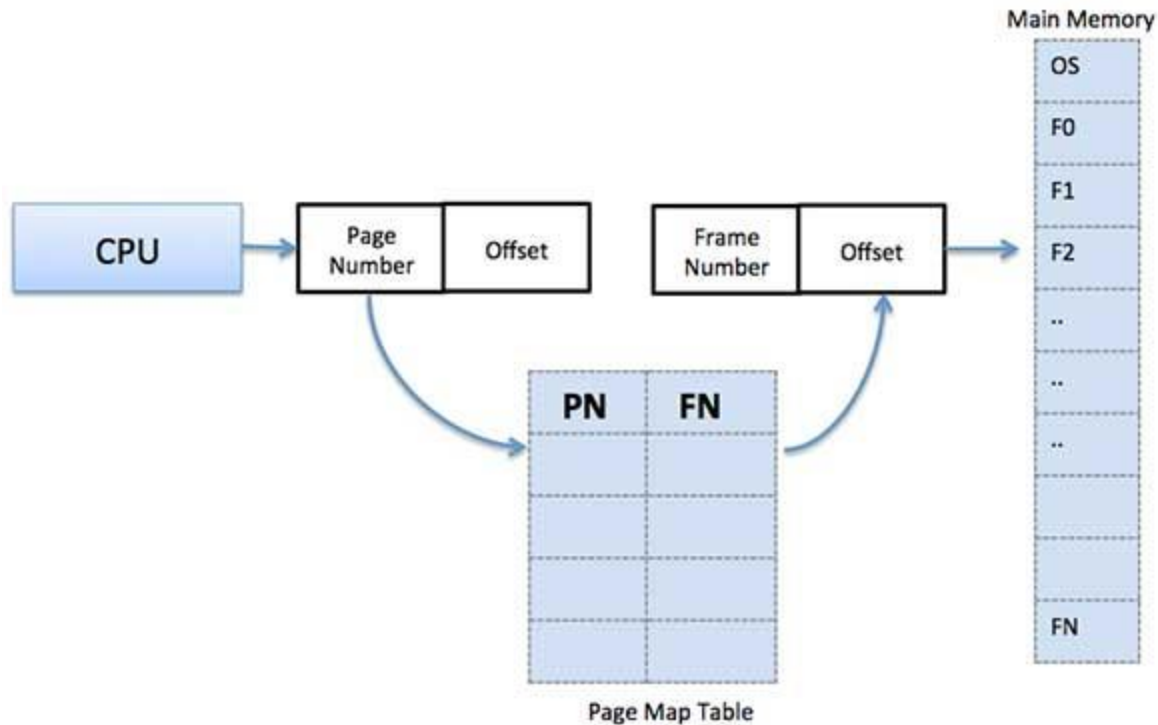
Page address is called **logical address** and represented by **page number** and the **offset**.

Logical Address = Page number + page offset

Frame address is called **physical address** and represented by a **frame number** and the **offset**.

Physical Address = Frame number + page offset

A data structure called **page map table** is used to keep track of the relation between a page of a process to a frame in physical memory.



When the system allocates a frame to any page, it translates this logical address into a physical address and create entry into the page table to be used throughout execution of the program.

When a process is to be executed, its corresponding pages are loaded into any available memory frames. Suppose you have a program of 8Kb but your memory can accommodate only 5Kb at a given point in time, then the paging concept will come into picture. When a computer runs out of RAM, the operating system (OS) will move idle or unwanted pages of memory to secondary memory to free up RAM for other processes and brings them back when needed by the program.

This process continues during the whole execution of the program where the OS keeps removing idle pages from the main memory and write them onto the secondary

memory and bring them back when required by the program.

## **Advantages and Disadvantages of Paging**

Here is a list of advantages and disadvantages of paging —

- Paging reduces external fragmentation, but still suffer from internal fragmentation.
- Paging is simple to implement and assumed as an efficient memory management technique.
- Due to equal size of the pages and frames, swapping becomes very easy.
- Page table requires extra memory space, so may not be good for a system having small RAM.

