Operating Systems and Concurrency

Memory Management 3 COMP2007

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2023

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Recall

Last Lecture

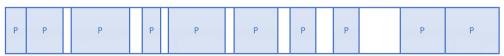
- Dynamic relocation & protection, base & bound registers (logical ⇒ physical address)
- Dynamic partitioning & segmentation (internal ⇒ external fragmentation)
- Free space management (bitmaps and linked lists)

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Sketch of the Scene

Where Did we Get To?

- Contiguous memory allocation methods:
 - Fixed (non-)equal size partitions
 - Dynamic partitioning
 - Segmentation (individual segments are contiguous)
 - malloc(), free()
- The amount of memory requested by processes can be differ
- Memory will become fragmented over time



0 MAX_{physical}

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Sketch of the Scene

What do we Need?

- A method to keep track of free memory
- A strategy to **allocate free** memory when requested by a process
- Approaches to prevent fragmentation whenever we can

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Overview

Goals for Today

- Memory allocation:
 - First fit, best fit, next fit, worst fit, quick fit
 - Buddy algorithm
- Prevent fragmentation non-contiguous memory management
 - (Segmentation)
 - Paging page tables, address translation

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First Fit

- First fit scans from the start of the list until an sufficiently large gap is found
 - if the space is the exact size then all the space is allocated
 - else the space is split:
 - The first entry is set to the size requested and marked "used"
 - The second entry is set to remaining size and marked "free"

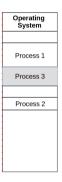
Operating System Process 1 Process 2



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First Fit

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Next Fit

- The next fit algorithm maintains a record of where it got to:
 - It restarts its search from where it stopped last time
 - It gives an even chance to all memory to get allocated (first fit concentrates on the start of the list)
- Simulations have shown that next fit performs worse than first fit





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Next Fit

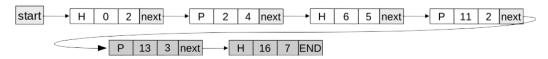
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Operating
System

Process 1

Process 2

Process 3



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First vs. Next Fit

- First fit is a fast and looks for the first available hole
 - It does not account for a better fitting hole later
 - It may break up a large holes early in the list
- Next fit does not change this

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Best Fit

- Best fit searches the entire linked list for the smallest hole big enough to satisfy the request
 - It is slower than first fit.
 - Result in **small leftover holes** (wastes memory)



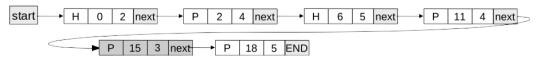


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Best Fit

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Process 2
Process 4
Process 3



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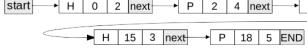
Worst Fit

- Best fit split an empty partition in small holes
- Worst fit finds the largest available partition and splits it
 - The left over part will still be large (potentially more useful)
 - Simulations have shown that worst fit is not good in practice



13/40

next



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Worst Fit

- Tiny holes are created when best fit split an empty partition
- The worst fit algorithm finds the largest available empty partition and splits it
 - The left over part will still be large (and potentially more useful)
 - Simulations have also shown that worst fit is not very good either!





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Summary

- First fit: allocate first block that is large enough
- Next fit: allocate next block that is large enough, i.e. starting from the current location
- Best fit: choose block that matches required size closest O(N) complexity
- Worst fit: choose the largest possible block O(N) complexity

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Dynamic Partitioning

Allocating Available Memory: Quick Fit and Others

- Quick fit maintains lists of commonly used sizes
 - For example a separate list for each of 4K, 8K, 12K, 16K, etc., holes
 - Odd sizes can either go into the nearest size or into a special separate list
- It is much faster to find the required size hole using quick fit
- Similar to best fit, it has the problem of creating many tiny holes
- Finding neighbours for coalescing (combining empty partitions) becomes more difficult/time consuming

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Coalescing

- Coalescing (joining together) takes place when two adjacent entries in the linked list become free
- Both neighbours are examined when a block is freed
 - if either (or both) are also free
 - then the two (or three) entries are combined into one larger block by adding up the sizes
 - The earlier block in the linked list gives the start point
 - The separate links are deleted and a single link inserted

Operating
System

Process 1

Process 2



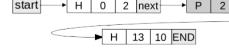
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Process 2 11

Operating System



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Inext

5

next

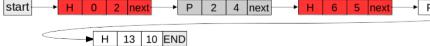
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Process 2

P 11 2 next

Operating System



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Coalescing

start

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 - The earlier block in the linked list gives the start point
 - The **separate links** are deleted and a single link inserted

Process 2 13 10 END lnext

Operating System

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Compacting

- Even with coalescing, free blocks may still distributed across memory
- Compacting can be used but is harder to implement and time consuming
- Processes may have to be moved/swapped out, free space coalesced, and processes swapped back in at lowest available location

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Contiguous Allocation Schemes

Overview and Shortcomings

- Different contiguous memory allocation schemes have different advantages/disadvantages
 - Mono-programming is easy but does result in low resource utilisation
 - Fixed partitioning facilitates multi-programming but results in internal fragmentation
 - Dynamic partitioning & segmentation facilitate multi-programming, reduce internal fragmentation, but result in external fragmentation (allocation methods, coalescing, and compacting help)
- Can we design a memory management scheme that resolves the shortcomings of contiguous memory schemes?