## **Segmentation**

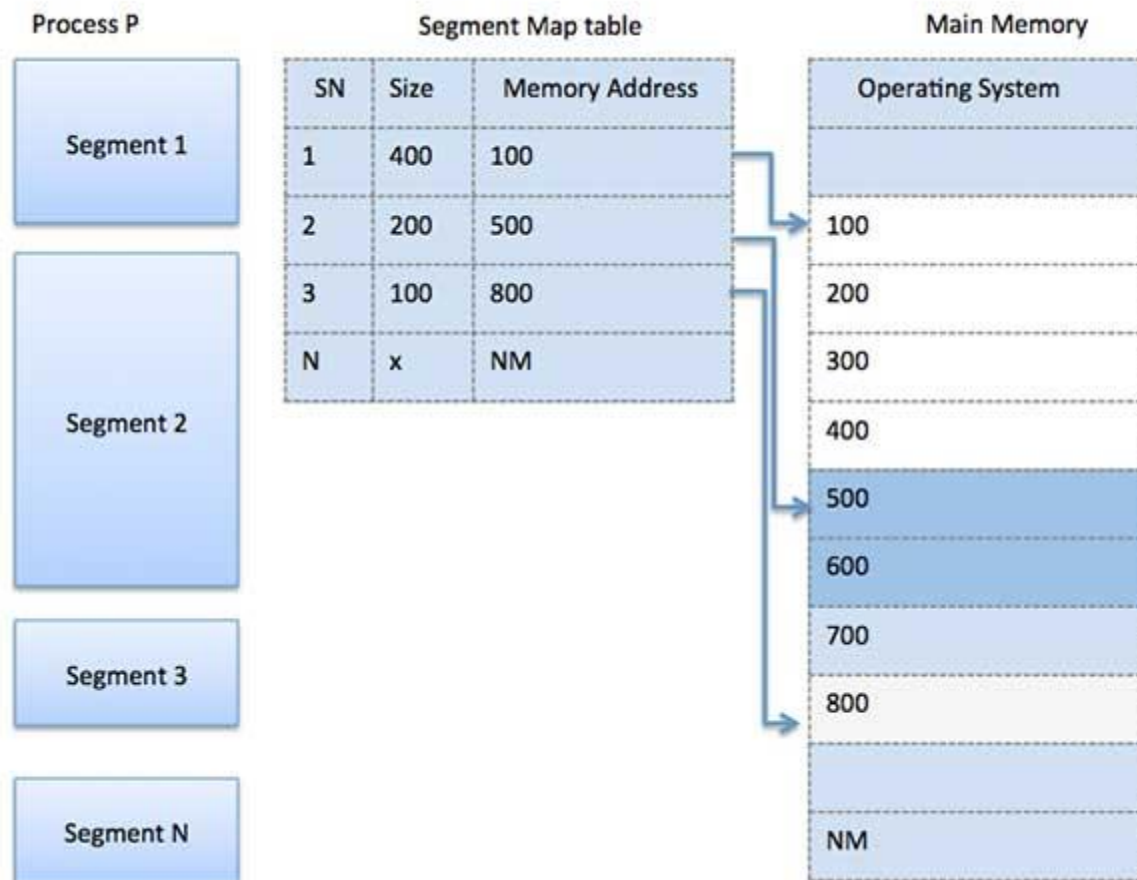
Segmentation is a memory management technique in which each job is divided into several segments of different sizes, one for each module that contains pieces that perform related functions. Each segment is actually a different logical address space of the program.

When a process is to be executed, its corresponding segmentation are loaded into non-contiguous memory though every segment is loaded into a contiguous block of available memory.

Segmentation memory management works very similar to paging but here segments are of variable-length where as in paging pages are of fixed size.

A program segment contains the program's main function, utility functions, data structures, and so on. The operating

system maintains a **segment map table** for every process and a list of free memory blocks along with segment numbers, their size and corresponding memory locations in main memory. For each segment, the table stores the starting address of the segment and the length of the segment. A reference to a memory location includes a value that identifies a segment and an offset.



# **Virtual Memory Concepts**

A computer can address more memory than the amount physically installed on the system. This extra memory is actually called **virtual memory** and it is a section of a hard disk that's set up to emulate the computer's RAM.

The main visible advantage of this scheme is that programs can be larger than physical memory. Virtual memory serves two purposes. First, it allows us to extend the use of physical memory by using disk. Second, it allows us to have memory protection, because each virtual address is translated to a physical address.

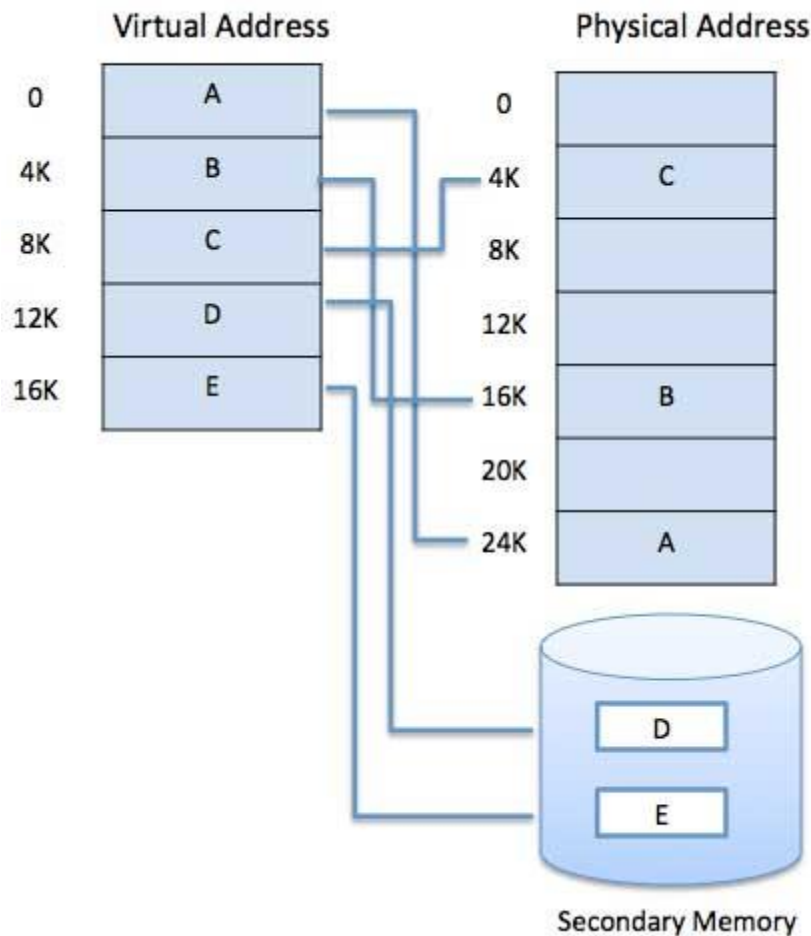
Following are the situations, when entire program is not required to be loaded fully in main memory.

- User written error handling routines are used only when an error occurred in the data or computation.
- Certain options and features of a program may be used rarely.
- Many tables are assigned a fixed amount of address space even though only a small amount of the table is actually used.
- The ability to execute a program that is only partially in memory would counter many benefits.
- Less number of I/O would be needed to load or swap each user program into memory.
- A program would no longer be constrained by the amount of physical memory that is available.
- Each user program could take less physical memory, more programs could be run the same time, with a



corresponding increase in CPU utilization and throughput.