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Paging Principles

- Paging uses fixed partitioning and code re-location to devise a new non-contiguous management scheme:
 - Memory is split into much smaller blocks
 - A process is allocated one or more blocks (e.g., a 11KB process would take up three 4KB blocks)
 - Blocks do not have to be stored in contiguous in physical memory
 - The process perceives them to be contiguous
- Benefits of non-contiguous schemes include:
 - Internal fragmentation is reduced to the last "block" only
 - No external fragmentation (blocks in physical address space are stacked directly on top of each other)

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Principles (Cont'ed)

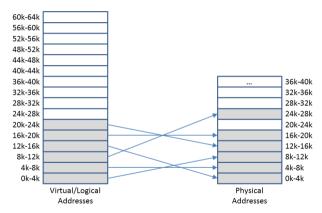


Figure: Paging in physical memory with multiple processes

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Principles (Cont'ed)

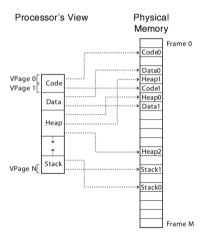


Figure: Paging in main memory with multiple processes (Anderson)

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Principles (Cont'ed)

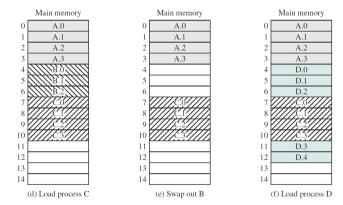


Figure: Concept of Paging (Stallings)

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Principles: Definitions

- A page is a small block of contiguous memory in the logical address space, i.e. as seen by the process
- A frame is a small contiguous block in physical memory
- Pages and frames (commonly) have the same size:
 - The size is usually a power of 2
 - Sizes range between 512 bytes and 1Gb

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Paging Relocation

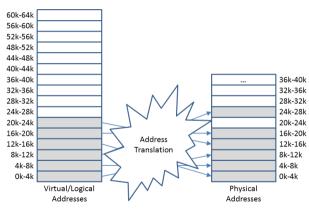


Figure: Address Translation

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Segmentation

Segmentation Table

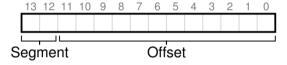


Figure: Logical address for segmentation (offset = position relative to start of segment)

Segment	index	Base	Bound	RWX
Code	00			
Data	01			
Heap	10			
Stack	11			

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Figure: Logical address for page (offset = position relative to start of segment)

Page Number	Frame Number	 	RWX
0000	1010	 	
0001	0100	 	
0010	1111	 	

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Figure: Logical address for page (offset = position relative to start of segment)

Page Number	Frame Number	 	RWX
0000	1010	 	
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0010	1111	 	

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Figure: Logical address for page (offset = position relative to start of segment)

Page Number	Frame Number	 	RWX
0000	1010	 	
0001	0100	 	
0010	1111	 	

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Paging Relocation

- Logical address (page number, offset within page) needs to be translated into a physical address (frame number, offset within frame)
- Multiple "base registers" will be required:
 - Each page has a "base register" that identifies the start of the associated frame
 - A set of base registers must be maintained for every process
- The set of base registers is stored in the page table

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Relocation: Address Translation

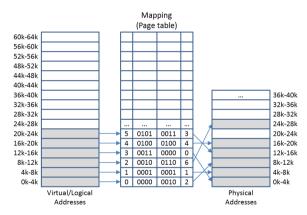


Figure: Address Translation

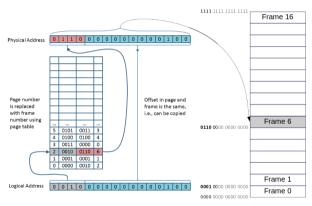
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Relocation: Page Tables

- The page table maps the page number onto the frame number (logical ⇒ physical address)
 - frameNumber=f(pageNumber)
- The page number is used as index to the page table that lists the number of the associated frame
- From the frame number one can calculate the base (offset remains unchanged) is used as index to the page table that lists the number of the associated frame
- Every process has its own page table containing its own set of "base registers"
- The operating system maintains a list of free frames

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Address Translation: Implementation



Physical memory

Figure: Address Translation

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Test Your Understanding

Page tables and memory addressing

Page Tables

Given a **64-bit machine** that uses paging, and a page/frame size of **4KB**.

• What would be the maximum **number of frames**?

2^64 / (4*1024)

• How many entries will we have in the page table?

2^64 / (4*1024)

• How many pages do we have in a 17KB process?

• How much memory is wasted in the last frame?

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Recap

Take-Home Message

- Memory allocation, coalescing and compacting in dynamic partitioning
- Paging, page tables, and address translation

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