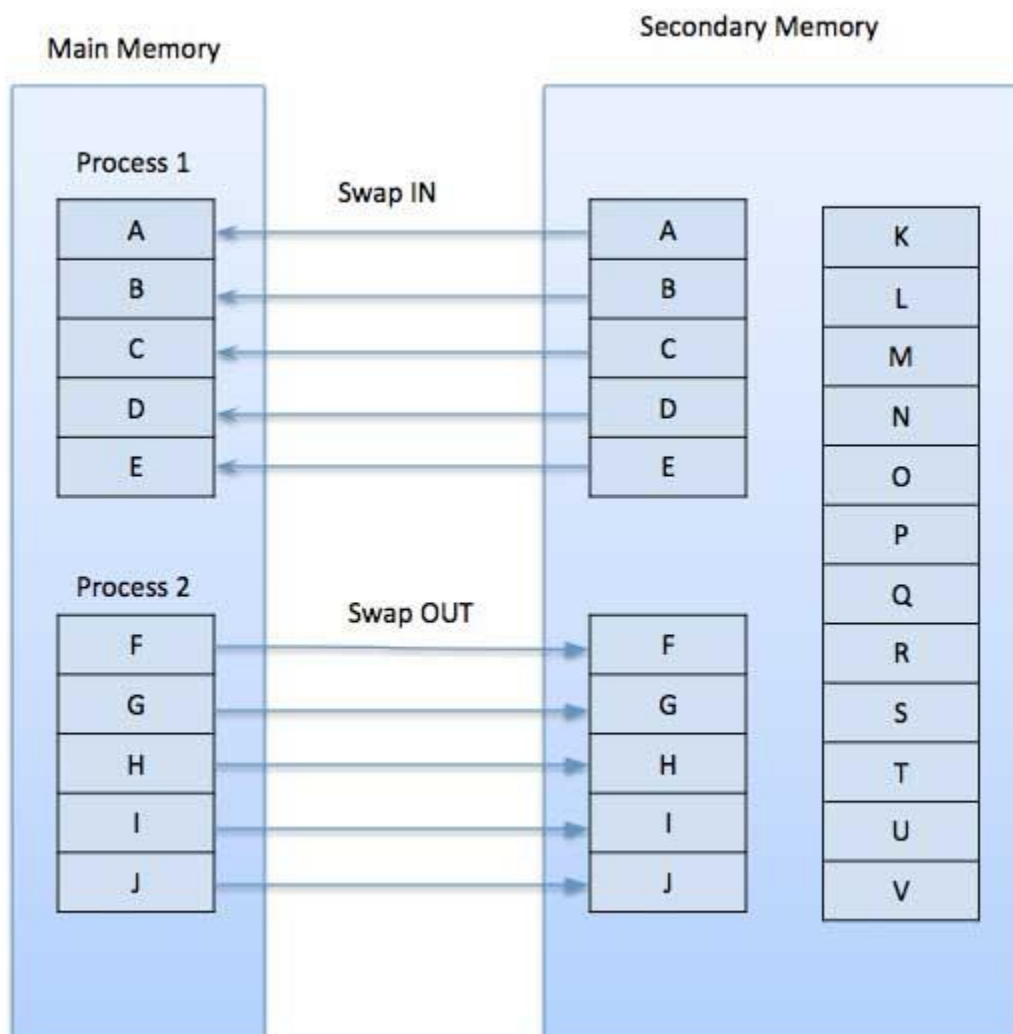
Modern microprocessors intended for general-purpose use, a memory management unit, or MMU, is built into the hardware. The MMU's job is to translate virtual addresses into physical addresses. A basic example is given below –



Virtual memory is commonly implemented by demand paging. It can also be implemented in a segmentation system. Demand segmentation can also be used to provide virtual memory.

Demand Paging

A demand paging system is quite similar to a paging system with swapping where processes reside in secondary memory and pages are loaded only on demand, not in advance. When a context switch occurs, the operating system does not copy any of the old program's pages out to the disk or any of the new program's pages into the main memory. Instead, it just begins executing the new program after loading the first page and fetches that program's pages as they are referenced.



While executing a program, if the program references a page which is not available in the main memory because

it was swapped out a little ago, the processor treats this invalid memory reference as a **page fault** and transfers control from the program to the operating system to demand the page back into the memory.

## **Advantages**

Following are the advantages of Demand Paging –

- Large virtual memory.
- More efficient use of memory.
- There is no limit on degree of multiprogramming.

## **Disadvantages**

- Number of tables and the amount of processor overhead for handling page interrupts are greater than in the case of the simple paged management techniques.

## **Page Replacement Algorithm**

Page replacement algorithms are the techniques using which an Operating System decides which memory pages to swap out, write to disk when a page of memory needs to be allocated. Paging happens whenever a page fault occurs and a free page cannot be used for allocation purpose accounting to reason that pages are not available or the number of free pages is lower than required pages.

When the page that was selected for replacement and was paged out, is referenced again, it has to read in from disk, and this requires for I/O completion. This process determines the quality of the page replacement algorithm: the lesser the time waiting for page-ins, the better is the algorithm.

A page replacement algorithm looks at the limited information about accessing the pages provided by hardware, and tries to select which pages should be replaced to minimize the total number of page misses, while balancing it with the costs of primary storage and processor time of the algorithm itself. There are many different page replacement algorithms. We evaluate an algorithm by running it on a particular string of memory reference and computing the number of page faults,

### Reference String

The string of memory references is called reference string. Reference strings are generated artificially or by tracing a given system and recording the address of each memory reference. The latter choice produces a large number of data, where we note two things.

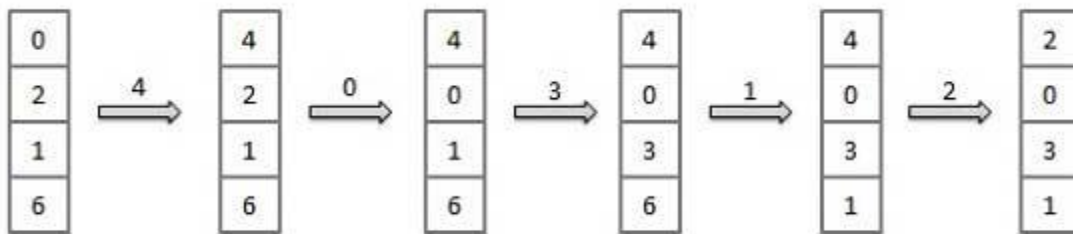
- For a given page size, we need to consider only the page number, not the entire address.
- If we have a reference to a page **p**, then any immediately following references to page **p** will never cause a page fault. Page p will be in memory after the first reference; the immediately following references will not fault.
- For example, consider the following sequence of addresses – 123,215,600,1234,76,96
- If page size is 100, then the reference string is 1,2,6,12,0,0

### First in First Out (FIFO) algorithm

- Oldest page in main memory is the one which will be selected for replacement.
- Easy to implement, keep a list, replace pages from the tail and add new pages at the head.

Reference String : 0, 2, 1, 6, 4, 0, 1, 0, 3, 1, 2, 1

Misses : x x x x x x x x x



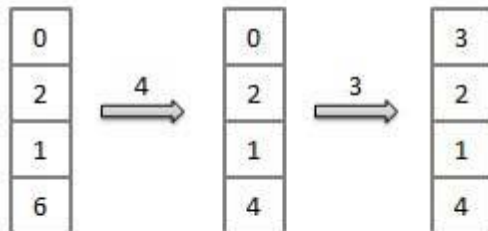
Fault Rate =  $9 / 12 = 0.75$

## Optimal Page algorithm

- An optimal page-replacement algorithm has the lowest page-fault rate of all algorithms. An optimal page-replacement algorithm exists, and has been called OPT or MIN.
- Replace the page that will not be used for the longest period of time. Use the time when a page is to be used.

Reference String : 0, 2, 1, 6, 4, 0, 1, 0, 3, 1, 2, 1

Misses : x x x x x x x



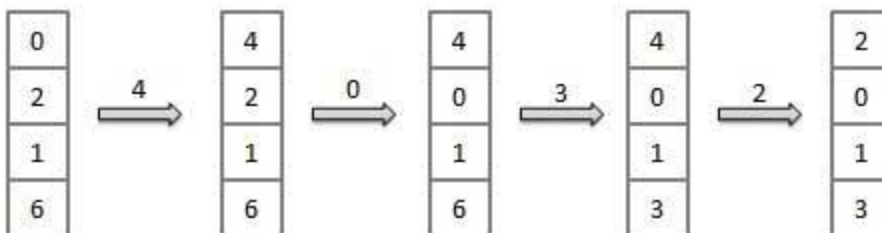
Fault Rate =  $6 / 12 = 0.50$

## Least Recently Used (LRU) algorithm

- Page which has not been used for the longest time in main memory is the one which will be selected for replacement.
- Easy to implement, keep a list, replace pages by looking back into time.

Reference String : 0, 2, 1, 6, 4, 0, 1, 0, 3, 1, 2, 1

Misses : x x x x x x x x



Fault Rate =  $8 / 12 = 0.67$

## **Page Buffering algorithm**

- To get a process start quickly, keep a pool of free frames.
- On page fault, select a page to be replaced.
- Write the new page in the frame of free pool, mark the page table and restart the process.
- Now write the dirty page out of disk and place the frame holding replaced page in free pool.

## **Least frequently Used (LFU) algorithm**

- The page with the smallest count is the one which will be selected for replacement.
- This algorithm suffers from the situation in which a page is used heavily during the initial phase of a process, but then is never used again.

## **Most frequently Used (MFU) algorithm**

- This algorithm is based on the argument that the page with the smallest count was probably just brought in and has yet to be used.